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THEORETICAL GRAMMAR 4 U: SYNTAX

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Матеріал посібника поєднує та систематизує різноманітність наукових пошуків вітчизняних і зарубіжних лінгвістів, акцентує увагу студентів на наукове розуміння новітніх досягнень у розвитку сучасних граматичних теорій.

Концептуальний виклад основ теоретичної граматики англійської мови сприятиме розвиткові наукового мислення студентів, формуванню чіткого уявлення про системний характер мови.

Навчальний посібник доцільно використовувати викладачам, аспірантам, магістрантам та студентам старших курсів факультетів іноземних мов вищих навчальних закладів освіти.

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Preface

This research project has gone through a process of our research-based work and the expertise of theoretical grammar syllabus questions while giving lectures to the undergraduate audience. The book uses a cognitive structure that builds on students' prior knowledge of practical grammar, meant to reinforce their practical grammar skills, advancing higher levels of retention and, at the same time to introduce, cultivate and upgrade students' interpretation of theoretical grammar problems.

Thus, the chief objectives of this book are: 1) to provide students with the excerpts of our lectures based on current trends of grammar theories and corpus-based research of modern grammarians; 2) to touch upon some difficult issues of the manifold language; 3) to correlate the curriculum to students' practical needs and amended grammar values. The impetus which prompted planning and carrying through this project was twofold, to update and promote the results of our long-term work, and to provide an intellectual input to some theoretical grammar items, strengthening the students' knowledge base.

Why did I take up such complex tasks that require research-based activities and upgrading many prioritised issues? I owe a special debt to my students of English-German department who are fully equipped with a strong grammar knowledge base and inspired for further research work.

I also express my gratitude to Howard Tuffrey, a graduate of the University of Hull, as prime mover of this project who was an "advisory committee" to me. And last, but far from least, I thank my husband, Volodymyr Umanets, for not allowing me to keep late hours while writing many redrafts of this book, and promoting my further research.

Chapter V. Pragmatic Syntax

1. The Theory of Speech Acts and Speech Maxims

One of the main branches of science which studies "language in use" is pragmalinguistics.

The modern use of the term "pragmatics" is attributable to the philosopher Charles Morris (1938), who was concerned to outline (after Lock and Pierce) the general shape of science of signs, or semiotics. Within semiotics, Morris distinguished three distinct branches: syntactics, semantics and pragmatics. Syntactics is the study of the formal relations of signs to one another. Semantics studies the relations of signs to other objects to which the signs are applicable (their designata). And pragmatics is the study of the relations of signs to their interpreters.

Nowadays there appeared different definitions of pragmatics, each of them trying to mark a certain aspect of investigation. **"**Pragmatics is the study of the ability of language users to pair sentences with contexts in which they would be appropriate" (Van Dijk, Allwood Anderson, John Lyons, John Austin, J. Searle). "Pragmatics is the study of various linguistic and extralinguistic phenomena (conditions as well as effects) involved in any act of communication in which the verbal message has to perform same specific functions" (Jan Prucha).

A new trend of syntactical theory is called pragmatical syntax, which examines the relationships between linguistic signs and those who use them and also the conditions of their realisation as components of spoken activity.

Sentences of the same structural types can have essential differences. *E.g.:*

1) *Come!* (as an order)

Come! (as a request);

2) *I'll watch you* (as a threat)

I'll watch you (as a promise);

3) *What's the time?* (as the question about new information)

What's the time? (as the motive to action).

Mastering a language means not only ability to build up the sentence (language competence), but also the ability to use it correctly in a speech act to achieve the necessary communicative and functional result (communicative competence).

A study of sentence from communicative and functional points of view must find out the components of native speaker's communicative competence, appropriateness of correlation between communicative and functional types of sentence and the purpose of intercourse.

One of the branches of pragmalinguistics is pragmatical syntax, which studies relations between language units and their interpreters, and also conditions of their realisation, that is constitutive parts of speech acts. The study of pragmalinguistic components of a sentence is a very important branch of language knowledge, as to master any language presupposes not only the process of their building up, but ability of their correct usage in speech acts.

From communicative-functional point of view every sentence differs from others by its communicative intention. Communicative intention is the ability of a sentence to realise certain communicative purpose. Every sentence is a means of realisation of different speech acts, which are based on the communicative intention of the speaker. There are various types of speech acts. In the course of its historical development every society worked out a great variety of means of social intercourse. In the English language, as John Austin claims, there are more than one thousand verbs and other expressions for marking different speech acts. So, there appeared an attempt to develop a taxonomy of speech acts. The first scholar who classified speech acts was J.Austin. He defined five basic types of speech acts.

There is some terminological divergence in classifying them.

J.Austin	J. Searle	Pocheptsov G.G.
verdictive	representative	constative
expositive	directive	directive
exercitive	expressive	quessitive
commissive	commissive	performative
behabitive	declarative	promissive, menacive

1. Representative, which denotes states of affairs, or at least speakers' beliefs about states of affairs, including assertion, description, reports, statements.

2. Directive, which attempts to get the addressee to do something, including questions, requests, orders.

3. Commissive, which commits a speaker to a course of action, including promises, threats, vows.

4. Declaration, which brings about states of affairs, including namings, pardon, resignations.

5. Expressive, which denotes a speaker's psychological state or attribute, including apologies, compliments, greetings, thankings.

6. Verdictive, which denotes an assessment or judgment, including assessments, appraisals, judgments, verdicts.

Speech act analysis distinguish between the locution (or locutionary act or force**),** i.e., the form of the utterance, and the illocution (or illocutionary act or force), i.e. the communicative goal that the speaker intends to accomplish with the utterance. Thus, an explicit and an implicit speech act have the same illocutionary force but have distinct locutions. A particular locution has a particular illocutionary force (counts as a specific speech act) if it meets the appropriateness conditions for that act.

Speech acts may be performed either directly or indirectly. Saying *I promise that I will return the book tomorrow*, directly promises that I will return the book tomorrow; a promise is used to perform a promise. However, we can perform one speech act with the intention of performing another. For example, we might say *That was a delicious meal* to our friends after they have had us over for dinner. Superficially, this is a representative, simply asserting that the meal was delicious.

The philosopher Paul Grice attempted to answer these questions in some very influential work presented in the late 1960s. He proposed that conversation is one of many cooperative enterprises that people engage in and that it's governed by the very general assumption called the Cooperative Principle: “Make your conversational contribution such as it is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk-exchange in which you are engaged”.

Grice made this rather general principle more concrete and specific by adding four maxims:

Maxim of Quantity:

a) Make your conversation as informative as it is required.

b) Do not make your contribution more informative than it is required.

Maxim of Quality:

Try to make your contribution one that is true, specifically:

a) Do not say what you believe to be false.

b) Do not say anything you lack adequate evidence.

Maxim of Relation: Be relevant.

Maxim of Manner:

a) Avoid obscurity of expression.

b**)** Avoid ambiguity.

c) Be brief.

d) Be orderly.

These are not moral structures, or less, descriptions of typical communication. We all know people who rattle on interminably, who get off the point, who lie, or who relate a sequence of events in any order but the one in which they occurred. Rather, the maxims are designed to express the assumption which we generally make as converse (and indeed, as we interpret any piece of language).

O. Paducheva gives the examples of communicative clichés, which appear in case of breaching these maxims, from the fairy-tale *"Alice's Adventures in Wonderland"* by Lewis Carroll, where the characters' communication resembles the theatre of nonsense because of disregard of the communicative game's rules.

2. Pragmatic Types of Sentences

The content of sentence, which is actualised in speech acts refer only to lexical or grammatical information, but always includes pragmatic content. Semantic structure of a sentence consists of two semantic constants: pragmatic component and proposition. Pragmatic component reflects communicative intention of a sentence,

proposition – its cognitive content. Proposition can be identical in sentences with different communicative intention.

The content of pragmatic component can be presented as a combination "I (hereby) + verb, which determines illocutionary force of expression + addressee". The verb which characterizes relationships between sender and addressee is sometimes called performative. For example: *He is not guilty*, means (hereby) state that he is not guilty; *Stop it at once* – I (hereby) command you to stop it at once*; I'll come some time* - I (hereby) promise you that I'll come some time.

Explication of a performative verb is a compulsory trait of constructions with indirect speech. Compare: *I'll dismiss you* —> He threatened to dismiss him (her etc.).

G.G. Pocheptsov defines some pragmatic types of sentences.

Constative. Communicative-intentional content of a constative is presented in the statement. For example: *The Earth rotates.* It is realised in the affirmative sentence only. The forms of interrogative and negative sentences are unacceptable.

Promissive and menacive. They are interesting as an object of comparative study. For short, we can call a sentence-promise as promissive, a sentence-menace as menacive.

Promissives are always affirmative sentences and invariably refer the action to the future. *E.g.: I'll come some time.* Verbs are always used in the future.

The subject of promissive sentences related to the speaker invariably is its agent; the predicate is the verb of action in the active voice. *E.g.: I'll write, do, come, ring up* etc. The promissive like *I shall be beaten up, I shall be ignored* with the subject is impossible.

The subject correlated with a speaker in the second or third person cannot be an agent: *You'11 see the picture —► You'll be shown the picture. The train will arrive in time. He will not do this.*

Menacive. Communicative-intentional content is menace. *E.g.: (If you don't let go,) I'll cut off you nasty, great, slimy tail!* [J. Osborne]. *I'd give you such a belt in a second* [J. Joyce].

The addressee is not interested in realisation of a sentence action. The speaker is not a guarantor of a future event reality because he can menace with an action which does not depend on him. *E.g.: He'll pay you*.

So, for menacives there are no limitations in making up the role structures.

Performatives (*E.g.: I congratulate you. I welcome you. I thank my honourable friend. I apologise. I guarantee that the cost of these books will be paid*) do not report about smth (as constatives, for example: *He congratulated me* or *He apologises*). Saying *I congratulate you*, speaker performs actions, in this case, a greeting.

Pronouncing a performative the status of the addressee is changing (for example, a wedding ceremony: *I pronounce you man and wife*).

Some structural peculiarities of performatives are the following:

a) the verb of a performative sentence is not used in the past or future tense forms;

b) performative sentence cannot be a negative one;

c) modal words like “maybe”, cannot be included in the structure of performative sentences; *Maybe I congratulate you* (impossible).

d) there are no performatives in the Continuous tenses. *E.g.: I'm congratulating you, I'm guaranteeing you*. These sentences can be considered as constatives.

Performative sentences are realised only under the certain conditions, that is oath, swear, marriage. It is also an important place of fulfillment and sincerity of speaker (*E.g.: I swear*).

Sentences with the passive construction like *Payment is guaranteed. Passengers are requested to cross the line by the foot bridge only* refer to performatives. They are passive transforms of active performatives (*E.g.: We guarantee. We request you to cross*).

Directive. Directive is a pragmatic type of a sentence, in which speaker induces the addressee to an action. *E.g.: Get out, Don't go, Ronnie, could you get me a soaking wet rag?*

There are two types of directive sentences: injunctive as an injunction, where persons are not equal by their ranks and requestive as a request, where persons either equal or not.

Both injunctive and requestive are used in the form of the imperative sentence and their object is inducement of an addressee to fulfill an action.

Quesitive. Question is an interrogative sentence in its traditional comprehension. As directive, quesitive provokes an action of the addressee but only in speech situation.

3. Pragmatic Transposition of Sentences and Felicity Conditions

A sentence by its formal sign is a unit of one pragmatic type. But in speech realisation it can acquire the illocutionary force of one or another type of the sentence. For example, a quesitive sentence by its form and content can have the illocutionary force of injunctive: *Are you still here? (= Go away at once I)* .

Essentional for proper understanding of the pragmatic type of a sentence is semantic sign of "positivity and negativity". A sentence *It's draughty here* (constative – injunctive) contains information about some discomfortable state of things for the author of the sentence and, as a result, it is characterised by a sign (negativity).

Other examples are opposite by their lexical content, but they are equally characterised by the sign (negativity). They show that just this sign is relevant but not concrete lexical content of a sentence. Compare: *There's little chalk left. = Bring some more. There's too much chalk. = Take away some. There's water. = Wipe it off. There's no water. = Bring some.*

J. Searle distinguished among four types of felicity conditions the following:

1. The propositional content condition expresses the content of the act. Thus, *I will return the book tomorrow* denotes the promised act, i.e. returning the book tomorrow. Sometimes conventions require that a precisely specified expression be used. For example, in some marriage ceremonies, the bride and groom must respond *I will* to the question *Will you Joan take John to be your lawfully wedded husband?* No other form, even if it means *I will*, is acceptable.

2. The preparatory condition expresses the contextual background required for a

particular act. For example, *I will* constitutes a marriage vow only in the context of a real wedding; a promise requires that the promise be able to perform what s/he promises; a speaker making an assertion must have evidence to support the assertion.

3. The sincerely condition requires that the speaker be sincere. For example, a promiser must willingly intend to keep the promise; a speaker who makes an assertion must believe what s/he asserts.

4. The essential condition is that the speaker intends the utterance to have a certain force. For example, someone uttering "*I promise to return tomorrow"* must intend this utterance to be a commitment to return tomorrow; an assertion must intend the utterance to represent a true representation of a state of affairs.

Thus in sum, for an utterance such as: *(I promise that) I will return the book tomorrow* to be a "felicitous" promise:

1) it must denote the promised act;

2) the addressee must want the book to be returned tomorrow;

3) the speaker must intend to return the book tomorrow;

4) the speaker must intend the addressee to take the utterance to be a promise to return the book tomorrow.

Chapter VII. Text as an Object of Syntactic Study

1. Historiography of Text Linguistics

There existed different factors which caused the study of the highest lingual unit – text and appearance of text linguistics as a particular field of the language study. Firstly, the profiling sentence investigation by language disciplines inevitably determined the superficial interpreting of language phenomena and was liable only to sentence study. Secondly, the scope of interests of linguists shifted from language study as a system in Saussure's understanding of the problem to the research of "language in use" (Halliday's term). Thirdly, a straightforward role was played by highlighting the interest to semantic research.

The pre-history of the Soviet text linguistics goes back as far as the 20-30s of the XXth century. Throughout this period the concept of text was envisaged by the theory of poetry, which got vital results not only for literary texts. In order to receive a separate status of text linguistics it was topical to widen the boundaries of sentence study. The problems aforesaid appeared in the second half of the 30s while studying punctuation, and later on intonation. The necessity of considering textual structure appeared also in psychology.

The merging sentences into a unit of higher hierarchy from L. Bloomfield's sentence framework turned into text studies in the 40-50s of the past century, where text structure was involved in the syntactic studies. N.S. Pospelov in his works worked out some conceptual ideas of the research of "complex syntactic unity".

Within that period the idea of "supra-phrasal unity" had been worked out in the works of German linguist Karl Boast, who marked at the diversity of structural relationships between sentences.

Further research of text linguistics was hampered by the ideas of generative grammar widely spread in the foreign linguistics.

But the problem of the "complex syntactic unity" had existed for a long time in the language study, particularly in the trends which did not follow the anti-mental spirit of generative grammars of the 50-60s. Thus, in linguistics the investigation of the "complex syntactic unity" was carried on within the study of the literary language

and the writer individual style. The “complex syntactic unity” is identified with a “paragraph”. A kind of linguistic approach was outlined, many important problems treating phonologic and intonation parameters of the “complex syntactic unity” and its description in different language styles were put forward.

Some phenomena of text linguistics were worked out by Czech linguists of the “Prague School”. They also renewed H. Weil’s theory of relations of “thoughts”, which applied the notion of functional sentence perspective (Mathesius, Jackobson, Trubetzkoy).

A detailed analysis of literary speech was envisaged in the works of many German, English and American linguists.

In the 60-70s the interest to the studies as an integral unit of communication was the logical consequence of the studies of a text of communicative-functional plane of language and discourse. R. Harweg postulated that texts are hold together by “substitution” (one expression following up another one of the same sense and thus building up cohesive or coherent relationship). His notion of “substitution” is broad and complex, submitting relationships such as synonymy, class/instance, subclass/superclass, cause/effect, part/whole. The starting point both in the communication and linguistics studies became a unit, which had the status of a relatively completed communicative unit. The unit structured according to definite rules, holding informative, communicative, psychological and social objectives in the communication, which was called “text”. On the other hand, this interest became the result of deviation from anti-mentality in linguistics.

Language is often treated as a means of communication. A special attention of many linguists was paid to the second part of defining language formulas, i.e. the process of communication, using language signs. In this aspect text becomes the object of investigation not only in linguistics, but also in the theory of communication, pragmatics, functional stylistics, i.e. in the field which covered peculiarities of the mechanism of speech producing and aspects of discourse analysis.

In the 70-80s the main theses which fixed the standpoint of text linguistics as an independent linguistic discipline were put forward:

❖ The main speech unit in the process of communication which has a complete structure is not a separate sentence, but a text. Text is the highest syntactic unit.

❖ It has its own regularities of organisation which are concerned with not only speech, but a language competence.

❖ Like any other language unit text is a particular language sign.

❖ A comprehensive text study as a language and speech unit (cf: text-texteme) requires the development of a particular language discipline – text linguistics.

The names of scientists who contributed much to the development of text linguistics are such as: N.S. Pospelov, L.A. Bulakhovsky, T. van Dijk, R. Beangrande, W. Dressler, T. Todorov, M.A.K. Halliday, R. Hasan, G. Brown, G. Yule, K. Ehlich, N.E. Enkvist, I.R. Galperin.

The main objective of text linguistics nowadays is to give the description of text types used in the discourse, explain common and divert features of different text types; to envisage the problems of text typology and the image of author as a basis of its global integrity; literary and linguistic approaches to the text study; to give a systematic analysis of concepts used while segmenting three-dimension language space and means of its textual verbalisation; to investigate functional textual structures of concepts and their transition to some forms which represent text fragments; to interpret the language not as a separate module within tectonic text parameters, but as an element which integrates into a general textual mega-paradigm; to envisage the problem of "hyper-text" and "hyper-textual relationships"; to investigate specific features of the cognitive screen (mapping) to build up the hypertext space etc.

2. Textual Units and Categories

Thus, any text represents a coherent stretch of speech forming a semantico-topical syntactic unity. The Russian linguist N.S. Pospelov defined minimal unit of text analysis as "a complex syntactic unit", L.A. Bulakhovsky – "a supra-phrasal unity". In modern text linguistics "text" is defined as a communicative occurance which meets particular standards (categories) of textuality. If any standard is not

satisfied, the text will not be communicative (R. Beangrande, W. Dressler). Scholars define different text parameters: verbal, syntactic, semantic (Ts. Todorov); topic, focus, linkage (N.I. Enkvist); informative contents, cohesion, prospection, retrospection, modality, integrity, completeness (I.R. Galperin); cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, intertextuality (R. Beangrande, W. Dressler).

