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Theoretical Grammar of Modern English. Syntax

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ТЕОРЕТИЧНА ГРАМАТИКА СУЧАСНОЇ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ. СИНТАКСИС

Навчальний посібник

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Рецензенти:

Навчальний посібник «Теоретична граматика сучасної англійської мови. Синтаксис» призначено для студентів першого (бакалаврського) рівня вищої освіти спеціальності 035 Філологія зі спеціалізацією «Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно)». Матеріал посібника викладено з урахуванням програмних вимог до змісту теоретичного курсу. Контент навчального посібника висвітлює як традиційні, так і сучасні підходи до системного вивчення синтаксису англійської мови.

CONTENTS

ПЕРЕДМОВА

Навчальний посібник «Теоретична граматика сучасної англійської мови. Синтаксис» призначено для студентів першого (бакалаврського) рівня вищої освіти спеціальності 035 Філологія зі спеціалізацією «Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно)».

Мета навчального посібника – ознайомити студентів з основними принципами та особливостями синтаксичної будови сучасної англійської мови. Контент навчального посібника містить як загальні тлумачення явищ синтаксису сучасної англійської мови, так і різні точки зору на певні дискусійні питання, вивчення яких супроводжується аргументованим коментарем.

Навчальний матеріал, представлений у посібнику, активізує процес опанування студентами наступними компетентностями:

– проводити ґрунтовний аналіз і критичне зіставлення різних підходів та поглядів на вивчення теоретичних положень і проблем синтаксису сучасної англійської мови;

– оперувати загальнолінгвістичною термінологією та термінологією з теоретичної граматики під час вивчення й обговорення тематичних питань блоку «Синтаксис»;

– інтегрувати та використовувати систематизовані теоретичні та практичні знання з практичної граматики англійської мови, а також знання з суміжних теоретичних та практичних філологічних дисциплін з метою комплексно вивчати синтаксичні явища в опозиційній кореляції "мова :: мовлення";

– декодувати явища синтаксису сучасної англійської мови у порівнянні з аналогічними явищами в українській та російській мовах;

– самостійно опрацьовувати науково-методичну літературу за тематикою матеріалу, що вивчається, висувати аргументовані судження, ставити та вирішувати наукові завдання.

За своєю структурою навчальний посібник складається з двох розділів, списку рекомендованої літератури та глосарію. Перший розділ (*LECTURE NOTE SKETCHES*) містить 6 лекцій: Lecture 1. SYNTAX AS BRANCH OF GRAMMAR. THEORY OF WORD COMBINATION; Lecture 2. SENTENCE: GENERALITIES; Lecture 3. SIMPLE SENTENCE; Lecture 4. COMPOSITE SENTENCE AS A POLYPREDICATIVE CONSTRUCTION; Lecture 5. SEMANTIVS AND PRAGMATICS. EXPRESSED AND IMPLIED MEANING OF UTTERANCE; Lecture 6. TEXT AS AN OBJECT OF RESEARCH. THE PROBLEM OF THE TEXT UNIT. До кожної лекції включено список рекомендованої літератури для поглибленого вивчення кожної теми, а також

перелік питань для самоперевірки, що стимулюють підвищення ефективності засвоювання студентами навчального матеріалу.

У другому розділі (*REVIEW SYNTAX TEST*) навчального посібника запропоновані тестові завдання, які допомагають студентам, проаналізувати та оцінити власну успішність в опануванні матеріалом, скоректувати результати, що досягнуті.

Видання переслідує насамперед навчальні цілі, спрямовані на вирішення завдання теоретичної підготовки майбутніх філологів. Навчальний посібник спрямовано на підвищення у студентів інтересу до теоретичної граматики сучасної англійської мови, у культивуванні в них особистісної потреби в оволодінні знань з цієї навчальної дисципліни, що є певною складовою формування професійної компетенції майбутніх фахівців.

CHAPTER I
LECTURE NOTE SKETCHES

Lecture 1. SYNTAX AS BRANCH OF GRAMMAR.
THEORY OF WORD COMBINATION

Aim: to introduce the generalities of syntax; to determine the subject of the theory of word combination; to disclose the approaches to the definition of the word combination; to analyze the classification of word combination; to decode the correlation between the meaning of a word combination and the meanings of its components.

List of Issues Discussed:

1. **Generalities of Syntax.**
2. **Theory of Word Combination. Definition of the Word Combination.**
3. **Classification of Word Combination.**
4. **Correlation between the Meaning of a Word Combination and the Meanings of its Components.**

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Key notions: syntax, syntagm, semantic modification, syntactic relations, syntactic construction, clause, main (principal) clause, minor syntax, major syntax, sentence, word combination, coordinate word group, subordinate word group, predicative word group, endocentric phrase, exocentric phrase.

1. Generalities of Syntax

The term **syntax**, originating from the Greek words *syn*, meaning "co-" or "together", and *taxis*, meaning "sequence, order, arrangement", is the branch of grammar dealing with the ways in which words are arranged to show connections of meaning within a sentence. It concerns how different words are combined into clauses, which, in turn, are combined into sentences.

For example, in '*He knows better*', there are connections of meaning among *he*, *knows* and *better* which are shown by the order of words (*he+knows+better*) and also, in part, by inflectional agreement between the verb and pronoun (*he knows*).

For the syntactic characterization of a sentence, or of any smaller unit distinguishable within it, grammarians use the equivalent Latin term **construction.** In '*They said he was cleverer*', the last three words have a construction of their own (some grammarians use the term **syntagm** to refer to such syntactic units). We can then talk of a larger construction in which this unit as a whole *(he was cleverer)* is related to *said,* which in its turn is related to *They.* Such relations may be called constructional relations.

For example, in '*She likes perfumes which smell spicy*', there is a syntactic unit, *which smell spicy,* where *spicy* and *which* stand in constructional relations to *smell.* This forms part of a larger unit, *perfumes which smell spicy,* in which the whole of *which smell spicy* stands in constructional relations with *perfumes,* that in turn construes with *likes,* which in its turn is related to *She.*

Any syntactic unit can now be looked at from two angles. Firstly, <u>we can consider it as a whole</u>, for it functions either in isolation or as part of a larger unit. In *perfumes which smell spicy* the last three words form what grammarians call a relative **clause** – a clause whose function is "in relation to" an antecedent noun. In *It smells nice,* we have a **main** (or **principal) clause** which in addition is declarative (having the form appropriate to a statement) as opposed to interrogative (having the form appropriate to a question).

The second characterization is in terms of a unit's internal connections. In '*It smells nice*', the relationship of *it* to *smells nice* is that of a subject to a predicate, where the predicate, in its turn, consists of the predicator *smells* and the predicative *nice.* The unit can then be said to have a "subject-predicator-predicative" pattern. Likewise, in the construction of the word combination *perfumes which smell spicy,* there are two elements which are represented by the noun *perfumes,* on the one hand, and the relative clause, on the other. This is one type of the head-modifier construction, with the clause as a modifier of the head *perfumes.*

A difference of construction can also be seen as a difference of meaning, either of the whole or in at least one relationship between elements. But not every difference of meaning is relevant. For example, '*He sounded a fool*' means that it seems that 'he is foolish'; '*He sounded a trumpet*' means that 'he held the instrument and blew it'. In the first sentence there is a compound nominal

predicate, where *a fool* functions as a predicative; whereas in the second sentence we have deal with a simple verbal predicate where *a trumpet* is an object.

There are two types of syntax in the grammatical theory: **Minor syntax** (the part of syntax dealing with word-combinations (phrase)) and **Major syntax** (the part dealing with sentences).

2. Theory of Word Combination. Definition of the Word Combination

It should be pointed out that syntactic terminology varies from author to author. Thus, grammarians, alongside with the term "word combination", operate with the term "phrase". The definition given to the "phrase" ("every combination of two or more words which is a grammatical unit but is not an analytical form of some word" (B.A. Ilysh's definition)) leaves no doubt as to its equivalence to the term "word combination".

The word combination, along with the sentence, is the main syntactic unit. The smallest word combination consists of two members, whereas the largest word combination may theoretically be indefinitely large though this issue has not yet been studied properly.

It should be mentioned that the generally recognized definition of the word combination has not been agreed upon: it receives contradictory interpretations both from Ukrainian and Western linguists. The traditional point of view, dating back to Prof. Vinogradov's works (i.e. to the middle of the 20th century), interprets the word combination exclusively as subordinate unit. Meanwhile, many linguists tend to treat any syntactically organized group of words as word combination regardless the type of relationship between its elements.

As a rule, the word combination is defined negatively, i.e. such "negative" definitions point out what is not a word combination. Obviously, this is hardly an apt approach, but with no other definition at hand, it may be considered acceptable.

The first negative definition states that *the word combination is not communicatively oriented*. The observation is absolutely adequate, since absence of communicative orientation is one of the most indisputable properties of the word combination. Thus, the difference between a word combination and a sentence is a fundamental one. A word combination, just like a word, is a means of naming some phenomena or processes. Each component of a word combination can undergo grammatical changes in accordance with grammatical categories represented in it, without destroying the identity of the word combination. For instance, in the word combination '*sell Newspapers*', the first component can change according to the verbal categories of tense, mood, etc., and the second component may be modified according to the category of number. Thus, *sells a newspaper, has sold a newspaper, would have sold newspapers* are grammatical modifications of one word combination. In this respect, when the sentence is concerned, things are entirely different. The sentence is a unit with every word

having its definite form. A change in the form of one or more words would produce a new sentence.

The second negative definition states that a *word combination* (just like a word) *has no intonation*. Intonation is one of the most important features of any sentence, which distinguish it from a word combination.

The third negative definition states that a *word combination has communicative purpose*.

The forth negative definition states that a *word combination* (unlike sentence) *is not characterized by the categories of predication, modality, relative completeness of thought*

Thus, despite disagreements concerning the nature of the word combination, the most convincing point of view seems to be the one that defines the **word combination** as a syntactically organized group containing a combination of either lexical words such as *to meet the requirements, happy end, very young* or function words and lexical words such as *in the sun, in the middle, by the window*. The words within a word combination must be bound by one of the types of syntactic relation.

The level of word combinations presupposes only linear distribution of language elements and forms where they have to combine in order to create a syntactic structure.

3. Classification of Word Combination

Prof. Bloch singles out three types of phrases: notional phrases (*traffic rules, to go fast, John and Marry, he writes*, etc.); formative phrases (*at the table, with difficulty, out of sight*, etc.); functional phrases (*from out of, so that, up to*, etc.).

Prof. Barchudarov classified word groups according to the way the headword is expressed. He distinguished coordinate word groups, subordinate word groups and predicative word groups.

Coordinate word groups are groups of words, which have the same function, they are joined together either syndetically or asyndetically (*you and me, Mary and Peter, a low soft voice*).

As to subordinate word groups they always have the head and the adjunct. They are further classified from the point of view of how their headword is expressed:

- Nounal word groups (*mild weather, a country doctor*)
- Adjectival word groups (*dark red, very strong, very nice*)
- Verbal word groups (*to hear a noise, to write a letter*)
- Adverbial word groups (*very well, pretty easily, very suddenly*)

A predicative word group is a special kind of word group with predicative relations between the nominal and the verbal parts. Here belong five main types of complexes:

- The Complex Object
- The Complex Subject
- The For-phrase
- The Gerundial Complex
- The Absolute Nominative Participial Construction

L. Bloomfield distinguishes two main classes of phrases: <u>endocentric phrases</u> (containing a head: word or centre) and <u>exocentric phrases</u> (non-headed).

In the sentence '*Poor John ran away*', the noun *John* may substitute for *Poor John*. – '*John ran away*'. Thus, according to Bloomfield *Poor John* is an <u>endocentric phrase</u>. In the sentence '*Mary and Tom ran away*', both *Tom* and *Mary* may stand for the whole phrase: *Tom ran away*, *Mary ran away*. Thus, this phrase is also endocentric.

<u>Exocentric phrases</u> can't stand for the whole group in a large structure: *John ran*, *beside John*, *in front of John*.

According to the modern approach phrases are subdivided into <u>headed</u> and <u>non-headed</u>. <u>Headed phrases</u> have the head and the adjunct. They are further classified according to:

1) the distribution of the adjunct into <u>progressive</u> (right-hand distribution of the adjunct), e.g. *to write a letter*, a *candidate to the prize* and <u>regressive</u> (left-hand distribution of the adjunct), e.g. *a country doctor*, *mild weather*

2) the way the head-word is expressed into: <u>nounal</u> or <u>substantival</u>, e.g. *sport event*; <u>adjectival</u>, e.g. *very beautiful*; <u>verbal</u>, e.g. *to write a letter*; <u>adverbial</u>, e.g. *very well*.

WORD COMBINATIONS WITH THE HEAD						
Progressive				Regressive		
1. Nounal head	2. Adjectival head	3. Verbal head	4. Prepositional head	5. Adverbial head	6. Adjectival head	7. Nounal head

Examples: 1. *expectations of success*; 2. *prone to disobedience*; 3. *paint a picture*; 4. *at a station*; 5. *very slowly*; 6. *absolutely beautiful*; 7. *a high building*.

<u>Non-headed</u> phrases are divided into:

1) <u>independent</u> (the constituents are relatively independent), e.g. *Mary and John*, he writes and <u>dependent</u> (the constituents depend on the context), e.g. *my own (dog)*, *his old (friend)*

2) <u>one-class</u> (constituents belong to the same part of speech), e.g. *Oxford and Cambridge* and <u>different-class phrases</u> (the constituents belong to different parts of speech), e.g. *I see*

WORD COMBINATIONS WITHOUT THE HEAD				
Independent			**Dependent**	
8. Syndetic coordination	**9. Asyndetic coordination**	**10. Interdependent primary prediction**	**11. Accumulation**	**12. Interdependent secondary predication**

Examples: 8. *black and white*; 9. *men, women, children*; 10. *they left*; 11. *old quaint (house)*; 12. *(to hear) <u>the door slam</u>*.

5. Correlation between the Meaning of a Word Combination and the Meanings of its Components

The meaning of a word combination does not equate to a simple sum of the meanings of its components but appears an intricate interlacement of lexical meaning of combining units.

Thus, for instance, the isolated use of the noun *axis* is associated, first of all, with a part of a construction. However, when this noun is included in a word combination, its meaning undergoes modifications. Thus, for example, in the combination *axis of evil,* the word *axis* ceases to denote *"axis"* as "a technical part", and the whole group *axis of evil* means "the countries whose governments are suspected by the USA in supporting terrorists". The word *house* denotes, under normal conditions, a building. Still, the word combination *the White House* means the US administration.

It should be noted, however, that word combinations where the main meanings of components are preserved appear considerably more typical. Still, the general meaning of a word combination contains something new compared to the meaning of each component and is not a simple sum of meanings of components.

Attributive groups, formed by two nouns, are the best illustration of the statement. Here, the meaning of the whole word combination depends not only on meanings of the components but also on their position in relation to each other. One of the most popular examples of this statement in linguistic literature, illustrating that two groups, with identical components and different in word order, may deliver different meanings, is the combinations *a dog house* and *a house dog*. The meaning of the word combination *a dog house* may be explicated as "a

house in which a dog lives" but the word combination *a house dog* does not necessarily mean "a dog that lives in a house".

Relations between an attribute and a modified noun may be diverse. For example, the word combination *meat pie* denotes a dish, whereas the combination *a meat market* exhibits different relations between the components – it is a market where meat is sold and bought. Accordingly, the combination *a Vietnam village* denotes a village in Vietnam, and the group *an Oxford man* stands for a person educated in the Oxford University.

It is also worth mentioning the correlation between two attributive word combinations formed by nouns: *horse shoes* – "U-shaped iron shoe for a horse" and *alligator shoes* – "shoes made of crocodile skin". The combination '*horse shoes*' does not mean footwear made of horse skin.

The comparison drawn between groups where the head is expressed by an animate noun also reveals different relations between their elements. Compare, for example, the word combinations *an orphan child* and *a wine waiter*. The former may be paraphrased *a child who is an orphan,* while the latter does not allow for such transformations.

Absence of identity between the meaning of a word combination and the simple sum of meanings of its components marks groups of different morphological structure as well. For example, in a group that consists of the combination "adjective + noun", the meaning of the adjective is modified by the noun. Compare, for example, the meanings of the adjective *black* in the following word combinations: *black hair, a black list, a black market, black humour.* Similarly, the same process is observed in verbal combinations: *She moved the tray, and put the table back in its* place (*move* means "change position"); *The story moved me (move* means "touch"); *Curiosity moved me to open the box (move* means "induce, impel"); *I move that we accept the proposal (move* means "suggest"); *Let's move before it's too late (move* means "act, take measures"); *The story moved far too slowly (move* means "develop"); *Booksellers moved easily The Da Vinci Code by Den Brown (move* means "sell"), etc.

Besides <u>semantic modifications</u>, members of a word combination acquire additional characteristics as units participating in syntactic structures and marked by certain types of <u>syntactic relations</u>. In the groups like *meat pie,* there is an attributive relation between the components. In groups with the verbal centre, there is either an object relation *(to move the tray, to move somebody)* or circumstantial *(to move slowly, to move south).*

Thus, when a word is introduced into a syntactic structure, it may change its properties and acquire such characteristics that are not typical when it is used in isolation. These characteristics are the status of a certain <u>sentence</u> part or a word combination (attribute, object, adverbial modifier, etc.).

Lecture 2. SENTENCE: GENERALITIES

Aim: to reveal 'sentence' in the grammatical theory; to disclose the definition of the sentence; to investigate 'predication' and 'modality'; to interpret 'actual division of the sentence' as a phenomenon in the grammatical theory; to introduce 'theme' and 'rheme' as the main components of the actual division of the sentence; to analyze the classifications of sentences; to decode communicative types of sentences.

List of Issues Discussed:

1. 'Sentence' in the Grammatical Theory. Definition of the Sentence.
2. Predication. Modality.
3. Actual Division of the Sentence.
4. Classifications of Sentences.
5. Communicative Types of Sentences.

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Key notions: sentence, syntactic construction, predication, modality, nominative division of the sentence, actual division of the sentence, theme, rheme, one-member sentence, two-member sentence, complete sentence, elliptical sentence, incomplete sentence, verbal sentence, nominal sentence, simple sentence, composite sentence, communicative unit, declarative sentence; imperative (inducive) sentence; interrogative sentence, non-exclamatory sentence, exclamatory sentence.

1. 'Sentence' in the Grammatical Theory. Definition of the Sentence

The notion of sentence has not so far received a satisfactory definition, which would enable us by applying it in every particular case to find out whether a certain linguistic unit is a sentence or not. As a result, there are many definitions of the sentence and many new definitions still appear.

The adequate definition should refer the phenomenon to a certain genus and then point out specific features of the phenomenon that make it unique. Accordingly, it is stated, that the sentence is one of syntactic constructions. The sentence is a meaningful construction, therefore, discussing its specific features, one should characterize the sentence in terms of the three aspects of any meaningful language unit: structure, meaning and communicative function.

– Let's begin with the last aspect. The sentence is a minimal unit of communication. Structural units of a lower rank (i.e. words and word combinations) may function only as its constituents. They are not able to be used in speech independently from the sentence.

– A sentence (even comprising one word), unlike a word or a word combination, denotes some actualized situation, i.e. a situation correlated with the real world. For example, *night* as word is only a vocabulary unit naming a natural phenomenon. The noun *night* is nothing else but a language expression of the concept 'night'. The sentence '*Night*' differs from all the two. The sentence '*Night*' presents the phenomenon of night as a fact of reality. It has acquired modality (the speaker interprets the phenomenon as real), as well as certain time perspective (past, present, future). Actualization is even simpler in sentence with finite verbs: '*the day breaks*' vs '*day break*'. Actualization as syntactic phenomenon is termed predication that consists of the unity of modal and tense categories.

– Relations, binding sentence components, are restricted by sentence boundaries, which appear the most important structural peculiarity of the sentence. None of the words of a given sentence may either subordinate or be subordinated to words outside the sentence.

14

The list of peculiarities is not exhaustive, but it suffices to identify sentences in speech. Thus, <u>the sentence maybe defined as a minimal syntactic construction, used in language communication, characterized by predication and a certain structural pattern</u>.

The definition of the sentence given above includes a rather limited number of features and, therefore, many properties of the sentence are neglected, though they may in some way or the other be related to the properties mentioned in the definition. Consequently, the below-mentioned material may be treated as extended definition of the sentence. So, other properties of the sentence <u>are the following</u>:

– The sentence is the result of the speaker's creative activity.

Creative thought is among other abilities of the human being. Thus, since thought is closely related to speech, creativity in syntax is most natural and obvious. Speakers generate an infinite variety of new sentences. The average speaker does not store in memory sets of ready-made sentences but constructs for occasional use new sentences even in similar situations. It is the sentence that enables the speaker to react creatively and actively to ever-changing dynamic reality, to interact (with the help of language means) with new conditions (both in terms of content and participants of the communication). In the sentence the structure (i.e. structural patterns) is rigid and stable, but it is also characterized by new content and novelty of every sentence. Thus, having a certain number of words and a finite set of rules, the speaker is capable of constructing an endless number of sentences with different structure and content. (But meantime, one should bear in mind such formulas as '*Nice to meet you*', '*Take care*', '*Happy birthday*', '*See you later*').

– The sentence has a form.

The sentence, like any other meaningful language unit, has a form, though native speakers usually see the sentence form as something natural and do not pay particular attention to this sentence characteristic. However, such construction as '*A diggled woggle uggled a wiggled diggle*', (suggested by Ch. Fries), highlight the importance of the form. Some scientists believe that the sentence in question consists of a word forms rather that a sentence form. Still, the sentence is a composite sigh and its form consists of a set of signs of a definite form, variable or invariable, and positioned in a certain order. It is on the basis of formal properties that we treat *Jake owes me five pounds* as sentence and *Five me Jake pounds owes* as non-sentence. Thus, the form of the sentence presupposes many layers and components. In particular, the sentence form includes formal properties of components – sentence parts, their order as well as their number. Grammatically, the order is their mutual sequence, while, phonetically, it is their general intonation pattern.

– Every sentence is intonationally arranged.

Intonational arrangement characterizes every sentence. What is important for sentence is intonation patterns, special for different communicative types of sentences. Thus, intonational patterns are added to structural and grammatical organization of sentences. Interestingly, grammar and phonetics may interact within a sentence, which leads to neutralization of grammatical features. As a result, declarative sentences, pronounced with a certain intonation, may acquire interrogative meaning: '*You don't agree with me*?'.

2. Predication. Modality

In the sentence, the link between the logical subject and the logical predicate is regarded as <u>predication</u>. Predication, which may be defined as act of relating two notions expressed by independent words in order to describe a situation, an event, etc., is one of the most essential features of the sentence. Thus, the most essential difference between a sentence as an independent unit or a subordinate clause ('*Mary taught English.*', '*When Mary taught English ...*') and a word combination (*Mary's teaching English*) or a word as a sentence element (*English*) lies in predication, registered in the sentence and absent in word combinations and words.

Thus, the sentence is characterised by its specific category of predication which establishes the relation of the named phenomena to actual life. The general semantic <u>category of modality</u> is also defined by linguists as exposing the connection between the named objects and surrounding reality. However, modality, as different from predication, is not specifically confined to the sentence; this is a broader category revealed both in the grammatical elements of language and its lexical, purely nominative elements. In this sense, every word expressing a definite correlation between the named substance and objective reality should be recognised as modal. Here belong such lexemes of full notional standing as "probability", "desirability", "necessity" and the like, together with all the derivationally relevant words making up the corresponding series of the lexical paradigm of nomination; here belong semi-functional words and phrases of probability and existential evaluation, such as *perhaps, may be, by all means,* etc.; here belong further, word-particles of specifying modal semantics, such as *just, even, wouldbe,* etc.; here belong, finally, modal verbs expressing a broad range of modal meanings which are actually turned into elements of predicative semantics in concrete, contextually-bound utterances.