In spite of the diversity of opinions on the question of text categories, most linguists agree that the basic text categories are "topical unity" and "semantico-syntactic cohesion". Cohesion provides logical connection. Among logical connectors scientists distinguish conjunction, parenthetic words, determiners/article, pronominalisation, etc.

Sentences organised in dictemes make up textual stretches on syntactic lines according to a communicative purpose in a particular communicative situation. Therefore any text represents a continual succession of dictemes (M.Y. Blokh). Coherence refers to the continuity of meaning that enables to comprehend a supra-phrasal unity. Cohesion refers to different devices for linking up the components of a supra-phrasal unity. Supra-phrasal unities are primarily topical unities. They are often excluded from the sphere of syntax (R. Huddleston, G. Kolshansky).

Since sentences in "supra-phrasal unities" are joined by syntactic cumulation, it is relevant to call sentence sequence "cumulemes" (M.Y. Blokh). If the cumuleme is an essential part of one-direction sequence of sentence, i.e. in monologue speech, there are two-direction sequences. They are constituent parts of dialogue speech, and are called "occursemes" (from the Latin root, which means *to meet*).

The dicteme occupies the highest position in the hierarchy of segmental language levels. It can be expressed either by a cumuleme (a sequence of two or more sentences) or by a single sentence in a topically significant position. The dicteme performs the function of nomination, predication, and stylisation (M.Y. Blokh).

The textual "phoric" relations realise the categories of "prospection" and "retrospection". The prospective cumulation relations (cataphoric) indicate that the antecedent is located in the left-hand environment. *E.g.: The memory of the days*

before she got ill rose up to torment her. Days on the lake. Days on the beach. Nights of music. Nights of dancing (anaphoric) [Cusack].

The aforesaid text notions are text-centred notions, designating operations directed at texts. Foreign scientists distinguish user-centred notions: intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, intertextuality.

Intentionality is the category of textuality which concerns the text producer's attitude to building up a coherent and cohesive text in order to realise the producer's intention.

Acceptability concerns the text receiver's attitude towards the usefulness of the text to receiver. The operation of inference is suitable in this case.

Informativity concerns the extent to which the presented texts are expected/unexpected or known/unknown. The texts which need inference, more implicit are the most informative.

Situationality concerns the factors which make the text relevant.

Intertextuality concerns the factors which make the utilisation of one text dependent on the knowledge of one or previously encountered texts. Within a particular type, reliance on intertextuality can be more or less prominent.

Hence, the term "text" has the same root with the Latin verb "texere" which meant "to weave". The textual unities are "woven" together, producing some kinds of "hyper-textual" relations and integrating into a larger paradigm. Will it be a "supra" or "mega" paradigm? The topical issue is still open to debate.

Part II. Issues for Practice and Discussion

Chapter I. Practice Assignments

1. Seminar 1

Syntax: Phrases

The Problems for Discussion

1. Subject-matter of syntax.
2. Characteristic features of syntactic units.
3. Syntactic relations and syntactic connections.
4. Word-group theory in the home and foreign linguistics.
5. Types of word-groups.

Recommended Reading

1. Алєксєєва І.О. Курс теоретичної граматики сучасної англійської мови: Навчальний посібник. – Вінниця: НОВА КНИГА, 2007. – 328 с.
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7. Поточна періодика (журнали „Вопросы языкознания", „Мовознавство", „Іноземні мови").
8. Прибыток И.И. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. – М.: Издательский Центр «Академия», 2008. – 384 с.
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10. Biber D., Johansson S., Leech G., etc. Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English. – L. Pearson Education, 2000. – 1204 p.

Practical Tasks

I. Find out whether the constructions in question are predicative word groups or clauses.

1. Someone else was awake, with his hands clasped around his knees. 2. Someone else was awake, while his hands were tightly clasped around his knees. 3. They watched him boarding the train just as it had begun to move from the platform. 4. For him to find a corner seat in one of the compartments caused some difficulty, but at last he found it. 5. Weather permitting, he would be a success, but if only he could permit himself to accept it! 6. He felt, with a surge of anxious hope, that there could be no doubt about it. 7. He felt an involuntary burst of courage filling him, but his first attempt was a failure. 8. When he noticed her escape, he felt exhausted and degraded.

II. Define the type of syntactic relations and find out the importance of prosody elements in the word groups.

1. a `dust `mop – a `dust mop
2. a `mad `doctor – a `mad doctor
3. a `French `doctor – a `French teacher
4. a `blackbird's nest – a black `bird's nest – a black bird's nest

III. Specify the type of syntactic relations and translate the word groups.

1. a sparrow of a woman, a giant of a man, a hell of a noise, a love of a child, a devil of a fellow, the deuce of a price, a devil of a hurry, a jewel of a nature, a doll of a girl, a jewel of a girl.

2. "Perhaps you know that lady", Gatsby indicated a gorgeous, scarcely human orchid of a woman who sat in state under a white-plum tree" [F. Fitzgerald]. "What a jolly little duck of a house!" [Galsworthy]. "His own life as yet such a baby of a thing, hopelessly ignorant and innocent" [Galsworthy].

IV. Comment on the form of subordination

Handsome boys, the dress of silk, this recently retired officer, showed her friend a picture, relied upon her proposal, his notes, the “take or leave it” tradition, made me work, wrote with a ballpen, that Easter week-end’s nation-wide anti-war demonstration, David’s room, ran quickly, three remarks, his fingerprints, depends upon your opinion, dictated to the students, saw him, saw a boy, space ships.

Methodology

Students can work on this project individually or in groups.

- Ask the students: What approaches to the sentence treatment do you know?
- Students give their ideas. You can use common ideas as a basis for forming groups. It doesn’t matter if more than one group chooses the same item for discussion.
- Students choose their topic.
- Read and discuss the project format with the students.
- Students research and write their projects.
- Students display their projects and\or present them orally.
- Discuss the projects. Pay particular attention to how well the format was followed.

Questions for Self-Assessment

1. What are the differential features of the phrase?
2. What are the differential features of the sentence?
3. What makes the sentence the main object of syntax?
4. What does agreement as a syntactic relation consist in?
5. What differentiates government from agreement?
6. What syntactic relations of the phrase constituents does enclosure imply?
7. What type of syntagma is adjoinment typical of?
8. What is the difference between predicative word-groups and sentences?
9. What differentiates clauses and sentences?

2. Seminar 2

The Sentence: General Characteristics. Parts of the Sentence

The Problems for Discussion

1. External and internal approaches to the definition of the sentence.
2. Essential features of the sentence.
3. One-member and elliptical sentences. Quasi-sentences.
4. Classification of the parts of the sentence.
5. Types of objects in modern English and Ukrainian.
6. The attribute and its peculiarities in English and Ukrainian.
7. Types of predicates in English.
8. Classification of adverbial modifiers and loose (detached) parts of speech in English.
9. Semantic roles.

Recommended Reading

1. Блох М.Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка: Учеб. – 3-е изд., испр. – М.: Высш. школа, 2000. – 381 с.
2. Ильиш Б.А. Строй современного английского языка. – Л.: Просвещение, 1971. – 365 с.
3. Иофик Л.Л., Чахоян Л.П., Поспелова А.Г. Хрестоматия по теоретической грамматике английского языка. – Л.: Просвещение, 1981. – 223 с.
4. Прибыток И.И. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. – М.: Изд. Центр «Академия», 2008. – 384с.
5. Проблемні питання синтаксису: Зб. Статей/ Н.В. Гуйванюк та ін. (ред.). – Чернівці, 1997. – 228 с.
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8. Biber D., Johansson S., Leech G., etc. Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English. – L. Pearson Education, 2000. – 1204 p.

9. Brazil D. A Grammar of Speech. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1995. – 264 p.

10. Fanconnier G. Mapping in Thought and Language. – Cambridge: Cambridge Univ. Press, 1997. – 205 p.

11. Fillmore C.J. The Case for Case // Universals in Linguistic Theory. – London: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968. – P. 1-88.

12. Kobrina N.A., Korneyeva E.A. An Outline of Modern English Syntax. – Moscow: Higher School Publishing House, 1965. – 211 p.

13. Tsui A.B.M. English Conversation. - Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1995. – 298 p.

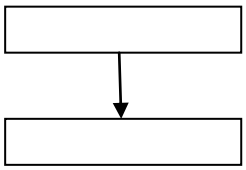
Practical Tasks

I. Define the type of coordinate conjunctions.

1. I didn't take eggnog for I was for some stronger beverage.
2. We'll swap the roles, that is my hobby we will be a house-husband.
3. We could either go for a restaurant or get a take-away.
4. I'm keen on neither shoe-string budget films nor a box-office smash.
5. He promised to give me a lift, but he wouldn't.
6. My mother is a real film buff, hence she can list all the films.

II. Analyse the following sentences.

Model: What I suffered for that placard nobody can imagine.



It is a complex declarative sentence with an object subordinate clause.

"Nobody" is the subject of the principle clause, expressed by a negative pronoun, in the 3d person singular, in the common case.

"Can imagine" is the compound modal verbal predicate, consisting of the link verb "can" in the Present Indefinite, Active Voice, Indicative Mood, intransitive,

subjective; “imagine” in the Present Indefinite, Common Aspect, Indicative Mood, Active Voice, transitive, objective.

“I” is the subject of the subordinate clause, expressed by a personal pronoun in the 1st person singular.

“Suffered” is the predicate of the subordinate clause, expressed by the verb “suffer” in the Past Indefinite, Active Voice, Common Aspect, Indicative Mood, intransitive, objective.

“For … placard” is a prepositional object, expressed by a common, concrete, countable noun, in the singular, in the Common Case and the proposition “for”.

“That” is an attribute, expressed by a demonstrative pronoun.

“What” is a conjunctive pronoun.

1. The trouble is he can’t help you.
2. And because they were all laughing, it seemed to him that they were all lovely.
3. The book he gave me last week is too boring.
4. At my age I get nervous whenever I see him.
5. He soon fell asleep, sobbing at longer intervals.

III. Define the type of the predicate.

1. Jack spoke.
2. She is asleep.
3. Mrs. Davidson gave a gasp.
4. The screams were still rising unabated from the swimming pool.
5. His heart stopped beating.
6. It turned out to be Sam.
7. I can give you a call as soon as I get home.
8. She would lie awake for a long time worrying about her mother.

IV. Define the type of the object.

1. He lived a long and happy life.
2. She slowly, abstractedly closed the door in his face.
3. I hate him to talk about this.

4. He made them work hard.
5. They laughed a hearty laugh.
6. Ann waited for the guests to come.
7. The main advantage of the IC model is obvious.
8. Having waited for them for an hour, they came back and slept a sound sleep.

V. Define the semantic roles of the sentence constituents.

Sentence 1. The students studied under the tree.

Sentence 2. The teacher put the eraser in the drawer.

Sentence 3. The teacher helped the students happily.

Sentence 4. Jane went to Columbus by bus.

Sentence 5. I was poor last year.

Sentence 6. The butcher cut the meat with the cleaver.

Sentence 7. The man walked to his apartment slowly.

Sentence 8. The woman showed the document to the detective reluctantly.

Sentence 9. Happily, the woman gave money to the homeless.

Sentence 10. The maid opened the can with a can opener carefully.

Sentence 11. The child left the room quietly.

Sentence 12. That secretary is not happy in that office.

Sentence 13. Is that secretary happy in that office?

Sentence 14. Where do you work?

Sentence 15. Why aren't you happy in this town?

Sentence 16. Who did you show that picture to this morning?

Sentence 17. What did the woman tell the detective this morning?

Sentence 18. Who told the story to the detective this morning?

Sentence 19. Who doesn't like ice cream?

Sentence 20. How do you go to school everyday?

Sentence 21. Who was arrested in the demonstration on campus yesterday?

Sentence 22. The demonstrators were jailed this morning.

Sentence 23. Who was given some money by the millionaire?

Methodology

Students can work on this project individually or in groups.

- Discuss the field of syntax with students. Find out what they know about different points of view of the problem treatment.
- Divide the class into groups.
- Groups choose the item they wish to write about.
- Discuss the project format that is given.
- Students research and write their projects.
- Students display their projects and/or present them orally.

Questions for Self-Assessment

1. What are internal and external approaches to sentence treatment?
2. Give examples of elliptical sentences in English.
3. Name types of predicates in English.
4. What is the propositional content of a sentence?
5. What does a proposition consists of?
6. What is a semantic role?
7. Give the semantic representation of the sentence “When did you promise Susan to wash her car?”
8. When is a sentence ambiguous? Give an example.
9. What is lexical ambiguity? Give an example.
10. What is structural ambiguity? Give an example.
11. What is an entailment of a sentence? Give an example.
12. What is the presupposition of a sentence? Give an example.
13. Is the presupposition of a sentence always its entailment? Explain.
14. Can two sentences that contradict each other entail each other? Explain.
15. Can a sentence be a presupposition of another sentence that contradicts it?

3. Seminar 3

The Sentence: Essential Features and Classification

The Problems for Discussion

1. The essential features of the sentence.
2. The classification of sentences in classical grammar.
3. The classification of sentences in structural grammar.
4. The existence of purely exclamatory sentences.
5. Intermediary predicative constructions.
6. Distributional analysis.
7. IC model.
8. The theme-rheme model.

Recommended Reading

1. Блох М.Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка: Учеб. – 3-е изд., испр. – М.: Высш. школа, 2000. – 381 с.

2. Иванова И.П., Бурлакова В.В., Почепцов Г.Г. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. – М.: Высш. школа, 1981. – 285 с.

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5. Меркулова Н.О. Засоби тема-рематичного поділу висловлення: Автореф. дис. канд. філол. наук: 10.02.01. – Дніпропетровськ, 2006. – 20 с.

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10. Раєвська Н.Н. Сучасна англійська граматика. – К.: Вища школа, 1976. – 304 р.

11. Valin Van R. Syntax: Structure, Meaning and Function. – Cambridge: Cambridge Univ. Press, 1997. – P. 45-64.

Additional Task

1. Speech Acts Theory.

Recommended reading:

1) Новое в зарубежной лингвистике. Теория речевых актов, Т. 17. – М., 1986.

2) Levinson St. Pragmatics. L. – N.Y., 1983.

2. Теория референции.

1) Арутюнова Н.Д. Предложение и его смысл. – М., 1985.

2) Падучева Е.В. Высказывание и его соотнесенность с действительностью. – М., 1985.

Practical Tasks

I.Rewrite the sentences as in the example giving emphasis to the word in bold.

1. **Mary** sent this card. ...*It was Mary who sent this card*....
2. **Judy** baked the cake.
3. Did **you** lock the front door?
4. You need **a long rest.**
5. Johnny needs **a new pair of shoes.**
6. **Mary** came round last night.
7. **Where** did you go on holiday last year?
8. **Why** are you always biting your nails?
9. It doesn't matter **what** he does, he always makes mistakes .
10. He **bought** a new ring for her .
11. Are you angry with **Jim**?
12. **Mr. Brown** called the police.
13. **When** are you moving house?
14. Jane needs **a lot of support** at the moment.
15. **How** will I get there so early in the morning?

II. Analyse the following sentences according to the IC model.

1. My friends were waiting for me at the station. 2. The people upstairs complained. 3. I'll see what can be done about it. 4. They're sure to be home now. 5. Usually the boys in the family milked the goats in the morning. 6. The boys usually answered rudely when they were questioned.

3. Make a transformational analysis: The barking dog frightened me.

Methodology

Students can work on the project individually on in groups.

- Divide the class into groups.
- Students choose their topic. Students should only choose one of the possible ideas given. Encourage them to write in details about the item chosen, rather than superficially about a wide format.
- Students research and write their projects.
- Students display their projects and/or present them orally.
- Discuss the projects.

Questions for Self-Assessment

1. What does the IC model of the sentence show?
2. What does syntactic derivation imply?
3. Name six major classes of transformation.
4. What are the main principles of the actual division of the sentence?
5. What sentence elements can be called “thematic”?
6. What language means mark the theme of the sentence?
7. What is understood by the rheme of the sentence?
8. What language means are used to express the rheme of the sentence?

4. Seminar 4

The Composite Sentence

The Problems for Discussion

1. Peculiar features of the composite sentence.
2. Different construction types of the composite sentence.
3. The structural features of the principal clause in the complex sentence.
4. The classification of subordinate clauses.
5. Clauses of primary nominal position.
6. Subordinate clauses of secondary nominal position.
7. Clauses of adverbial position.
8. The types of structure and arrangement of complex sentences.
9. The problem of existence of compound sentences.
10. The types of coordinate connection.
11. Semi-complex sentence.
12. Semi-compound sentence.

Recommended Reading

1. Алєксєєва І.О. Курс теоретичної граматики сучасної англійської мови: Навчальний посібник. – Вінниця: Нова Книга, 2007. – 328 с.

2. Блох М.Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка: Учеб. – 3-е изд., испр. – М.: Высш. школа, 2000. – 381 с.

3. Иванова И.П., Бурлакова В.В., Почепцов Г.Г. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. – М.: Высш. школа, 1981. – 285 с.

4. Ильиш Б.А. Строй современного английского языка. – Л.: Просвещение, 1971. – 365 с.

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10. Сложное предложение: традиционные вопросы теории и описания и новые аспекты его изучения. Материалы науч. конференции / А.Н. Латышева, Т.М. Цветкова. – М.: Изд-во «Русский учебный центр», 2000. – 254 с.

11. Харітонов І.К. Теоретична граматика сучасної англійської мови. Навчальний посібник. – Вінниця: НОВА КНИГА, 2008. – 352 с.

12. Biber D., Johansson S., Leech G., etc. Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English. – L. Pearson Education, 2000. – 1204 p.

Practical Tasks

I. Analyse the following complex sentences. State in what way the subordinate clauses are introduced.

1. He owed it to his first teacher that he had a good pronunciation. 2. Her father did not like when she interfered with his work. 3. I can't tell you which way is the shortest. 4. I cannot say that what I have heard is much to his credit. 5. I thought how alike people were in a moment of common interest. 6. In the morning Henry cooked the breakfast while Bill was still sleeping. 7. It is getting dark and windy so we had better return home. 8. Take a lantern because we shall not be able to find our way. 9. Be careful so that you won't slip and injure yourself. 10. I looked in all directions but no house was to be seen.

II. Analyse the means of connecting clauses in the following compound sentences.

1. A little nervous and depressed he turned to retrace his steps, for all at once he felt himself very much of a nobody. 2. How glad I am to have met you then, otherwise we might have lost sight of each other. 3. Trench, either you travel as a gentleman, or you travel alone. 4. To know things by name is one thing; to know them by seeing them, quite another. 5. Philip Bosinney was known to be a young man

without fortune, but Forsyte girls had become engaged to such before, and had actually married them. 6. She drew the curtain back and the room was flooded with gold. 7. I want to go very much, still I do not care to go out in the rain. 8. The moon went down, the stars grew pale, the cold day broke; the sun rose. 9. Not all the necessary things were bought for the trip, therefore we had to postpone our departure for several days.

Methodology

Students can work on thee project individually or in groups.

- Divide the class into groups.
- Groups choose their topic. They should only choose one of the possible topics given.
- Students research and write their projects.
- Students display their projects and/or present them orally.

Questions for Self-Assessment

1. What semantic relations underlie coordinative clauses?
2. What are the differentional features of the compound (complex) sentence?
3. What sentence is termed “semi-composite”?
4. What is peculiar to the semi-compound sentence?

5. Seminar 5

Sentence Pragmatics

The Problems for Discussion

1. Pragmatic syntax.
2. Communicative intention.
3. Pragmatic types of sentences.
4. Pragmatic transposition of sentences.

Recommended Reading

1. Иванова И.П., Бурлакова В.В., Почепцов Г.Г. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. – М.: Высш. школа, 1981. – 285 с.
2. Михайлов Л.М. Коммуникативная грамматика немецкого языка. – М.: Высш. школа, 1994. – 256 с.
3. Новое в зарубежной лингвистике. – Выпуск 27: Теория речевых актов. – М.: Прогресс, 1986. – 422 с.
4. Поточна періодика (журнали „Вопросы языкознания", „Мовознавство", „Іноземні мови").
5. Прибыток И.И. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. – М.: Издательский Центр «Академия», 2008. – 384 с.
6. Селіванова О.О. Сучасна лінгвістика: напрями та проблеми: Підручник. – Полтава: Довкілля-К, 2008. – 712 с.
7. Wierzbicka A. Cross-Cultural Pragmatics. The Semantics of Human Interaction. – Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter, 1991. – 502 p.

Practical Tasks

I.Do the following tests

1. The creator of the term "locution", "illocution", "perlocution" is:
   a) Pocheptsov G.G.;
   b) John Austin;
   c) John Searle.
2. Communicative intention points:
   a) to the content of sentence;

b) to fulfilment of a definite speech aim;

3. Communicative intention is realised:
   a) in communicative-intentional content;
   b) only in speech intercourse.
4. There are no performatives in:
   a) the Continuous tenses;
   b) the Perfect tenses;
   c) the Indefinite tenses.
5. Pragmatical syntax examines the relationships between:
   a) communicative and functional types of sentences;
   b) linguistic items and speakers.
6. Constatives are realised only in:
   a) the interrogative sentences;
   b) the affirmative sentences;
   c) the negative sentences.
7. The object of the directive sentences is:
   a) inducement of an addressee to fulfil the action;
   b) containing information about some discomfortable state of the agent of the sentence.
8. Language competence is:
   a) ability to build up the sentence;
   b) ability to use a sentence properly in a speech act.
9. Promissives and menacives are interesting as an object of:
   a) comparative study;
   b) stylistic study.
10. Communicative intention is reflected by:
   a) pragmatical component;
   b) proposition.
11. Various realisations of a sentence differ from each other by the illocutionary force:

a) yes;

b) no.

12. The speaker is not a guarantee of a future event reality in:

a) constantives;

b) menacives;

c) promissives.

13. Semantic structure of a sentence consists of:

a) pragmatical component and proposition;

b) pragmatical component and illocutionary force.

14. There are two types of directive sentences:

a) an injuction and request;

b) injuctive and requestive;

c) promissive and menacive.

15. The status of the addressee is changed pronouncing:

a) a promissive;

b) a constative;

c) a performative;

d) a menacive.

16. Sentences like: I'm apologising, I'm congratulating can be considered:

a) as promissives;

b) as performatives;

c) as constatives.

17. Sentences of the same structural type:

a) have no differences;

b) have essential differences.

18. A sentence in a speech realisation is a unit of:

a) one paradigmatic type;

b) some paradigmatic types.

19. A combination I (hereby) + verb (with illocutionary force) + addressee presents:

a) the proposition;

b) the content of pragmatical component.

Methodology

Students can work on this project individually or in groups. It will probably work best in groups of three or four.

- Divide the class into groups.
- Read the questions aloud.
- Students discuss the questions and make their own set of inference.
- Students display their projects and/or present them orally.

Questions for Self-Assessment

1. What pragmatic types of the sentence do you know?
2. Give an example of performative structure.
3. Explain the terms “upgrader”, ‘propositional content’, “locution”, “actual transposition”.

6. Seminar 6

Syntax of the Text

The Problems for Discussion

1. The problem of the highest syntactic unit.
2. The distinguishing features of the text as a lingual element.
3. The types of the sentence sequence based on the communicative direction of their component sentences.
4. The subdivision of cumulation.
5. The parcellated constructions.

Recommended Reading

1. Блох М.Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка: Учеб. – 3-е изд., испр. – М.: Высш. школа, 2000. – 381 с.
2. Дискурс як когнітивно-комунікативний феномен: Зб. статей / І.С. Шевченко (заг. ред.). – Харків: Константа, 2005. – 356 с.
3. Залевская А.А. Слово. Текст: Избранные труды. – М.: Гнозис, 2005. – 543 с.
4. Прибыток И.И. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. – М.: Издательский Центр «Академия», 2008. – 384 с.
5. Привалова И.В. Интеркультура и вербальный знак (лингвокогнитивные основы межкультурной коммуникации). – М.: Гнозис, 2005. – 472 с.
6. Селіванова О.О. Сучасна лінгвістика: напрями та проблеми: Підручник. – Полтава: Довкілля-К, 2008. – 712 с.
7. Харітонов І.К. Теоретична граматика сучасної англійської мови. Навчальний посібник. – Вінниця: НОВА КНИГА, 2008. – 352 с.
8. Blokh M.Ya. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. – M.: Высш. школа, 2003. – 383 p.
9. Dijk T.A. Van. Some Aspects of Text Grammars. – The Hague: Mouton, 1972.

Additional Task

1. Пресуппозиция

Recommended reading

Арутюнова Н.Д. Понятие о пресуппозиции в лингвистике // Изв. АН СССР, 1973. – Т. 32. – № 1.

2. Make a Synopsis of:

1) Фоломкина С.К. Текст в обучении иностранным языкам // Иностр. языки в школе, 1985. – № 3. – С. 18-22.

2) Тураева З.Я. Лингвистика текста. – М.: Просвещение, 1986.

Practical Tasks

1. Dwell on the means of cohesion in the given text fragments.

a) Such a lucky month! But she did wish it could be sooner. It was a long time for James to wait, at his age!

To wait! They dreaded it for James, but they were used to it themselves. Indeed, it was their great distraction. To wait! For *The Times* to read; for one or other of their nieces or nephews to come in and cheer them up; for news of Nicholas's health; for that decision of Christopher's about going on the stage; for information concerning the mine of Mrs. MacAnder's nephew; for the doctor to come about Hester's inclination to wake up early in the morning; for books from the library which were always out; for Timothy to have a cold; for a nice quiet warm day, not too hot, when they could take a turn in Kensington Gardens. To wait, one on each side of die hearth in die drawing-room, for the dock between them to strike; their thin, veined, knuckled hands plying knitting-needles and crochet-hooks, their hair ordered to stop – like Canute's waves – from any further advance in colour. To wait in their black silks or satins for the Court to say that Hester might wear her dark green, and Juley her darker maroon. To wait, slowly turning over and over in their old minds the little joys and sorrows, events and expectancies, of their little family world, as cows chew patient cuds in a familiar field. And this new event was so well worth waiting for.[The Forsyte Saga, J. Galsworthy, p. 489].

b) “You out there” – he cried in a trembling voice. “You there – !” He paused, his arms still uplifted, his head held attentively as though he were expecting an answer. John strained his eyes to see whether there might be men coming down the mountain, but the mountain was bare of human life. There was only sky and a mocking flute of wind along the tree-tops. Could Washington be praying? For a moment John wondered. Then the illusion passed – there was something in the man's whole attitude antithetical to prayer.

“Oh, you above there!”

The voice was become strong and confident. This was no forlorn supplication. If anything, there was in it a quality of monstrous condescension.

“You there –“

Words, too quickly uttered to be understood, flowing one into the other . . . John listened breathlessly, catching a phrase here and there, while the voice broke off, resumed, broke off again – now strong and argumentative, now coloured with a slow, puzzled impatience. Then a conviction commenced to dawn on the single listener, and as realisation crept over him a spray of quick blood rushed through his arteries. Braddock Washington was offering a bribe to God!

That was it – there was no doubt. [F. Scott Fitzgerald. The Diamond as Big as the Ritz and other stories, p. 125].

c) Paul was frankly pudgy. He took the baked clay tiles Sandy and I passed up the ladder and passed them to Jerry, skinny, wiry, and light on his feet, who distributed them to the other three.

I looked at Tony, solid, and strong, and surprisingly capable at what must be unfamiliar work, and thought that his clothes did not do him justice. How could my mother fall in love with Kelly when her boss was a man like that?

Rick and Greg were two sides of a coin, one so dark, the other so fair. Rick, as tall as Greg but narrower in the shoulders, was brown and completely hairless, with the suppleness of a sleek cat. But I knew I would always carry the memory of Greg like a picture in an album, shirtless and tanned, standing on the red-tiled roof with the breeze lifting his fair hair as he gazed over the trees toward the mountains.

Marita was everywhere in her beautifully cot jeans, urging us on with her limitless enthusiasm, directing operations all along the assembly line she had set up, egging us on, good-humoredly, sometimes with acid humor. [V.Nielsen. The House of Three Sisters, p. 70].

Methodology

Students can work on this project individually or in groups.

- Ask the students: What approaches to the sentence treatment do you know?
- Students give their ideas. You can use common ideas as a basis for forming groups. It doesn't matter if more than one group chooses the same item for discussion.
- Students choose their topic.
- Read and discuss the project format with the students.
- Students research and write their projects.
- Students display their projects and\or present them orally.
- Discuss the projects. Pay particular attention to how well the format was followed.

Questions for Self-Assessment

1. What definition of text is syntactically relevant?
2. What textual categories do scholars usually identify?
3. Consider the basic difference between a cumuleme, occurseme, dicteme.
4. What are distinguishing features of the text as a supra-lingual element?

Chapter II. Test Yourself

Варіант 1

1. Проаналізувати зв’язок морфології та синтаксису у вивченні граматичної системи мови.
2. Охарактеризувати референційні граматичні категорії.
3. Визначити мовленнєві кореляти таких мовних одиниць: phoneme, morpheme, lexeme, phraseme, texteme.

Варіант 2

1. Порівняти граматичні структури української та англійської мов.
2. Дати аналіз понять “морфема”, “морф”, “аломорф” у світлі алоемічної теорії .
3. Визначити тип синтаксичного зв’язку та роль елементів просодії у словосполученнях: a `dust `mop – a`dust mop, a `mad `doctor – a `mad doctor, a `French `teacher – a `French teacher, a `blackbird’s nest – a black `bird’s nest – a black bird’s `nest

Варіант 3

1. Визначити поняття “граматична полісемія” та навести приклади.
2. Довести аналітичність англійської мови.
3. Знайти іншу суплетивну форму, заповнивши такі парадигми: I - , go - , one - , can - , information - .

Варіант 4

1. Визначити поняття “граматична синонімія” та навести приклади.
2. Проаналізувати проблеми актуального поділу речення.
3. Вказати мовні кореляти таких мовленнєвих одиниць: allophone, phrase, text, word.

Варіант 5

1. Дати визначення поняття “граматична омонімія” та навести приклади.
2. Обгрунтувати аломорфні особливості рівнів мови.
3. Прокоментувати форми підрядного зв’язку у таких словосполученнях: handsome boys, the dress of silk, this recently retired officer, красива дівчина.

Варіант 6

1. Дати аналіз синтагматичним відношенням у мові.
2. Охарактеризувати самостійні та службові частини мови.
3. Визначити, до якої частини мова належить слово “since” у таких реченнях:

a) Since morning I haven’ t seen him; b) I haven’t seen him since; c) Since he didn’t come, we’ll have to wait for him.

Варіант 7

1. Дати аналіз парадигматичним відношенням у мові (1 тип).
2. Виділити випадки вживання незлічуваних іменників у множині.
3. Визначити тип синтаксичного зв’язку та перекласти такі словосполучення: a sparrow of a woman, a giant of a man, a hell of a child, a jewel of a nature.

Варіант 8

1. Прокоментувати принципи граматичної класифікації слів.
2. Визначити головні критерії виділення іменника як частини мови.
3. Згрупувати наступні слова в групи, беручи до уваги їх граматичні форми: ladies, worse, rose, sends, are reading, biggest, least, were, worked, built, John’s, women, me, is done, has come, cut, broke, looks, geese, puts, wanted, knives, shot, shorter, him, fewer, flats, flattest, have been, cost, costs, shook.

Варіант 9

1. Порівняти два поняття: лексичне та граматичне значення слова.
2. Дати аналіз парадигматичним відношенням у мові (2 тип).
3. Перекласти на українську мову: experience – an experience, failure – a failure, silence – a silence, work – a work.

Варіант 10

1. Визначити засоби репрезентації граматичної форми.
2. Довести доцільність статусу генетиву як маркованої форми англійського іменника.
3. Знайти у поданих реченнях випадки вживання предикативних словосполучень чи частин складнопідрядних речень: a) Someone else was awake, with his hands around his knees, b) Someone else was awake, while his hands were tightly clasped around his knees, c) They watched him boarding the train just as it had begun to move from the platform, d) For him to find a corner seat in one of the compartments caused some difficulty, but at last he found it.

Варіант 11

1. Проаналізувати характерні особливості граматичних категорій.
2. Довести аналітичність англійської мови.
3. Навести приклади іменників, вжитих у генетиві, які означають назви неістот.

Варіант 12

1. Охарактеризувати статус дієслова як частини мови.
2. Дати аналіз граматичної категорії часу.
3. Визначити значення, передані генетивом, у таких випадках:

a) a doll’s face, Brown’s trial, Tom’s anger, Lady’s Wear, Ann’s doll, Charles Dickens’s novels, a handful of sugar, a mile’s distance.

Варіант 13

1. Дати аналіз парадигматичним відношенням у мові (3 тип).
2. Визначити характерні риси синтаксичних одиниць.
3. Прокоментувати використання часових форм у текстовому фрагменті:

On the following evening I took the Blue Train to the Riviera and two or three days later went over to Antibes to see Elliot and give him news of Paris. He looked far from well. The cure at Montecatini had not done him the good he expected, and his subsequent wanderings had exhausted him.

Варіант 14

1. Проаналізувати різні системи класифікацій англійського дієслова.
2. Дати аналіз тема-рематичній організації речення.
3. Визначити тлумачення поданих термінів: 1. Base Form. 2. Auxiliary Verb. 3. Modal. 4. – ing Noun.

a) An auxiliary verb which is used with a main verb to show a particular attitude such as possibility, obligation or prediction, b) A noun formed from a verb and ending in -ing, c) A verb which is used with a main verb to form tenses, negatives, questions, d) The form of the verb which has no letters added to it.

Варіант 15

1. Охарактеризувати статус прикметника як частини мови.
2. Дати аналіз синтаксичним відношенням і синтаксичним зв’язкам.
3. Утворити множину таких іменників, аргументуючи спосіб утворення: soprano, kilo, Filipino, concerto, video.

Варіант 16

1. Прокоментувати морфологічні засоби репрезентації граматичної форми слова.
2. Проаналізувати підрядний тип синтагматичних відношень.

3. Навести приклади іменників протилежного роду: host, sir, gander, dog, leopard, usher.

Варіант 17

1. Дати критичний аналіз теоріям щодо визначення кількості форм категорії стану у сучасній англійській мові.

2. Охарактеризувати сигніфікативні граматичні категорії.

3. Відшукати частини мови, відповідно таким визначенням:

a) a word which refers to a person, a thing or an abstract idea such as a feeling or a quality, b) a word which is used to replace a noun that has already been mentioned or that will be mentioned later, c) a word which adds information about a verb or an adjective, d) a word with no meaning on its own which is used in front of a noun or a noun phrase.

Варіант 18

1. Описати синтагматичні процеси у мові (аднекцію).

2. Дати аналіз типам синтаксичних зв'язків у словосполученні.

3. Визначити, які граматичні терміни позначають такі скорочення: adj, adv, C, conj, phrv, infml.

Варіант 19

1. Описати синтагматичні процеси у мові (ад'юнкцію).

2. Дати аналіз характерних особливостей синтаксичних одиниць.

3. Дати англійські варіанти перекладу: а) Кейт і Макс прийшли вчасно, але більшість студентів спізнились; б) Один із моїх друзів добре володіє японською; в) Більш ніж одна особа погоджується з цим.

Варіант 20

1. Охарактеризувати рівні та одиниці мови.

2. Описати синтагматичні процеси у мові (кон'юнкцію).

3. Утворити множину таких іменників: thesis, stratum, stimulus, formula.

Варіант 21

1.Прокоментувати тезу про складність визначення чіткої межі між морфологією і синтаксисом.

2. Визначити мовні засоби вираження тема-рематичних зв'язків у реченні.

3. Перекласти на українську мову: experience – an experience, failure – a failure, silence – a silence, work – a work.

Варіант 22

1. Обґрунтувати парадигматичні відношення у мові (4-й тип).

2. Охарактеризувати підходи до класифікації частин мови.

3. Відшукати частини мови відповідно таким визначенням:

a) a word which give more information about a noun or a pronoun, b) a word which adds information about a verb, or about an adjective or an adverb, c) a word or group of words often placed before a noun or pronoun to indicate place direction, source, method, etc.

Варіант 23

1. Виділити принципи класифікації частин мови.

2. Охарактеризувати типи опозицій у граматиці сучасної англійської мови.

3. Визначити тлумачення поданих термінів: 1. Base Form. 2. Auxiliary Verb. 3.Modal. 4. -ing Noun.

a) An auxiliary verb which is used with a main verb to show a particular attitude such as possibility, obligation or prediction, b) A noun formed from a verb and ending in -ing, c) A verb which is used with a main verb to form tenses, negatives, questions, d) The form of the verb which has no letters added to it.

Варіант 24

1. Охарактеризувати теорії щодо кількості частин мови у сучасній англійській мові.

2. Дати аналіз значенням, що передаються генетивом сучасної англійської мови.

3. Навести приклади модальних слів і слів категорії стану у сучасній англійській мові.

Варіант 25

1. Визначити самостійні та службові частини мови у сучасній англійській мові.

2. Дати аналіз протиставленню “Singularia Tantum” vs “Pluralia Tantum” у системі іменника сучасної англійської мови.

3. Навести приклади лексичних та граматичних морф.

Варіант 26

1. Описати морфологічну та лексико-граматичну класифікації англійського дієслова.

2. Визначити характерні особливості синтаксичних одиниць.

3. Вставити пропущені слова: a) These days a few men became monks and a few women became … b) Mars is the god of war, Diana is the … of hunting. c) A widow can often manage much better on her own than a … d) My brother and sister have never married. He’s still a … and she’s still a …

Варіант 27

1. Дати аналіз дихотомії “ мова – мовлення” та рівнів мови.