As for predication proper, it embodies not any kind of modality, but only syntactic modality as the fundamental distinguishing feature of the sentence. It is the feature of predication, fully and explicitly expressed by a contextually relevant grammatical complex that identifies the sentence in distinction to any other combination of words having a situational referent.

The centre of predication in a sentence of verbal type (which is the predominant type of sentence-structure in English) is a finite verb. The finite verb

expresses essential predicative meanings by its categorial forms, first of all, the categories of tense and mood (the category of person, as we have seen before, reflects the corresponding category of the subject). However, proceeding from the principles of sentence analysis worked out in the Russian school of theoretical syntax, in particular, in the classical treatises of V.V. Vinogradov, we insist that predication is effected not only forms of the finite verb connecting it with the subject, but also by all the other forms and elements of the sentence establishing the connection between the named objects and reality, including such means of expression as intonation, word order, different functional words. Besides the purely verbal categories, in the predicative semantics are included such syntactic sentence meanings as purposes of communication (declaration – interrogation – inducement), modal probability, affirmation and negation, and others, which, taken together, provide for the sentence to be identified on its own, proposemic (sentence) level of lingual hierarchy.

3. Actual Division of the Sentence

The notional parts of the sentence referring to the basic elements of the reflected situation form, taken together, the nominative meaning of the sentence.

For the sake of terminological consistency, the division of the sentence into notional parts can be called the "nominative division" (its existing names are the "grammatical division" and the "syntactic division").

The discrimination of the nominative division of the sentence is traditional; it is this type of division that can conveniently be shown by a syntagmatic model, in particular, by a model of immediate constituents based on the traditional syntactic analysis.

Alongside of the nominative division of the sentence, the idea of the so-called "actual division" of the sentence has been put forward in theoretical linguistics.

The purpose of the actual division of the sentence, called also the "functional sentence perspective", is to reveal the correlative significance of the sentence parts from the point of view of their actual informative role in an utterance, i.e. from the point of view of the immediate semantic contribution they make to the total information conveyed by the sentence in the context of connected speech. In other words, the actual division of the sentence in fact exposes its informative perspective.

The main components of the actual division of the sentence are the theme and the rheme. The theme expresses the starting point of the communication, i.e. it denotes an object or a phenomenon about which something is reported.

The rheme expresses the basic informative part of the communication, its contextually relevant centre.

Between the theme and the rheme are positioned intermediary, transitional parts of the actual division of various degrees of informative value (these parts are sometimes called "transition").

The theme of the actual division of the sentence may or may not coincide with the subject of the sentence. The rheme of the actual division, in its turn, may or may not coincide with the predicate of the sentence – either with the whole predicate group or its part, such as the predicative, the object, the adverbial.

Thus, in the following sentences of various emotional character the theme is expressed by the subject, while the rheme is expressed by the predicate:

E.g.: *Max bounded forward.*

Again Charlie is being too clever!

Her advice can't be of any help to us.

In the first of the above sentences the rheme coincides with the whole predicate group. In the second sentence the adverbial introducer *again* can be characterised as a transitional element, i.e. an element informationally intermediary between the theme and the rheme, the latter being expressed by the rest of the predicate group.

The main part of the rheme – the "peak" of informative perspective – is rendered in this sentence by the intensified predicative *too clever.* In the third sentence the addressee object *to us* is more or less transitional, while the informative peak, as in the previous example, is expressed by the predicative *of any help.*

In the following sentences the correlation between the nominative and actual divisions is the reverse: the theme is expressed by the predicate or its part, while the rheme is rendered by the subject:

E.g.: *Through the open window came the purr of an approaching motor car.*

Who is coming late but John!

There is a difference of opinion between the parties.

The actual division of the sentence finds its full expression only in a concrete context of speech, therefore it is sometimes referred to as the "contextual" division of the sentence. This can be illustrated by the following example:

"*Mary is fond of poetry.*"

In the cited sentence, if we approach it as a stylistically neutral construction devoid of any specific connotations, the theme is expressed by the subject, and the rheme, by the predicate. This kind of actual division is "direct".

On the other hand, a certain context may be built around the given sentence in the conditions of which the order of actual division will be changed into the reverse: the subject will turn into the exposer of the rheme, while the predicate, accordingly, into the exposer of the theme. Cf.:

E.g.: "Isn't it surprising that Tim is so fond of poetry?" – "But you are wrong.

Mary is fond of poetry, not Tim."

The actual division in which the rheme is expressed by the subject is to be referred to as "inverted".

18

Among the formal means of expressing the distinction between the theme and the rheme investigators name such structural elements of language as word-order patterns, intonation contours, constructions with introducers, syntactic patterns of contrastive complexes, constructions with articles and other determiners, constructions with intensifying particles.

The actual division, since it is effected upon the already produced nominative sentence base providing for its contextually relevant manifestation, enters the predicative aspect of the sentence. It makes up the part of syntactic predication, because it strictly meets the functional purpose of predication as such, which is to relate the nominative content of the sentence to reality. This predicative role of the actual division shows that its contextual relevance is not reduced to that of a passive, concomitant factor of expression. On the contrary, the actual division is an active means of expressing functional meanings, and, being organically connected with the context, it is not so much context-governed as it is context-governing: in fact, it does build up concrete contexts out of constructional sentence-models chosen to reflect different situations and events.

One of the most important manifestations of the immediate contextual relevance of the actual division is the regular deletion (ellipsis) of the thematic parts of utterances in dialogue speech. By this syntactic process, the rheme of the utterance or its most informative part (peak of informative perspective) is placed in isolation, thereby being very graphically presented to the listener.

E.g.: “You’ve got the letters?” – “In *my bag*”.
“How did you receive him?” – “*Coldly*”.

In other words, the thematic reduction of sentences in the context, resulting in a constructional economy of speech, performs an informative function in parallel with the logical accent: it serves to accurately identify the rheme of the utterance.

4. Classifications of Sentences

Sentence structure, sentence meaning and pragmatic peculiarities are the three aspects that constitute the foundation for sentence classifications.

There are many structural characteristics that potentially may be chosen to form a structural classification.

• Thus, one may distinguish <u>one-</u> and <u>two-member sentences</u>:

(A two-member sentence is classed as <u>complete</u> when it has both main members of the sentence – a subject and a predicate physically present in the sentence: ‘*They* (the subject) *speak* (the predicate) *English well*’. A two-member sentence is classed as <u>elliptical</u> (<u>incomplete</u>) when either of or even both main members of the sentence are absent from the sentence structure but can be easily recovered. Ellipsis (grammatical omission) regularly occurs in conversation in replies and questions. Here are some examples of elliptical sentences, with an

indication of what has been omitted: *Who's done it? — Tom (has done it).* (The predicate is missing.) *Will she come? — (I) Hope so.* (The subject is missing.) *How do you feel? — (I feel) Strange* (The subject and a part of the predicate are missing.) *Where have you sprung from? — (I've sprung from the) Back yard.* (Both the subject and the predicate are physically absent from the structure of the sentence.)

One-member sentences are mostly used in descriptions and in emotional speech. They consist of a main member of the sentence (either of nominal or verbal origin) which can be unextended or extended. For example: *Home!* (nominal unextended); *Sweet home!* (nominal extended); *To come. To see. To conquer.* (verbal unextended); *To come home! To see your folks!* (verbal extended)).

• <u>Complete</u> and <u>Incomplete sentences</u> (A complete sentence always contains a verb, expresses a complete idea and makes sense standing alone.

'*Andy reads quickly*' – this is a complete sentence as it contains a verb (reads), expresses a complete idea and it does not need any further information for the reader to understand the sentence.

'*When Andy reads*' is an incomplete sentence. It contains a verb, but the opening word when tells us that something happens when Andy reads; we need more information to complete the idea.

'*When Andy reads, he reads quickly*' – this is now a complete sentence, as the whole idea of the sentence has been expressed. The following examples show the incomplete sentences in italics.

'*There is another theory. Which should not be ignored.*'

'There is another theory which should not be ignored.'

'*The proposal was finally rejected. Although they considered it.*'

'Although they considered the proposal, it was finally rejected.'

To check that you are writing in complete sentences, try reading your sentences aloud, pausing as indicated by the punctuation. Can each sentence stand alone as a complete thought? If further information is needed to complete the idea, then it is not a complete sentence.)

• <u>Verbal</u> and <u>nominal sentences</u> (Verbal sentence contains a verb in the predicate position. Nominal sentence does not have a verbal predicate, it may contain a nominal predicate, an adjectival predicate, an adverbial predicate or even a prepositional predicate.)

These and other classifications describe objective language reality and each of them is equally valid and rightful.

According to another structural classification, sentences are divided into <u>simple</u> and <u>composite</u>: a simple sentence contains only one predication, whereas a composite sentence consists of two (or more) predications.

5. Communicative Types of Sentences

The sentence is a communicative unit, therefore the primary classification of sentences must be based on the communicative principle. This principle is formulated in traditional grammar as the "purpose of communication".

The purpose of communication, by definition, refers to the sentence as a whole, and the structural features connected with the expression of this sentential function belong to the fundamental, constitutive qualities of the sentence as a lingual unit.

In accord with the purpose of communication three cardinal sentence-types have long been recognised in linguistic tradition: first, the declarative sentence; second, the imperative (inducive) sentence; third, the interrogative sentence.

These communicative sentence-types stand in strict opposition to one another, and their inner properties of form and meaning are immediately correlated with the corresponding features of the listener's responses.

Thus, the declarative sentence expresses a statement, either affirmative or negative, and as such stands in systemic syntagmatic correlation with the listener's responding signals of attention, of appraisal (including agreement or disagreement), of fellow-feeling.

E.g.: "I think," he said, "that the author should be asked to give us his reasons for publishing that poem."

"We live very quietly here, indeed we do; my niece here will tell you the same."

The imperative sentence expresses inducement, either affirmative or negative. That is, it urges the listener, in the form of request or command, to perform or not to perform a certain action. As such, the imperative sentence is situationally connected with the corresponding "action response", and lingually is systemically correlated with a verbal response showing that the inducement is either complied with, or else rejected.

E.g.: "Let's go and sit down up there, Dinny."
"Send him back!" he said again.

Since the communicative purpose of the imperative sentence is to make the listener act as requested, silence on the part of the latter (when the request is fulfilled), strictly speaking, is also linguistically relevant. This gap in speech, which situationally is filled in by the listener's action, is set off in literary narration by special comments and descriptions.

E.g.: "Knock on the wood." The man leaned forward and knocked three times on the barrier.

The interrogative sentence expresses a question, i.e. a request for information wanted by the speaker from the listener. By virtue of this

communicative purpose, the interrogative sentence is naturally connected with an answer, forming together with it a question-answer dialogue unity.

E.g.: "What do you suggest I should do, then?" said Mary helplessly. – "If I were you I should play a waiting game," he replied.

Naturally, in the process of actual communication the interrogative communicative purpose, like any other communicative task, may sporadically not be fulfilled. In case it is not fulfilled, the question-answer unity proves to be broken; instead of a needed answer the speaker is faced by silence on the part of the listener, or else he receives the latter's verbal rejection to answer.
E.g.: "Why can't you lay off?" I said to her. But she didn't even notice me.

Alongside of the three cardinal communicative sentence-types, another type of sentences is recognised in the theory of syntax, namely, the so-called exclamatory sentence. In modern linguistics it has been demonstrated that exclamatory sentences do not possess any complete set of qualities that could place them on one and the same level with the three cardinal communicative types of sentences.
The property of exclamation should be considered as an accompanying feature which is effected within the system of the three cardinal communicative types of sentences. In other words, each of the cardinal communicative sentence types can be represented in the two variants: non-exclamatory and exclamatory.

E.g.: It was a very small cabin. (non-exclamatory declarative sentence) – What a very small cabin it was! (exclamatory declarative sentence)
What do you mean? (non-exclamatory interrogative sentence) – Whatever do you mean? (exclamatory interrogative sentence)

Imperative sentences, naturally, are characterised by a higher general degree of emotive intensity than the other two cardinal communicative sentence-types. Still, they form analogous pairs, whose constituent units are distinguished from each other by no other feature than the presence or absence of exclamation as such.
E.g.: Try to speak sensibly. (non-exclamatory imperative sentence) – Francis, will you please try to speak sensibly! (exclamatory imperative sentence)

As it is seen from the given examples, all the three pairs of variant communicative types of sentences (non-exclamatory – exclamatory for each cardinal division) make up distinct semantico-syntactic oppositions effected by regular grammatical means of language, such as intonation, word-order and special constructions with functional-auxiliary lexemic elements. It follows from this that the functional-communicative classification of sentences specially distinguishing emotive factor should discriminate, on the lower level of analysis, between the six

sentence-types forming, respectively, three groups (pairs) of cardinal communicative quality.

The interpretation of some of the above-mentioned types of sentences can also be given in another light, namely, taking into consideration such property of the sentence as modality. Sentence with different modality differ remarkably when their structure is concerned. The table below presents the classification.

SENTENCES						
Sentences proper They contain a message, they have (with the exception of nominal sentences) the subject and the predicate and differ from each other only when the way of their correlation with reality is concerned (*Sally sings :: Sally is singing :: Sally has sung*)				**Quasi-sentences** They do not contain a message and have no subject-predicate foundation. These are either forms of address (vocatives) or interjectional sentences expressing emotions or, finally, unchangeable formula-like sentences that serve to establish or to terminate verbal contact.		
Declarative *Sally sings*	**Interrogative** *Does Sally sing*	**Imperative** *Sing*	**Optative** *May Sally sing all the day long*	**Vocative** *Sally*	**Interjectional** *Oh*	**Meta-communicative** *Hello*

Questions and assignments for reflection:

1. What are the main constituting features of the sentence? Give an operational definition of the sentence.

2. What are predication and modality? What means of expressing modality do you know?

3. Interpret 'actual division of the sentence' as a phenomenon in the grammatical theory. What is the purpose of the actual division of the sentence?

4. The main components of the actual division of the sentence are the theme and the rheme. The theme expresses … . The rheme expresses … .

5. What is the "peak" of informative perspective?

6. Analyze the difference between 'direct' actual division of the sentence and 'inverted' one. Give an example.

7. How are sentences classified in English?

8. How do we distinguish one- and two-member sentences?

9. Reveal the difference between complete and incomplete sentences; verbal and nominal sentences; simple and composite sentences.

15. In accord with the purpose of communication three cardinal sentence-types have long been recognised in linguistic tradition. They are … . Analyze each type of the sentences according to its purpose of communication.

16. Disclose the problem of exclamatory sentence.

Lecture 3. SIMPLE SENTENCE

Aim: to introduce 'simple sentence'; to reveal its constituent structure; to investigate the classification of simple sentences; to analyze parts of a simple sentence; to define the essence and the peculiarities of simple complicated sentences.

List of Issues Discussed:

1. Simple Sentence: Constituent Structure. Classification of Simple Sentences.
2. Parts of a Simple Sentence.
3. Simple Complicated Sentences.

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Key notions: sentence, simple sentence, predicative line, monopredication, main parts of the sentence, secondary parts of the sentence, subject, predicate, object, adverbial, attribute, parenthetical enclosure, addressing enclosure (address), interjectional enclosure, insertion, loose (detached) parts of the sentence, model of immediate constituents (the "ICmodel"), unexpanded simple sentence, expanded

simple sentence, two-member (two-axis) sentence, one-member (one-axis) sentence, simple complicated sentence.

1. Simple Sentence: Constituent Structure. Classification of Simple Sentences

The basic predicative meanings of the typical English sentence are expressed by the finite verb which is immediately connected with the subject of the sentence.

This predicative connection is commonly referred to as the "predicative line" of the sentence. Depending on their predicative complexity, sentences can feature one predicative line or several (more than one) predicative lines; in other words, sentences may be, respectively, "monopredicative" and "polypredicative".

Using this distinction, we must say that the simple sentence is a sentence in which only one predicative line is expressed.

> *E.g.:* Bob has never *left* the stadium.
> Opinions *differ*.
> This *may happen* any time.
> The offer *might have been* quite fair.

According to this definition, sentences with several predicates referring to one and the same subject cannot be considered as simple.

E.g.: I *took* the child in my arms and *held* him.
It is quite evident that the cited sentence, although it includes only one subject, expresses two different predicative lines, since its two predicates are separately connected with the subject. The content of the sentence reflects two closely connected events that happened in immediate succession: the first – "my taking the child in my arms"; the second – "my holding him".
Sentences having one verb-predicate and more than one subject to it, if the subjects form actually separate (though interdependent) predicative connections, cannot be considered as simple, either.

E.g.: *The door* was open, and also the *front window.*

Thus, the syntactic feature of strict monopredication should serve as the basic diagnostic criterion for identifying the simple sentence in distinction to sentences of composite structures of various systemic standings.

• The simple sentence, as any sentence in general, is organized as a system of function-expressing positions, the content of the functions being the reflection of a situational event.

The nominative parts of the simple sentence, each occupying a notional position in it, are subject, predicate, object, adverbial, attribute, parenthetical enclosure, addressing enclosure.

A special, semi-notional position is occupied by an interjectional enclosure.

The parts are arranged in a hierarchy, wherein all of them perform some modifying role. The ultimate and highest object of this integral modification is the

sentence as a whole, and through the sentence, the reflection of the situation (situational event).

Thus, the subject is a person-modifier of the predicate.

The predicate is a process-modifier of the subject-person.

The object is a substance-modifier of a processual part (actional or statal).

The adverbial is a quality-modifier (in a broad sense) of a processual part or the whole of the sentence (as expressing an integral process inherent in the reflected event).

The attribute is a quality-modifier of a substantive part.

The parenthetical enclosure is a detached speaker-bound modifier of any sentence-part or the whole of the sentence.

The addressing enclosure (address) is a substantive modifier of the destination of the sentence and hence, from its angle, a modifier of the sentence as a whole.

The interjectional enclosure is a speaker-bound emotional modifier of the sentence.

The traditional scheme of sentence parsing shows many essential traits of the said functional hierarchy. On the scheme presented graphically, sentence-parts connected by bonds of immediate domination are placed one under the other in a successive order of subordination, while sentence-parts related to one another equipotently are placed in a horizontal order. Direct connections between the sentence-parts are represented by horizontal and vertical lines.

By way of example, let us take an ordinary English sentence featuring the basic modifier connections, and see its traditional parsing presentation: *The small lady listened to me attentively* (see Fig. 1).
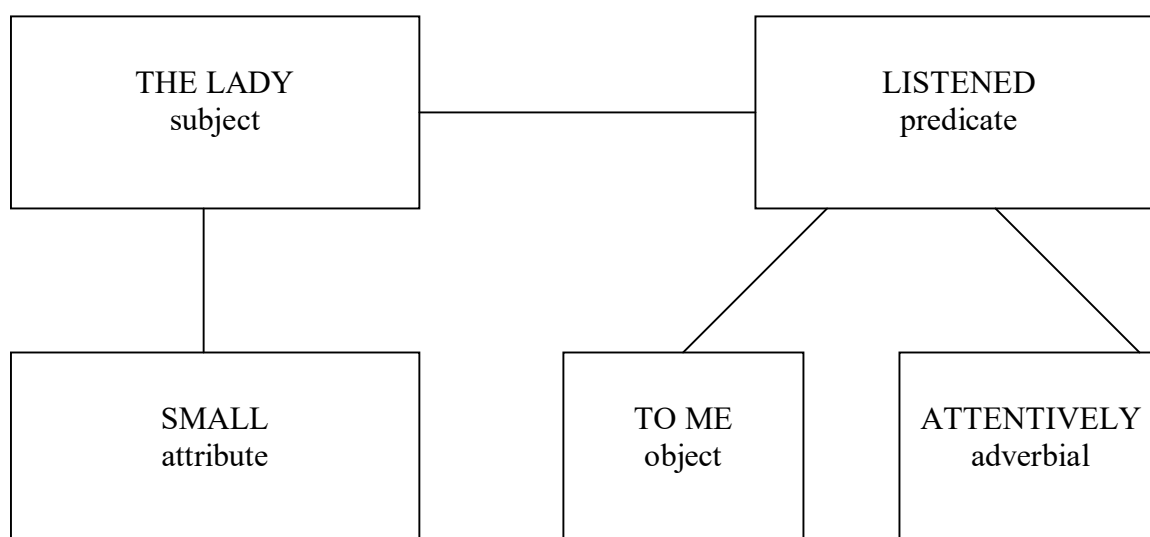

Fig. 1

The scheme clearly shows the basic logical-grammatical connections of the notional constituents of the sentence. However, observing the given scheme carefully, we must note its one serious flaw. As a matter of fact, while distinctly

26

exposing the subordination ranks of the parts of the sentence, it fails to consistently present their genuine linear order in speech.

This drawback is overcome in another scheme of analysis called the "model of immediate constituents" (the "ICmodel"). The model of immediate constituents is based on the group-parsing of the sentence which has been developed by traditional grammar together with the sentence-part parsing scheme. It consists in dividing the whole of the sentence into two groups: that of the subject and that of the predicate, which, in their turn, are divided into their sub-group constituents according to the successive subordinative order of the latter. Profiting by this type of analysis, the IC-model explicitly exposes the binary hierarchical principle of subordinative connections, showing the whole structure of the sentence as made up by binary immediate constituents.

Thus, structured by the IC-model, the cited sentence on the upper level of analysis is looked upon as a united whole ((*The small lady listened to me attentively*) – the accepted symbol S); on the next lower level it is divided into two maximal constituents – the subject noun-phrase ((*The small lady*) – NP-subject) and the predicate verb-phrase ((*listened to me attentively*) –   VP-predicate); on the next lower level the subject noun-phrase is divided into the determiner ((*The*) – det) and the rest of the phrase (*small lady*) to which it semantically refers (NP) , while the predicate noun-phrase is divided into the adverbial ((*attentively*) – D) and the rest of the verb-phrase (*listened to me*) to which it semantically refers (VP); the next level-stages of analysis include the division of the first noun-phrase into its adjective-attribute constituent ((*small*) – A) and the noun constituent ((*lady*) – N), and correspondingly, the division of the verb-phrase into its verb constituent ((*listened*) – V) and object noun-phrase constituent ((*to me*) – NP-obj), the latter being, finally, divided into the preposition constituent ((*to*) – prp) and noun constituent ((*me*) – N). As we see, the process of syntactic IC-analysis continues until the word-level of the sentence is reached, the words being looked upon as the "ultimate" constituents of the sentence.

The described model of immediate constituents has two basic versions. The first is known as the "analytical IC-diagrarm", the second, as the "IC-derivation tree". The analytical IC-diagram commonly shows the groupings of sentence constituents by means of vertical and horizontal lines (see Fig. 2).