2. Охарактеризувати принципи класифікації частин мови.

3. Визначити тип підрядних відношень: David’s room, saw a boy, that Easter week-end’s nation-wide anti-war demonstration, the “take or leave it” tradition.

Варіант 28

1. Визначити одиниці мови та дати їх мовленнєві кореляти.

2. Охарактеризувати типи словосполучень згідно характеру синтаксичних зв’язків.

3. Конкретизувати тип синтаксичних відношень та перекласти: a love of a child, a devil of a fellow, a jewel of a nature, a doll of a girl.

Варіант 29

1. Охарактеризувати основні риси сучасної англійської як аналітичної мови.

2. Дати аналіз типам теоретичних граматик.

3. Вказати вид присудка: a) He was alarmed by the accident, b) The wall has already been whitewashed, c) He was being introduced .

Варіант 30

1. Описати граматичну категорію прикметника: ступені порівняння.

2. Охарактеризувати кореляції “ граматичний підмет – логічний підмет” та “граматичний присудок – логічний присудок” речення (актуальний розподіл речення).

3. Визначити синтаксичні функції прикметника: a) She wears her shirt tight, b) It’s a bitter-sweet union.

Part III. Authentic Texts Clippings

Word-Groups

H. Sweet, A New English Grammar,
Part I, p. 16, 19, 32 - 35.

When words are joined together grammatically and logically without forming a full sentence, we call the combination a word-group. Thus, *man of honour*, *the roundness of the earth*, *the round earth*, *going away*, *his going away* are word-groups.

When words come together without there being any special connection between them, they may be said to constitute a word-collocation.

Combinations of Words to express Thoughts

Adjunct-Words and Head-Words

The most general relation between words in sentences from a logical point of view is that of adjunct-word and head-word, or, as we may also express it, of modifier and modified. Thus in the sentences *tall men are not always strong*, *all men are not strong*, *tall*, *strong*, and *all* are adjunct-words modifying the meaning of the head-word *men*. So also *dark*, *quick*, *quickly* are adjunct-words in *dark red*, *he has a quick step*, *he walks quickly*. *Stone* is an adjunct-word in *stone wall*, *wall of stone*, because it modifies (defines) the meaning of wall. So also *book (books)* is an adjunct-word in *bookseller*, *bookselling*, *sale of books*, *he sells books*, *he sold his books*, *the corresponding head-words being seller*, *selling*, *sale*, *sells*, *sold*.

The distinction between adjunct-word and headword is only a relative one: the same word may be a head-word in one sentence or context, and an adjunct-word in another, and the same word may even be a headword and an adjunct-word at the same time. Thus in he is *very strong*, *strong* is an adjunct-word to he, and at the same time head-word to the adjunct-word very, which, again, may itself be a head-word, as in *he is not very strong*.

Relations between words

Some languages, such as Chinese, show grammatical relations entirely by means of word-order and form-words. Others, such as Latin, rely mainly on inflections, though they

use many form-words as well, with which, indeed, no language can dispense. We call such a language as Chinese an isolating language as distinguished from an inflectional language such as Latin. English is mainly an isolating language which has preserved a few inflections.

We have now to consider how these means of grammatical expression, especially word-order, form-words, and inflections, are used in language to express logical relations.

The first main division is that of modifying and connective. *The* in *the earth* is a modifying form-word; is, and in *the earth is round, you* and *I,* are connective form-words. So also the plural inflection in trees is modifying, while the genitive inflection in *a day's work* is connective. A modifying form requires only one word to make sense (*the earth, trees*), while a connective form requires two words to make sense (*you and I, a day-s work*). The relations between words in sentences are therefore shown mainly by connectives, while modifiers have almost the function of word-formers.

When two words are associated together grammatically their relation may be one either of coordination or of subordination. Coordination is shown either by word-order only, or by the use of form-words, as in *men, women,* and *children,* where the first two full words are connected only by their position, while the last two are connected by the form-word and.

Subordination implies the relation of head-word and adjunct-word. But there are degrees of subordination. When the subordination of an assumptive (attributive) word to its head-word is so slight that the two are almost coordinate, the adjunct-word is said to be in opposition to its head-word. Thus in *king Alfred* the adjunct-word is a pure assumptive – as much so as *good* in the *good king* – and has the usual position of an assumptive word in English, that is, before its head-word, while in *Alfred the king* or *Alfred, king of England,* it stands in apposition to its head-word in a different position and in a more independent relation.

In the above examples the relation between headword and adjunct-word is only vaguely indicated by position, being mainly inferred from the meaning of the words. But in such a sentence as *I bought these books at Mr. Smith's the bookseller's,* the connection

between the adjunct-words these and *bookseller's* and their head-words is shown by each adjunct-word taking the inflection of its head-word. This repetition of the inflection of a headword in its adjunct-word is called concord, and the two words are said to agree in whatever grammatical form they have in common: the concord between these and books consists in their agreeing in number – that is, in both having plural inflection; and the concord between *bookseller's* and *Smith's* consists in their both having the same genitive inflection. In such groups as *green trees*, *the trees became green*, there is no concord, as if we were to say *this books* instead of *these books*. In a highly inflected concord-language such as Latin, green in the above examples would take the plural inflection of *trees* just as much as this would […].

When a word assumes a certain grammatical form through being associated with another word, the modified word is said to be governed by the other one, and the governing word is said to govern the grammatical form in question. Thus in *a day's work*, *day's* is governed by work, and work itself is said to govern the genitive case. So also in *I see him*, *him* is governed by see, and see is said to govern the objective case *him*. In *I thought of him*, the form-word of also governs the objective case.

Close and Loose Syntactic Groups

E. Kruisinga, A Handbook of Present-Day English,
Part II, 3, p. 177-196, 235-236.

A syntactic group is a combination of words that forms a distinct part of a sentence. If the definition of the terms *word* and *sentence* could be regarded as settled, the definition of the term syntactic group, and its delimitation with respect to the other terms, might be perfectly clear. In many cases it is by no means a simple matter, however, to decide whether a given number of syllables is to be looked upon as a single word or as a group of words [...]. The delimitation between syntactic groups and sentences, which depends on the definition of sentence, is equally uncertain. But for the practical or scientific student of language the inconvenience is not so great as it may seem [...].

With regard to the syntactic word-groups we shall have to study their structure in the first place; from this point of view they are distinguished as close or loose.

We speak of a close group when one of the members is syntactically the leading element of the group. We speak of a loose group when each element is comparatively independent of the other members. Examples of close groups are nouns with an attributive noun or adjective, or with an article or a possessive pronoun; also the groups of nouns and pronouns with a verb stem or participle or a verbal ing [...]. The loose groups, on the contrary, leave the individual words unaffected by their member-ship of the group, as in men and women [...].

Structure of Close Syntactic Groups

Close groups can best be enumerated when we arrange them according to their leading member: we may thus distinguish verb groups, noun groups, adjective groups, adverb groups, preposition groups. The pronoun groups are most suitably included in the noun or adjective groups to which they are evident parallels.

Structure of Loose Syntactic Groups

The members of a loose group may be connected by other words or not. Accordingly we distinguish linked groups and unlinked groups. An example of a linked group is *five* and *twenty*; of an unlinked group: *a low soft breathing*.

It is of importance to consider the number of the members of a group. Accordingly we distinguish double, triple, quadruple, etc. groups. It is generally unnecessary to treat groups of more than three members separately; they can be referred to as multiple groups.

When a linked group contains more than two members a further classification is necessary. For it may happen that some members are linked, whereas others are not: this produces the distinction of full-linking and part-linking [...].

Both the linked and the unlinked groups may be of two kinds: they may be broken or continuous. We call a group broken (a) when its members are separated by a clear pause; a group is called continuous (b) when there is no such pause between its members. *E.g.:*

a. When he drew nearer he perceived it to be a spring van, ordinary in shape, but singular in colour, this being a lurid red.

b. ... the third and only remaining house was that of Captain Lye. [...]

The Three Ranks

O. Jespersen, The Philosophy of Grammar p. 96-97, 107.

[...] We have now to consider combinations of words, and here we shall find that though a substantive always remains a substantive and an adjective an adjective, there is a certain scheme of subordination in connected speech which is analogous to the distribution of words into "parts of speech", without being entirely dependent on it.

In any composite denomination of a thing or person [...] we always find that there is one word of supreme importance to which the others are joined as subordinated. This chief word is defined (qualified, modified) by another word, which in its turn may be defined (qualified, modified) by a third word, etc. We are thus led to establish different "ranks" of words according to their mutual relations as defined or defining. In the combination *extremely hot weather* the last word *weather*, which is evidently the *chief idea*, may be called primary; *hot*, which defines *weather*, secondary, and extremely, which defines *hot, tertiary*. Though a tertiary word may be further defined by a (quaternary) word, and this again by a (quinary) word, and so forth, it is needless to distinguish more than three ranks, as there are no formal or other traits that distinguish words of these lower orders from tertiary words. Thus, in the phrase *a certainly not very cleverly worded remark,* no one of the words *certainly, not,* and *very*, though defining the following words is in any way grammatically different from what it would be as a tertiary word, as it is in *a certainly clever remark, not a clever remark, a very clever remark.*

Word-Groups

H. Whitehall, Structural Essentials of English, p. 8-11, 17-18.

The grammatical description of any language is made scientifically possible by isolating certain recurrent units of expression and examining their distribution in

context. The largest of these units are sentences, which can be decomposed into smaller constituent units: first word-groups, [1] then the affixes and combining forms entering into the formation of words, and finally the significant speech-sounds (phonemes) of the language. Normally, we would first isolate the smallest units (the phonemes) and their written representations and then work up gradually to the sentence units. With written English, however, it is advantageous to reverse this procedure and to start by isolating and classifying the word-groups. Because of the nature of the English language, which on the one hand, uses word-groups as the main sentence constituents, and, on the other, uses certain word-group types as sentences, the word-group has become our main structural unit of expression — the brick with which we build up edifices of discourse.

In written English, a word-group is a cluster of two or more words which functions either independently or in a longer sequence of statement as a grammatical[5] unit. Thus, the word-group was foolish can function as an independent grammatical unit in the sentence *I was foolish*, but it functions as the complement in-the more extended sentence *He said I was foolish*. In spoken English, word-groups are marked off either as independent utterances (spoken sentences) or grammatically significant segments of utterances by various combinations of what have been called configurational features: (1) rise or fall in voice loudness; (2) rise or fall in voice tone; (3) interruption of the normal transition between one speech-sound and the next. According to the ways in which they are used and constituted, two main types of English word-groups can be distinguished: headed (endocentric) and non-headed (exocentric).[2]

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[1] This rather clumsy term is used in this book to avoid the traditional distinction between phrase and clause (i.e. dependent subject-predicate word-group) (Author's note).

[2]The terms "endocentric" and "exocentric" for syntactic constructions were introduced by L. Bloomfield in his book "*Language"*.

Headed groups have this peculiarity: all the grammatical functions open to them as groups can also be exercised by one expression within them. They are, so to speak, expansions of this expression, called the head of the group, and it is possible to substitute the head for the group or the group for the head within the same grammatical frame (i.e., in the same context) without causing any formal dislocation of the overall grammatical structure. For instance, in *Fresh fruit is good*, the headed word-group fresh fruit serves as subject; in *I like fresh fruit*, it serves as complement. If we substitute the head expression fruit for fresh fruit in either case, the grammatical frame subject, verb, complement will remain formally undisturbed. E.*g.:*

Fresh fruit is good.
Fruit is good.

I like fresh fruit.
I like fruit.

Similarly:

All this nice fresh fruit is good.
Fruit is good.

Singing songs is fun.
Singing is fun.

I like singing songs.
I like singing.

In these sets of examples, the head expressions fruit and singing are freely substitutable grammatically for the word-groups of which they are constituents. In both cases the italicised word-groups are headed groups.

We find the following explanation of these terms: "Every syntactic construction shows us two (or sometimes more) free forms combined in a phrase, which we may call the resultant phrase. The resultant phrase may belong to a form-class other than that of any constituent. For instance, *John ran* is neither a nominative expression (like *John*) nor a finite verb expression (like *ran*). Therefore we say that English actor-action construction is exocentric: the resultant phrase belongs to the form-class of no immediate constituent. On the other hand, the resultant phrase may belong to the

same form-class as one (or more) of the constituents. For instance, *poor John* is a proper-noun expression, and so is the constituent *John*; the forms *John* and *poor John* have, on the whole, the same functions. Accordingly, we say that the English character-substance construction (as in *poor John, fresh milk,* and *the like*) is an endocentric construction." [L. Bloomfield, Language, New York, 1935, p. 194].

Non-headed groups, unlike headed groups, can enter into grammatical constructions not open to any single expression within them. No word within the group can substitute for the entire group and make sense, nor can the entire group substitute within the same surrounding context for any one of its constituent parts. Such groups are quite literally non-headed. *E.g.:*

I saw a book of poems.

A book of poems is what I saw.

In these sentences, neither I nor saw is substitutable for I saw, and neither of nor poems can replace of poems. To attempt such substitutions would have these results. *E.g.:*

I – a book – poems.

— Saw a book of —

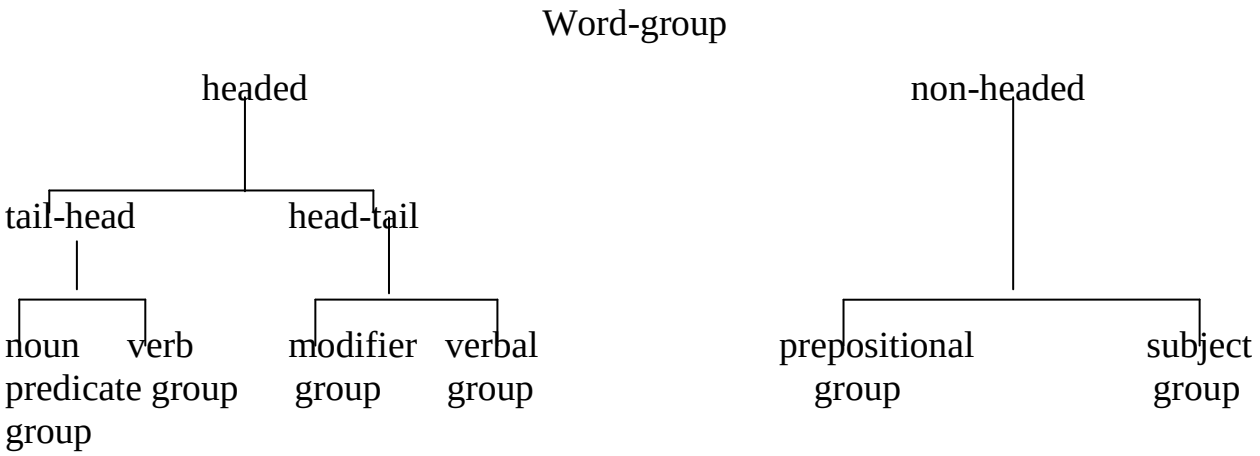
Alternatively:

I saw saw a book of of poems.

I I saw a book of poems poems.

Thus a non-headed group has grammatical functions quite distinct from those of any of its constituent expressions [...].

To understand the structure of English statements, we need to recognize unerringly the four principal types of headed groups (noun groups, verb groups, modifier groups, and verbal groups), the two types of non-headed groups (prepositional groups, subject-predicate groups) and the conjunctional groups [...].



[H.Whitehall]

Simple Sentence in Classical Scientific Grammar

Sentences

H. Sweet, A New English Grammar, Part I, p. 155, 157-158.

A sentence is a word or group of words capable of expressing a complete thought or meaning. Whether or not a given word or group of words is capable of doing this in any one language depends on the way in which that language constructs its sentences – that is, on their form. Thus in Latin comes would be a complete sentence, but not in English, although in itself comes is as intelligible as the complete sentence some one comes or some one is coming. A sentence is, therefore, "a word or group of words whose form makes us expect it to express a full meaning". We say *expect*, because it depends on the context whether or not any one sentence expresses a complete meaning. Thus, such a sentence as he is coming, though complete in form, shows on the face of it that it is incomplete in meaning, for he means someone who has been mentioned before, and makes us ask who is he? Nevertheless *he is coming* is a complete sentence because it has the same form as *John is coming*, *I am coming*, etc., which are complete in meaning as well as form – as far, at least, as any one sentence can be said to be complete [...].

In some cases, however, a complete meaning is expressed by a single word – a sentence-word – such as *Come! – I command you to come*, where the subject being self-

evident, the predicate-word by itself is enough to constitute a sentence. In *I ask John to come – to attend to me*, etc., the subject-word does duty for the predicate as well, which is omitted because of its vagueness. In *I agree with you, I will do so, I am sorry for it*, etc., the distinction between subject and predicate is felt only vaguely. We see, then, that these "one-word-sentences" are of two kinds, consisting (a) of a definite subject or predicate standing alone, and (b) of a word which is in itself neither definite subject nor definite predicate – in which the ideas of subject and predicate are not differentiated, but are "condensed", as it were, in one word. From a grammatical point of view these condensed sentences are hardly sentences at all, but rather something intermediate between word and sentence [...].

A sentence is not only a logical but a phonetic unity. A continuous discourse from a phonetic point of view consists of a succession of sounds divided into breath-groups by the pauses required for taking breath. Within these breath-groups there is no separation of the individual Words. For the sake of clearness we generally wait to take breath till we come to the end of a statement, question, etc., so that a breath-group is generally equivalent to a sense-group, that is, a sentence. In a dialogue, which is the simplest and most natural way of using language, the short sentences of which it mostly consists are marked off by a complete cessation of the speaker's voice. The end of a sentence may be marked phonetically in other ways, especially by intonation. Thus in English we mark the close of a statement by a falling tone, while a rising tone shows that the statement is incomplete, or that a question is intended. In writing we mark off the end of a complete statement by various marks of punctuation, especially the full stop (.).

The Simple Sentence

E. Kruisinga, A Handbook of Present-Day English, Part II, 3, p. 262-300.

The division of speech into words and syntactic groups presupposes an analysis of speech into sentences. No one has yet succeeded in dividing speech into sentences in such a way that no objections have been made, and it is not likely that any one ever will. Nor has any one succeeded in presenting a definition of the term sentence that has found favour among a majority, or even a large class, of grammarians. Great

importance has been attached to the question whether a sentence is to be looked upon as the result of the grouping of words into a whole, or on the contrary as the primary linguistic entity that can be analysed into syntactic groups which, again, can be analysed into words. All these theoretical discussions, however instructive they may be, are of no great importance to the student of a special language, except that they enable him to understand the cause of the different ways the same facts are treated[1] by different grammarians. To give a single example, it is usual in some grammars to treat free adjuncts as elements of a simple sentence: this is the result of the view that a sentence in most languages of the Indo-Germanic group normally contains a subject with a predicative verb, i.e. a verb agreeing with *it*. But it needs little ingenuity to show that sentences in these languages do not invariably contain a predicative verb, and the fact that free adjuncts do not contain a predicative verb, or even no verb at all, need to prevent us from looking upon a sentence with a free adjunct as compound. [1] It seems to matter very little which of the two interpretations is adopted.

English sentences can be divided into two classes with regard to their structure: (1) such as contain a subject and a verbal predicate agreeing with it; (2) such as do not contain a subject and a predicate.

There is no reason to look upon either of these as more normal than the other, the former type being more common in argument, the latter in familiar conversation [...].

Structure of Sentences with a Subject and a Predicate

The analysis of English sentences is made more difficult even than those of many other languages by the almost complete absence of inflections in English. In other languages the subject is often characterised by its own form, as by its agreement with the verbal predicate, both in person and in number. In English the nouns and most pronouns have no characteristic forms for the subject, and there can be no agreement in number and person except when the verb happens to be a present with the suffix -s apart from the case that the verb is to be [...].

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[1] The author uses this term to denote a complex sentence.

With regard to form we can state that the subject of a sentence is a noun or a word or group that serves as a noun-equivalent. The subject may express a meaning or not. *E.g.:*

He has gone home.

To convince him is impossible.

Going to bed was out of the question.

Impossible is a word you use far too frequently.

Black suits you best.

It froze hard for three weeks without interruption.

The pronoun it as a subject without a meaning should be distinguished from it referring to an idea in the mind of the speaker, and is usefully called formal it [...]. *E.g.: It is eight o'clock.*

It is hot, cold.

It is inconvenient arriving in London on Sunday.

It is difficult to prevent this [...].

It is often said that the verbal in these Hast two cases expresses the logical subject, and it is consequently called the provisional subject. This analysis is evidently based on the assumption that the subject "ought to" expresses a meaning, but this has not been proved; it is indeed contrary to the facts of language.

Closely related to it as an empty subject [...] is the introductory particle there [e(r)]. It is formally distinct from the adverb there [e(r)]; and the two may occur successively, or with an intervening word, in the same sentence.

He shut everything in the surrounding world from his mind and thought of his dead mother. There indeed was some strangeness enough... [...]

[...] As in the case of the subject, the verbal element of the predicate may express a meaning (a) or not (b). *E.g.:*

a. My father went home at eight.

My father has gone home at eight.

b. John is quite tall.

John has been a good boy.

When the predicative verb does not express a meaning, as in the cases under 6, the words accompanying the verb form the semantically important part of the predicate. They are generally nouns or adjectives, and such predicates are called nominal predicates. The other predicates are called verbal, and the two kinds of sentences are also distinguished by these terms. It is hardly necessary to point out that the term is not really correct, for both types of sentences are verbal, and it is little short of arbitrary to consider a predicate like was sent as verbal, on the plea that was sent is a verb group, whereas was pleased is considered nominal. But the distinction is often useful, and it seems unobjectionable to retain it after we have pointed out its limited justification.

The verb to be in nominal sentences is called a copula, by which we mean that it has a grammatical, not a semantic function.

[...] There is some difficulty in interpreting a seemingly simple sentence like the following: *He is the only doctor in the village*. The prepositional group is an adjunct to is, not to the noun doctor. Consequently, the predicate can be analysed into three elements: *is, in the village* and *the only doctor,* it is hardly correct to consider the verb in this predicate as a copula, for it expresses, if vaguely, the idea of 'performs the duties of; and the true interpretation seems rather to call it a verbal sentence with a predicative adjunct [...].

The sentence quoted in [...] the preceding section (*He is the only doctor in the village*) has already shown that the distinction of verbal and nominal sentences is not always an easy one to make [...]. A further transitional case is provided by the verbs that take a noun or adjective, not serving as an adjunct to the verb, but as a predicate to the subject of the sentence. *E.g.: I had walked into that reading-room a happy, healthy man. I crawled out a decrepit wreck.*

The term predicative adjunct is convenient for these parts of the sentence.

Predicative adjuncts to the subject may also be adjectives, as in *He arrived safe and sound*. It is not always possible to distinguish between predicative adjectives and adverb adjuncts; thus in *Her heart beat very quick* [...].

The Simple Sentence in Structural Grammar

Sentence

A. H. Marckwardt, Introduction to the English Language, p. 142-147.

Just as the various parts of speech may be considered from the points of view of meaning, function, or form, so the sentence may be approached from the standpoint of logic or meaning, of rhetoric or style, and of form or grammar.

In terms of meaning, the sentence is most frequently defined as the expression of a complete thought. But completeness is highly relative, depending upon the purpose of the speaker or writer as well as upon context. It is difficult to see, for example, that the sentence which is quoted below expresses a thought either more or less complete than if it had been divided into two sentences at the semicolon:

It is obvious that, with such scanty and unexciting materials, no biographer can say very much about what Sir Thomas Browne did; it is quite easy, however, to expatiate about what he wrote.

Obviously, meaning does not provide us with a sufficiently fixed or objective standard for sentence definition. Closest to a formal analysis is that definition or conception which considers the sentence as a group of words having a subject and a predicate. The chief difficulty here, however, is that subject and predicate are essentially logical rather than grammatical terms. That is, when we proceed to define the subject as "the thing which is talked about" and the predicate as "that which is said about the subject", we are again defining in terms of meaning. Moreover, when we come to such pairs of sentences as: *Her work is her hobby* or *Her hobby is her work*, both of which say the same thing in effect, we are at a loss to apply our logical definitions and usually resort to the formal characteristic of word order to decide which of the sentence elements is the subject and which is predicate.

In fact, a definition of a sentence to which few or no exceptions can be taken has yet to be constructed. For this reason, description is preferable to definition, and possibly all that can be said is that the sentence consists of a number of standardised patterns that have been agreed upon by the users of a language, and that for English, a noun-verb or

actor-action sequence such as Dogs bark is the simplest concrete form of such a pattern, liable to all sorts of extension and amplification.

Most definitions and analyses of the sentences have been made by terms of the written language. Yet, if we are to follow the basic linguistic procedure of considering the spoken language as fundamental, we must at least attempt to observe the characteristics which mark the spoken sentence [...].

Returning to the spoken sentence [...] we recognise it primarily in terms of the ending point, which is marked by a shift in voice pitch, either above or below that which has been maintained for the preceding few words, and by a brief pause before the speaker begins his next sentence. It is rarely necessary to make a grammatical analysis in order to discover whether or not a certain group of words constitutes a sentence. No matter how many subjects and accompanying verbs there may be, these are not primarily the factors which determine whether or not a sentence has been uttered. It is again a matter of pitch, stress, and pause. A series of pronouns, verbs, and objects, such as/found it, *I looked at it, I threw it away*, may be uttered as a single sentence or as three, irrespective of whatever formal analysis we may choose to make.

In attempting to comprehend the construction of the English language objectively, the student must be warned against another pitfall which often crops up in sentence analysis. This is the procedure of attempting to mold all sentences into a single pattern by "understanding" nonexistent parts of a sentence. For example, it is often insisted that the actual subject of an imperative verb *Come!* is a you "understood" and the final pronoun in such a sentence as *He is older than I* is rationalised on the grounds that it is the subject.

This is not scientific procedure, and furthermore, it opens the way to theories and arguments which may not be justified by the facts. First of all, every interpreter may not supply the same context, and second, this treatment gives rise to the mistaken notion that an elliptical construction or a sentence fragment does not or cannot convey a complete thought. The fallacy of this last assumption can be easily illustrated by the following reproduction of a not implausible dialogue:

"Where to?"

"Class."

"Math?"

"No, Spanish."

"In a hurry?"

"Rather."

"What for?"

"Almost ten."

"Well, so long. Call me up."

What Is a Sentence?

Ch. C. Fries, The Structure of English,
p. 18-28, 29-53, 173-188, 202-239.

[…] the more one works with the records of the actual speech of people the more impossible it appears to describe the requirements of English sentences in terms of meaning content. It is true that whenever any relationship is grasped we have the material or content with which a sentence can be made. But this same content can be put into a variety of linguistic forms, some of which can occur alone as separate utterances and some of which always occur as parts of larger expressions […]. a situation in which a dog is making the noise called barking can be grasped either by the linguistic form the dog is barking, which can occur as an utterance separated from any other speech, or the same situation can be grasped in the form the barking dog, a form which, except as an answer to such a question as *What frightened the burglar away?* occurs only as a part of some larger expression, such as the barking dog protected the house […].

In other words, the characteristics which distinguish those expressions which occur alone as separate utterances and those which occur only as parts of larger units are not matters of content or meaning, but matters of form. Each language has its distinct patterns of formal arrangements for utterances which occur alone as separate expressions [...].

In this book we shall accept as our general definition of the sentence – our starting point – the words of Bloomfield: "Each sentence is an independent linguistic

form, not included by virtue of any grammatical construction in any larger linguistic form." [1]

The basic problem of the practical investigation undertaken here is not solved simply by accepting Bloomfield's definition of a sentence. As one approaches the body of recorded speech which constitutes the material to be analysed (or any body of recorded speech), just how should he proceed to discover the portions of an utterance that are not "parts of any larger construction"? How can he find out the "grammatical constructions" by virtue of which certain linguistic forms are included in larger linguistic forms? What procedure will enable him to decide which linguistic forms can "stand alone as independent utterances"? [2]

Answers to these questions had to be found early in the investigation.

We started first with the term utterance. Although the word utterance appears frequently in linguistic discussions and has occurred a number of times in this chapter, there has been nothing to indicate how much talk an "utterance" includes. The definition that "an act of speech is an utterance" [3] doesn't furnish any quantitative measure of either "an act of speech" or of "an utterance" [...].

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[1] L. Bloomfield, Language, New York, 1931, p. 170.

[2] Fries is not quite right in this respect, for in Bloomfield's Language there is a special remark concerning the ways of pointing out independent utterances: "In English and many other languages, sentences are marked off by modulation, the use of secondary phonemes. In English, secondary phonemes of pitch mark the end of sentences, and distinguish three main sentence-types: *John ran away (.) John ran way (?) Who ran away (?)*. To each of these, further, we may add the distortion of exclamatory sentence-pitch, so that we get in all, sentence-types." [L. Bloomfield, op. cit., p. 171.].

[3] L. Bloomfield. A Set of Postulates for the Science of Language "Language", 1926. – № 2. – P. 154.

For the purposes of this investigation, however, which aimed to discover and describe the significant features "sentences" as they occur in the records of actual conversation, it was necessary to start with some unit of talk that could be marked off with no uncertainty. These units were to be collected from the materials, and then compared and classified.

The recorded conversations provided the suggestion for the first step. The easiest unit in conversation to be marked with certainty was the talk of one person until he ceased, and another began. This unit was given the name “utterance”. In this book, then, the two-word phrase utterance unit will mean any stretch of speech by one person before which there was silence on his part and after which there was also silence on his part. Utterance units are thus those chunks of talk that are marked off by a shift of speaker. As indicated above, it was necessary, to find some way of deciding what portions of speech could “stand alone”, what constituted independent or free expressions – free, in that they were not necessarily bound to other expressions to make a single unit. It seemed obvious that in a conversation in which two speakers participate, the stretch of speech of one speaker at one time can’t be taken as a portion that does stand by itself, unless, of course, that speaker has been so completely interrupted that he stops because of interruption. The first stop, then, in the procedure to determine the linguistic forms that can stand alone as independent utterances was thus to record the utterance units as marked off by a change of speaker. These utterance units, exhibited great variety both in length and in form [...].

We could not take for granted that these utterance units contained only a single free utterance, nor that they were minimum free utterances. We could assume, however, that each utterance unit if not interrupted must be one of the following:

A single minimum free utterance.

A single free utterance, but expanded, not minimum.

A sequence of two or more free utterances.

We start then with the assumption that a sentence (the particular unit of language that is the object of this investigation) is a single free utterance, minimum or

expanded; i.e., that it is "free" in the sense that it is not included in any larger structure by means of any grammatical device.

Our immediate task will be to identify and to classify the single free utterances, the sentences that appear in our materials [...].

Kinds of Sentences

[...] The first step in the method used was described in the preceding chapter. We isolated for examination all those stretches of speech that were bounded by a change of speaker, and we called them "utterance units" [...].

Repeated examination of all these utterance units finally led to a second type of grouping that could be made on a strictly formal basis and thus with a minimum of uncertainty. It was a very simple grouping but it proved to be very useful. All these utterance units marked by a change of speaker could be put into one of the two following classes:

1. Some of the utterance units began conversations. No talk preceded them in the particular conversation in which they occurred.

2. All the other utterance units occurred after the conversation had started. They occurred as responses to preceding utterance units.

The utterance units of the first group, those that began conversation, *I have called* "situation utterance units". The utterance units of the second group, those that occurred after the conversation had started, *I have called* "response utterance units".

[...] by a long process of comparing each utterance unit with many of the others, it was possible to separate all the utterance units that started conversations into two groups: (1) those that were single free utterance: and (2) those that were made up of two or more singular free units [...].

The Simple Sentence in Transformational Grammar

The Sentence

P. Roberts, English Syntax,
p. 8, 62-63, 97, 105, 151, 158, 231.

A grammar is the description of the sentences of a language. There are two kinds of sentences: kernel sentences and transforms.

[...] the main types of English kernel sentences [...] might be illustrated by such sentences as the following:

1. *John is heroic (a hero).*	NP + be + substantive
2. *John is in the room.*	NP-j-be-j-Adv-p[1]
3. *John worked.*	NP + VI
4. *John paid the bill.*	NP-f-VT + NP
5. *John became a hero (heroic).*	NP-j-Vb-f- substantive
6. *John felt sad.*	NP + Vs + Adj
7. *John had a car.*	NP + Vh + NP

Most of the structure of any of these sentences could be shown by a kind of branching diagram. For example,

[1] Adv-p = an adverbial modifier of place;

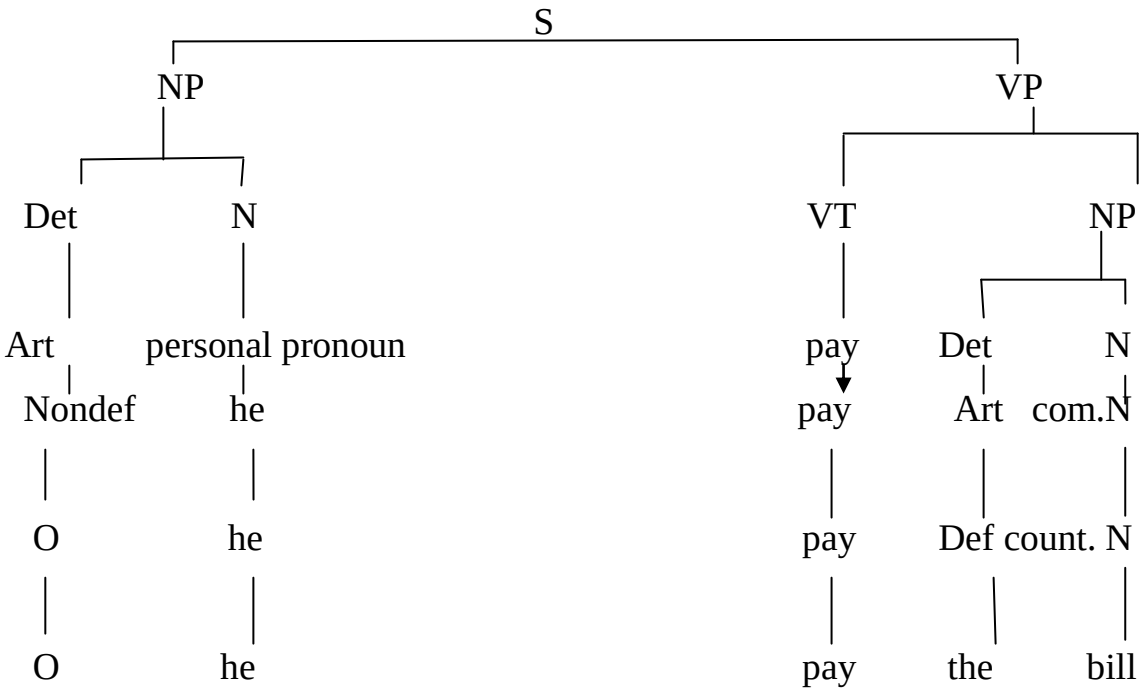
VI = an intransitive verb;

VT = a transitive verb;

Vb = verbs of becoming;

Vh = the verb "to have".

we could represent the number 4 type as follows:



A diagram of this sort is called a tree of derivation, because it shows, in branches like those of a tree, the larger (or higher-level) structures from which the smaller (or lower-level) structures derive. [...]

Transformation

[...] The kernel is the part of English that is basic and fundamental. It is the heart of the grammar, the core of the-language. All other structures of English can be thought of as deriving from this kernel. All the more complicated sentences of English are derivations from, or the transformations of, the K-terminal strings. For example, the question *Can John go?* is easily seen to be related to the statement *John can go*. Given the K-terminal string for any sentence like *John can come*, we can make it into a corresponding question by applying the rule for question-making. Such a rule is called a transformation rule. It tells us how to derive something from something else by switching things about, putting things in or leaving them out, and so on. Thus we derive *Can John go?* and *Did John go?* from *John can go* and *John went*. But we can't derive *John can go* and *John went* from anything. There are no sentences underlying them. They are basic and fundamental, a part of the kernel.

It is in terms of kernel structures that all grammatical relations are defined. The kernel gives all the grammatical relations of the language. The grammatical relations are then carried over into transforms, so that they will hold among words which are arranged in many different ways and which may actually be widely separated.

For example, the sentence *The dog barked* indicates a certain relationship between the noun dog and the verb bark. We find exactly the same relationship in such transforms as *The barking dog frightened me, The barking of the dog kept us awake, I hate dogs that are always barking*. The relationship shown between dog and sad in the kernel sentence *The dog is sad* carries over in the transforms *The sad dog wailed, The dog's sadness was apparent, I don't like dogs that are too sad*. We shall see that there are two kinds of transformation rules: obligatory rules and optional rules. An obligatory rule is one that must be applied to produce a grammatical sentence. An optional rule is one that may be applied but doesn't have to be. Some obligatory rules apply only when certain elements occur in the sentence. Sometimes the elements do not occur, so the rule does not apply. One rule,

however, applies to all kernel sentences, and we shall begin with that one. It is a rule for putting the elements of the auxiliary in their proper order.

Our first transformation rule is this: Af[1] + v = } v + Af. We call this rule T-af, in which T stands for transformation. The double arrow will be regularly used for transformation rules, distinguishing them from kernel rules T-af is an obligatory transformation rule. This means that it must be applied to every sequence of Af + v before a grammatical sentence can be produced. Every K-terminal string will contain at least one sequence of Af + v.