THE	SMALL	LADY	LISTENED	TO	ME	ATTENTIVELY
	A	*N*	*V*	*prp*	*NP-pro*	
				NP		
det		*NP*	*VP*			*D*
NP-subj						
			VP-pred			

Fig. 2

The IC-derivation tree shows the groupings of sentence constituents by means of branching nodes: the nodes symbolize phrase-categories as unities, while the branches mark their division into constituents of the corresponding sub-categorial standings (see Fig. 3; 4).
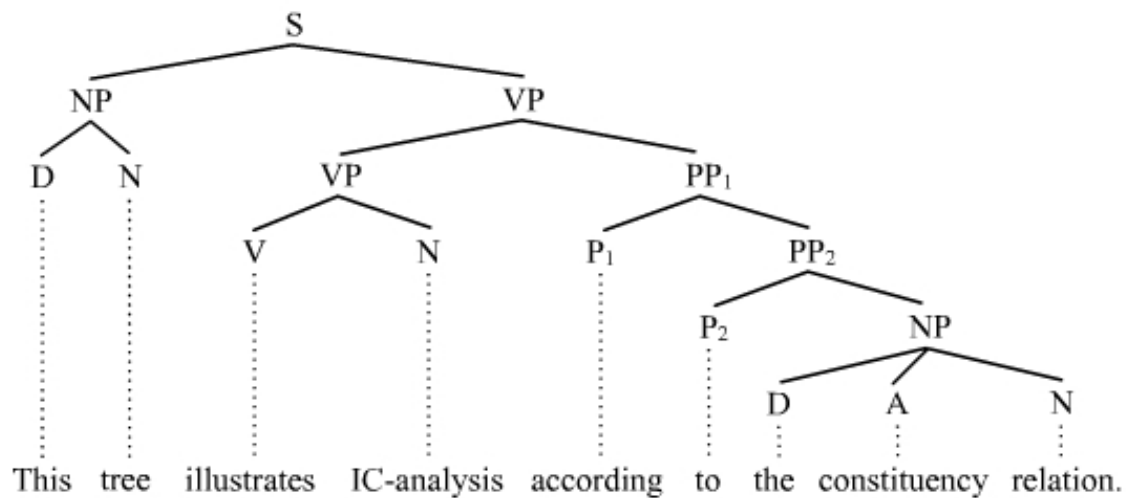
Fig. 3
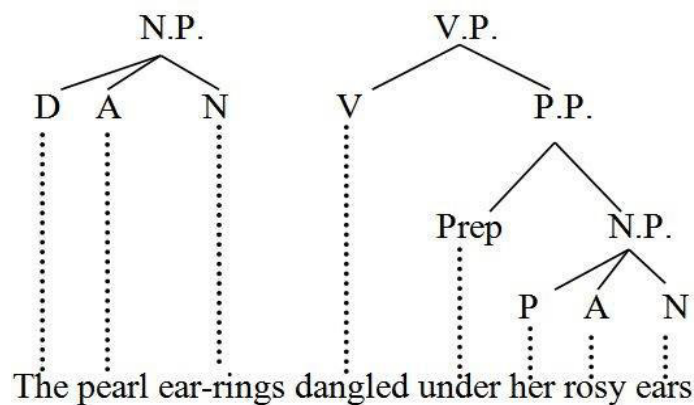
Fig. 4

Bearing in mind that the general identification of obligatory syntactic position affects not only the principal parts of the sentence but is extended to the complementive secondary parts, we define the <u>unexpanded simple sentence</u> as a monopredicative sentence formed only by obligatory notional parts.

<u>The expanded simple sentence</u> will, accordingly, be defined as a monopredicative sentence which includes, besides the obligatory parts, also some optional parts, i.e. some supplementive modifiers which do not constitute a predicative enlargement of the sentence.

Proceeding from the given description of the elementary sentence, it must be stressed that the pattern of this construction presents a workable means of semantico-syntactic analysis of sentences in general. Since all the parts of the elementary sentence are obligatory, each real sentence of speech should be

considered as categorically reducible to one or more elementary sentences, which expose in an explicit form its logical scheme of formation. As for the simple sentence, however intricate and expanded its structure might be, it is formed, of necessity, upon a single-elementary sentence-base exposing its structural key-model.

E.g.: The tall trees by the island shore were shaking violently in the gusty wind.

This is an expanded simple sentence including a number of optional parts, and its complete analysis in terms of a syntagmatic parsing is rather intricate. On the other hand, applying the idea of the elementary sentence, we immediately reveal that the sentence is built upon the key-string "The trees were shaking", i.e. on the syntagmatic pattern of an intransitive verb.

As we see, the notions "elementary sentence" and "sentence model" do not exclude each other, but, on the contrary, supplement each other: a model is always an abstraction, whereas an elementary sentence can and should be taken both as an abstract category (in the capacity of the "model of an elementary sentence") and as an actual utterance of real speech.

• The subject-group and the predicate-group of the sentence are its two constitutive "members" or its "axes" (in the Russian grammatical tradition – «составы предложения»).

According as both members are present in the composition of the sentence or only one of them, sentences are classed into "two-member" ("two-axis") and "one-member" ("one-axis") ones.

In a two-axis sentence, the subject axis and the predicate axis are directly and explicitly expressed in the outer structure. This concerns all the three cardinal communicative types of sentences.

E.g.: The books come out of the experiences.
What has been happening here?
You better go back to bed.

In a one-axis sentence only one axis or its part is explicitly expressed, either the subject axis or and the predicate axis isn't directly and explicitly expressed in the outer structure of the sentence.

E.g.: "Who will meet us at the airport?" – "Mary".
The response utterance is a one-axis sentence with the subject-axis expressed and the predicate-axis implied: → "Mary will meet us at the airport".

E.g.: "And what is your opinion of me?" – "Hard as nails".
The response utterance is a one-axis sentence with the predicate-axis expressed (partially, by its predicative unit) and the subject-axis (together with the link-verb of the predicate) implied: → "You are hard as nails".

All the cited examples belong to "elliptical" types of utterances in so far as they possess quite definite "vacant" positions or zero positions capable of being

supplied with the corresponding fillers implicit in the situational contexts. Summing up the information about the one-axis sentences we must stress the two things: first, they form a minor set within the general system of English sentence patterns; second, they all are related to two-axis sentences either by direct or by indirect association.

• <u>The semantic classification of simple sentences</u> should be effected at least on the three bases: first, on the basis of <u>the subject categorial meanings</u>; second, on the basis of <u>the predicate categorical meanings</u>; third, on the basis of the <u>subject-object relation</u>.

Reflecting <u>the categories of the subject</u>, simple sentences are divided into <u>personal</u> and <u>impersonal</u>.

The further division of <u>personal sentences</u> is into <u>human</u> and <u>non-human</u>; human – into <u>definite</u> and <u>indefinite</u>; non-human – into <u>animate</u> and <u>inanimate</u>.

The further essential division of <u>impersonal sentences</u> is into <u>factual</u> ("*It rains*, *It is five o'clock*) and perceptional (*It smells of hay here*).

The differences in subject categorial meanings are sustained by the obvious differences in subject-predicate combinability.

Reflecting <u>the categories of the predicate</u>, simple sentences are divided into <u>process-featuring</u> ("<u>verbal</u>") and, in the broad sense, <u>substance-featuring</u> (including substance as such and substantive quality – "nominal").

Among the process-featuring sentences <u>actional</u> and <u>statal</u> ones are to be discriminated ("*The window is opening.*" – "*The window is glistening in the sun.*"); among the substance-featuring sentences <u>factual</u> and <u>perceptional</u> ones are to be discriminated ("*The sea is rough.*" – "*The place seems quiet.*").

Finally, reflecting <u>the subject-object relation</u>, simple sentences should be divided into <u>subjective</u> ("*John lives in London.*"), <u>objective</u> ("*John reads a book.*") and <u>neutral</u> or "<u>potentially" objective</u> ("*John reads.*"), capable of implying both the transitive action of the syntactic person and the syntactic person's intransitive characteristic.

2. Parts of a Simple Sentence

• Main parts of a simple sentence

<u>The subject</u> and <u>the predicate</u> are the main parts of the sentence and they constitute the backbone of any sentence, they are the bearers of predicativity and modality.

The subject and the predicate modify each other, while other parts of the sentence (secondary parts of the sentence) serve only to modify the subject or the predicate, or one another, or the whole sentence. The sentence usually can exist even without secondary parts of the sentence.

So, the status of the subject and the predicate is unique, as well as their mutual relations based on interdependence, while the rest of the parts of the sentence are immediately or intermediarily dependent on the subject or/and predicate. That is why a sentence is first and foremost parsed into the subject group and the predicate group.

Subject

The subject denotes the thing (in the widest sense of the word) whose action or characteristic is expressed by the predicate. It is independent member of a two-member sentence containing the person component of predication. The subject may be expressed by different parts of speech, even by prepositions and other functional parts of speech if they are substantivized (e.g.: *'The' is an article.*). One of the characteristic features of Modern English is that, unlike Ukrainian, there exist the so-called formal and introductory (anticipatory, provisional) subjects (the anticipatory '*it*', the introductory '*there*'): 1. *'It is raining now.'* (the pronoun 'it' is used here as a formal subject; 2. *'It is necessary to go there now.'* (the pronoun 'it' is used as an anticipatory subject); 3. *'There is a book on the table.'* (the word 'there' is used as an anticipatory subject).

NB: *The formal subject expressed by 'it' is found in two patterns of sentences: those with impersonal it and those with introductory it.*

1. The formal subject 'it' is impersonal *when it is used in sentences describing various states of nature, things in general, characteristics of the environment, or denoting time, distance or other measurements.*

It's spring.

It's cold today.

It's freezing.

It's still too hot to start.

It seems that he was frank.

It turned out that she was deaf.

Sentences with impersonal 'It' are usually rendered in Ukrainian by means of impersonal (subjectless) sentences.

2. The formal subject 'it' is introductory (anticipatory) *if it introduces the notional subject expressed by an infinitive, a gerund, an infinitive/gerundial phrase, a predicative complex, or a clause. The sentence thus contains two subjects: the formal (introductory) subject it and the notional subject, which follows the predicate.*

It's impossible to deny this.

It thrilled her to be invited there.

It gave him a pain in the head to walk.

It was no good coming there again.

It would be wonderful for you to stay with us.

It was lucky that she agreed to undertake the job.

It did not occur to her that the idea was his.

In Modern English there also exist the so-called 'complex subjects' expressed by various predicative constructions, such as the Subject Infinitive construction, the Subjective Participial construction, the For-to-Infinitive construction: '*All students are required to pass through a medical examination*', '*He was seen crossing the street* ', '*For me to go there now is impossible*'.

It is maintained by grammarians that a secondary predication is observed between the components of complex subjects because the relations between them resemble the relations between the subject and the predicate of full-fledged sentences.

Predicate

The predicate is another main part of the sentence. It denotes the action or property of the thing expressed by the subject.

Predicates in Modern English and Ukrainian may be classified into simple and compound on the one hand and verbal and nominal, on the other hand. Predicates may be further classified into compound verbal or compound nominal predicates, compound modal or aspect predicates, etc.

The simple verbal predicate denotes an activity performed (suffered) by the object.

It is expressed by the finite form of the verb in the required tense, mood, aspect and voice. It can also be expressed by a set expression (phrase). Simple verbal predicates may be one-word predicates (the so-called simple synthetic predicates, for example, '*I like chocolate*' and more-than-one-word predicates (the so-called simple analytical predicates). Simple analytical predicates consist of the word which is the bearer of the lexical meaning of the predicate and one or more grammatical word-morphemes which are bearers of grammatical meanings (of tense, voice, etc.), for example, '*They have been in the library for two hours*'. There also exist simple phraseological predicates: '*I took care of his sister*', '*I lost sight of my friend*'.

The compound verbal predicate is a predicate consisting of two or more verbs, one of which is bearer of the lexical meaning, while another verb (verbs) is (are) lexico-grammatical word-morphemes. Modal verbs and their semantic equivalents, the link-verb '*to be*' and its semantic equivalents, and, at last, the so-called 'phrase verbs' are considered to be lexico-grammatical word-morphemes. Phrase verbs are the verbs denoting the three phases of any action: the beginning, duration and the end. To the phrase verbs belong such verbs as *to begin* and its

semantic equivalents, *to continue* and its semantic equivalents, *to stop* and its semantic equivalents. The compound predicate containing a modal verb or its equivalents is called a compound modal predicate, while the compound predicates containing a phrase verb are referred to as compound aspect(ive) predicates: *We must go now* (a compound verbal modal predicate); *He is to come tomorrow* (a compound modal predicate); *We began to study (studying) English last year* (a compound verbal aspective predicate); *He stopped smoking* (a compound verbal aspective predicate) but *He stopped to smoke* (a simple verbal synthetic predicate with an adverbial modifier of purpose).

It should be mentioned that some grammarians (Prof B. Ilyish, Prof G. Potcheptsov) rightly deny the existence of compound aspective predicates alongside of compound verbal modal predicates with the verb of intention, of liking and disliking (*to intend*, *to want*, *to like, to dislike*, *hate*). For example, '*I want to sleep*', '*He intends to go there*'. According to Prof B. Ilyish, in these examples we have simple verbal predicates with objects expressed by infinitives.

Many grammarians also distinguish the so-called double (contaminated) predicates in Modern English: '*The moon rose red*' (= *the moon rose + the moon was red*); '*She married young*'; '*They go hungry*'. As can be seen from the examples, such predicates consist of a finite form of a notional verb and a predicative. Prof G. Potcheptsov calls such predicates "simple contaminated predicates". Predicates can also be mixed: '*You mustn't go hungry*'.

Like verbal predicates, nominal predicates may also be subdivided into compound and simple. Compound nominal predicates consist of a link verb or its equivalent and a predicative which can be expressed by various parts of speech: '*They are teachers* (*clever*, *here*)'.

Simple nominal predicates are nominal predicates with a missing link verb: '*Wonderful!*' (in this example both the subject of the sentence and the link verb are missing), '*He a gentleman?!*'.

• **Secondary parts of the sentence**

The secondary parts of the sentence severe to modify the main parts or each other. Traditionally they are subdivided into: objects, attributes, various adverbial modifiers and some other secondary parts, e.g. direct address, parentheses, insertion, sentence-modifiers. In most cases the secondary parts are optional but there are some cases when the presence of a secondary part is indispensable because without it the sentence would make no sense: '*He was a brute, though a nice kind of brute*'. As it has been mentioned above a sentence without secondary parts is called unexpected sentence: '*She is a student*', '*John is sleeping*', '*He smiled*'.

Classification of secondary parts is based both on grammatical and semantic criteria. The attribute is a secondary part of the sentence modifying a noun or a noun-pronoun and denoting its property in a wide sense of the word; the object

modifies a verb, adjective or a noun; the adverbial modifier modifies a verb or an adjective.

It is not always easy to draw a hard-and-fast line between secondary parts of the sentence, especially when they are expressed by prepositional phrases. This holds true both for English and Ukrainian: '*The door of the kitchen was closed*' (*of the kitchen* – a prepositional object or an attribute?); '*The buttons are in the box*' (*in the box* – an object or an adverbial modifier?).

Such difficulties are mainly caused by the fact that by so far there exist no objective criteria for differentiating between the secondary parts besides the traditional subjective criterion of putting logical questions "What?", "On what?", "Where?", which leads to arbitrary conclusions. Such a state of things even brings some grammarians to despair. Thus, for instance, A. Peshkovsky proposed even to discard any classification of the secondary parts of the sentence. He suggested only distinguishing between the "governed" secondary parts and "non-governed" ones. B. Ilyish suggested that, perhaps, it would be better to classify the secondary parts into attributes, objects, adverbial modifiers and all the doubtful cases consider to be just "secondary parts".

Object

If an object refers to a verb, it denotes a thing (person) involved in a process and grammatically more or less closely connected with the verb it modifies. But as it has been mentioned above, it may refer to a noun or to an adjective, e.g. *a cup of tea, nice of manners*.

In Modern English objects may be expressed by nouns, pronouns, infinitives, gerunds, numerals and, as a matter of fact, by any substantivized part of speech. Grammatically objects may be subdivided into prepositional and prepositionless, semantically – into direct, indirect and non-directed. In case there are both direct and indirect objects to one verb the indirect object comes first, the direct object following it: '*Tell me the truth!*' – '*Tell the truth to me!*'

Some linguists also speak of the so called object-objects, object-subjects, object-addressees: *to write a book* (object-object); *the book was written by M.V. Gogol*; *to write a letter to somebody* (object-addressee).

G. Curme and N. M. Rayevska also distinguish between the so-called cognate objects and objects of result. The cognate object is the object which is both etymologically and semantically or only semantically related to the verb to which it refers: *to smile a happy smile* (= *to smile happily*); *to live a happy life* (= *to live happily*); *to fight a heroic battle* (= *to fight heroically*). As one might have noticed, sentences with cognate objects are stylistic variants of the semantically corresponding sentences with adverbs.

If an object is expressed by an infinitive or a gerund, as B. A. Ilyish points out, there is no sense in asking whether the object is direct or indirect, since the action does not pass over onto any thing or person. The same holds true of the

complex objects expressed by the Objective-with-the-Infinitive and Objective-with-the-Participle constructions. They are non-governed.

A striking peculiarity of Modern English is the existence in it of the so-called formal (or introductory) object *it* and the complex objects mentioned above: '*I find it impossible to go there now.*'; '*I saw him running.*'; '*I like her singing.*'; '*He waited for me to come.*'.

In Modern Ukrainian and Russian one can only occasionally come across structures similar to the English Objective-with-the-Infinitive and the Objective-with-the-Participle constructions: '*Що змусило тебе прийти до мене?*'; '*Она увидела его заходившим в магазин.*'.

Attribute

Like in Modern Ukrainian and Russian, the attribute in Modern English is a secondary part of the sentence modifying a noun or noun-pronoun and denoting its property 9in a wide sense of a word).

In Modern English, as well as in Modern Ukrainian, the attribute may be expressed by adjectives, numerals, participles, nouns with prepositions, infinitives, by word groups and even by whole attributive subordinate clauses.

A striking idioethnic feature of Modern English is the fact that not only nouns in the Genitive case but also nouns in Common case may be used in it there in the function of an attribute: *Tom's book, stone wall.* There are many cases in Modern English, especially in newspaper headings, when not one but several nouns at a time modify the head-noun: *Kyiv street traffic regulation rules.*

The existence of complex attributes expressed by the *for-phrase* is also striking peculiarity of Modern English.

Adverbial modifier

It is a secondary part of a sentence modifying a part expressed by a verb, verbal noun or an adverb (adjective) and serving to characterize the action or property as to their quality or intensity or to indicate the circumstances under which the action takes place or with which the manifestation of the quality is connected. It, as it were, expresses a property of an action or property of a property.

N. A. Kobrina and E. A. Korneyeva distinguish between the adverbial modifiers (adverbials) of inner quality (of actions or properties) and the adverbial modifiers of situation (to the latter belong the adverbials of place, time, cause, condition, etc.)

The situational adverbials, especially those of time and place, are much more independent of the verb they modify than objects. The adverbial modifiers of time and place may refer to several parts of the sentence simultaneously or even to the whole sentence, while the object is grammatically connected only with the verb, noun or adjective: *to read a book, a cup of tea, beautiful of face* and '*There were*

many flowers <u>in the room</u>', '*He was very young and inexperienced <u>at that time</u>*'. Due to the ability the position of such adverbial modifiers in the sentence is rather free.

Adverbial modifiers in Modern English (as well as in Modern Ukrainian) may be e[pressed by adverbs, nouns with prepositions, participles and whole complex adverbial sentences.

A peculiarity of Modern English is the existence in it of various complex adverbial modifiers expressed by the so-called predicative constructions (complexes) with secondary predication, namely: the Nominative Absolute Participial construction, the For-phrase, the With-phrase: '*<u>Weather permitting, we'll go for a walk</u>*' (adverbial modifier of condition); '*<u>The whistle given, the train started</u>*' (adverbial modifier of time), '*He stepped aside <u>for me to pass</u>*' (adverbial modifier of purpose), '*The box is too heavy <u>for me to lift</u>*' (adverbial modifier of result), '*The hunter went home, <u>(with) his dog running behind him</u>*' (prepositional absolute participial construction in the function of an adverbial modifier of attending circumstances).

Many grammarians also point out such secondary parts of the sentence as the **apposition**, **direct address**, **parenthesis** and **insertion**. Their status has been treated by different scholars in various ways. Thus, for instance, the <u>apposition</u> is often treated of as a special kind of the attribute. It is a word or phrase referring to a part of the sentence expressed by a noun which gives some other designation to the person or thing named by that noun: *Captain Smollett*, *Aunt Polly*, *President Roosevelt*, etc. B. A. Ilyish and some other grammarians rightly do not back the point of view that the apposition is a special kind of attribute. In this connection they compare such word combinations as *stone wall* and *President Roosevelt* from which it is clear that the word *stone* is an attribute because *stone wall* means '*wall made of stone*', while *President Roosevelt* means '*Roosevelt who is President*' (the meaning of identification is implied).

The direct address and parenthesis are such elements which are neither main nor (in any usual way) secondary ones and which are often considered to be 'outside' the sentence.

<u>Parentheses</u> are words or phrase which have no syntactical ties with the sentence and express the attitude of the speaker to what he says, a general assessment of the statement. The following modal words and expressions are generally used parenthetically: *(un)fortunately*, *perhaps*, *probably*, *evidently*, *obviously*; *to tell the truth, ...*; *to cut a long story short ...*; *to be sure ...*; *no doubt*, etc. Interjections or their equivalent phrases (unless they are sentences in themselves) can also be considered to be a kind of parenthesis. Parentheses are used at the beginning of the sentence but, occasionally, in the middle or at the end of the sentence.

<u>Insertions</u> are various additional statements inserted in the sentence. They are: various additional remarks, clarifications, extra information, etc. Naturally, insertions are used in the middle of the sentence or, occasionally, at the end but

never at the beginning: *And at last he came (though five minutes late, as a matter of fact) and said: "What's happening here?"*

Loose (detached) parts of the sentence are such parts which are less intimately connected with the rest of the sentence than other parts and thus have some sort of syntactical independence which finds its expression in the intonation and in the punctuation. The main parts of the sentence and the direct object cannot be loose ones, while other parts of the sentence can become detached thus acquiring various additional shades of meaning: *Unable to sit there any longer, he got up and started walking* (a loose attribute with a shade of casual meaning); *Living or dead, she could not fail him* (a loose attribute with a concessive tinge).

Adverbial modifiers are the most detachable parts of the sentence, especially the adverbial modifiers of time and place: '*On the third of June, a sudden silence fell on the wires from the North*'; '*In Aunt Polly's house, especially in summer, there always were many guests*' but '*The house was very odd, to a Forsyte eye*' (a prepositional object with a concessive tinge).

The extreme case of detachment is parceling, when the detached part is separated from the rest of the sentence by a full stop mark: '*She was very kind. To him.*'. Parceling is an effective stylistic device with some authors.

3. Simple Complicated Sentences

There also exist sentences transitional from simple to composite: these are complicated sentences. Prof. I. V. Korunetz calls them "semi-compound sentences". These are: 1. Sentences with homogeneous parts (especially with homogeneous subjects and predicates); 2. Sentences with the so-called dependent appendixes; 3. Sentences with the so-called predicative constructions (complexes) which contain secondary predication.

Homogeneous parts of the sentence are parts of the same category (e.g.: two or more subjects to one predicate or two or more predicates to one subject, etc.) standing in the same relation to other parts of the sentence. The sentences with two or more homogeneous subjects or predicates are traditionally called contrasted sentences: '*John and Peter are bosom friends*', '*He sat in an arm-chair and smoked*'. Such sentences cannot be considered either simple or complex, they are just transitional between simple and composite sentences. The reason why we cannot call such sentences compound is that they have only one subject and thus cannot be separated into two clauses.

Sentences with dependent appendixes are sentences with phrases consisting of conjunctions and nouns or pronouns, adjectives, adverbs or participles: '*Jane is more diligent than you*' (= than you are); '*John is as diligent as you*' (= as you are); '*Though wounded, he continued to fight*' (= though he was wounded he continued to fight); '*She was speaking slowly and vaguely, as if in a dream*' (= as if she were in a dream); '*Denis tried to escape, but in vain*' (= but he tried in vain); '*She looked at me, as if wondering*' (= as if she were wondering). Sentences with a

dependent appendix are structures which clearly overstep the limits of the simple sentence and tend towards the complex sentence, but which lack an essential feature of a complex sentence. They include:

1) phrases consisting of the conjunction than and a noun, pronoun, or phrase following an adjective or adverb in the comparative degree (e.g. *I have met many people much smarter than you.*);

2) sentences containing an adjective or adverb, which may be preceded by the adverb as, and an additional part consisting of the conjunction as and some other word (an adjective, a noun, or an adverb) (e.g. *Her features were as soft and delicate as those of her mother.*).

In each case a finite verb might be added at the end (either *be*, or *do*, or *have*, or *can*, etc.), and then the sentence would become a complex one, but as they are, such sentences occupy an intermediate position between complex and simples sentences.

It should be borne in mind that if we complete the appendixes thus transforming them into clauses, then we'll obtain full-fledged composite sentences.