The English Sentence

O. Thomas, Transformation Grammar and the Teacher of English, p. 29, 32-35, 40-41, 59 -62, 66-68.

[…] the most elemental description of a basic sentence divides the sentence into two parts: a subject and predicate […].

Sentence: S

Noun Phrase: NP

Verb Phrase: VP

Thus, we may say that a sentence (S) consists of a subject, which is a noun phrase (NP), plus a predicate, which is a verb phrase (VP). Or, more succinctly:

PS 2.1 S→NP + VP, where the arrow means "may be rewritten" […].

We may also express this information graphically in a branching tree diagram. These "trees" are similar to the diagramming of traditional grammar, but there is one extremely important different. In particular, "branching trees" are unique; that is, given a sentence which is not structurally ambiguous, there is one and only one way of representing it with this system.

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[1] Af stands for affix. The three affixes that the author is concerned with are tense, participle and -ing.

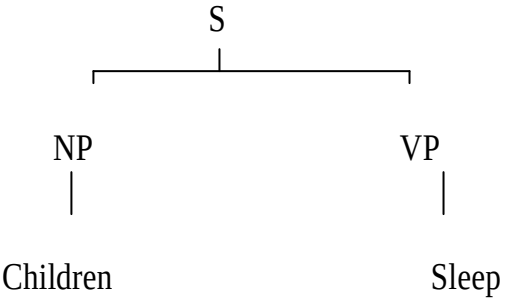


Figure 2.1. S – NP + VP

[…] our next symbolic presentation says that a verb phrase (VP) may consist of one or more auxiliary verbs (Aux) plus a main verb (MV):

PS 2.2 VP + Aux + MV […]

We can now […] say that a main verb consists of either the verb to be followed by a predicate complement or any other verb.

Symbolically, we may state this as follows:

$$\text{PS 2.3} \qquad \text{MV} \rightarrow \begin{cases} (\text{be} + \text{Pred}) \\ \text{V} \end{cases}$$

[...] we want to say now that there are three primary types of verb (V) in English: intransitive (V_i), transitive (V_t), and copulative (V_k). Any verb in English may be followed by an adverb of location or time (or both). With intransitive verbs, however, nothing intervenes between the verb and the adverb. With transitive verbs, a direct object (and sometimes an indirect object) intervenes between the verb and the adverb. With copulative verbs, the so-called subjective complement intervenes [...]. Again, all this can be shown graphically [...]:

$$\text{PS 2.4} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Vi} \\ \text{Vt} + \text{NP} \\ \text{V}_c + \text{Comp}, \end{array} \right\}$$

This rewrite rule simply says that the symbol V may be rewritten as any one of three other symbols, or sequence of symbols.

At the same time, we can introduce another important notion which we have tacitly assumed in the earlier part of this chapter: sentence positions. The following table gives the basic sentence types in English, and arranges the elements in these sentences according to positions:

Type	Position			
	1	2	3	4
to be	NP	be	Pred	(Ado)
I	NP	Vi	0	(Adv)
II	NP	Vt	NP	(Adv)
III	NP		Comp	(Adv)

Table 2.1 Basic Sentence Positions As the table indicates, there are four basic positions in simple English sentences; the fourth, or adverbial position is optional and not all kinds of adverbs follow all kinds of verbs. The 0 in Position 3 of sentence Type I is called a null; it indicates that this position is empty in sentences containing intransitive verbs [...]. The sentence types given in Table 2.1 are those forms which underlie all kernel sentences.

Glossary of Grammar Terms

Adjunct 1. a qualifying word, phrase, etc., depending on a particular member of a sentence;
2. a secondary word in a junction
(O. Jespersen)
Cf. subjunct (equivalent term – a dependent unit)

Adnex a secondary word in a nexus
(O. Jespersen)

Beneficent (as a semantic role) a person or other being for whose sake an action is performed

Complement an obligatory dependent language unit
Cf. supplement

Concord the relationship between units in such matters as number, person, and gender. The two related units should both be singular or both plural, feminine or masculine, etc.
Cf. government (equivalent term – agreement)

Coordinative phrase a phrase based on coordination and consisting of elements of equal rank
Cf. cumulative phrase

Cumulative phrase a phrase whose elements are not equal in their rank
Cf. coordinative phrase, consecutive phrase

Equipotent phrase a phrase based on logical succession of elements having an equal rank
Cf. domination phrase

Experiencer the person enduring a certain stage, *e.g.:*
He wants to eat.

Formative phrase a phrase consisting both of notional and functional verbs
Cf. notional phrase, functional phrase

Functional part of speech a part of speech having a partial nominative value
Cf. notional part of speech (equivalent term – form word)

Generative Grammar a grammar which precisely specifies the membership of the sets of all the grammatical sentences in the language in question and

	therefore excludes all the ungrammatical sentences. It takes the form of a set of rules that specify the structure, interpretation, and pronunciation of sentences that native speakers of the language are considered to accept as belonging to the language
Goal	entity towards which an action is directed, *e.g.: He gives a book to Jean.* (Eguivalent term – Addressee, Dative)
Government	a kind of concord in which one term controls or selects the form of the partner Cf. concord
Illocutionary act	an utterance which has a certain conventional force, *e.g.: informing, ordering, warning, undertaking, etc.* Cf. locutionary act, perlocutionary act
Immediate constituents	constituent elements immediately entering into any meaningful combination
Instrument (as a semantic role)	the physical stimulus of the action, *e.g.: to strike with a knife*
Intralinguistic (internal)	concerning relations of units within a particular language system Cf. extralinguistic
Junction	relationship of two elements which is so close that they may be considered to be one composite name for what might in many cases just as well have been called by a single name (O. Jespersen) Cf. nexus
Locutionary act	uttering of a certain sentence with a certain sense and reference (J. Austen) Cf. illocutionary act, perlocutionary act
Loose sentence-group (-coordinate sentence)	sentences in which no element can be considered as the leading or main element (E. Kruisinga)
Nexus	a predicative (and semi-predicative) relation between words (O. Jespersen) Cf. junction

Notional part of speech a part of speech of full nominative value
Cf. functional part of speech

Object (as a semantic role) entity (thing) which is relocated or changed; whose existence is at the focus of attention, *e.g.: to break the window.*
Sometimes O. is identified with patient, i.e. entity which is the victim of some action: to kill a fox.

Paradigmatic (systemic) referring to language system on the basis of invariant-variant relations, connected on a non-linear basis
Cf. syntagmatic

Part of speech a class of words distinguished by a particular set of lexico-grammatical features

Participant (as a semantic role) a person acting together with the Agent, but who is somehow "overshadowed" by him: You have me to ride with.
Cf. Agent

Phatic communion language used more for the purpose of establishing an atmosphere of maintaining social contact than for exchanging information or ideas: in speech, informal comments on weather, or an enquiry about health at the beginning of a conversation (B. Malinowski, 1932)

Phraseme (phrase, word-group, word-grouping, syntactic syntagma) a combination of two or more words as a representative of the corresponding language level

Predication the act of referring the nominative content of the sentence to reality (M. Blokh)
Cf. nomination

Presupposition a proposition whose truth is necessary for either the truth or the falsity of another statement. It stays intact under negation and modal operators, *e.g.: John is divorced (presupposition: John was married) – John is not divorced (presupposition: John is married)*
Cf. assertion

Primary predication (complete predication, explicit predication, actual predication)	predication expressed in a sentence which has as its predicate a finite form of the verb Cf. secondary predication, equipollent opposition
Proposition (judgement)	the content of a declarative sentence, that which proposed, or stated, denied, questioned, etc., capable of truth and falsity
Propositional act	acts of referring and predicating (J.R. Searle)
Ranking clause	a non-embedded clause (M.A.K. Halliday) Cf. embedded clause
Result (as a semantic role) (factitive – Ch. Fillmore)	entity that emerges due to some action, *e.g.: She has written a letter*.
Secondary predication (potential predication, incomplete/ partial predication, implicit predication, semi-predication)	predication expressed by potentially predicative complexes with non-finite forms of the verb and verbal nouns Cf. primary predication
Source (as a semantic role)	smth. which gives rise/origin to another entity, cause of some action, *e.g.: He sells books.*
Structure	1. the set of relations between the elements of a system; 2. construction
Subjunct	a tertiary word in junction (O. Jespersen)

Cf. adjunct (2)

Supplement (optional adjunct) a non-obligatory adjunct
Cf. complement

Surface structure the resultant syntactic construction derived through transformations of the deep structure
Cf. deep structure

Syntagma (syntactic) (word combination, phrase) a word-group consisting of two or more notional elements

Syntagmatic connected on a linear basis
Cf. paradigmatic

System a structured set of elements connected by a common function

Transformation transition from one syntactic pattern to another syntactic pattern with the preservation of its notional parts

Transformational Generative Grammar a type of generative grammar, first introduced by N. Chomsky ("Three Models for the Description of Language", 1956). It holds that some rules are transformational, i.e. they change one structure into another according to such prescribed conventions as moving, inserting, deleting, and replacing items. It stipulates two levels of syntactic structure: deep structure (an abstract underlying structure that incorporates all the syntactic information required for the interpretation of a given sentence) and surface structure (a structure that incorporates all the syntactic features of a sentence required to convert the sentence into a spoken or written version)

Unit (element) a constituent of a system

Utterance acts uttering words and sentences (J.R. Searle)

Valency the ability of a language unit to take an adjunct, potential combinability of a language unit

Appendix
Phrases

{PRIVATE} ***Some Examples of the Noun Phrase in English***						
FUNCTION			*Determiner*	*Premodifier*	*Head*	*Postmodifier*
	(a)				lions	
E	(b)		the		young	
X	(c)		the	information	age	
A	(d)				each	of the children
M	(e)		some	badly needed	time	with the family
P	(f)		this		conclusion	to the story
L	(g)		all my		children	
E	(h)		several	new mystery	books	which we recently enjoyed
S	(i)		such a	marvelous	data bank	filled with information
	(j)		a	better	person	than I
FORMS			*Pronoun*	*Participle*	*Noun*	*Prepositional Phrase*
			Article	*Noun*	*Adjective*	*Relative Clause*
			Quantifier	*Adjective Phrase*	*Pronoun*	*Nonfinite Clause*
						Complementation

Scheme 1

Phrases

{} ***Some Examples of the Verb Phrase in English***								
FUNCTION			*Auxiliaries*					*Main Verb*
	(a)						do	believe
E	(b)		can					go
X	(c)		may	have				gone
A	(d)				Is			going
M	(e)			has	Been			waiting
P	(f)		might	have	Been			waiting
L	(g)					were		hired
E	(h)				Are	being		hired
S	(i)		should		Be			trying
	(j)		might	have	Been	being		interviewed
FORM			*Modal*	*Perfect*	*Progressive*	*Passive*	*Auxiliary Support*	*Main Verb*

Scheme 2

Phrases

{} ***Some Examples of the Adjective Phrase in English***					
FUNCTION			***Premodifier***	***Head***	***Postmodifier***
	(a)			happy	
E	(b)			excited	indeed
X	(c)		partly	cloudy	
A	(d)			young	in spirit
M	(e)		very	energetic	for his age
P	(f)		so extremely	sweet	
L	(g)		too	good	to be true
E	(h)			hot	enough for me
S	(i)		quite	worried	about the results of the test
	(j)		unusually	sunny	for this time of year
FORM					*Adverb*
			Adverb	*Adjective*	*Prepositional Phrase*
			Adverb Phrase		*Infinitive Clause*

Scheme 3

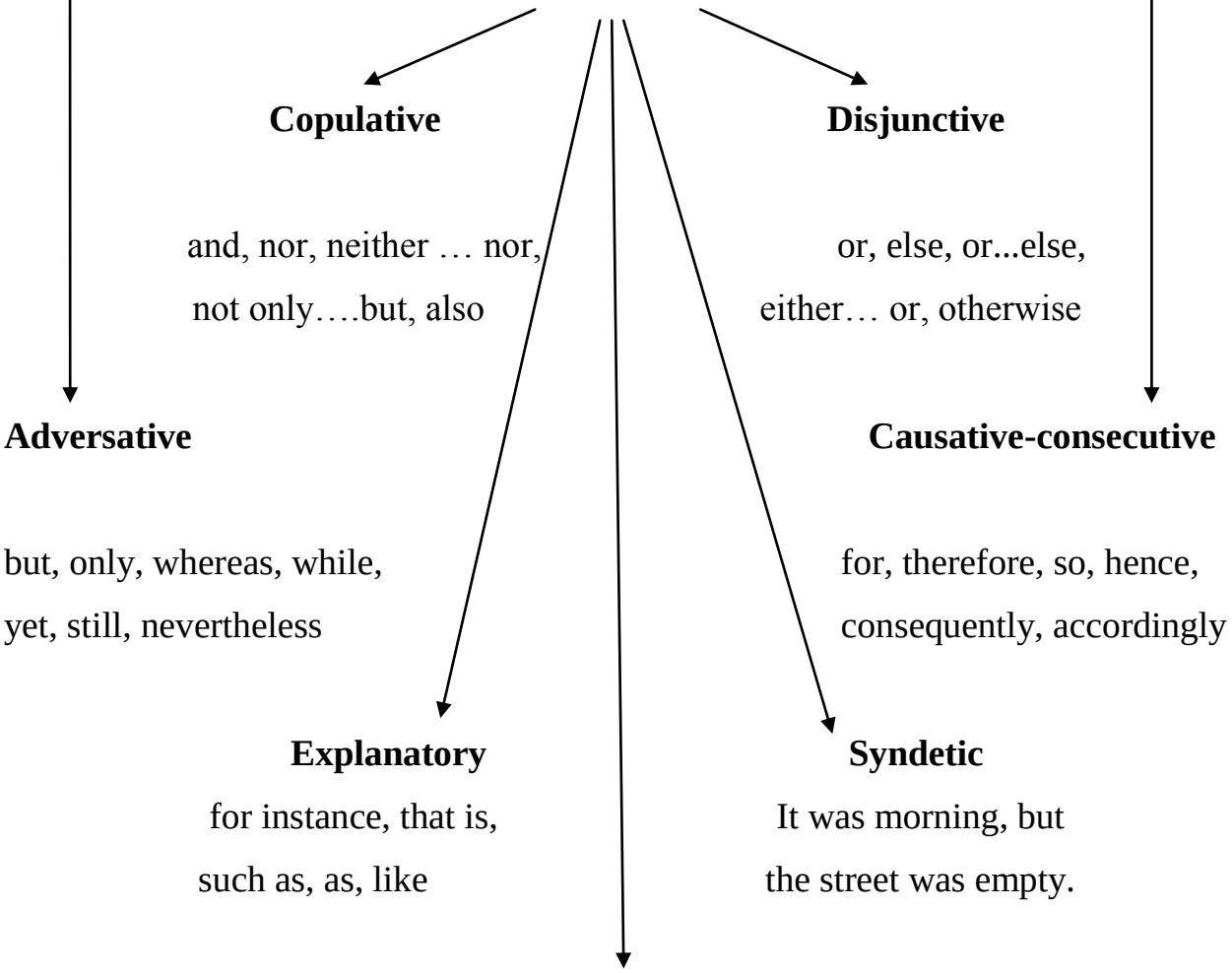
Phrases

{} ***Some Examples of the Adverb Phrase in English***					
FUNCTION			***Premodifier***	***Head***	***Postmodifier***
	(a)			quietly	
E	(b)		quite	honestly	
X	(c)		very	hard	indeed
A	(d)			however	
M	(e)		really	early	
P	(f)		so very	well	indeed
L	(g)		too	quickly	to see well
E	(h)			likely	enough for us
S	(i)			formerly	of Cincinnati
	(j)		more	easily	than ever
FORM					*Adverb*
			Adverb	*Adverb*	*Prepositional Phrase*
			Adverb Phrase		*Infinitive Clause*