<u>Sentences with secondary predication.</u> Every sentence has predication, without it there would be no sentence. In a usual two-member sentence the predication is between the subject and the predicate. There are also sentences that contain one more predication, which can be termed secondary predication.

In English there are several ways of expressing secondary predication:

1) the complex object (e.g. *I saw you take it.*) The syntactic function of the group *you take* (or of its elements) can be considered either a complex object (in this case the group is treated is a single syntactic unit) or an object and an objective predicative. The choice between the two interpretations remains arbitrary. There is no universal approach.

O. Jespersen has proposed the term "nexus" for every predicative grouping of words, no matter by what grammatical means it is realized. He distinguishes between a "junction", which is not a predicative group of words (e. g. *reading man*) and "nexus", which is one (e. g. *the man reads*). If this term is adopted, we may say that in the sentence *I saw him run* there are two nexuses: the primary one *I saw*, and the secondary *him run*. In a similar way, in the sentence *I found him ill*, the primary nexus would be *I found*, and the secondary *him ill*.

2) the absolute construction (e.g. *The sun having set they made a fire.*). The absolute construction expresses attending circumstances – something that happens alongside of the main action. This secondary action may be the cause of the main action, or its condition, etc., but these relations are not indicated by any grammatical means. The absolute construction is, as we have seen, basically a feature of literary style and unfit for colloquial speech. Only a few more or less settled formulas such as weather permitting may be found in ordinary

conversation. Otherwise colloquial speech practically always has subordinate clauses where literary style may have absolute constructions.

Questions and assignments for reflection:

1. Introduce 'simple sentence' and reveal its constituent structure.
2. Analyze the classification of simple sentences.
3. What is the subject of the sentence? By what means can the subject be expressed?
4. What is peculiar about the English subject (as compared with Modern Ukrainian)?
5. What is the predicate of the sentence? Name the types of predicates in Modern English?
6. What do the secondary parts of the sentence modify?
7. Is the presence or absence of some secondary parts always optional?
8. On what criteria is the classification of the secondary parts based?
9. Why is it not always easy to draw a hard-and-fast line of demarcation between the secondary parts of the sentence?
10. Introduce the classifications of grammatical objects.
11. By what parts of speech can objects be expressed?
12. Can the objects be expressed by the non-finite forms of the verb?
13. Can complex object function as direct or indirect one? Why?
14. What types of grammatical objects that exist in Modern English are absent in Modern Ukrainian?
15. What are the peculiarities of the attribute in Modern English?
16. How are the adverbial modifiers classified?
17. Give a comment on the direct address, parenthesis, insertion and loose part of the sentence.
18. Define the essence and the peculiarities of simple complicated sentences.

Lecture 4. COMPOSITE SENTENCE AS A POLYPREDICATIVE CONSTRUCTION

Aim: to reveal the essence of the definition of the composite sentence; to analyze the compound sentence; to study the grammatical peculiarities of the complex sentence; to dispose the general description of the asyndetic sentences; to decode the approaches to classifying asyndetic composite sentences; to introduce a semi-composite sentence as a syntactic construction of an intermediary type between the composite sentence and the simple sentence.

List of Issues Discussed:

1. The Definition of the Composite Sentence.

2. Compound Sentence.
3. Complex Sentence.
4. Asyndetic Sentences.
5. Semi-composite Sentence.

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Key notions: sentence, composite sentence, polypredication, polypredicative construction, compound sentence, complex sentence, coordination, subordination, clause, sub-clause, syndeton, asyndeton, semi-composite sentence.

1. The Definition of the Composite Sentence

• The composite sentence, as different from the simple sentence, is formed by two or more predicative lines. Being a polypredicative construction, it expresses a complicated act of thought, i.e. an act of mental activity which falls into two or more intellectual efforts closely combined with one another. In terms of situations and events this means that the composite sentence reflects two or more elementary situational events viewed as making up a unity; the constitutive connections of the events are expressed by the constitutive connections of the predicative lines of the sentence, i.e. by the sentential polypredication.

Each predicative unit in a composite sentence makes up a clause in it, so that a clause as part of a composite sentence corresponds to a separate sentence as part of a contextual sequence.

E.g.: When I sat down to dinner I looked for an opportunity to slip in casually the information that I had by accident run across the Driffields; but news travelled fast in Blackstable.

The cited composite sentence includes four clauses which are related to one another on different semantic grounds. The sentences underlying the clauses are the following: *I sat down to dinner. I looked for an opportunity to slip in casually*

40

the information. I had by accident run across the Driffields. News travelled fast in Blackstable.

The following characteristics should be kept in mind when discussing composite sentences:
- the type of syntactic connection (coordination or subordination);
- the rank of predicative constructions, that is, the place occupied by the predicative construction in the hierarchy of clauses;
- presence or absence of connectors and their character.

A general classification of composite sentences can be based on the first two criteria – the type of syntactic connection and the rank of predicative constructions. Here <u>compound</u> and <u>complex sentences</u> are singled out. In the compound sentence predicative constructions of the high rank are connected by means of <u>coordination</u> while in the complex sentence – by means of <u>subordination</u>.

According to the way in which parts of the composite sentence are joined together, two types can be singled out:
1) <u>syndetic</u> (by means of connectors);
2) <u>asyndetic</u> (without any connectors).

The connector can either be a conjunction, a pronoun or an adverb. If it is a conjunction, its function in the sentence is to join the clauses together. If it is a pronoun or an adverb (i.e. a relative pronoun or a relative adverb), then it serves as a part of one of the two clauses which are joined (a subject, object, adverbial modifier, etc.), and also joins the two clauses together.

There can be disputable cases when it is not quite clear a composite sentence is syndetic or asyndetic. It depends on the way we view a particular word: '*The one thing she seems to aim at is Individuality; yet she cares nothing for individuals.*'.

The second clause of the composite sentence opens with the word yet, so we may say that it is an adverb and the connection is asyndetic, or else, that it is a conjunction and the connection is syndetic.

The use of composite sentences, especially long and logically intricate ones, is characteristic of literary written speech rather than colloquial oral speech. This unquestionable fact is explained by the three reasons: one relating to the actual <u>needs of expression</u>; one relating to the <u>possibilities of production</u>; and one relating to the <u>conditions of perception</u>. That the composite sentence structure answers the special needs of written mode of lingual expression is quite evident. It is this type of speech that deals with lengthy reasonings, descriptions, narrations, all presenting abundant details of intricate correlations of logical premises and inferences, of situational foreground and background, of sequences of events interrupted by cross-references and parenthetical comments. Only a composite sentence can adequately and within reasonable bounds of textual space fulfill these semantic requirements.

As it has been mentioned above composite sentences display two principal types of construction: <u>hypotaxis (subordination)</u> and <u>parataxis (coordination)</u>.

By <u>coordination</u> the clauses are arranged as units of syntactically equal rank, i.e. equipotently; by <u>subordination</u>, as units of unequal rank, one being categorially dominated by the other. In terms of the positional structure of the sentence it means that by subordination one of the clauses (subordinate) is placed in a notional position of the other (principal). This latter characteristic has an essential semantic implication clarifying the difference between the two types of polypredication in question.

As a matter of fact, <u>a subordinate clause</u>, however important the information rendered by it might be for the whole communication, presents it as naturally supplementing the information of the principal clause, i.e. as something completely premeditated and prepared even before its explicit expression in the utterance. This is of especial importance for post-positional subordinate clauses of circumstantial semantic nature. Such clauses may often shift their position without a change in semantico-syntactic status.

E.g.: I could not help blushing with embarrassment when I looked at him. → When I looked at him I could not help blushing with embarrassment.

The board accepted the decision, though it didn't quite meet their plans. → Though the decision didn't quite meet their plans, the board accepted it.

As for <u>coordinated clauses</u>, their equality in rank is expressed above all in each sequential clause explicitly corresponding to a new effort of thought, without an obligatory feature of premeditation.

In accord with the said quality, <u>a sequential clause in a compound sentence refers to the whole of the leading clause</u>, whereas <u>a subordinate clause in a complex sentence, as a rule, refers to one notional constituent (expressed by a word or a phrase) in a principal clause</u>.

It is due to these facts that the position of a coordinate clause is rigidly fixed in all cases, which can be used as one of the criteria of coordination in distinction to subordination. Another probe of rank equality of clauses in coordination is a potential possibility for any coordinate sequential clause to take either the copulative conjunction *and* or the adversative conjunction *but* as introducers.

E.g.: That sort of game gave me horrors, so I never could play it. → That sort of game gave me horrors, *and* I never could play it. The excuse was plausible, only it was not good enough for us. → The excuse was plausible, *but* it was not good enough for us.

The means of combining clauses into a polypredicative sentence are divided into <u>syndetic</u>, i.e. conjunctional, and <u>asyndetic</u>, i.e. non-conjunctional. The great controversy going on among linguists about this division concerns the status of

syndeton and asyndeton versus coordination and subordination. Namely, the question under consideration is whether or not syndeton and asyndeton equally express the two types of syntactic relations between clauses in a composite sentence.

According to the traditional view, all composite sentences are to be classed into <u>compound sentences</u> (coordinating their clauses) and <u>complex sentences</u> (subordinating their clauses), syndetic or asyndetic types of clause connection being specifically displayed with both classes. However, this view has been subjected to energetic criticism; the new thesis formulated by its critics is as follows: the "formal" division of clause connection based on the choice of connective means should be placed higher in the hierarchy than the "semantic" division of clause connection based on the criterion of syntactic rank.

That is, on <u>the higher level of classification</u> all the composite sentences should be divided into syndetic and asyndetic, while on <u>the lower level</u> the syndetic composite sentences (and only these) should be divided into compound and complex ones in accord with the types of the connective words used.

The cited principle was put forward by N. S. Pospelov as part of his syntactic analysis of Russian, and it was further developed by some other linguists.

In the composite sentences mentioned above the constitutive predicative lines are expressed separately and explicitly: the described sentence types are formed by minimum two clauses each having a subject and a predicate of its own. Alongside of these "completely" composite sentences, there exist constructions in which one explicit predicative line is combined with another one, the latter being not explicitly or completely expressed. To such constructions belong, for instance, sentences with homogeneous predicates, as wall as sentences with verbid complexes.

E.g.: Philip *ignored* the question and *remained* silent.
I *have* never before *heard* her *sing.*
She *followed* him in, *bending* her head under the low door.

That the cited utterances do not represent classical, explicitly constructed composite sentence-models admits of no argument. At the same time they cannot be analysed as genuine simple sentences, because they contain not one, but more than one predicative lines, though presented in fusion with one another. This can be demonstrated by explanatory expanding transformations: ... → Philip ignored the question, (and) he remained silent.
... → I have never before heard how she sings.
... → As she followed him in, she bent her head under the low door.

The performed test clearly shows that the sentences in question are derived each from two base sentences, so that the systemic status of the resulting constructions is in fact intermediary between the simple sentence and the

composite sentence. Therefore these predicative constructions should by right be analysed under the heading of semi-composite sentences.

The result of the predicative blend is terseness of expression, which makes semi-composite constructions of especial preference in colloquial speech.

Thus, composite sentences as polypredicative constructions exist in the two type varieties as regards the degree of their predicative explicitness: first, composite sentences of complete composition; second, composite sentences of concise composition. Each of these types is distinguished by its own functional specification, occupies a permanent place in the syntactic system of language and so deserves a separate consideration in a grammatical description.

There is also the problem of communicative types of composite sentences – in the case when the clauses belong to different communicative types: '*He bought a silver box, but how beautiful it was!*' (in this sentence the first clause is declarative, while the second one is an exclamatory clause), '*Why didn't you come, though you had been invited?*' (the main clause is interrogative and the subordinate clause is a declarative one). Nowadays it is held by grammarians that in compound sentences every clause is characterized by its own communicative type since the clauses in such sentences are syntactically independent. Naturally, in complex sentences the communicative type is defined in accordance with the communicative type of the main clause, since the subordinate clause is syntactically dependent on it. So, the second of the above given composite sentences, as a whole, is an interrogative sentence.

2. Compound Sentence

The compound sentence is a composite sentence built on the principle of coordination. Coordination, the same as subordination, can be expressed either syndetically (by means of coordinative connectors) or asyndetically.

The compound sentence is derived from two or more base sentences which, as we have already stated above, are connected on the principle of coordination either syndetically or asyndetically. The base sentences joined into one compound sentence lose their independent status and become coordinate clauses parts of a composite unity. The first clause is "leading" (the "leader" clause), the successive clauses are "sequential". This division is essential not only from the point of view of outer structure (clause-order), but also in the light of the semantico-syntactic content: it is the sequential clause that includes the connector in its composition, thus being turned into some kind of dependent clause, although the type of its dependence is not subordinative. Indeed, what does such a predicative unit signify without its syntactic leader?

The coordinating connectors, or coordinators, are divided into conjunctions proper and semi-functional clausal connectors of adverbial character.

The main coordinating conjunctions, both simple and discontinuous, are: *and*, *but*, *or*, *nor*, *neither*, *for*, *either ... or*, *neither ... nor*, etc.

The main <u>adverbial coordinators</u> are: *then*, *yet*, *so*, *thus*, *consequently*, *nevertheless*, *however*, etc. The adverbial coordinators, unlike pure conjunctions, as a rule can shift their position in the sentence (the exceptions are the connectors *yet* and *so*).

E.g.: *Mrs. Dyre stepped into the room, however the host took no notice of it.* → *Mrs. Dyre stepped into the room, the host, however, took no notice of it.*

Some typical fixed prepositional phrases functioning as sentence linkers are: *at least*, *as a result*, *after a while*, *in addition*, *in contrast*, *in the next place*, *on the other hand*, *for example*, *for instance*.

Coordinate connectors can established different semantic relations between clauses. Coordinate sentence linkers can be grouped in the following way:

1. Copulative, connecting two members and their meanings, the second member indicating an addition of equal importance, or, on the other hand, an advance in time and space, or an intensification, often coming in pairs, then called correlatives: *and*; *both... and*; *equally... and*; *alike... and*; *at once... and*; *not* (*or never*)*... not* (*or nor*)*... either*; *neither... nor*, etc.

2. Disjunctive, connecting two members but disconnecting their meaning, the meaning in the second member excluding that in the first: *or*, and in questions *whether... or* with the force of simple *or*; *or... either*; *either... or*, etc., the disjunctive adverbs *else*, *otherwise*, *or... or*, *or... else*, in older English *other else*.

3. Adversative, connecting two members, but contrasting their meaning: *but*, *but then*, *only*, *still*, *yet*, *and yet*, *however*, *on the other hand*, *again*, *on the contrary*, etc.

4. Causal, adding an independent proposition explaining the preceding statement, represented only by the single conjunction *for*: *The brook was very high, for a great deal of rain had fallen over night.*

5. Illative, introducing an inference, conclusion, consequence, result: *namely*, *therefore*, *on that account*, *consequently*, *accordingly*, *for that reason*, *so*, *then*, *hence*, etc.

6. Explanatory, connecting words, phrases or sentences and introducing an explanation or a particularization: *namely*, *to wit*, *that is*, *that is to say*, *or*, *such as*, *as*, *like*, *for example*, for instance, *say*, *let us say*, etc.

The length of the compound sentence in terms of the number of its clausal parts (its predicative volume), the same as with the complex sentence, is in principle unlimited; it is determined by the informative purpose of the speaker. The commonest type of the compound sentence in this respect is a <u>two-clause construction</u>.

On the other hand, predicatively longer sentences than two-clause ones, from the point of view of semantic correlation between the clauses, are divided into "<u>open</u>" and "<u>closed</u>" constructions. "<u>Open</u>" constructions may be further expanded by additional clauses, e.g.: They were sitting on the beach, the seagulls were flying

above, the waves were rolling... . These are used as descriptive and narrative means in a literary text. In "closed" coordinative constructions the final part is joined on an unequal basis with the previous ones and the finalization of the chain of ideas is achieved, e.g.: He joked, he made faces, he jumped around, but the child did not smile.

The structure of the closed coordinative construction is most convenient for the formation of expressive climax.

3. Complex Sentence

• The complex sentence is a polypredicative construction built up on the principle of subordination. It is derived from two or more base sentences one of which performs the role of a matrix in relation to the others, the insert sentences. The matrix function of the corresponding base sentence may be more rigorously and less rigorously pronounced, depending on the type of subordinative connection realised.

When joined into one complex sentence, the matrix base sentence becomes the principal clause of it and the insert sentences, its subordinate clauses.

The complex sentence of minimal composition includes two clauses – a principal one and a subordinate one. Although the principal clause positionally dominates the subordinate clause, the two form a semantico-syntactic unity within the framework of which they are in fact interconnected, so that the very existence of either of them is supported by the existence of the other.

The subordinate clause is joined to the principal clause either by a subordinating connector (subordinator), or, with some types of clauses, asyndetically. The functional character of the subordinative connector is so explicit that even in traditional grammatical descriptions of complex sentences this connector was approached as a transformer of an independent sentence into a subordinate clause.

E.g.: Moyra left the room. → (I do remember quite well) that Moyra left the room. → (He went on with his story) after Moyra left the room. → (Fred remained in his place) though Moyra left the room. → (The party was spoilt) because Moyra left the room. → (It was a surprise to us all) that Moyra left the room...

This paradigmatic scheme of the production of the subordinate clause vindicates the possible interpretation of contact-clauses in asyndetic connection as being joined to the principal clause by means of the "zero"-connector.

E.g.: (How do you know) **0** Moyra left the room?

Needless to say, the idea of the zero-subordinator simply stresses the fact of the meaningful (functional) character of the asyndetic connection of clauses, not denying the actual absence of connector in the asyndetic complex sentence.

The minimal, two-clause complex sentence is the main volume type of complex sentences. It is the most important type, first, in terms of frequency, since its textual occurrence by far exceeds that of multi-clause complex sentences; second, in terms of its paradigmatic status, because a complex sentence of any volume is analyzable into a combination of two-clause complex sentence units.

• The structural features of the principal clause differ with different types of subordinate clauses. In particular, various types of subordinate clauses specifically affect the principal clause from the point of view of the degree of its completeness.

The principal clause dominates the subordinate clause positionally, but it doesn't mean that by its syntactic status it must express the central informative part of the communication. The information perspective in the simple sentence does not repeat the division of its constituents into primary and secondary, and likewise the information perspective of the complex sentence is not bound to duplicate the division of its clauses into principal and subordinate. The actual division of any construction, either it is simple or otherwise, is effected in the context, so it is as part of a continual text that the complex sentence makes its clauses into rheme-rendering and theme-rendering on the complex-sentence information level.

When we discussed the problem of the actual division of the sentence, we pointed out that in a neutral context the rhematic part of the sentence tends to be placed somewhere near the end of it. This holds true both for the simple and complex sentences, so that the order of clauses plays an important role in distributing primary and secondary information among them.

E.g.: The boy was friendly with me because I allowed him to keep the fishing line.

In this sentence the principal clause placed in the front position evidently expresses the starting point of the information delivered, while the subordinate clause of cause renders the main sentential idea, namely, the speaker's explanation of the boy's attitude. The "contraposition" presupposed by the actual division of the whole sentence is then like this: "*Otherwise the boy wouldn't have been friendly*". If the clause-order of the utterance is reversed, the informative roles of the clauses will be re-shaped accordingly: *As I allowed the boy to keep the fishing line, he was friendly with me.*

Of course, the clause-order, the same as word-order in general, is not the only means of indicating the correlative informative value of clauses in complex sentences; intonation plays here also a crucial role, and it goes together with various lexical and constructional rheme-forming elements, such as emphatic particles, constructions of meaningful antithesis, patterns of logical accents of different kinds.

Speaking of the information status of the principal clause, it should be noted that even in unemphatic speech this predicative unit is often reduced to a sheer introducer of the subordinate clause, the latter expressing practically all the essential information envisaged by the communicative purpose of the whole of the sentence.

E.g.: *You see* that mine is by far the most miserable lot.
Just fancy that James has proposed to Mary!
You know, kind sir, that I am bound to fasting and abstinence.

The principal clause-introducer in sentences like these performs also the function of keeping up the conversation, i.e. of maintaining the immediate communicative connection with the listener. This function is referred to as "<u>phatic</u>". Verbs of speech and especially thought are commonly used in phatic principals to specify "in passing" the speaker's attitude to the information rendered by their rhematic subordinates:
E.g.: *I think* there's much truth in what we hear about the matter.
I'm sure I can't remember her name now.

Many of these introducer principals can be re-shaped into parenthetical clauses on a strictly equivalent basis by a mere change of position:
E.g.: There's much truth, *I think,* in what we hear about the matter.
I can't remember her name now, *I'm sure.*

• There exist two different bases of classification of subordinate clauses: the first is <u>functional</u>, the second is <u>categorial</u>.

According to <u>the functional principle</u>, subordinate clauses are divided on the analogy (though, not identity) of the positional parts of the simple sentence that underlies the structure of the complex sentence. Thus, one may distinguish between the subject subordinate clause, the predicative subordinate clause, the object subordinate clause, the attributive subordinate clause and the adverbial subordinate clause.

E.g.: <u>What you see</u> is what you get. – The subject subordinate clause
My only wish was <u>that he should be altogether honest</u>. – The predicative subordinate clause
They told us <u>that the teacher was disappointed by his answer</u>. – The object subordinate clause
Yesterday I met an old school fellow <u>whom I recognized at once</u>. – The attributive subordinate clause
She passed the course <u>because she worked hard</u>. – The adverbial subordinate clause

The <u>categorical principle</u> is based on the correlation with parts of speech. Subordinate clauses can be divided into <u>three categorial-semantic groups</u>: <u>substantive-nominal</u>, <u>qualification-nominal</u> and <u>adverbial</u>.

Substantive-nominal subordinate clauses name an event as a certain fact, e.g.: What you do is very important. (What is very important?)

<u>Qualification-nominal subordinate clauses</u> name a certain event, which is referred, as a characteristic to some substance, represented either by a word or by another clause, e.g.: Where is the letter that came today? (What letter?)

<u>Adverbial subordinate clauses</u> name a certain event, which is referred, as a characteristic to another event, to a process or a quality, e.g.: I won't leave until you come.

• The two principles of subordinate clause classification are mutually complementary: the categorial features of clauses go together with their functional sentence-part features similar to the categorial features of words going together with their functional characteristics. Thus, subordinate clauses are to be classified into <u>three groups</u>: first, <u>clauses of primary nominal positions</u>, including subject, predicative and object clauses; second, <u>clauses of secondary nominal positions</u>, including various attributive clauses; and third, <u>clauses of adverbial positions</u>.

The following types of subordinate clauses are usually differentiated based on the semantic relations between the principal and the subordinate clause:

1. <u>Subject</u> and <u>Predicate Clauses</u>

A subject clause may contain either a statement or a question. In the former case it is preceded by that: in the latter it is introduced by the same words as interrogative object clauses.

  e.g. *That she wants to help us is beyond any doubt.*
   When he is coming has not been decided yet.

Commoner that the patterns with the initial that are sentences introduced by it, with the that-clause in end-position.

  e.g. *It is clear that he will never agree to it.*

2. <u>Object Clauses</u>

The simplest case of such clauses are patterns in which a sub-clause can be replaced by a noun which could be then an object in a simple sentence.

  e.g. *I know what she wants.*
   You can take whatever you like.

3. <u>Attributive Clauses</u>

Like attributive adjuncts in a simple sentence, attributive clauses qualify the thing denoted by its head word through some actions, state or situation in which the thing is involved.

It has been customary to make distinction between two types of attributive sub-clauses: <u>restrictive</u> and <u>continuative</u> or <u>amplifying clauses</u>

("defining" and "non-defining") This division is however too absolute to cover all patterns.

Restrictive clauses are subordinate in meaning to the clause containing the antecedent; continuative clauses are more independent: their contents might often be expressed by an independent statement giving some additional information about the antecedent that is already sufficiently defined. Continuative clauses may be omitted without affecting the precise understanding of the sentence as a whole. This is marked by a different intonation, and by a clear break preceding the continuative clause, no such break separating a restrictive clause from its antecedent. The presence or absence of such a pause is indicated in writing and in print by the presence or absence of a comma before as well as after the sub-clause.