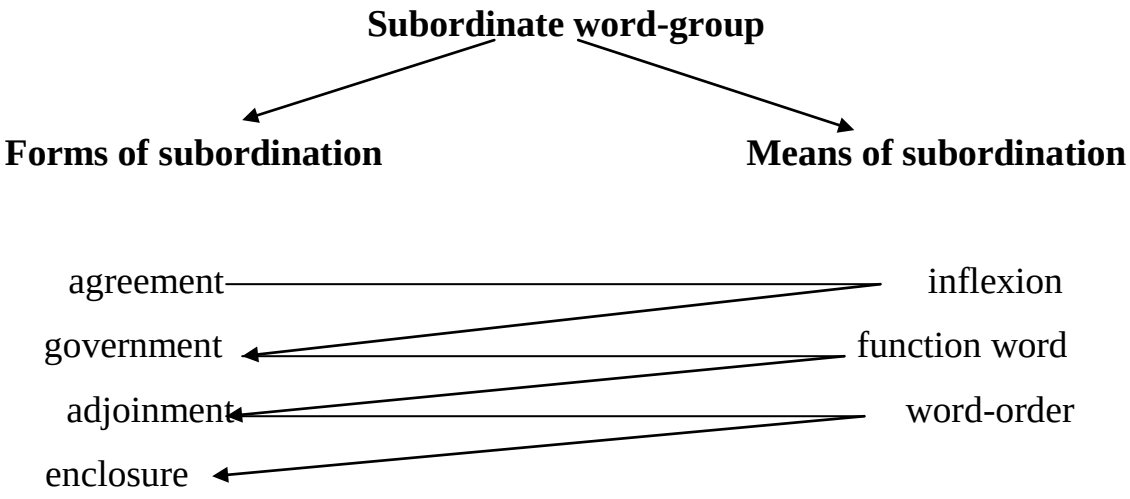
Scheme 4

Syntax

The Forms of Coordination

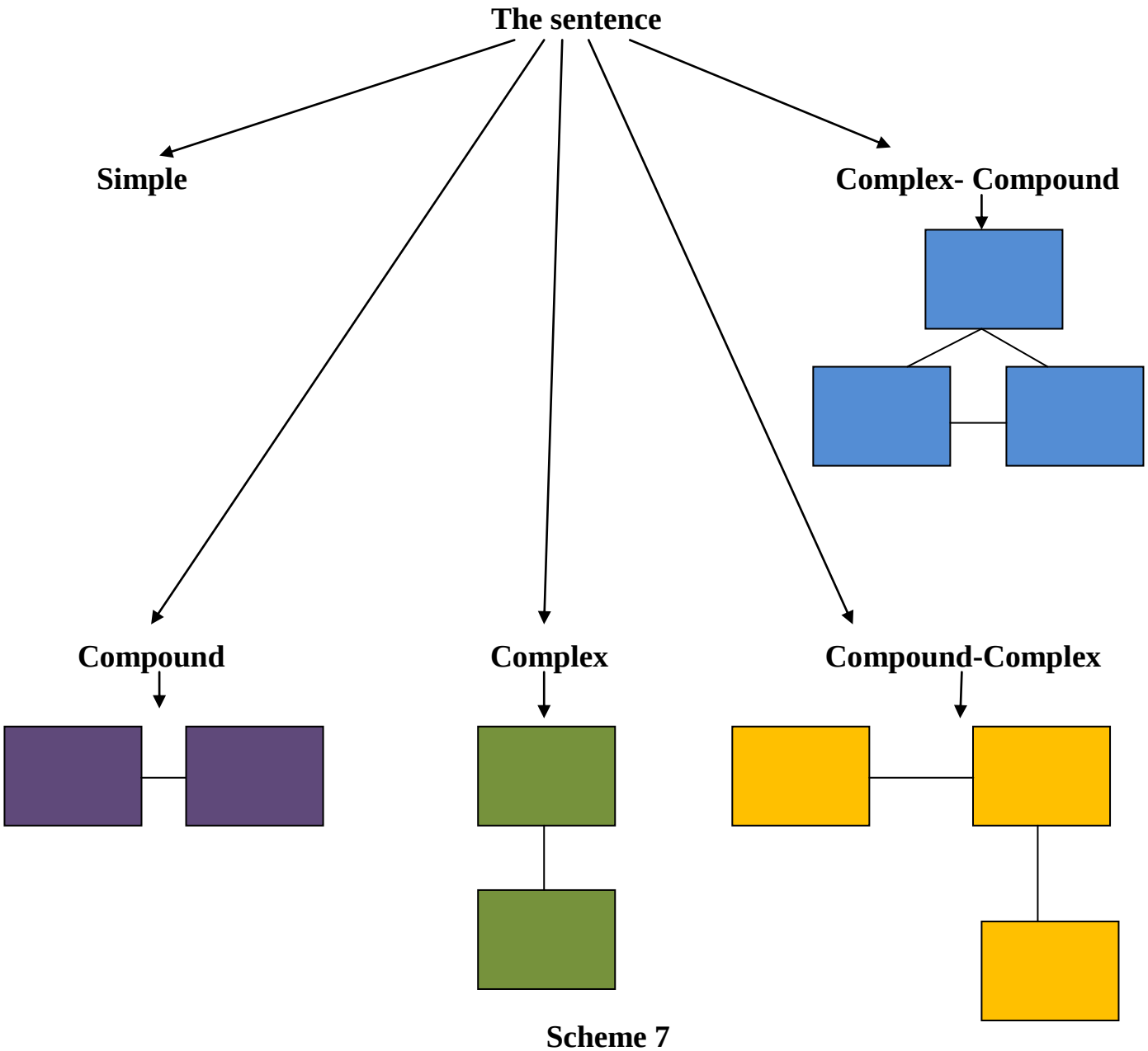


Scheme 5

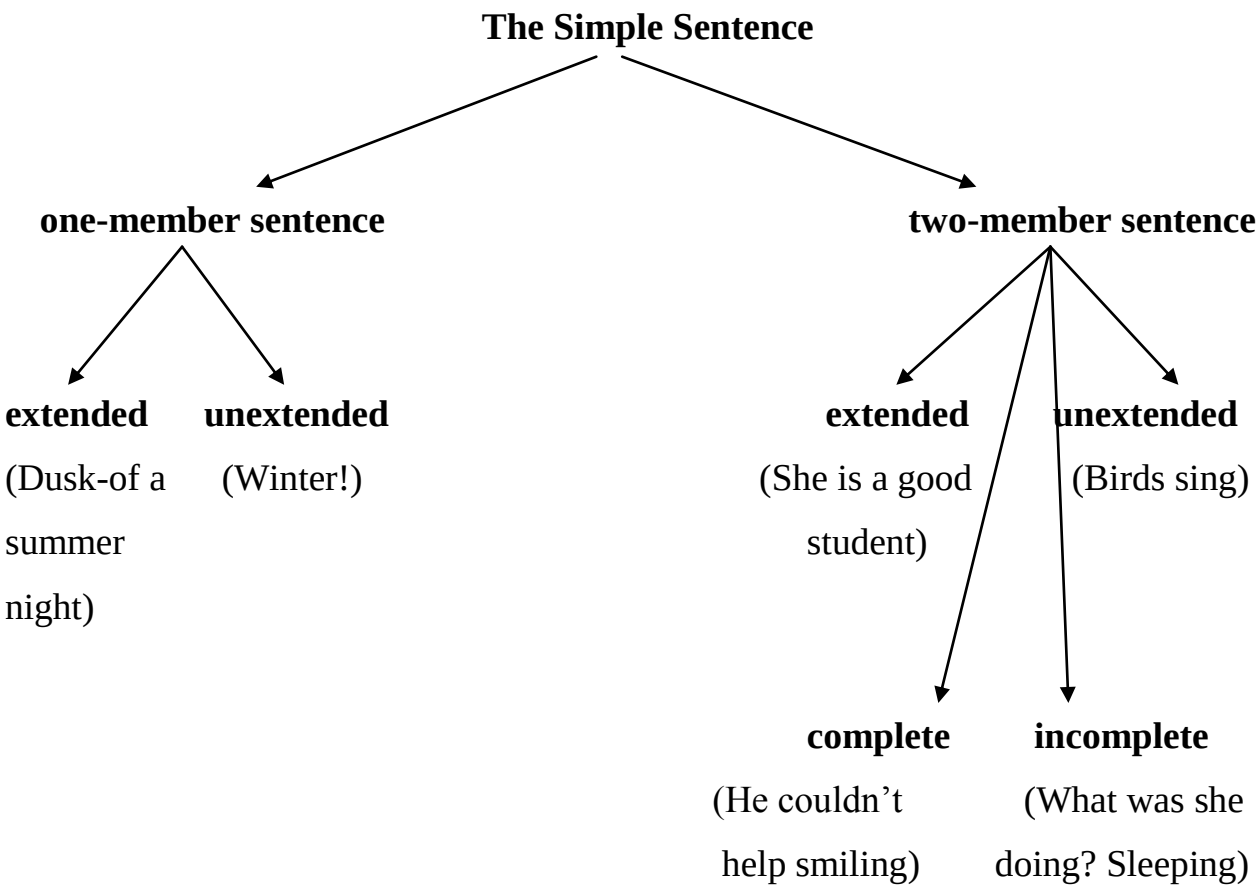


Scheme 6

Kinds of sentences

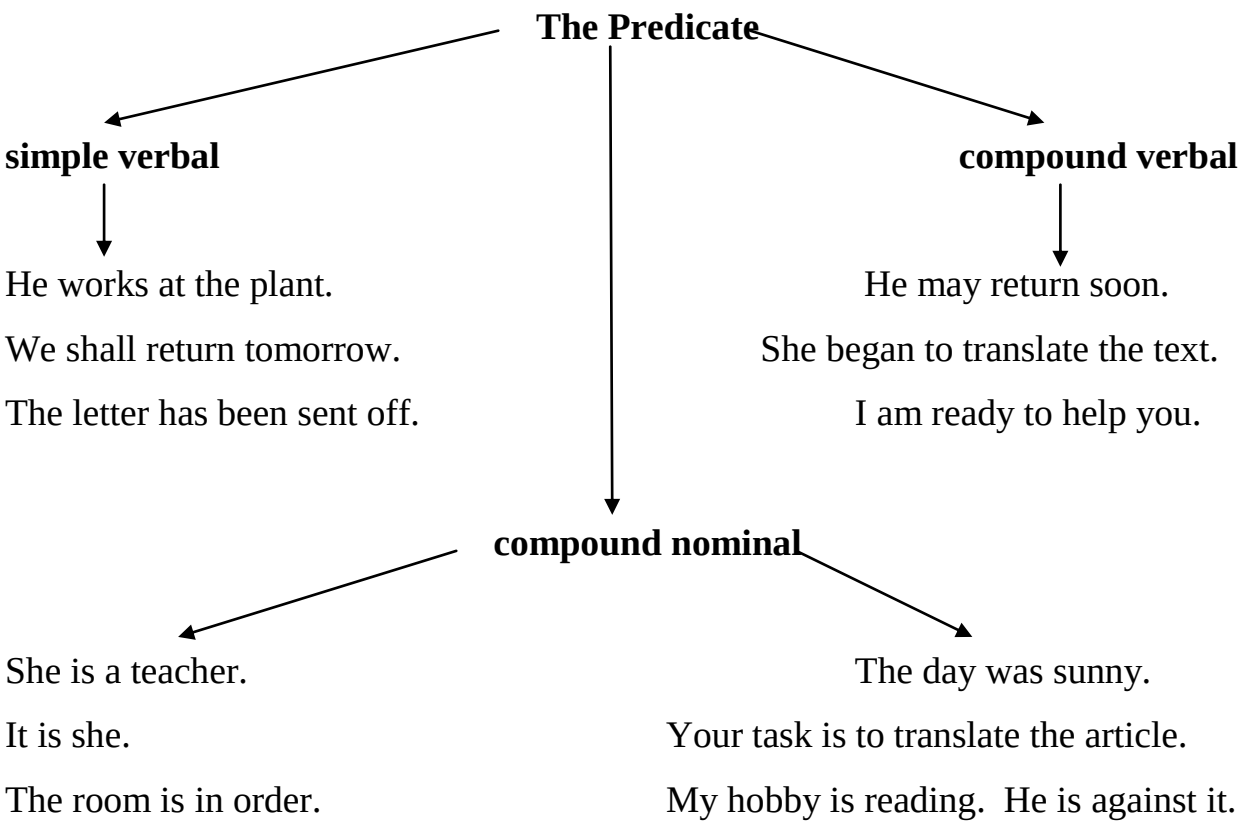


Scheme 7


The Simple Sentence
one-member sentence
two-member sentence
extended
(Dusk-of a summer night)
unextended
(Winter!)
extended
(She is a good student)
unextended
(Birds sing)
complete
(He couldn't help smiling)
incomplete
(What was she doing? Sleeping)

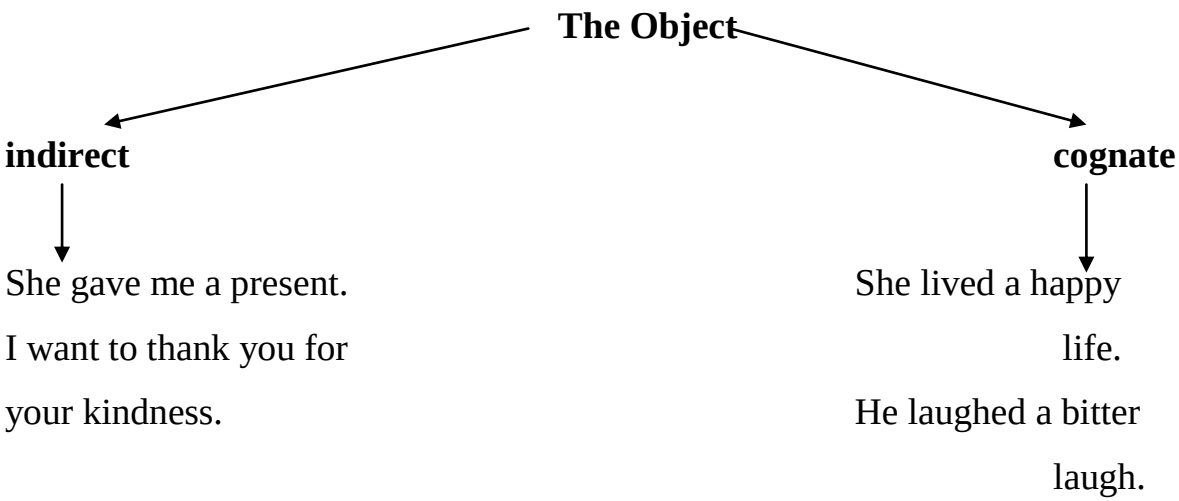
Scheme 8

Types of Predicate



Scheme 9

Types of Object



Scheme 10

Types of Object

The Object

prepositional indirect

simple

She lives with her parents.

complex

My lady assures him of his being worth no complaint from her. (Dickens)

Thus these two waited with impatience for the three years to be over. (Buck)

Scheme 11

Types of Object

The Object

direct

simple

I received a letter yesterday.

I met him two days ago.

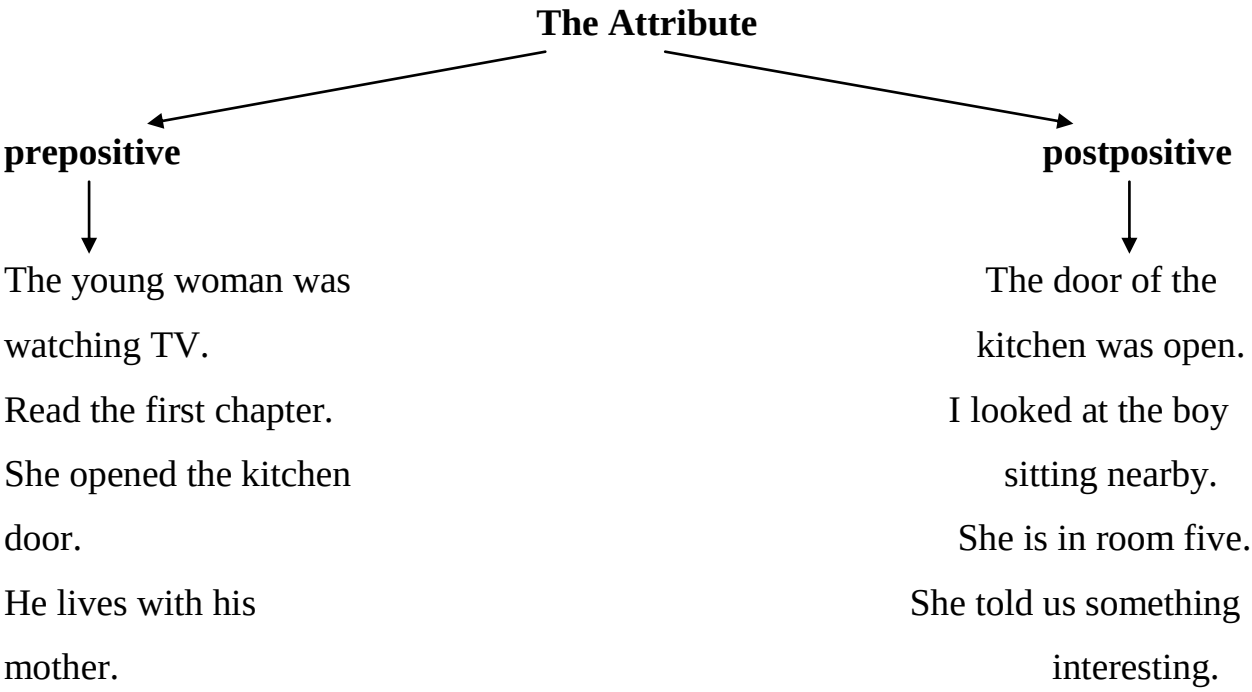
complex

I want you to come here tomorrow.

She saw him coming out of the house.