4. Clauses of Cause

Clauses of cause are usually introduced by the conjunctions because, since, and as and indicate purely causal relations.

> e.g. *I had to go home since it was getting dark.*
>
> *As we have just bought a new house, we cannot afford a new car.*
>
> *I did not arrive on time because I had missed my bus.*

5. Clauses of Place

Clauses of place do not offer any difficulties of grammatical analysis; they are generally introduced by the relative adverb where or by the phrase *from where*, *to where*, etc.

> e.g.: *He went to the cafe where he hoped to find his friend.*

6. Temporal Clauses

Temporal clauses can be used to denote two simultaneous actions or states, one action preceding or following the other, etc.

> e.g. *When we finished our lunch, we left.*

7. Clauses of Condition

Conditional sentences can express either a real condition ("open condition") or an unreal condition:

> e.g. *If you ask him he will help you.* (real condition)
>
> *If you asked him, he would help you.* (unreal condition)

8. Clauses of Result

Clauses of result or consequence are characterized by two patterns: – clauses introduced by the conjunction that correlated with the pronoun *such* or the adverb *so* in the main clause; – clauses introduced by the phrasal connective *so that*.

> e.g. *Suddenly she felt so relieved that she could not help crying.*

50

9. Clauses of Purpose

Clauses expressing purpose are known to be introduced by the conjunction *that* or *lest* and by the phrase *in order that*.

e.g. *I avoided mentioning the subject lest he be offended.*

10. Clauses of Concession

The following types of concessive clauses are clauses that give information about the circumstances despite or against which what is said in the principal clause is carried out:

e.g. *I went to the party, though I did not feel like it.*

11. Clauses of Manner and Comparison

Sub-clauses of manner and comparison characterize the action of the principal clause by comparing it to some other action.

e.g. <u>She was nursing the flower, as a mother nurses her child.</u>

3. Asyndetic Sentences

In some composite sentences clauses are not attached to one another in any grammatical way, they simply abut against each other, they make contact but are not connected. Grammar books differ in identifying the linguistic essence of such syntactic structures. In traditional grammar asyndetic sentences, just as syndetic ones, were classified into compound and complex. For instance, the sentence '*He came to her; she did not move*' would be classed among the compound sentences, and the sentence '*I can see what you are driving*' at among complex ones.

This traditional treatment of asyndetic composite sentences was criticized by some scholars. For example, a different approach is found in N. S. Pospelov's treatments of asyndeton in Russian syntax where asyndetic sentences are viewed as a special syntactic category with no immediate relevance to subordination or coordination.

Various approaches to classifying asyndetic composite sentences have been sought, but none of them has provided an adequate interpretation of this phenomenon so far.

According to Prof. Ilyish, in some types of asyndetic composite sentences, there is a main and a subordinate clause, while the other types of asyndetic sentences do not admit of such a distinction.

e.g. *This is the most interesting book I have ever read.* – attributive clause

I think you should go there right away. – object clause

Should any problems occur, give me a call. – conditional clause

The old man felt offended; he had been treated unjustly. – causal clause

He pressed the button, something clicked inside. – clause of result

As it can be seen from the above examples, the semantic relations between clauses are signaled only by the lexical meaning of the words making up the sentence. This example is illustrative of the interaction between vocabulary and syntax which should not be overlooked in grammatical analysis.

5. Semi-composite Sentence

Both composite and semi-composite sentences are polypredicative syntactic constructions: they have two or more predicative lines. The difference between the two is in the degree of independence of predicative lines:

in a composite sentence the predicative lines are expressed separately, they are fully predicative, each with a subject and a predicate (expressed by a finite form of the verb) of its own;

in a semi-composite sentence the predicative lines are fused, blended, with at least one predicative line being semi-predicative (potentially predicative, partially predicative). In other words, in a semi-composite sentence, one predicative line can be identified as the leading, or dominant one, and the others are semi-predicative expansions.

Paradigmatically, the semi-composite sentence, being a polypredicative construction, is derived from two base sentences. E.g.: I saw her entering the room. (I saw her. + She was entering the room.). The second kernel sentence has been phrasalized, transformed into a participial phrase (*her entering the room*), and combined with the first sentence. The two predicative lines fuse, overlapping around the common element, *her*, which performs the function of the object of the leading, fully predicative part.

Thus, the semi-composite sentence can be defined as a syntactic construction of an intermediary type between the composite sentence and the simple sentence: in its "surface", syntactic structure, it is similar to a simple sentence, because it contains only one fully predicative line; in its "deep", semantic structure and in its derivational history, the semi-composite sentence is similar to a composite sentence, because it is derived from two base sentences and reflects two dynamic situations.

Semantically, the semi-composite sentence reflects the speaker's presentation of two situationally connected events as being more closely united than the events described in the clauses of a composite sentence: one of the events (usually, the one in the semi-predicative semi-clause) is presented as a by-event, as a background situation in relation to the other, dominant event (usually, the one in the fully predicative semi-clause).

Semi-composite sentences, like composite sentences of complete composition, are further subdivided into semi-compound sentences, built on the

principle of coordination (parataxis), and semi-complex sentences, built on the principle of subordination (hypotaxis).

In the semi-complex sentence, one kernel sentence functions as a matrix into which the insert kernel sentence is embedded: the insert sentence is transformed into a partially predicative phrase and occupies the position of a nominative part in the matrix sentence. The matrix sentence becomes the dominant part of the semi-complex sentence and the insert sentence becomes its subordinate semi-clause.

Predicative fusion in semi-complex sentences may be effected in two ways: by the process of position-sharing (word-sharing) or by the process of direct linear expansion.

Sentences based on position-sharing fall into two types: sentences of subject-sharing and sentences of object-sharing.

Semi-complex sentences of subject-sharing are built up by means of two base sentences overlapping round a common subject, e.g.: They married young. (They married. + They were young.). The predicate in such sentences is defined as a double predicate, because it is a blend of a verbal predicate with a nominal predicate. Semi-complex sentences with double predicates express the simultaneity of two events, with the informative prominence on the semi-predicative complicator part; this can be shown by the transformation of the sentence into a correspondent complex sentence, e.g.: *When they married, they were young.*

Another type of the semi-complex sentence of subject-sharing is sentences which include the so-called complex subject constructions; in these sentences, the verb in the dominant part is used in the passive, and the complicator part includes either a participle, or an infinitive, e.g.: *She was seen to enter the room / entering the room*.

In semi-complex sentences of object-sharing, the common element, round which the fully-predicative and the semi-predicative parts overlap, performs the function of an object in the leading part (the matrix) and the function of the subject in the complicator semi-clause (the insert); for example, in sentences with complex object constructions, which include either a participle, or an infinitive, e.g.: I saw her entering / enter the room. (I saw her. + She was entering the room.). Such sentences express the simultaneity of two events in the same place (with verbs of perception in the dominant part) or various mental attitudes (with the verbs *to tell*, *to report*, *to think*, *to believe*, *to find*, *to expect*, etc. in the dominant part).

There are other types of object-sharing semi-complex sentences, expressing the relations of cause and result, e.g.: The fallen rock knocked him unconscious. (The fallen rock knocked him. + He became unconscious.). Some causative verbs and verbs of liking/disliking are not normally used outside of semi-complex sentences of object-sharing; such complex sentences can be described as sentences of "bound" object-sharing, e.g.: *They made me leave*; *We made him a star*; *I had my hair done*; *I want the room done*; *I like my steaks raw*. Most semi-complex

sentences of the object-sharing type, though not all of them, are transformable into sentences of the subject-sharing type, e.g.: I saw her entering / enter the room. → She was seen entering / to enter the room; The fallen rock knocked him unconscious. → He was knocked unconscious by the fallen rock. As the examples show, the complicator part in semi-complex sentences of subject-sharing and of object-sharing may include non-finite forms of the verb (the Infinitive, Participle I or Participle II), nouns or adjectives.

Semi-complex sentences of direct linear expansion include sentences with attributive, adverbial and nominal complication.

Semi-complex sentences of attributive complication are built up by means of two base sentences, one of which is transformed into a semi-predicative post-positional attribute to the antecedent element in the matrix sentence, e.g.: The girl crying in the hall looked familiar to me. (The girl looked familiar to me. + The girl was crying.) Being linear expansions, attributive semi-clauses are easily restored to the related attributive pleni-clauses with verbal or nominal predicates, e.g.: The girl crying in the hall looked familiar to me. (The girl, who was crying in the hall, looked familiar to me); You behave like a schoolboy afraid of his teacher. (You behave like a schoolboy who is afraid of his teacher).

Semi-complex sentences of adverbial complication are derived from two base sentences, one of which, the insert sentence, is predicatively reduced and embedded into an adverbial position of the other one, the matrix sentence, e.g.: When asked about her family, she blushed. (She was asked about her family. + She blushed.). Adverbial complication can be either conjoint or absolute: if the subject of the insert sentence is identical with the subject of the matrix sentence, it is deleted and a conjoint adverbial semi-clause is built, as in the example above; otherwise, the subject remains and an absolute adverbial construction is built, e.g.: The weather being fine, we decided to have a walk. (The weather was fine. + We decided to have a walk) ; I won't speak with him staring at me like that. (I won't speak. + He is staring at me.). The partial predicate in an adverbial semi-clause is expressed by a participle (in so-called participial adverbial constructions), or is dropped, if it is the pure link verb to be (except for impersonal sentences, in which the verb to be is not deleted), e.g.: A child of seven, he was already an able musician. (He was a child of seven. + He was already an able musician); I can't sleep with the radio on. (The radio is on. + I can't sleep.).

Semi-complex sentences of nominal complication are derived from two base sentences, one of which, the insert sentence, is partially nominalized (changed into a verbid phrase with an infinitive or a gerund) and embedded in one of the nominal positions of the other sentence, the matrix. Like other types of linear complication, infinitive and gerundial nominal semi-clauses are easily transformed into related fully-predicative subordinate clauses (nominal or adverbial), e.g.: I sent the papers in order for you to study them carefully before the meeting. → I sent the papers so

that you could study them carefully before the meeting; We expected him to write a letter to you. → We expected that he would write a letter to you.

The specific features of nominal semi-clauses are connected with the specific features of the infinitive and the gerund; for example, the infinitive after a subordinative conjunction implies modal meanings of obligation, possibility, etc., e.g.: The question is what to do next. → The question is what we should do next; I sent the papers in order for you to study them carefully before the meeting. → I sent the papers so that you could study them carefully before the meeting; or, gerundial nominal constructions may be introduced by prepositions and may include a noun in the genitive or a possessive pronoun, e.g.: I can't approve of his hiding himself away.

• The semi-compound sentence, as was mentioned above, is a semi-composite sentence built on the principle of coordination (parataxis). Paradigmatically, the semi-compound sentence is built by two or more base sentences, which have an identical subject or an identical predicate (or both); in the process of semi-compounding, the two predicative lines overlap around the common element, the other principal parts being coordinated. For example, sentences with coordinated (homogeneous) predicates are derived from two or more base sentences having identical subjects; they build a poly-predicate subject-sharing type of semi-compound sentence, e.g.: She entered the room and closed the door behind her. (She entered the room. + She closed the door behind her.). One of the base sentences, as the example shows, becomes the leading clause of the semi-compound sentence, and the other one is transformed into the sequential coordinate semi-clause (expansion), referring to the same subject.

As for coordinated homogeneous subjects referring to the same predicate (building a poly-subject predicate-sharing type of semi-compound sentence), not all of them build separate predicative lines, but only those which are discontinuously positioned, or those which are connected adversatively, or contrastingly, or are detached in some other way, e.g.: Tom is participating in this project, and Jack too; Tom, not Jack, is participating in this project. (Tom is participating in this project. + Jack is (not) participating in this project.). Coordinated subjects connected in a plain syntagmatic string (syndetically or asyndetically) do not form separate predicative lines with the predicate, but are connected with it as a group subject; this is shown by the person and number form of the predicate, e.g.: Tom and Jack are participating in this project.

The coordinative connections between the parts of semi-compound sentences are the same as the connections in compound sentences proper: unmarked coordination is expressed by the purely copulative conjunction and or by the zero coordinator; marked coordination includes the relations of disjunction (alteration), consequence, elucidation, adversative relations, etc..

Semi-compound sentences are transformable into related pleni-compound sentences with identical subjects or identical predicates, but such transformations

show the functional differences between the two types of constructions. In particular, their actual division is different: the actual division of the compound sentence presents two informative perspectives joined in a complex, while the semi-compound sentence presents one perspective with a complex rheme. Besides, the repetition of an identical subject or predicate in a compound sentence makes it a communicatively intense, emotionally accented syntactic structure, e.g.: I can't work, I can't think, I can't be, because of me.

Besides semi-composite sentences proper, there are <u>sentences of primitivized type</u>, which include no secondary predicative constructions, but can still be traced to two situational events (they are sometimes treated as sentences with some "traces", or "hints" of secondary predication, or with "covert secondary predication"); for example, in cases where one of the base sentences is fully nominalized, e.g.: The victory of the team caused a sensation. (The team won. + It caused a sensation); or in cases of inner cumulation in syntactic constructions with detached nominative parts, e.g.: He was a very nice man, except with his wife. (He was a very nice man. + He wasn't a nice man with his wife.).

Questions and assignments for reflection:

1. What do we call a composite sentence?
2. What is a compound sentence?
3. What do we call a complex sentence?
4. What are the principles of classification of subordinate clauses?
5. Can subordinated clauses be called full-fledged sentences? Why?
6. What is the main difference between parataxis and hypotaxis?
7. What problem concerning asyndetic clauses do you know?
8. How is the communicative type of a composite sentence defined?
9. What is the traditional classification of subordinate clauses?
10. What types of clauses do grammarians call subject and predicative clauses?
11. What types of attributive clauses can you name?
12. What types of subordinate clause express the objectively existing relations of causality?
13. What types of complex objective situations may the complex sentences with subordinate clauses of unreal condition represent?
14. What do concessive clauses express? Define their meanings.
15. What are parenthetical and appositional clauses?
16. Reveal the general description of the asyndetic sentences.
17. Introduce the approaches to classifying asyndetic composite sentences.
18. Analyze a semi-composite sentence as a syntactic construction of an intermediary type between the composite sentence and the simple sentence.

Lecture 5. SEMANTIVS AND PRAGMATICS.
EXPRESSED AND IMPLIED MEANING OF UTTERANCE

Aim: to analyze 'semantics' and 'pragmatics'; to decode the types of indirect meaning of the utterance; to study presupposition, implication and inference.

List of Issues Discussed:

1. Semantics and pragmatics.
2. Indirect Meaning of the Utterance: Presupposition, Implication and Inference.

Literature

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Key notions: semantics, pragmatics, indirect meaning, context, utterance, presupposition, implication, inference, factive presupposition (factiveness), emotiveness.

1. Semantics and Pragmatics

Describing the ways in which sentences are formed, many scholars make reference to meaning and how sentences express it. In modern linguistics, meaning is not treated as a unitary phenomenon. The analysis of meaning is treated as

divisible into two major domains. The first deals with the sense conventionally assigned to sentences independently of the contexts in which they might be uttered. This is the domain called <u>semantics</u>. The second deals with the way in which utterances are interpreted in context, and the ways in which the utterance of a particular sentence in a certain context may convey a message that is not actually expressed in the sentence and in other contexts might not have been conveyed. This is the domain called <u>pragmatics</u>.

Semantics is thus concerned with the meaning that is directly expressed, or encoded, in sentences, while pragmatics deals with the principles that account for the way utterances are actually interpreted in context. Pragmatics is concerned not with the meaning of sentences as units of the language system but with the interpretation of utterances in context. Utterances in context are often interpreted in ways that cannot be accounted for simply in terms of the meaning of the sentence uttered. A central principle in pragmatics, which drives a great deal of the utterance interpretation process, is that the addressee of an utterance will expect it to be relevant, and will normally interpret it on that basis.

One of the major problems concerning semantics and pragmatics is lack of adequate definition. The definitions that have been offered do not delimit pragmatics from semantics either clearly and neatly, or to everybody's satisfaction.

G. Leech distinguishes between three possible ways of structuring this relationship: semanticism (pragmatics inside semantics – Searle), pragmaticism (semantics inside pragmatics – Austin) and complementarism (semantics and pragmatics complement each other, but are otherwise independent areas of research – Leech).

2. Indirect Meaning of the Utterance:
Presupposition, Implication and Inference

When there is a mismatch between the expressed meaning and the implied meaning we deal with indirectness. Indirectness is a universal phenomenon: it occurs in all natural languages.

There can be three types of indirect meanings conveyed by a sentence: presupposition, implication and inference.

• *Presupposition*

<u>Presupposition</u> is defined as an indirect proposition that can be inferred from the sentence.

The notion of presupposition has been borrowed from mathematical logic, according to which sentence *S* presupposes sentence *S'* if sentence *S'* can be inferred from sentence *S* and negating sentence *S* does not affect inferability of *S'*. Sentence *S'* must be true, otherwise sentence *S* cannot be true.

E.g. *John knows that Mary got married. John does not know that Mary got married.* (presupposition: *Mary got married*).

Do you want to do it again? (presupposition: *You have done it already, at least once*).

My wife is pregnant. (presupposition: *The speaker has a wife*).

In linguistics, presupposition is a background belief, relating to an utterance, that must be mutually known or assumed by the speaker and addressee for the utterance to be considered appropriate in context and will generally remain a necessary assumption whether the utterance is placed in the form of an assertion, denial, or question. Presupposition has to do with informational status. The information contained in a presupposition is backgrounded, taken for granted, presented as something that is not currently an issue.

It is important to remember that negation of an expression does not change its presuppositions: *I want to do it again* and *I don't want to do it again* both mean that <u>the subject has done it already one or more times</u>; *My wife is pregnant* and *My wife is not pregnant* both mean that <u>the subject has a wife</u>. In this respect, presupposition is distinguished from implication.

So, presupposition as a linguistic phenomenon is characterized by two features, that is,

1) it can be inferred from the sentence;

2) it does not depend on negation or questioning.

Another feature characteristic of presupposition is pragmaticism, that is, the content of presupposition is pragmatic since presupposition reflects the author's attitude towards what is stated or asked in the sentence.

So, presupposition possesses the following features: indirectness, inferability, independence of negation and pragmaticism of contents. Since the first three features do not allow any differentiation, it seems logical to classify presuppositions according to their pragmatic contents.

Factive presupposition (factiveness)

E.g. *John knows that Mary got married. John thinks that Mary got married.*

Despite the identical external structure, semantically the two sentences are different. The difference lies in the author's attitude towards what is said in the clause dependent on the predicate. In the first case, the author regards the proposition *Mary got married* as a fact, which cannot be said about the proposition in the second sentence. The presuppositional contents contained in these two sentences is called <u>factive presupposition</u>, or <u>factiveness</u>. Predicates forming this type of presupposition are referred to as factive as well as words or word combinations expressing such predicates.

<u>Factive words</u> include such verbs as *to admit*, *to amuse*, *to bother*, *to confess*, *to discover*, *to ignore*, *to realise*, *to regret*, etc., adjectives *glad*, *exciting*, *important*, *lucky*, *proud*, *regrettable*, *remarkable*. The verbs *to assume*, *to believe*, *to imagine*, *to seem*, *to think* and adjectives *certain*, *eager*, *likely*, *possible*, *sure* are non-factive.

Factiveness as any other type of presupposition is important in the study of English syntax as a factor influencing the syntactic form of the sentence and determining the construction's transformation potential. For example, complex object with the infinitive can be used only after non-factive verbs of mental activity.

• Emotiveness

An emotive predicate expresses a subject emotional attitude of the author towards what is being said that can be defined as corresponding or non-corresponding to the speaker's desires and expectations: *John knows that Mary got married. John regrets that Mary got married.*

Emotive verbs include such verbs as *to bother*, *to regret*, *to resent*, *to dislike*, *to hate*, etc.

Emotive predicates have some syntactic peculiarities that are absent in non-emotive ones, for example, emotive verbs can be modified by the adverb much while non-emotive verbs cannot.

So, the notion of presupposition allows systematizing and explaining some semantic and syntactic peculiarities.

• Implication and Inference

Presupposition is not the only type of indirect sentence meaning. Consider the following example: *She somehow contrived to pass the exam.*

The implied meaning of the sentence is that she passed the exam. However, it differs from presupposition as it is negation-sensitive. An indirect proposition inferred from the original utterance and dependent on negation is called implication.

In mathematical logic, implication is a logical operation joining two propositions into one by means of the logical connector "*if... then*": "*if A, then B*" where *A* is the antecedent and *B* is the consequent. In linguistics, implication is not an operation of inference, but the result of the operation.

Another type of indirect meaning is inference. Inference is an indirect proposition independent of negation that can possibly be inferred from the original utterance, but not necessarily so: *She did her best to pass the exam.*

Questions and assignments for reflection:

1. The analysis of meaning is treated as divisible into two major domains. The first deals with … . This is the domain called … . The second deals with … . This is the domain called … .
2. What are the three types of indirect meanings conveyed by a sentence?
3. Analyze 'presupposition', 'implication' and 'inference'.

Lecture 6. TEXT AS AN OBJECT OF RESEARCH. THE PROBLEM OF THE TEXT UNIT

Aim: to analyze 'text' as an object of linguistic research; to identify 'cohesion' and 'coherence'; to introduce textual categories; to reveal textual units; to decode the supra-phrasal unity and the paragraph.

List of Issues Discussed:

1. Text as an Object of Linguistic Research.
2. Cohesion and Coherence.
3. Textual Categories.
4. Textual Units. The Supra-Phrasal Unity and the Paragraph.

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Key notions: text, principle of efficiency, principle of effectiveness, principle of appropriateness, cohesion, reference, ellipsis, substitution, lexical cohesion, and conjunction, coherence, textual category, divisibility, prospection, retrospection, anthropocentricity, conceptuality, informativity, content-factual information, content-conceptual information, content-implicative information, completeness, modality, the author's image, textual units, supra-phrasal unity, paragraph.

1. Text as an Object of Linguistic Research

The text is a unit of language in use. It applies to any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole – a semantic unit. The text is the object of studies of the branch of linguistics called text linguistics. *Text linguistics* is a relatively new branch of language studies that deals with texts as communication systems. At the early stage of its development in the 60s of the 20th century, text linguistics dealt mainly with ways of expressing cohesion and coherence and distribution of the theme and the rheme of an utterance according to the rules of the functional sentence perspective. *Its original aims lay in uncovering and describing text grammars*. The application of text linguistics has, however, evolved from this approach to a point in which text is viewed in much broader terms that go beyond a mere extension of traditional grammar towards an entire text.

Contemporary text linguistics studies *the text* and *its structure, its categories* and *components* as well as *ways of constructing texts*. Text linguistics takes into account the form of the text, but also its setting, i.e. the way in which it is situated in an interactional, communicative context. Both the author of a (written or spoken) text as well as its addressee are taken into consideration in their respective (social and/or institutional) roles in the specific communicative context. In general it is an application of linguistic analysis at the much broader level of text, rather than just a sentence or word.

Despite the fact that there are many publications devoted to problems of text linguistics, there does not exist an adequate definition of the text that would find satisfaction with all researchers. The difficulties that arise when trying to work out a universally acceptable definition of the text can be explained by the fact that scholars study the text in its various aspects: grammatical, stylistic, semantic, functional and so on.

The text can be studied as a *product* (text grammar) or as a *process* (theory of text). *The text-as-a-product approach* is focused on the text cohesion, coherence, topical organization, illocutionary structure and communicative functions; the text-as-a-process perspective studies the text production, reception and interpretation.

Text can be understood as an *instance of (spoken or written) language use* (an act of parole), a *relatively self-contained unit of communication*. As a '*communicative occurrence*' it meets *seven criteria of textuality* (the constitutive principles of textual communication): cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality, and three regulative principles of textual communication: efficiency, effectiveness and appropriateness.

Regulative Principles of Textual Communication
The principle of efficiency requires that a text should be used with a minimum effort – hence the use of plain (stereotyped and unimaginative) language which, however boring and unimpressive, is easy to produce and comprehend.

In contrast, *effectiveness* presumes leaving a strong impression and the creation of favorable conditions for attaining a communicative goal; this presupposes the use of creative (original, imaginative) language which, however effective, may lead to communicative breakdown.

The *principle of appropriateness* attempts to balance off the two above principles by seeking an accord between the text setting and standards of textuality.

2. Cohesion and Coherence

Cohesion can be defined as the links that hold a text together and give it meaning. The term cohesion was introduced by M. Halliday and R. Hasan in 1976 to denote the way in which linguistic items of which texts are constituted are meaningfully interconnected in sequences. Each piece of text must be cohesive with the adjacent ones for a successful communication.

There are two main types of cohesion: *grammatical*, referring to the structural content, and *lexical*, referring to the language content of the piece and a cohesive text is created through many different ways. In cohesion in English, M. Halliday and R. Hasan identify five general categories of cohesive devices that create coherence in texts: *reference*, *ellipsis*, *substitution*, *lexical cohesion*, and *conjunction*.

Reference (realized by nouns, determiners, personal and demonstrative pronouns or adverbs) either points out of the text to a real world item (i.e., to its denotate), hence exophoric reference (deixis: *Can you see that?*), or refers to an item within the text, hence endophoric reference. The two possible directions of endophoric reference are backward (anaphoric reference (r.); direct anaphora: *I met a man. He was wearing ...*, indirect anaphora: *It is a solid house. The walls are thick ...*) or forward (cataphoric r.: *... the house whose walls are thick*); in the case of a reference to an item of which there is (in the given situation) only one instance, we talk about homophora (e.g. *Place the books on the table please*). The relationship between two items in which both refer to the same person or thing and one stands as a linguistic antecedent of the other is called coreference (compare '*He saw himself in the mirror*' with '*He saw him in the mirror*').

Types of reference:

a. PERSONAL – lexical items replaced with personal pronouns, possessive adjectives, possessive pronouns …
b. DEMONSTRATIVE – realised by deictic terms: demonstrative adverbs (here, now …), nominal demonstratives (this, these …), definite article (the).
c. COMPARATIVE – on the basis of identity (same), similarity (such), difference (other, else), numerative (more, less), epithets (better).

Examples of types of reference:

> PERSONAL: '*John has moved to a new house.*'
> '*He had it built last year.*'
> DEMONSTRATIVE: '*I like the push-ups and the sit-ups.*'
> '*These are my favourites.*'
> COMPARATIVE: '*Mary was a lady in mid-20s.*'
> '*Such people can't change a flat tire.*'

Ellipsis, i.e. omission of something referred to earlier. Types of ellipsis:

a. NOMINAL – a word functioning as deictic, numerative, epithet or classifier is upgraded from the status of modifier to the status of head.
> '-*Did you get a first prize? – No, I got a third.*'
> '*His sons went into business. Neither succeeded.*'

b. VERBAL – the structure does not fully express its systemic features.
> '*Have you been swimming? Yes, I have.*' (lexical ellipsis)
> '*Has she been crying? No, laughing.*' (operator ellipsis)

c. CLAUSAL – clauses have a two-part structure: MODAL + PROPOSITIONAL ELEMENTS
> '*Who taught you to spell? Grandfather did.*'

PRESUPPOSED CLAUSE (Has the plane landed?) | ELLIPTICAL FORM (Yes, it has.) |SUBSTITUTION FORM (Yes, it has done.) | FULL FORM (Yes, it has landed.) |

Substitution is very similar to ellipsis in the effect it has on the text, and occurs when instead of leaving a word or phrase out, as in ellipsis, it is substituted for another, more general word. For example, "*Which ice-cream would you like?*" – "I would like the pink one" where "one" is used instead of repeating "ice-cream."

Conjunction, creates cohesion by relating sentences and paragraphs to each other by using words from the class of conjunctions or numerals. Types of conjunction:

a. ADDITIVE (includes alternative and negative) – and, nor, or (else), furthermore, thus, likewise …
b. ADVERSATIVE – yet, but, however, actually, instead, at any rate …
c. CAUSAL – so, hence, consequently, because, otherwise …
d. TEMPORAL – then, finally, soon, up to now, in short, to sum up …

Examples:
> He was climbing for the whole day…

a. ADDITIVE: …and in all this time he met no one.
b. ADVERSATIVE: …yet he was hardly aware of being tired.
c. CAUSAL: …so by night time the valley was far bellow him
d. TEMPORAL: …then as dusk fell, he sat down to rest.

Lexical cohesion establishes semantic (through lexical devices, such as repetition, equivalence – synonymy, hyponymy, hyperonymy, paraphrase, collocation) and pragmatic (presupposition) connectedness; in contrast with the previous types of cohesion, it operates over larger stretches of text since it establishes chains of related references.

REITERATION – the repetition of the same lexical item + the occurrence of a related item.

There's a boy climbing that tree.
a. Repetition
   The boy's going to fall if he doesn't take care.
b. A synonym or near-synonym
   The lad's going to fall if he doesn't take care.
c. A superordinate
   The child's going to fall if he doesn't take care.
d. A general word
   The idiot's going to fall if he doesn't take care.

REFERENCE: There's a boy climbing that tree.
a. Identical
   The boy's going to fall if he doesn't take care.
b. Inclusive
   Those boys are always getting into mischief.
c. Exclusive
   And there's another boy standing underneath.
d. Unrelated
   Most boys love climbing trees.

Coherence in linguistics is what makes a text semantically meaningful. The notion of coherence was introduced by linguists Vestergaard and Schroder as a way of talking about the relations between texts, which may or may not be indicated by formal markers of cohesion. Scholars define coherence as a "continuity of senses" and "the mutual access and relevance within a configuration of concepts and relations". Coherence, as a sub-surface feature of a text, concerns the ways in which the meanings within a text (concepts, relations among them and their relations to the external world) are established and developed.

Some of the major relations of coherence are logical sequences, such as cause-consequence (and so), condition-consequence (if), instrument-achievement (by), contrast (however), compatibility (and), etc. Moreover, it is the general

'aboutness', i.e., the topic development which provides a text with necessary integrity; even in the absence of overt links, a text may be perceived as coherent (i.e., as making sense), as in various lists, charts, timetables, menus.

Coherence is present when a text makes sense because there is a continuity of senses which holds a text together – it has to be semantically and logically OK.

'*George entered the room. He saw Mary cleaning the table.*'
John fell and broke his neck. (?) John broke his neck and fell.

4. Textual Categories

The *textual category* is a property characterizing every text, in other words, it is a typological feature of a text. Textual categories appear and function only in the text as a language unit of the highest rank. It is important to remember that the text is never modeled by one textual category but always by a totality of categories. It is sometimes regarded as a total of categories.

Today the list of textual categories is open: linguists name different textual categories because they approach the text from different angles. Most scholars differentiate between *contensive* and structural categories. However, some linguists draw a strict demarcation line between the two while others do not. The most commonly identified textual categories include:

1) *divisibility* – the text can be divided into parts, chapters and paragraphs dealing with specific topics, therefore having some formal and semantic independence;

2) *cohesion* – formal connectedness;

3) *coherence* – internal connectedness (integrity, according to I. R. Galperin);

4) *prospection* (flash-forward) – anticipation of future events;

5) *retrospection* (flash-back) – return to events in the past;

(Both prospection and retrospection break the space-time continuum of the text.)

6) *anthropocentricity* – the Man is the central figure of any text independent of its specific theme, message and plot;

7) *conceptuality* – any text has a message. Expressing some idea, that is, conveying a message is the basis of any creative work;

8) *informativity*

Prof. I. R. Galperin whose book on the text and its categories is one of the most authoritative and often quoted ones identifies three types of information:

• *content-factual information* – information about facts, events and processes taking place in the surrounding world; always explicit and verbalized;

• *content-conceptual information* conveys to the reader the author's understanding of relations between the phenomena described by means of content-factual information, understanding of their cause-effect relations, importance in

social, economic, political and cultural life of people including relations between individuals. This kind of information is deduced from the whole literary work and is a creative re-understanding of these relations, facts, events and processes; not always explicit;

• *content-implicative information* is hidden information that can be deduced from content-factual information due to the ability of linguistic units to generate associative and connotative meanings and also due to the ability of sentences conveying factual information to acquire new meanings.

9) *completeness* – the text must be a complete whole;

10) *modality* – the attitude of the author towards what is being communicated;

11) *the author's image* – way the author's personality is expressed in the text.

5. Textual Units. Supra-Phrasal Unity and Paragraph

Analyzing the structure of the text, linguists identify semantically connected sentence sequences as certain syntactic formations. One of prospective trends in modern text linguistics is describing such syntactic formations, or text units, identifying patterns according to which they are built and studying relations between them. Irrespective of their specific features, all text units are united by their common function – they represent the text as a whole integrally expressing the textual topic.

There is no universal agreement as to the term that should be used to describe text units. In the Russian tradition the following terms were used to refer to such formations: "phrase", "strophe", "prosaic strophe", "component", "paragraph", "microtext", "period", "syntactic complex", "monologue utterance", "communicative bloc", "complex syntactic unity", "supra-phrasal unity". The latter is the most commonly used one.

It should be noted that there are some scholars who do not recognize the existence of linguistic units beyond the framework of the sentence. This opinion can be explained by the lack of a complete systematic description of linguistic peculiarities of such units.

The supra-phrasal unity is a minimal text unit consisting of two or more sentences united by a common topic. In some cases the SPU can coincide with the text if it's a short one, for example, a news item in the newspaper, a miniature story, etc. However, most commonly, the SPU is a component of a larger text.

The supra-phrasal unity (SPU) consists of at least two sentences, it is characterized by topical, communicative and structural completeness and the author's attitude towards what is being communicated. The SPU is a complex semantico-structural unit, the communicative value of which does not equal the sum of meanings of its constituent sentences, it is a new semantico-structural formation.

It should be noted that sometimes it is not easy to delimit the boundaries of the SPU. In some cases it can coincide with the paragraph (this is especially typical of scientific papers and business documents), while in others the paragraph can be easily divided into several SPUs, for example, in fiction and poetry.

As for the correlation of the supra-phrasal unity and the paragraph, a few decades ago the SPU was considered to be a unit equivalent to the paragraph. In today's text linguistics there are two approaches to this problem. Some scholars still believe that the SPU coincides with the paragraph, or rejecting the term "supra-phrasal unity", consider the paragraph to be a complex syntactic unity.

Other researchers draw a strict demarcation line between the SPU and the paragraph saying that the former is a unit of composition while the latter is a unit of punctuation.

In the first place, the supra-phrasal unity is essentially a feature of all the varieties of speech, both oral and written, both literary and colloquial. As different from this, the paragraph is a stretch of written or typed literary text delimited by a new (indented) line at the beginning and an incomplete line at the close.

In the second place, the paragraph is a polyfunctional unit of written speech and as such is used not only for the written representation of a supra-phrasal unity, but also for the introduction of utterances of a dialogue, as well as for the introduction of separate points in various enumerations.

In the third place, the paragraph in a monologue speech can contain more than one supra-phrasal unity and the supra-phrasal unity can include more than one paragraph.

Questions and assignments for reflection:

1. Analyze 'text' as an object of linguistic research.

2. Explain why there does not exist an adequate definition of the text that would find satisfaction with all researchers.

3. Introduce the definitions of 'text' according to different linguistic approaches.

4. Decode 'cohesion' as the links that hold a text together and give it meaning.

5. Define the main types of cohesion.

6. Identify five general categories of cohesive devices that create coherence in texts.

7. Reveal 'coherence', as a sub-surface feature of a text, concerns the ways in which the meanings within a text are established and developed.

8. What is a 'textual category'? Describe the most commonly identified textual categories.

9. Analyze the structure of the text identifying semantically connected sentence sequences as textual units.

10. Give the definition to 'supra-phrasal unity'.

11. Disclose 'paragraph' as a polyfunctional unit.

CHAPTER II
REVIEW SYNTAX TEST

Variant 1

1. The major lingual unit of syntax is:
A. the phrase
B. the sentence
C. the supra-sentential construction

2. Domination, or explicit subordination of one syntactic component by another, is otherwise known as:
A. parataxis
B. hypotaxis

3. The main types of connections between the words inside the phrases are: "coordination", "subordination", and "…………………".

4. The narrow definition of the phrase, that includes only the combinations of notional words one of which dominates another, belongs to:
A. V.V. Vinogradov
B. L. Bloomfield
C. V.V. Burlakova

5. The phrase spent the weekend is:
A. progressive
B. regressive

6. Define the mode of realization of connections between the words in the following phrases:

A. came late	a) agreement
B. answered me	b) government
C. these books	c) adjoining
D. has already answered	d) enclosure

7. Characterize the following phrases:

A. Blacks or Afro-Americans	a) equipotent/ coordinative
B. slow, though not always	b) dominational/ subordinative
C. a stupid thing	c) cumulative
D. them playing	d) bilateral dominational/ interdependent

8. These connectives are used to reach conclusions. Examples include: *In conclusion*, *To sum up*.

_____

9. The sentence is:
A. a nominative lingual unit
B. a predicative lingual unit
C. a nominative-predicative lingual unit

10. Transformation of the sentence into a nominative phrase is called "…………………………...".

Variant 2

1. "…………………." is the type of syntactic modality which shows the relations between the situation named and the actual reality rendered by the sentence.

2. The center of predication around which the structure of the sentence is built is "……………………".

3. Define the type of the sentence on the base of positional parts presentation: *I am a teacher*. A. expanded
B. unexpanded

4. Define the type of the following sentences on the base of their principal parts types: 1) *She looks sad.* 2) *It is windy today.*
A. a) actional; b) statal
B. a) factual; b) perceptional

70

C. a) with simple predicate; b) with compound verbal predicate; c) with compound nominal predicate

5. What syntactic functions do the nouns fulfill in the following sentence? *My sister* (a), ***Mary*** (b), *was once a **cheer*** (c) ***leader*** (d) *at **school*** (e).
(a) ……………………
(b)………………….
(c)…………………..
(d)………………….

6. What types of syntactic constructions can be characterized as "pseudosentences" ("quasi-sentences")?
A. vocative sentences: *John!*
B. nominative sentences: *Marvelous!*
C. meta-communicative sentences: *Hello!*
D. infinitive sentences: *To say a thing like this!*
E. emphatic sentences: *What a day!*

7. The traditional classification of the notional parts of the sentence correlates with what in N. Chomsky's transformational grammar theory is called:
A. the deep (conceptual) structure of the sentence
B. the surface structure of the sentence

8. Define the semantic role of the subject in the following sentences:

A. Jenny wrote that letter.	a) Locative
B. That letter was written by Jenny.	b) Agent
C. The pen tore the paper.	c) Patient
D. Moscow hosted the summit.	d) Instrument

9. Define the degree of completeness in the following sentence: *How nice!*
A. complete (two-axes) sentence
B. incomplete (one-axis) sentence with free ellipsis
C. incomplete (one-axis) sentence with fixed ellipsis

10. L. Teniere suggested the following terms to denote the participants of the situation:
A. actants
B. circonstants

Variant 3

1. The theory of semantic cases (semantic roles) was first developed by:
A. *Ch. Fillmore*
B. *N. Chomsky*
C. *linguists of the Prague linguistic school*

2. Define the type of the following sentences on the base of their principal parts types: 1) *She looks sad.* 2) *It is windy today.*
A. a) actional; b) statal
B. a) factual; b) perceptional
C. a) with simple predicate; b) with compound verbal predicate; c) with compound nominal predicate

3. What kind of ellipsis did L. Barkhudarov define as "paradigmatically restored"?
A. fixed ellipsis
B. free (contextual) ellipsis

4. What notional parts of the sentence are regularly detached? Circle the right answers.
subject, *predicate*, *parenthesis*, *attribute*, *address*, *object*, *apposition*, *adverbial modifier*

5. Syntactic constructions with parcellation (e.g. *No one is perfect. But him.*) are:
A. a type of a composite sentence
B. a type of supra-sentential (textual) constructions
C. a unit of intermediary status between the sentence and the textual unity

6. The sentence as a lingual unit in the broad sense is:
A. a unit of speech
B. a unit of language (as a system)
C. a unit of language and speech at the same time

72

7. The informative part of the sentence known as "the transition" is otherwise called "secondary …………………..".

8. Characterize the rheme in the following types of the sentence:

The rheme in general questions	
The rheme in special questions	
The rheme in alternative questions	
The rheme in disjunctive questions	

9. The primary and obligatory lingual means of actual division are:
A. the grammatical means
B. the phonetical means
C. the contextual means
D. the graphic means

10. V. Mathesius used the term "the basis" to denote:
A. the theme of the sentence
B. the rheme
C. the transition

Variant 4

1. Define the type of the word order and the actual division of the following sentence: *On the top of the shelf sat a big vase.*
A. the word order is: a) direct; b) reverse (inverted)
B. the actual division is: a) direct; b) reverse (inverted)

2. The informative peak of the sentence (the basic informative part of the sentence) is called:
A. the theme of the sentence
B. the rheme
C. the transition

3. The theory of communicative syntax (actual division of the sentence) was first developed by: A. *Ch. Fillmore*
B. *N. Chomsky*
C. *the linguists of the Prague linguistic school*
D. *J.L. Austin and J.R. Searle*

4. These connectives are used to link two ideas that are considered to be similar. They include the terms: *in the same way*, *likewise*, *just as, both ... and*, *similarly*.

     a. Replacement Connectives
     b. Emphasising Connectives
     c. Contrastive Connectives

5. A type of lexical cohesion, using words that are in some way synonymous. E.g. *sound – noise*

_____

6. What type of the sentence is not included into the list of communicative types?
A. declarative sentences
B. exclamatory sentences
C. interrogative sentences
D. Imperative sentences

7. The theory of speech acts (pragmatic utterance types) was developed by:
A. *Ch. Fillmore*
B. *N. Chomsky*
C. *the linguists of the Prague linguistic school*
D. *J.L. Austin and J.R. Searle*

8. What type of speech acts do the following utterances belong to: *I surrender*; *I name this ship Queen Elizabeth*; *I pronounce you husband and wife*; etc.?
A. the constatives (representatives)
B. the directives
C. the performatives
D. the promissives
E. the expressives
F. others

9. The theory of transformational syntax (the generative grammar) was developed by:

A. *Ch. Fillmore*

B. *N. Chomsky*

C. *the linguists of the Prague linguistic school*

D. *J.L. Austin and J.R. Searle*

10. The transformation of the kernel sentence is called "syntactic …………………".

Variant 5

1. The sentence *Why on earth didn't he ask me about it?* Is the marked member of the following syntactic categories:

A. the category of communicative purpose

B. the category of existence quality (affirmation/ negation)

C. the theory of realization

D. the category of modal identity

E. the category of phase

F. the category of subject-object relations

G. the category of emotiveness

H. others

2. Define the type of the following sentences:

A. He loves his job and works a lot.	a) a complex sentence
B. He works a lot, because he loves his job.	b) a compound sentence
C. Loving his job, he works a lot.	c) a semi-composite sentence
D. He loves his job, so he works a lot.	d) a simple sentence

3. Define the type of the connector in the following complex sentence: *They wondered what I was going to do next.*

_____

4. Group the following coordinative connectors on the base of the relations between the clauses that they denote: *and*, *nevertheless*, *or*, *so*, *neither… nor*, *but*, *therefore*

A. copulative relations (unmarked coordination) _____

B. adversative relations _____

C. disjunctive relations _____

D. causal-consequential relations _____

5. Which of the following sentences is not monolithic?

A) *I remember when it all started.*

B) *He decided to quit, because the job was ruining his family.*

C) *What I knew was nobody's business.*

D) *Hardly had I started the conversation when she interrupted me.*

6. Characterize the following semi-composite sentences:

A) I found him an interesting person.	1) semi-complex sentence with double predicate
B) I remember them quarrelling with each other.	2) semi-complex sentence with absolute adverbial complication
C) Their eyes glaring, they started quarrelling.	3) semi-complex sentence with Complex Subject
D) They quarreled all the time, not their wives.	4) semi-compound sentence of poly-predicate type
E) The husbands, locked in the argument, didn't seem to notice anyone around them.	5) semi-complex sentence with attributive complication
F) They were never seen arguing with each other.	6) semi-compound sentence of poly-subject type
G) They started arguing, but soon stopped.	7) semi-complex sentence with Complex Object
H) Playing poker, they argued all the time.	8) semi-complex sentence with conjoint adverbial complication

7. Match:

A. It refers to words and phrases, such as "me" or "here", that cannot be fully understood without additional contextual information. For example, English pronouns.	**1.** Endophora
B. It is reference to something extra-linguistic, i.e. not in the same text, and contrasts with endophora.	**2.** Cataphora
C. It refers to the phenomenon of	**3.** Deixis

expressions that derive their reference from something within the surrounding text.	
D. The use of an expression or word that co-refers with a later, more specific, expression in the discourse. An example in English is the following sentence: "When he arrived home, John went to sleep."	**4.** Exophora
E. Co-reference of one expression with its antecedent. The antecedent provides the information necessary for the expression's interpretation. For example, in the sentence "Sally arrived, but nobody saw her" the pronoun her refers back to the antecedent Sally.	**5.** Anaphora

8. Which of the following categories is not the feature of text?
A. semantic unity
B. semantico-syntactic cohesion
C. predication

9. Semantic unity of the text is achieved by the unity of its ………………………..

10. The most widely used type of theme-rheme connections in the text, when the rheme of the previous sentence becomes the theme of the following sentence, is called:
A. chain connections (objective, progressive) connections
B. parallel connections
C. linear connections

Variant 6

1. These connectives simply add more information to what is already there. Examples include: *and, also, in addition, not only … but also, moreover, further, besides*.

2. Define the communicative type of the following sentence: *Could you show me your book?*
A. formally: a) interrogative; b) imperative; c) declarative
B. semantically: a) interrogative; b) imperative; c) declarative
C. a) a purely interrogative sentence; b) a rhetorical question; c) a polite request

3. It is the replacement of a part of a sentence with a substitute word or phrase in the same grammatical slot. Ex. *A: Is anyone here a linguistics major? B. I am one.*

_____

4. Name the three basic differential features of the sentence as a lingual unit: the sentence is the only lingual unit characterized by "…………………", "………………", and "……………………...".

5. These connectives highlight a cause-effect relationship between two ideas or give a reason why something happens or is the case. Examples include the terms: *for this reason, as, because, because of this, therefore, thus, hence, as a result, consequently, since, so*.

_____

6. In cases of free ellipsis (contextual ellipsis, e.g.: *Who is absent? – John.*) the remaining part of information is:
A. the theme
B. the rheme

7. A type of lexical cohesion, one word represents a class of thing and the second either a superclass or a subclass, or another class at the same level. E.g. *tree – oak, pine, elm*.

    a. Antonymy
    b. Hyponymy
    c. Synonymy
    d. Meronymy

8. These connectives link two ideas that are considered to be different. Examples include: *but, however, in contrast, on the contrary, instead, nevertheless, yet, still, even so, neither ... nor*.

     a. Contrastive Connectives
     b. Emphasising Connectives
     c. Concessive Connectives
     d. Comparative Connectives

9. It occurs on the level of the sentence; it is a way that show how one sentence relates to the others. It is a link between clauses. → Substitution
     a. True
     b. False

10. Define the type of cumulative connections between the sentences in the following supra-sentential constructions:

| A. *I 'd like to mention one thing. No matter what, I'll be on your side.* | a) prospective (cataphoric) cumulation |
| B. *He wanted to stay. But that was absolutely impossible.* | b) retrospective (anaphoric) cumulation |

GLOSSARY: SYNTAXSCOPE

ADJECTIVE PHRASE

An adjective phrase is a phrase whose head word is an adjective, e.g. *fond of steak, very happy, quite upset about it,* etc. The adjective in an adjective phrase can initiate the phrase (e.g. *fond of steak),* conclude the phrase (e.g. *very happy),* or appear in a medial position (e.g. quite *upset about it).* The dependents of the head adjective - i.e. the other words and phrases inside the adjective phrase - are typically adverbs or prepositional phrases, but they can also be clauses (e.g. *louder than you do).* Adjectives and adjective phrases function in two basic ways in clauses, either attributively or predicatively. When they are attributive, they appear inside a noun phrase and modify that noun phrase, and when they are predicative, they appear outside of the noun phrase that they modify and typically follow a linking verb (copula).