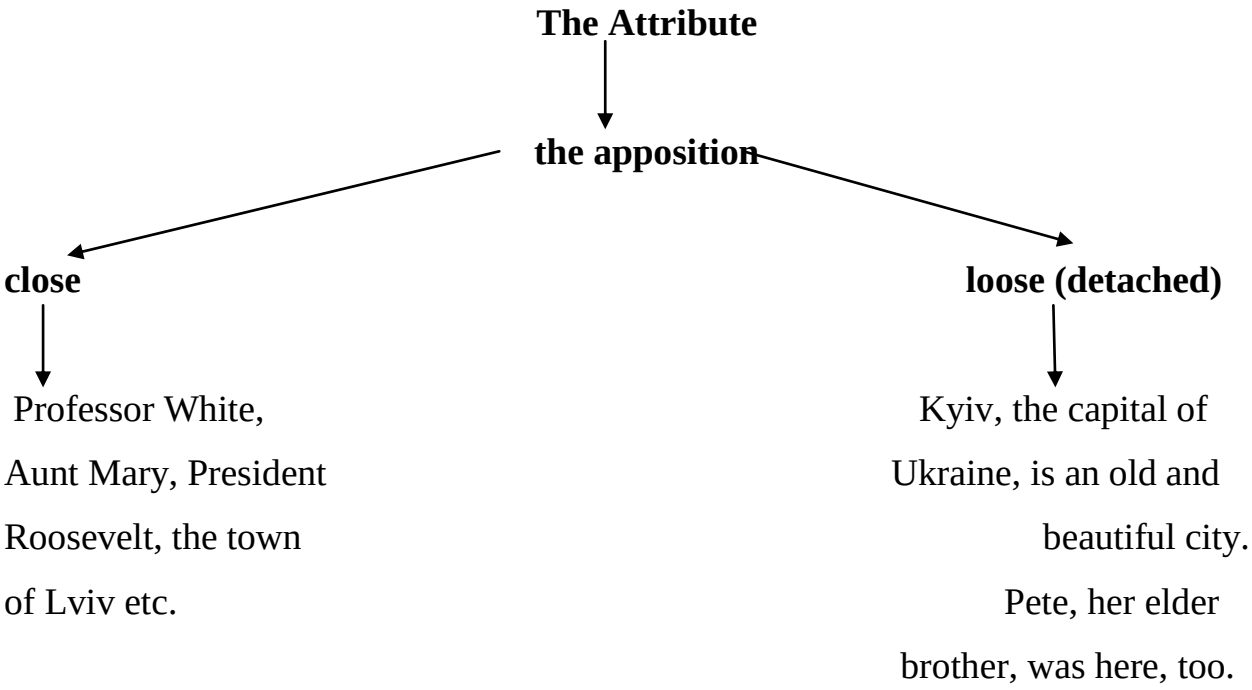
Scheme 12

Types of Attribute

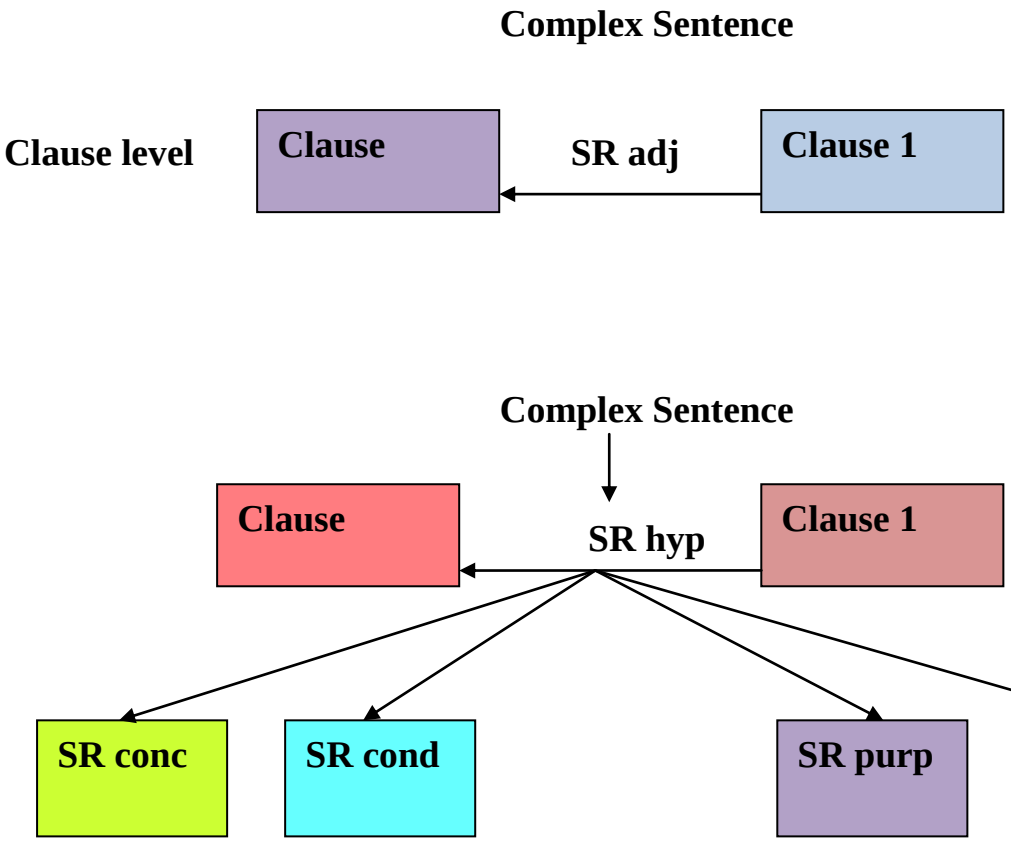


Scheme 13

Types of Attribute



Scheme 14



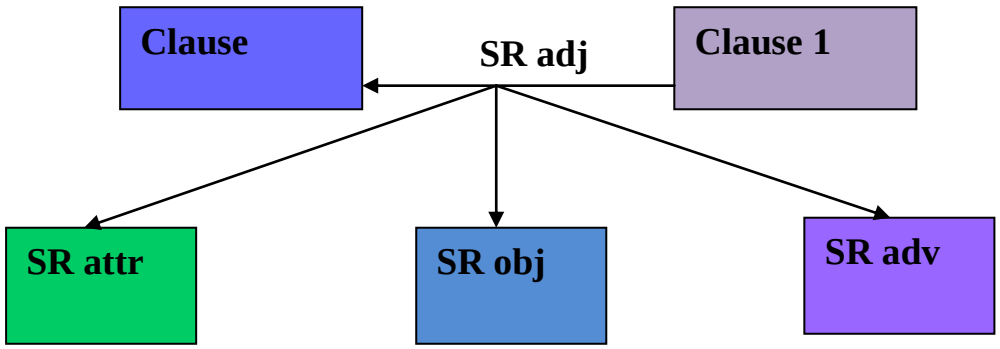
She stayed here though she is tired.

She will stay here if she is tired.

She stayed here because she is tired.

Scheme 15

Complex (Complicated) Sentence

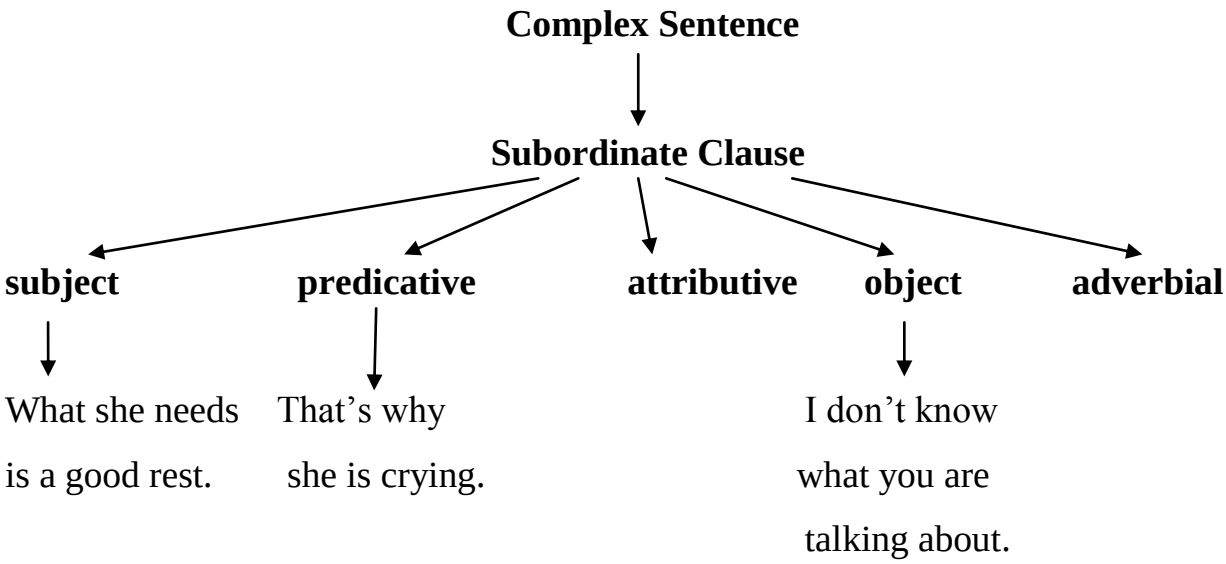


a) Sentences with N-clauses — I know where she is.

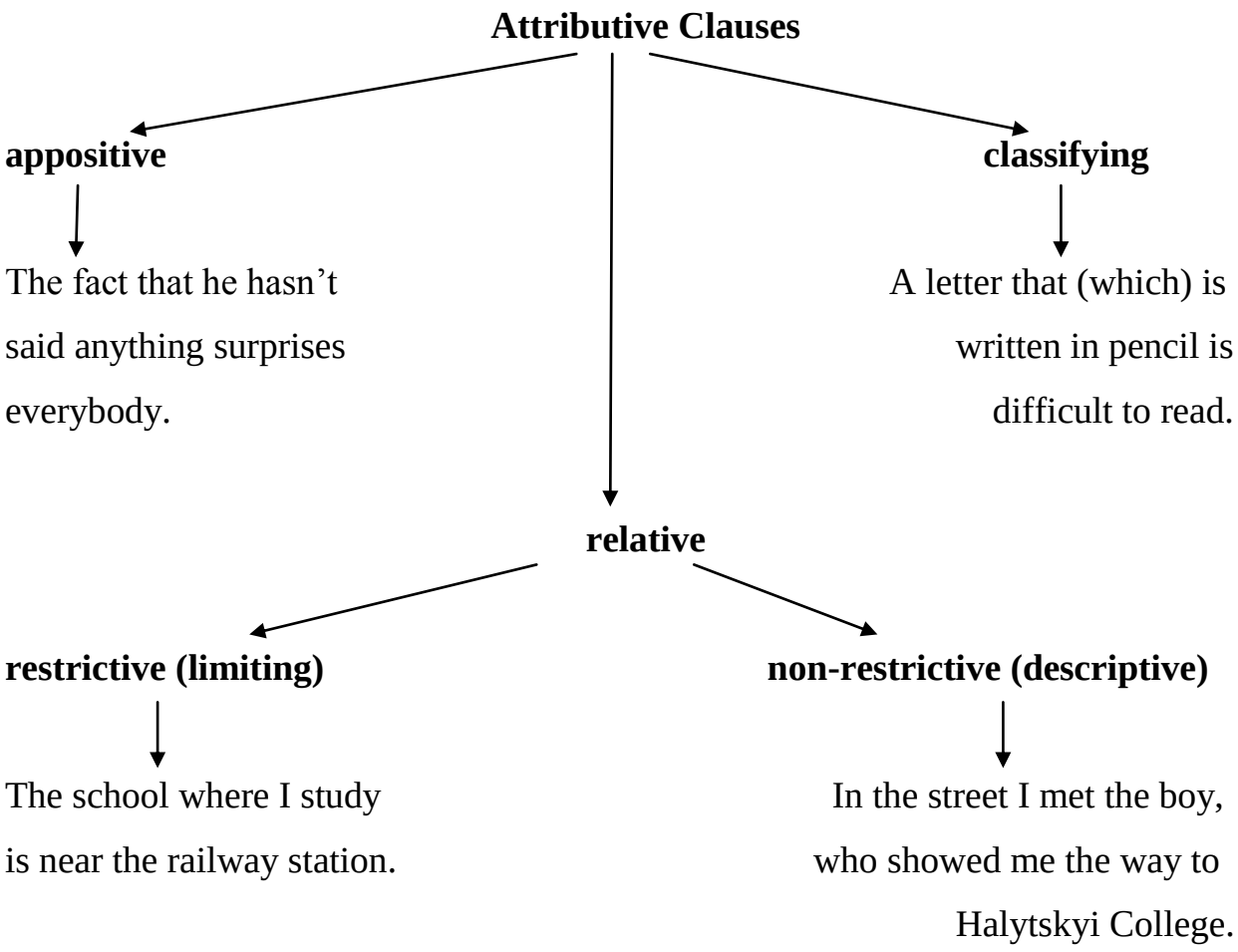
b) Sentences with A-clauses — I know the place where she is.

c) Sentences with D-clauses — I stayed where she was.

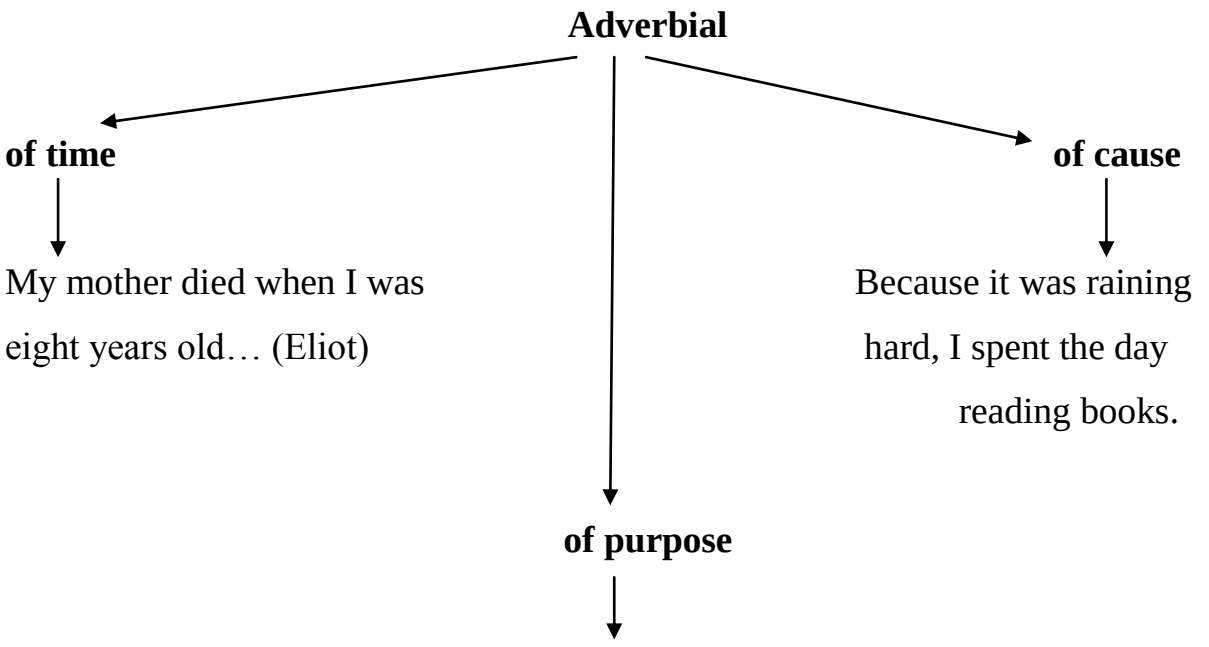
Scheme 16



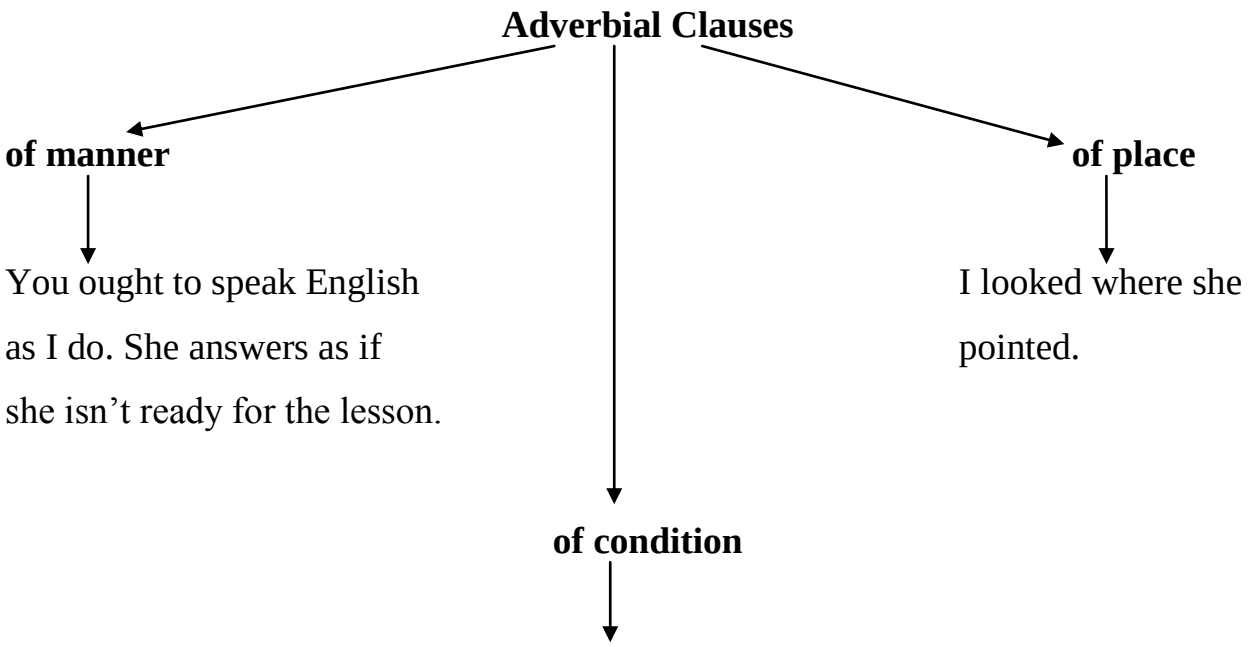
Scheme 17



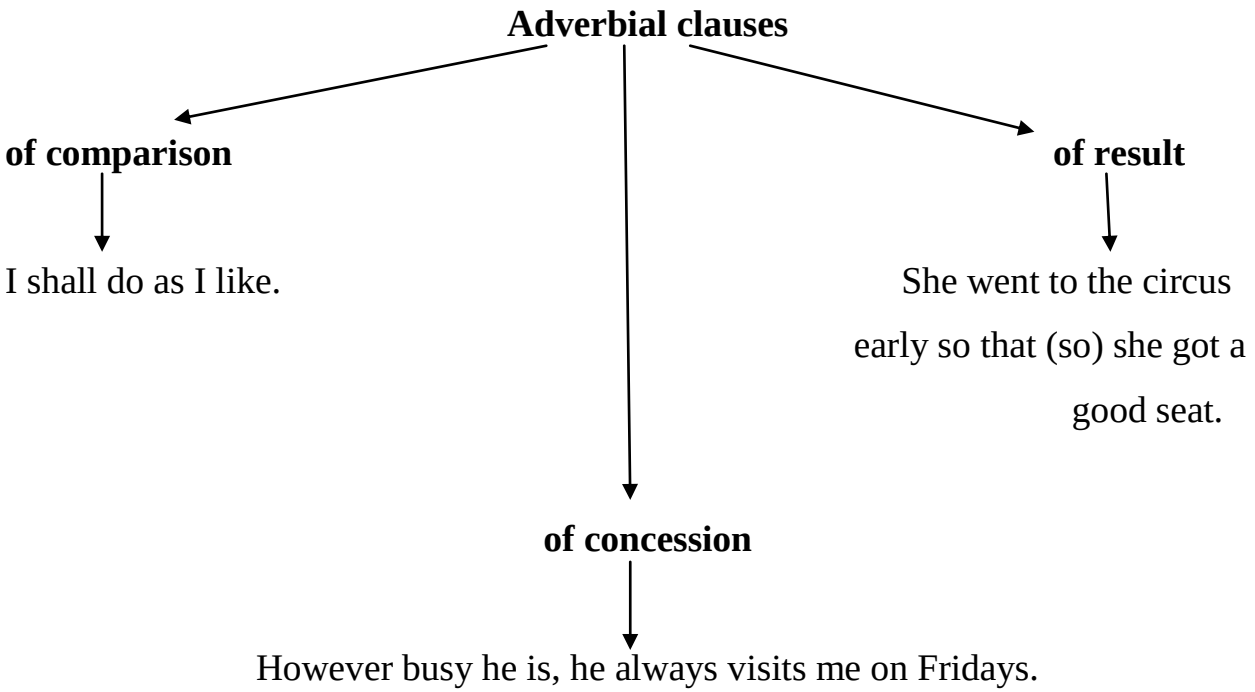
Scheme 18



Scheme 19

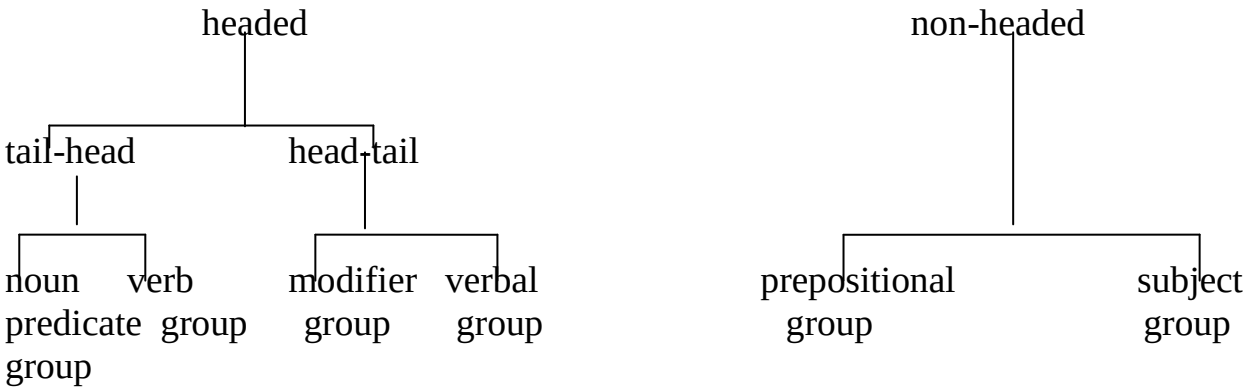


Scheme 20



Scheme 21

Word-group



(H.Whitehall)

Scheme 22

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