ADVERB PHRASE

An adverb phrase is a linguistic term for a group of two or more words operating adverbially, when viewed in terms of their syntactic function. Adverb(ial) phrases (""AdvP" in syntactic trees) are phrases that do the work of an adverb in a sentence.

ADVERBIAL

An adverbial a word (an adverb) or a group of words (an adverbial phrase or an adverbial clause) that modifies or tells us something about the sentence or the verb. The word *adverbial* is also used as an adjective, meaning "having the same function as an adverb".

In English, adverbials most commonly take the form of adverbs, adverb phrases, temporal noun phrases or prepositional phrases. Many types of adverbials (for instance reason and condition) are often expressed by clauses.

James answered immediately. (adverb)
James answered in English. (prepositional phrase)
James answered this morning. (noun phrase)
James answered in English because he had a foreign visitor. (adverbial clause)

The following basic types of adverbials can be recognized:

● adjuncts (circumstance adverbials): these are part of the core meaning of the sentence, but if omitted still leave a meaningful sentence.
*John and Sophia helped me **with my homework**.*

● disjuncts (stance adverbials): these make comments on the meaning of the rest of the sentence.
Surprisingly*, he passed all of his exams.*

● conjuncts (linking adverbials): these link two sentences together.
*John helped so I was, **therefore**, able to do my homework.*

APPOSITION

Apposition is a grammatical construction in which two elements, normally noun phrases, are placed side by side, with one element serving to define or modify the other. When this device is used, the two elements are said to be *in apposition.* For example, in the phrase "my friend Alice", the name "Alice" is in apposition to "my friend".

CLAUSE

A **clause** is the smallest grammatical unit that can express a complete proposition. A typical clause consists of a subject and a predicate, where the predicate is typically a verb phrase - a verb together with any objects and other modifiers. However the subject is sometimes not expressed; this is often the case in null-subject languages if the subject is retrievable from context, but it also occurs in certain cases in other languages such as English (as in imperative sentences and non-finite clauses).

A simple sentence usually consists of a single finite clause with a finite verb that is independent. More complex sentences may contain multiple clauses. Main clauses (i.e., *matrix clauses, independent clauses)* are those that can stand alone as a sentence. Subordinate clauses (i.e., embedded *clauses*, *dependent clauses*) are those that would be awkward or incomplete alone. There are basically two types, main clauses and subordinate clauses, which are joined by certain grammatical words such as conjunctions or subordinators.

CLAUSE CONSTITUENT

English is an SVO language, that is, in simple declarative sentences the order of the main components (constituents) is *subject-verb-object(s)* (or *subject-verb-complement).*

A typical finite clause consists of a noun phrase functioning as the subject, a finite verb, followed by any number of dependents of the verb. In some theories of grammar the verb and its dependents are taken to be a single component called a verb phrase or the predicate of the clause; thus the clause can be said to consist of subject plus predicate.

Dependents include any number of complements (especially a noun phrase functioning as the object), and other modifiers of the verb. Noun phrase constituents which are personal pronouns or (in formal registers) the pronoun *who(m)* are marked for case, but otherwise it is word order alone that indicates which noun phrase is the subject and which the object.

The presence of complements depends on the pattern followed by the verb (for example, whether it is a transitive verb, i.e. one taking a direct object). A given verb may allow a number of possible patterns (for example, the verb *write* may be either transitive, as in *He writes letters,* or intransitive, as in *He writes often).*

Some verbs can take two objects: an indirect object and a direct object. An indirect object precedes a direct one, as in *He gave the dog a bone* (where *the dog* is the indirect object and *a bone* the direct object). However the indirect object may also be replaced with a prepositional phrase, usually with the preposition *to* or *for,* as in *He gave a bone to the dog.* (The latter method is particularly common when the direct object is a personal pronoun and the indirect object is a stronger noun phrase: *He gave it to the dog* would be used rather than ?He *gave the dog it.)*

Adverbial adjuncts are often placed after the verb and object, as in *I met John yesterday.* However other positions in the sentence are also possible. Another adverb which is subject to special rules is the negating word *not.*

Objects normally precede other complements, as in *I told him to fetch it* (where *him* is the object, and the infinitive phrase *to fetch it* is a further complement). Other possible complements include prepositional phrases, such as *for Jim* in the clause *They waited for Jim;* predicative expressions, such as *red* in *The ball is red;* subordinate clauses, which may be introduced by a subordinating conjunction such as *if, when, because, that,* for example the *that-* clause in *I suggest that you wait for her;* and non-finite clauses, such as *eating jelly* in the sentence *I like eating jelly.*

English is not a "pro-drop" (specifically, null-subject) language - that is, unlike some languages, English requires that the subject of a clause always be expressed explicitly, even if it can be deduced from the form of the verb and the context, and even if it has no meaningful referent, as in the sentence *It is raining*, where the subject *it* is a dummy pronoun. Imperative and non-finite clauses are exceptions, in that they usually do not have a subject expressed.

Adjuncts are constituents which are not required by the main verb, and can be removed without leaving behind something ungrammatical. Adjuncts are usually adverbs or adverbial phrases or clauses.

Many clauses have as their finite verb an auxiliary, which governs a non-finite form of a lexical (or other auxiliary) verb.

CLEFT SENTENCE

A **cleft sentence** is a complex sentence (one having a main clause and a dependent clause) that has a meaning that could be expressed by a simple sentence. Clefts typically put a particular constituent into focus. This focusing is often accompanied by a special intonation.

In English, a cleft sentence can be constructed as follows:

it + conjugated form of *to be* + *X* + subordinate clause

where *it* is a cleft pronoun and *X* is usually a noun phrase (although it can also be a prepositional phrase, and in some cases an adjectival or adverbial phrase). The focus is on X, or else on the subordinate clause or some element of it. For example:

It's Joey (whom) we're looking for.
It's money that I love.
It was from John that she heard the news.
It was meeting Jim that really started me off on this new line of work.

COMPLEMENT

In grammar and linguistics, the term **complement** is used with different meanings, so it is difficult to give a single precise definition and explanation. In a broad general sense however, a complement can be understood as a word, phrase or clause that is necessary to *complete* the meaning of a given expression.

In many traditional grammars, the terms *subject complement* and *object complement* are employed to denote the predicative expressions (e.g. predicative adjectives and nominals) that serve to assign a property to a subject or object, e.g.:

Ryan is **upset**. - Predicative adjective as subject complement
Rachelle is **the boss**. - Predicative nominal as subject complement
That made Michael **lazy**. - Predicative adjective as object complement
We call Rachelle **the boss**. - Predicative nominal as object complement

CONCORD (AGREEMENT)

Agreement or **concord** happens when a word changes form depending on the other words to which it relates. It is an instance of inflection, and usually involves making the value of some grammatical category (such as gender or person) "agree" between varied words or parts of the sentence.

For example, in Standard English, one may say *I am* or *he is,* but not "I is" or "he am". This is because the grammar of the language requires that the verb and

its subject agree in *person.* The pronouns *I* and *he* are first and third person respectively, as are the verb forms *am* and *is.* The verb form must be selected so that it has the same person as the subject.

The agreement based on overt grammatical categories as above is **formal agreement**, in contrast to notional agreement, which is based on meaning. For instance, the phrase *The United States* is treated as singular for purposes of agreement, even though it is formally plural.

CONSTITUENT

A **constituent** is a word or a group of words that functions as a single unit within a hierarchical structure. The analysis of constituent structure is associated mainly with phrase structure grammars, although dependency grammars also allow sentence structure to be broken down into constituent parts. The constituent structure of sentences is identified using *constituency tests.* These tests manipulate some portion of a sentence and based on the result, clues are delivered about the immediate constituent structure of the sentence. Many constituents are phrases. A phrase is a sequence of two or more words built around a head lexical item and working as a unit within a sentence.

COORDINATION

Coordination is a frequently occurring complex syntactic structure that links together two or more elements, known as *conjuncts* or *conjoins.* The presence of coordination is often signaled by the appearance of a coordinator (coordinating conjunction), e.g. *and, or, but* (in English). The totality of coordinator(s) and conjuncts forming an instance of coordination is called a coordinate structure. The unique properties of coordinate structures have motivated theoretical syntax to draw a broad distinction between coordination and subordination. Coordination is one of the most studied fields in theoretical syntax, but despite decades of intensive examination, theoretical accounts differ significantly and there is no consensus about the best analysis.

Coordination is a very flexible mechanism of syntax. Any given lexical or phrasal category can be coordinated. The examples throughout this entry employ the convention whereby the conjuncts of coordinate structures are marked using square brackets and bold script. The coordinate structure each time includes all the material that follows the left-most square bracket and precedes the right-most square bracket. The coordinator appears in normal script between the conjuncts.

[**Sarah**] and [**Nick**] went to town – N + N
[**The chicken**] and [**the rice**] go well together. – NP + NP
The president will [**understand**] and [**agree**]. – V + V

The president will **[understand the criticism]** and **[take action]** – VP + VP

Insects were **[in]**, **[on]**, and **[under]** the bed. – P + P + P

[After the announcement] but **[before the game]**, there was a celebration. – PP + PP

Susan works **[slowly]** and **[carefully]**. – Adv + Adv

Susan works **[too slowly]** and **[overly carefully]**. – AdvP + AdvP

We appreciated **[that the president understood the criticism]** and **[that he took action]**. – Clause + Clause

Data of this sort could easily be expanded to include every lexical and phrasal category. An important aspect of these data is that the conjuncts each time are indisputably constituents. In other words, the material enclosed in brackets would qualify as a constituent in both phrase structure grammars and dependency grammars.

COPULARVERB

A **copular verb** is a word used to link the subject of a sentence with a predicate (a subject complement), such as the word *is* in the sentence "The sky **is** blue**." The word *copula* derives from the Latin noun for a "link" or "tie" that connects two different things.

A copula is often a verb or a verb-like word, though this is not universally the case. A verb that is a copula is sometimes called a **copulative** or **copular verb**. In English primary education grammar courses, a copula is often called a **linking verb**.

Most languages have one main copula. In the case of English, this is the verb *to be.* While the term *copula* is generally used to refer to such principal forms, it may also be used to refer to some other verbs with similar functions, like *become, get, feel* and *seem* in English (these may also be called "semi-copulas" or "pseudo-copulas").

COREFERENCE

Coreference occurs when two or more expressions in a text refer to the same person or thing; they have the same referent, e.g. *Bill$_i$ said he$_i$ would come*; the proper noun *Bill* and the pronoun *he* refer to the same person, namely to Bill. Coreference is the main concept underlying binding phenomena in the field of syntax. The theory of binding explores the syntactic relationship that exists between coreferential expressions in sentences and texts. When two expressions are coreferential, the one is usually a full form (the antecedent) and the other is an abbreviated form (a proform or anaphor). Linguists use indices to show coreference, as with the *i* index in the example *Bill$_i$ said he$_i$ would come.* The two expressions with the same reference are *coindexed,* hence in this example *Bill* and

he are coindexed, indicating that they should be interpreted as coreferential.

When exploring coreference, there are numerous distinctions that can be made, e.g. anaphora, cataphora, split antecedents, coreferring noun phrases, etc. When dealing with proforms (pronouns, pro-verbs, pro-adjectives, etc.), one distinguishes between anaphora and cataphora. When the proform follows the expression to which it refers, anaphora is present (the proform is an anaphor), and when it precedes the expression to which it refers, cataphora is present (the proform is a cataphor). These notions all illustrated as follows:

Anaphora
- ***The music**$_i$ was so loud that **it**$_i$ couldn't be enjoyed. - The anaphor it follows the expression to which it refers (its antecedent).*
- ***Our neighbors**$_i$ dislike the music. If **they**$_i$ are angry, the cops will show up soon. - The anaphor they follows the expression to which it refers (its antecedent).*

Cataphora
- *If **they**$_i$ are angry about the music, **the neighbors**,• will call the cops. - The cataphor they precedes the expression to which it refers (its postcedent).*
- *Despite **her** difficulty, **Wilma** came to understand the point. - The cataphor her precedes the expression to which it refers (its postcedent)*

Split antecedents
- ***Carol**$_i$ told **Bob**$_i$ to attend the party. **They**$_i$ arrived together. - The anaphor they has a split antecedent, referring to both Carol and Bob.*
- *When **Carol**$_i$ helps **Bob**$_i$ and **Bob**$_i$ helps **Carol**$_i$, **they**$_i$ can accomplish any task. - The anaphor they has a split antecedent, referring to both Carol and Bob.*

DETERMINER (DETERMINATIVE)

A **determiner (determinative)** is a word, phrase or affix that occurs together with a noun or noun phrase and serves to express the reference of that noun or noun phrase in the context. That is, a determiner may indicate whether the noun is referring to a definite or indefinite element of a class, to a closer or more distant element, to an element belonging to a specified person or thing, to a particular number or quantity, etc. Common kinds of determiners include definite and indefinite articles (like the English *the* and *a[n]),* demonstratives (like *this* and *that),* possessive determiners (like *my* and *their),* and quantifiers (like *many, few* and *several).* Examples:

- ***The** girl is **a** student.*
- *I've lost **my** keys.*
- ***Some** folks get all **the** luck.*
- ***Which** book is that?*

- *I only had **thirty-seven**   drinks.*
- *I'll take **this** one.*
- ***Both** windows were open.*

Most determiners have been traditionally classed along with adjectives, and this still occurs: for example, demonstrative and possessive determiners are sometimes described as *demonstrative adjectives* and *possessive adjectives* respectively. However, modern theorists of grammar prefer to distinguish determiners as a separate word class from adjectives, which are simple modifiers of nouns, expressing attributes of the thing referred to. This distinction applies particularly in languages like English which use definite and indefinite articles, frequently as a necessary component of noun phrases – the determiners may then be taken to be a class of words which includes the articles as well as other words that function in the place of articles. (The composition of this class may depend on the particular language's rules of syntax; for example, in English the possessives *my, your* etc. are used without articles and so can be regarded as determiners, whereas their Italian equivalents *mio* etc. are used together with articles and so may be better classed as adjectives.) Not all languages can be said to have a lexically distinct class of determiners.

DETERMINER PHRASE

A **determiner phrase** is a type of phrase posited by some theories of syntax. The head of a DP is a determiner, as opposed to a noun. For example in the phrase *the car, the* is a determiner and *car* is a noun; the two combine to form a phrase, and on the DP-analysis, the determiner *the* is head over the noun *car*. The existence of DPs is a controversial issue in the study of syntax. The traditional analysis of phrases such as *the car* is that the noun is the head, which means the phrase is a noun phrase (NP), not a determiner phrase. Beginning in the mid 1980s, an alternative analysis arose that posits the determiner as the head, which makes the phrase a DP instead of an NP.

In the determiner phrases below, the determiners are in **boldface**:

- ***a** little dog, **the** little dogs (indefinite or definite articles)*
- ***my** little dog, **your** little dogs (possessives)*
- ***this** little dog, **those** little dogs (demonstratives)*
- ***every** little dog, **each** little dog, **no** dog (quantifiers)*

The DP-analysis of phrases such as *the car* is the majority view in generative grammar today (Government and Binding and Minimalist Program), but is a minority stance in the study of syntax and grammar in general. Most frameworks outside of generative grammar continue to assume the traditional NP analysis of noun phrases. For instance, representational phrase structure grammars assume NP,

e.g. Head-Driven Phrase Structure Grammar, and most dependency grammars such as Meaning-Text Theory, Functional Generative Description, Lexicase Grammar also assume the traditional NP-analysis of noun phrases, Word Grammar being the one exception. Construction Grammar and Role and Reference Grammar also assume NP instead of DP. Furthermore, the DP-analysis does not reach into the teaching of grammar in schools in the English-speaking world, and certainly not in the non-English speaking world.

DISCOURSE FUNCTION

Sentence (or **discourse**) **function** refers to a speaker's purpose in uttering a specific sentence, phrase, or clause. Whether a listener is present or not is sometimes irrelevant. It answers the question: "Why has this been said?" The four basic sentence functions in the world's languages include the *declarative, interrogative, exclamative,* and the *imperative.* These correspond to a *statement, question, exclamation,* and *command* respectively. Typically, a sentence goes from one function to the next through a combination of changes in word order, intonation, the addition of certain auxiliaries or particles, or other times by providing a special verbal form.

ELLIPSIS

Ellipsis (from the Greek: ἔλλειψις 'omission') or **elliptical construction** refers to the omission from a clause of one or more words that are nevertheless understood in the context of the remaining elements. There are numerous distinct types of ellipsis acknowledged in theoretical syntax. Theoretical accounts of ellipsis can vary greatly depending in part upon whether a constituency-based or a dependency-based theory of syntactic structure is pursued.

GRAMMATICAL FUNCTION (RELATION)
Grammatical relations (= **grammatical functions**, **grammatical roles**, **syntactic functions**) refer to functional relationships between constituents in a clause. The standard examples of grammatical functions from traditional grammar are subject, direct object, and indirect object. In recent times, the syntactic functions (more generally referred to as grammatical relations), typified by the traditional categories of subject and object, have assumed an important role in linguistic theorizing, within a variety of approaches ranging from generative grammar to functional and cognitive theories. Many modern theories of grammar are likely to acknowledge numerous further types of grammatical relations (e.g. complement, specifier, predicative, etc.).

88

HEAD

The **head** of a phrase is the word that determines the syntactic type of that phrase or analogously the stem that determines the semantic category of a compound of which it is a part. The other elements modify the head and are therefore the head's *dependents*. Headed phrases and compounds are endocentric, whereas exocentric ("headless") phrases and compounds (if they exist) lack a clear head. Heads are crucial to establishing the direction of branching. Head-initial phrases are right-branching, head-final phrases are left-branching, and head-medial phrases combine left- and right-branching. Examine the following expressions:

big red **dog**
bird**song**

The word *dog* is the **head** of *big red dog,* since it determines that the phrase is a noun phrase, not an adjective phrase. Because the adjectives *big* and *red* modify this head noun, they are its *dependents*. Similarly, in the compound noun *birdsong,* the stem *song* is the head, since it determines the basic meaning of the compound. The stem *bird* modifies this meaning and is therefore dependent on *song*. The *birdsong* is a kind of song, not a kind of bird. The heads of phrases like the ones here can often be identified by way of constituency tests. For instance, substituting a single word in for the phrase *big red dog* requires the substitute to be a noun (or pronoun), not an adjective.

Trees

Many theories of syntax represent heads by means of tree structures. These trees tend to be organized in terms of one of two relations: either in terms of the *constituency* relation of phrase structure grammars or the *dependency* relation of dependency grammars. Both relations are illustrated with the following trees:
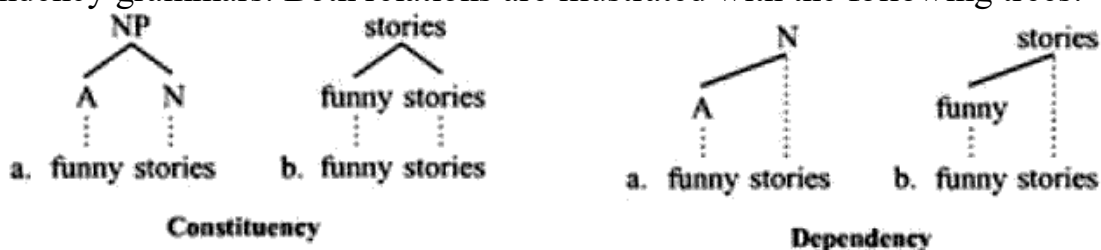
The constituency relation is shown on the left and the dependency relation on the right. The a-trees identify heads by way of category labels, whereas the b-trees use the words themselves as the labels. The noun *stories* (N) is the head over the adjective *funny* (A). In the constituency trees on the left, the noun projects its category status up to the mother node, so that the entire phrase is identified as a noun phrase (NP). In the dependency trees on the right, the noun projects only a single node, whereby this node dominates the one node that the adjective projects, a situation that also identifies the entirety as an NP. The b-trees are structurally the same as their a-counterparts, the only difference being that a different convention

is used for marking heads and dependents. The conventions illustrated with these trees are just a couple of the various tools that grammarians employ to identify heads and dependents. While other conventions abound, they are usually similar to the ones illustrated here.

INVERSION

Inversion is any of several grammatical constructions where two expressions switch their canonical order of appearance, that is, they invert. The most frequent type of inversion in English is subject-auxiliary inversion, where an auxiliary verb changes places with its subject; this often
occurs in questions, such as *Are you coming?*, where the subject *you* is switched with the auxiliary *are*. In many other languages - especially those with freer word order than English - inversion can take place with a variety of verbs (not just auxiliaries) and with other syntactic categories as well.

When a layered constituency-based analysis of sentence structure is used, inversion often results in the discontinuity of a constituent, although this would not be the case with a flatter dependency-based analysis. In this regard inversion has consequences similar to those of shifting.

Inversion in English

In broad terms, one can distinguish between two major types of inversion in English that involve verbs: *subject-auxiliary inversion* and *subject-verb inversion. The* difference between these two types resides with the nature of the verb involved, i.e. whether it is an auxiliary verb or a full verb.

Subject-auxiliary inversion

The most frequently occurring type of inversion in English is subject-auxiliary inversion. The subject and auxiliary verb invert, i.e. they switch positions, e.g.

    a) ***Fred will*** *stay.*
    b) ***Will Fred*** *stay?* – Subject-auxiliary inversion with yes/no question
    a) ***Larry has*** *done it.*
    c) *What* ***has Larry*** *done?* – Subject-auxiliary inversion with constituent question
    a) ***Fred has*** *helped at no point.*
    d) *At no point* ***has Fred*** *helped.* – Subject-auxiliary inversion with fronted expression containing negation (negative inversion)
    a) *If* ***we were*** *to surrender,...*
    e) ***Were we*** *to surrender,...* – Subject-auxiliary inversion in condition clause

The default order in English is subject-verb (SV), but a number of meaning-related differences (such as those illustrated above) motivate the subject and

auxiliary verb to invert so that the finite verb precedes the subject; one ends up with auxiliary-subject (Aux-S) order. This type of inversion fails if the finite verb is not an auxiliary:

a) ***Fred stayed***.
b) ****Stayed Fred?*** - Inversion impossible here because the verb is NOT an auxiliary verb

Subject-verb inversion

The verb in cases of subject-verb inversion in English is not required to be an auxiliary verb; it is, rather, a full verb or a form of the copula *be*. If the sentence has an auxiliary verb, the subject is placed after the auxiliary *and* the main verb. For example:

a) ***A unicorn will come*** *into the room.*
b) *Into the room* ***will come a unicorn***.

Since this type of inversion generally places the focus on the subject, the subject is likely to be a full noun or noun phrase rather than a pronoun. Third-person personal pronouns are especially unlikely to be found as the subject in this construction. For example:

a) *Down the stairs* ***came the dog***. - Noun subject
b) *? Down the stairs* ***came it***. - Third-person personal pronoun as subject; unlikely unless it has special significance and is stressed
c) *Down the stairs* ***came I***. - First-person personal pronoun as subject; more likely, though still I would require stress

MODIFIER

A modifier is an optional element in phrase structure or clause structure. A modifier is so called because it is said to *modify* (change the meaning of) another element in the structure, on which it is dependent. Typically the modifier can be removed without affecting the grammar of the sentence. For example, in the English sentence *This is a red ball,* the adjective *red* is a modifier, modifying the noun *ball.* Removal of the modifier would leave *This is a ball,* which is grammatically correct and equivalent in structure to the original sentence.

Other terms used with a similar meaning are qualifier (the word *qualify* may be used in the same way as *modify* in this context), attribute, and adjunct. These concepts are often distinguished from *complements* and *arguments,* which may also be considered dependent on another element, but are considered an indispensable part of the structure. For example, in *His face became red,* the word *red* might be called a complement or argument of *became,* rather than a modifier or

adjunct, since it cannot be omitted from the sentence.

Modifiers may come either before or after the modified element (the *head),* depending on the type of modifier and the rules of syntax for the language in question. A modifier placed before the head is called a premodifier; one placed after the head is called a postmodifier.

For example, in *land mines*, the word *land* is a premodifier of *mines*, whereas in the phrase *mines in wartime,* the phrase *in wartime* is a postmodifier of *mines.* A head may have a number of modifiers, and these may include both premodifiers and postmodifiers. For example:

that nice tall man from Canada whom you met

In this noun phrase, *man* is the head, *nice* and *tall* are premodifiers, and *from Canada* and *whom you met* are postmodifiers.

Notice that in English, simple adjectives are usually used as premodifiers, with occasional exceptions such as *galore* (which always appears after the noun) and the phrases *time immemorial* and *court martial* (the latter comes from French, where most adjectives are postmodifiers). Sometimes placement of the adjective after the noun entails a change of meaning: compare *a responsible person* and *the person responsible*, or *the proper town* (the appropriate town) and *the town proper* (the area of the town as properly defined).

It is sometimes possible for a modifier to be separated from its head by other words, as in *The man came who you bumped into in the street yesterday,* where the relative clause *who...yesterday* is separated from the word it modifies *(man)* by the word *came.* This type of situation is especially likely in languages with free word order.

NON-FINITE CLAUSE

A **non-finite clause** is a dependent clause whose verb is non-finite; for example, many languages can form non-finite clauses from infinitives, participles and gerunds. Like any dependent (subordinate) clause, a non-finite clause serves a grammatical role - commonly that of a noun, adjective, or adverb - in a greater clause that contains it.

A typical finite clause consists of a verb together with its objects and other dependents (i.e. a verb phrase or predicate), along with its subject (although in certain cases the subject is not expressed). A non-finite clause is similar, except that the verb must be in a non-finite form (such as an infinitive, participle, gerund or gerundive), and it is consequently much more likely that there will be no subject expressed, i.e. that the clause will consist of a (non-finite) verb phrase on its own.

NOUN PHRASE

A **noun phrase** (**nominal phrase**) is a phrase which has a noun (or indefinite pronoun) as its head word, or which performs the same grammatical function as such a phrase. Noun phrases are very common cross-linguistically, and they may be the most frequently occurring phrase type.

Noun phrases often function as verb subjects and objects, as predicative expressions, and as the complements of prepositions. Noun phrases can be embedded inside each other; for instance, the noun phrase *some of his constituents* contains the shorter noun phrase *his constituents.*

In some modern theories of grammar, noun phrases with determiners are analyzed as having the determiner rather than the noun as their head; they are then referred to as *determiner phrases.*

OBJECT

Traditional grammar defines the **object** in a sentence as the entity that is acted upon by the subject. There is thus a primary distinction between subjects and objects that is understood in terms of the action expressed by the verb, e.g. *Tom studies grammar – Tom* is the subject and *grammar* is the object. Traditional theories of sentence structure divide the simple sentence into a subject and a predicate, whereby the object is taken to be part of the predicate. Many modern theories of grammar (e.g. dependency grammars), in contrast, take the object to be a verb argument like the subject, the difference between them being mainly just their prominence; the subject is ranked higher than the object and is thus more prominent.

The main verb in a clause determines if and what objects are present. Transitive verbs require the presence of an object, whereas intransitive verbs block the appearance of an object. The term *complement* overlaps in meaning with *object,* although the two are not completely synonymous. The objects that verbs do and do not take is explored in detail in valency theory.

PHRASE

A **phrase** is a group of words (or sometimes a single word) that form a constituent and so function as a single unit in the syntax of a sentence. A phrase is lower on the grammatical hierarchy than a clause.

Examine the following sentence:

The house at the end of the street *is red.*

The words in bold form a phrase; together they act like a noun (making them a noun phrase). This phrase can be further broken down; a prepositional phrase

functioning as an adjective can be identified:

at the end of the street

Further, a smaller prepositional phrase can be identified inside this greater prepositional phrase:

of the street

And within the greater prepositional phrase, one can identify a noun phrase:

the end of the street

And within this noun phrase, there is a smaller noun phrase:

the street

Phrases can be identified by constituency tests such as proform substitution (=replacement). The prepositional phrase *at the end of the street,* for instance, could be replaced by an adjective such as *nearby: the nearby house* or even *the house nearby. The end of the street* could also be replaced by another noun phrase, such as *the crossroads* to produce *the house at the crossroads*.

Many theories of syntax and grammar represent sentence structure using trees. The trees provide schematic illustrations of how the words of sentences are grouped. These representations show the words, phrases, and at times clauses that make up sentences.

a. The house at the end of the street is red.
Constituency structure

b. The house at the end of the street is red.
Dependency structure
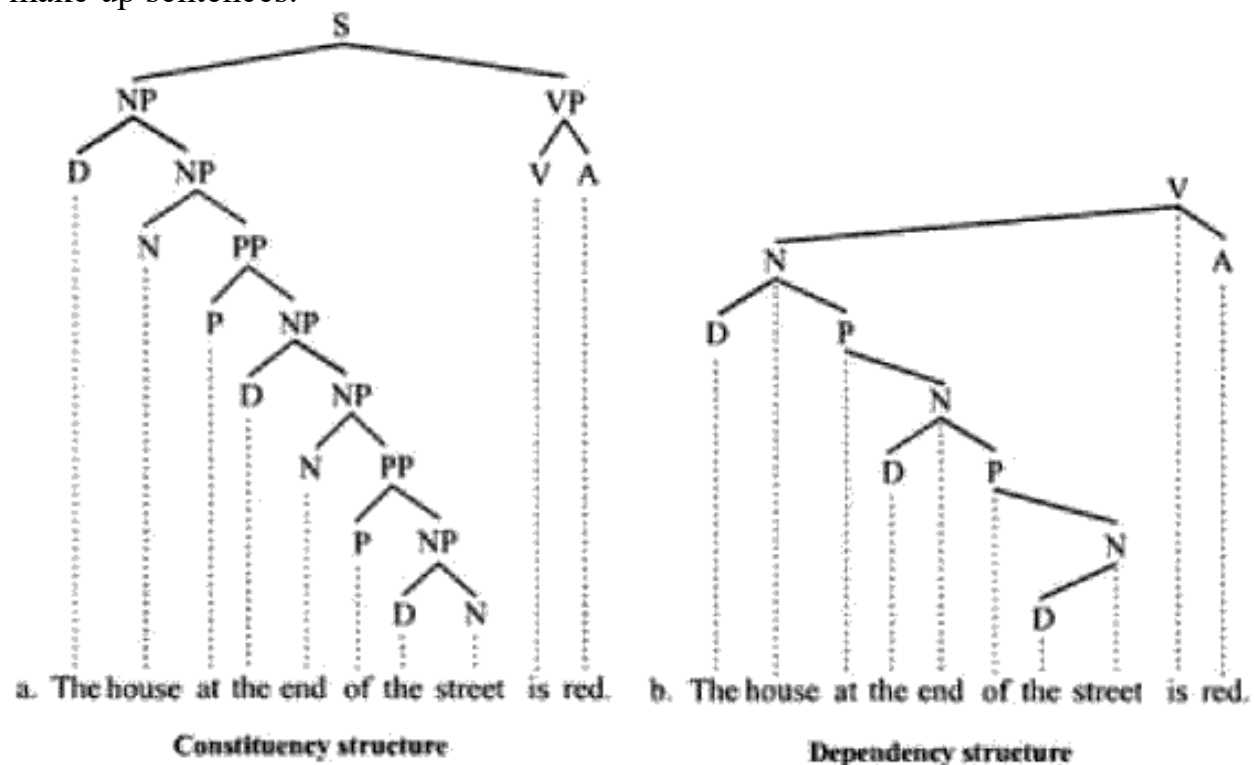
Any word combination that corresponds to a complete sub-tree can be seen as a phrase. There are two competing principles for producing trees, constituency and dependency. Both of these principles are illustrated here using the example sentence from above. The constituency-based tree is on the left, and the dependency-based tree on the right:

The constituency-based tree on the left is associated with a traditional phrase structure grammar, and the tree on the right is one of a dependency grammar. The node labels in the trees (e.g. N, NP, V, VP) mark the syntactic category of the constituents. Both trees take a phrase to be any combination of words that corresponds to a complete sub-tree. In the constituency tree on the left, each phrasal node (marked with P) identifies a phrase; there are therefore 8 phrases in the constituency tree. In the dependency tree on the right, each node that dominates one or more other nodes corresponds to a phrase; there are therefore 5 (or 6 if the whole sentence is included) phrases in the dependency tree. What the trees and the numbers demonstrate is that theories of syntax differ in what they deem to qualify as a phrase. The constituency tree takes three word combinations to be phrases *(house at the end of the street, end of the street,* and *is red)* that the dependency tree does not judge to be phrases. Which of the two tree structures is more plausible can be determined in part by empirical considerations, such as those delivered by constituency tests.

The common use of the term "phrase" is different from that employed by some phrase structure theories of syntax.

PHRASE STRUCTURE GRAMMAR

The term **phrase structure grammar** was originally introduced by Noam Chomsky as the term for grammars as defined by phrase structure rules, i.e. rewrite rules of the type studied previously by Emil Post and Axel Thue. Some authors, however, reserve the term for more restricted grammars in the Chomsky hierarchy: context-sensitive grammars, or context-free grammars. In a broader sense, phrase structure grammars are also known as *constituency grammars.* The defining trait of phrase structure grammars is thus their adherence to the constituency relation, as opposed to the dependency relation of dependency grammars.

In linguistics, phrase structure grammars are all those grammars that are based on the constituency relation, as opposed to the dependency relation associated with dependency grammars; hence phrase structure grammars are also known as constituency grammars. Any of several related theories for the parsing of natural language qualify as constituency grammars, and most of them have been developed from Chomsky's work, including

a) Government and Binding Theory,
b) Generalized Phrase Structure Grammar,
c) Head-Driven Phrase Structure Grammar,

d) Lexical Functional Grammar,
e) The Minimalist Program,   and
f) Nanosyntax.

Further grammar frameworks and formalisms also qualify as constituency-based, although they may not think of the themselves as having spawned from Chomsky's work, e.g.

a) Arc Pair Grammar and
b) Categorial Grammar.

The fundamental trait that these frameworks all share is that they view sentence structure in terms of the constituency relation. The constituency relation derives from the subject-predicate division of Latin and Greek grammars that is based on term logic and reaches back to Aristotle in antiquity. Basic clause structure is understood in terms of a binary division of the clause into subject (noun phrase NP) and predicate (verb phrase VP).

PREDICATE

The **predicate** in traditional grammar is inspired by propositional logic of antiquity (as opposed to the more modern predicate logic). A predicate is seen as a property that a subject has or is characterized by. A predicate is therefore an expression that can be *true of* something. Thus, the expression "is moving" is true of those things that are moving. This classical understanding of predicates was adopted more or less directly into Latin and Greek grammars and from there it made its way into English grammars, where it is applied directly to the analysis of sentence structure. It is also the understanding of predicates in English-language dictionaries. The predicate is one of the two main parts of a sentence (the other being the subject, which the predicate modifies). The predicate must contain a verb, and the verb requires, permits, or precludes other sentence elements to complete the predicate.

These elements are: objects (direct, indirect, prepositional), predicatives, and adjuncts:

*She **dances***. – verb-only predicate
*Ben **reads the book***. – verb + direct object predicate
*Bens mother, Felicity, **gave me a present***. – verb + indirect object + direct object predicate
*She **listened to the radio***. – verb + prepositional object predicate
*They **elected him president***. – verb + object + predicative noun predicate
*She **met him in the park***. – verb + object + adjunct predicate
*She **is in the park***. – verb + predicative prepositional phrase predicate

Most modern theories of syntax and grammar take their inspiration for the theory of predicates from predicate calculus as associated with Gottlob Frege. This understanding sees predicates as relations or functions over arguments. The predicate serves either to assign a property to a single argument or to relate two or more arguments to each other. Sentences consist of predicates and their arguments (and adjuncts) and are thus predicate-argument structures, whereby a given predicate is seen as linking its arguments into a greater structure. This understanding of predicates sometimes renders a predicate and its arguments in the following manner:

*Bob **laughed**.* -> laughed (Bob) or, laughed = /(Bob)
*Sam **helped** you.* -> helped (Sam, you)
*Jim **gave** Jill his dog.* -> gave (Jim, Jill, his dog)

PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

Prepositional phrases have a preposition as the central element of the phrase, i.e. as the head of the phrase. The remaining part of the phrase, usually a noun (phrase) or pronoun, is sometimes called the *prepositional complement*.

SENTENCE

A **sentence** is a grammatical unit consisting of one or more words that are grammatically linked. A sentence can include words grouped meaningfully to express a statement, question, exclamation, request, command or suggestion.

A sentence can also be defined in orthographic terms alone, i.e., as anything which is contained between a capital letter and a full stop. For instance, the opening of Charles Dickens' novel *Bleak House* begins with the following three sentences:

London. Michaelmas term lately over, and the Lord Chancellor sitting in Lincoln's Inn Hall. Implacable November weather.

The first sentence involves one word, a proper noun. The second sentence has only a non-finite verb. The third is a single nominal group. Only an orthographic definition encompasses this variation.

As with all language expressions, sentences might contain function and content words and contain properties distinct to natural language, such as characteristic intonation and timing patterns.

Sentences are generally characterized in most languages by the presence of a finite verb, e.g. "The quick brown fox *jumps* over the lazy dog".

One traditional scheme for classifying English sentences is by clause

structure, the number and types of clauses in the sentence with finite verbs.

●) A *simple sentence* consists of a single independent clause with no dependent clauses.

●) A *compound sentence* consists of multiple independent clauses with no dependent clauses. These clauses are joined together using conjunctions, punctuation, or both.

●) A *complex sentence* consists of one independent clause and at least one dependent clause.

●) A *complex-compound sentence* (or *compound-complex sentence)* consists of multiple independent clauses, at least one of which has at least one dependent clause.

SUBJECT

The **subject** is, according to a tradition that can be traced back to Aristotle (and that is associated with phrase structure grammars), one of the two main constituents of a clause, the other constituent being the predicate, whereby the predicate says something about the subject. According to a tradition associated with predicate logic and dependency grammars, the subject is the most prominent overt argument of the predicate. By this position all languages with arguments have subjects, though there is no way to define this consistently for all languages. From a functional perspective, a subject is a phrase that conflates nominative case with the topic. Many languages do not do this, and so do not have subjects.

All of these positions see the subject in English determining person and number agreement on the finite verb, as exemplified by the difference in verb forms between *he eats* and *they eat.* The stereotypical subject immediately precedes the finite verb in declarative sentences in English and represents an agent or a theme. The subject is often a multi-word constituent and should be distinguished from parts of speech, which, roughly, classify words within constituents.

SUBORDINATION

Subordination is a principle of the hierarchical organization of linguistic units. While the principle is applicable in semantics, syntax, morphology, and phonology, most work in linguistics employs the term "subordination" in the context of syntax, and that is the context in which it is considered here. The syntactic units of sentences are often either subordinate or coordinate to each other. Hence an understanding of subordination is promoted by an understanding of coordination, and vice versa.

Subordination as a concept of syntactic organization is associated closely

with the distinction between *coordinate* and *subordinate* clauses. One clause is subordinate to another, if it depends on it. The dependent clause is called a *subordinate clause* and the independent clause is called the *main clause* (= matrix clause). Subordinate clauses are usually introduced by subordinators (= subordinate conjunctions) such as *after, because, before, if, so that, that, when, while,* etc. For example:

> **Before we play again**, *we should do our homework.*
> *We are doing our homework now* **because we want to play again**.

The strings in bold are subordinate clauses, and the strings in non-bold are the main clauses. Sentences must consist of at least one main clause, whereas the number of subordinate clauses is hypothetically without limitation. Long sentences that contain many subordinate clauses are characterized in terms of hypotaxis, the Greek term meaning the grammatical arrangement of "unequal" constructs (hypo="beneath", taxis="arrangement"). Sentences that contain few or no subordinate clauses but that may contain coordinated clauses are characterized in terms of parataxis.

SYNTAX

Syntax (from Ancient Greek σ ύ ν τ α ξ ι ς "coordination" from σ ύ ν *syn*, "together," and τ ά ξ ι ς *taxis*, "an ordering") is "the study of the principles and processes by which sentences are constructed in particular languages."

In addition to referring to the discipline, the term *syntax* is also used to refer directly to the rules and principles that govern the sentence structure of any individual language. Modern research in syntax attempts to describe languages in terms of such rules. Many professionals in this discipline attempt to find general rules that apply to all natural languages.

The term *syntax* is also used to refer to the rules governing the behavior of mathematical systems, such as formal languages used in logic.

THEMATIC RELATION

In a number of theories of linguistics, **thematic relations** is a term used to express the role that a noun phrase plays with respect to the action or state described by a sentence's verb. For example, in the sentence "Susan ate an apple", Susan is the doer of the eating, so she is an agent; the apple is the item that is eaten, so it is a patient. While most modern linguistic theories make reference to such relations in one form or another, the general term, as well as the terms for specific relations, varies; participant role', ,semantic role', and ,deep case' have been used analogously to ,thematic relation'.

Here is a list of the major thematic relations.

● **Agent**: deliberately performs the action (e.g., ***Bill*** *ate his soup quietly.).*

● **Experiencer**: the entity that receives sensory or emotional input (e.g. ***Susan*** *heard the song.* ***I*** *cried.).*

● **Theme**: undergoes the action but does not change its state (e.g., *We believe in many* ***gods***. *I have* ***two children***. *I put* ***the book*** *on the table. He gave* ***the gun*** *to the police officer.)* (Sometimes used interchangeably with patient.)

● **Patient**: undergoes the action and changes its state (e.g., *The falling rocks crushed* ***the car***.). (Sometimes used interchangeably with theme.)

● **Instrument**: used to carry out the action (e.g., *Jamie cut the ribbon* ***with a pair of scissors***.).
● **Force** or **Natural Cause**: mindlessly performs the action (e.g., ***An avalanche*** *destroyed the ancient temple.).*

● **Location**: where the action occurs (e.g., *Johnny and Linda played carelessly* ***in the park***. *I'll be* ***at Julie's house*** *studying for my test.).*

● **Direction** or **Goal**: where the action is directed towards (e.g., *The caravan continued on* ***toward the distant oasis***. *He walked* ***to school***.).

● **Recipient**: a special kind of goal associated with verbs expressing a change in ownership, possession. (E.g., *I sent* ***John*** *the letter. He gave the book* ***to her***.)

● **Source** or **Origin**: where the action originated (e.g., *The rocket was launched* ***from Central Command***. *She walked* ***away from him***.).

● **Time**: the time at which the action occurs (e.g., *The rocket was launched* ***yesterday***.).

● **Beneficiary**: the entity for whose benefit the action occurs (e.g.. *I baked* ***Reggie*** *a cake. He built a car* ***for me***. *I fight* ***for the king***.).

● **Manner**: the way in which an action is carried out (e.g., ***With great urgency***, *Tabitha phoned 911.).*

● **Purpose**: the reason for which an action is performed (e.g., *Tabitha phoned 911 right away* ***in order to get some help***.).

● **Cause**: what caused the action to occur in the first place; not *for what*, rather *because of what* (e.g., ***Because Clyde was hungry***, *he ate the cake.).*

There are no clear boundaries between these relations. For example, in "the hammer broke the window", some linguists treat hammer as an agent, some others as instrument, while some others treat it as a special role different from these.

THEME / RHEME

In linguistics, the **topic**, or **theme**, of a sentence is what is being talked about, and the **comment** (**rheme** or **focus**) is what is being said about the topic. That the information structure of a clause is divided in this way is generally agreed on, but the boundary between topic/theme depends on grammatical theory.

The difference between "topic" and grammatical subject is that topic is used to describe the information structure, or pragmatic structure of a clause and how it coheres with other clauses, whereas the subject is a purely grammatical category. For example it is possible to have clauses where the subject is not the topic, such as in passive voice.

The distinction was probably first suggested by Henri Weil in 1844. Georg von der Gabelentz distinguished **psychological subject** (roughly topic) and **psychological object** (roughly focus). In the Prague school, the dichotomy, termed **topic-focus articulation**, has been studied mainly by Vilem Mathesius, Jan Firbas, Frantisek Danes, Petr Sgall and Eva Hajicova. They have been concerned mainly by its relation to intonation and word-order. The work of Michael Halliday in the 1960s is responsible for bringing the ideas to functional grammar.

VALENCY

Valency (or **valence**) refers to the number of arguments controlled by a verbal predicate. It is related, though not identical, to verb transitivity, which counts only object arguments of the verbal predicate. Verb valency, on the other hand, includes all arguments, including the subject of the verb. The linguistic meaning of valence derives from the definition of valency in chemistry. This scientific metaphor is due to Lucien Tesnière, who developed verb valency into a major component of his (what would later become known as) dependency grammar theory of syntax and grammar. The notion of valency first appeared as a comprehensive concept in Tesnière's posthumously published book (1959) Éléments de syntaxe structurale (Elements of structural syntax).

There are several types of valency: impersonal (=avalent), intransitive (=monovalent), transitive (=divalent) and ditransitive (=trivalent):

• an impersonal verb takes no arguments, e.g. *It rains.* (Though *it* is technically the subject of the verb in English, it is only a dummy subject, that is a syntactic placeholder - it has no concrete referent. No other subject can replace *it.* In many other languages, there would be no subject at all. In Spanish, for example, *It is raining* could be expressed as simply *llueve.)*

• an intransitive verb takes one argument, e.g. *He^1 sleeps.*

• a transitive verb takes two, e.g. *He^1 kicked the ball^2.*

• a ditransitive verb takes three, e.g. *He^1 gave her^2 a flower^3.*

• There are a few verbs that take four arguments. Sometimes *bet* is considered to have four arguments in English, as in the examples *I^1 bet him^2 five quid^3 on that newspaper^4* and *I^1 bet you^2 two dollars^3 it will rain^4.*

VERB PHRASE

A **verb phrase** is a syntactic unit composed of at least one verb and the dependents of that verb – objects, complements and other modifiers, but not including the subject. Thus in the sentence *A fat man put the jewels quickly in the box,* the words *put the jewels quickly in the box* may be considered a verb phrase – this consists of the verb *put* and its dependents, but not its subject *a fat man.* A verb phrase is therefore similar to what is considered a *predicate* in some contexts.

Verb phrases may be either finite (the head of the phrase is a finite verb) or non-finite (the head of the phrase is a non-finite verb, such as an infinitive, participle or gerund). While phrase structure grammars acknowledge both types of VP, dependency grammars reject the existence of a finite VP constituent (unlike the former, they regard the subject as being among the verb's dependents). In this regard, the understanding of verb phrases can be dependent on which theory is being considered.

Verb phrases are sometimes defined more narrowly in scope to allow for only those sentence elements that are strictly considered verbal elements to form verb phrases. According to such a definition, verb phrases consist only of main verbs, auxiliary verbs, and other infinitive or participle constructions. For example, in the following sentences only the words in bold would be considered to form the verb phrase for each sentence:

*John **has given** Mary a book.*
*They **were being eaten** alive.*
*She **kept screaming** like a maniac.*

This more narrow definition is often applied in functionalist frameworks and traditional European reference grammars.

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