

THEORETICAL GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

SYNTAX

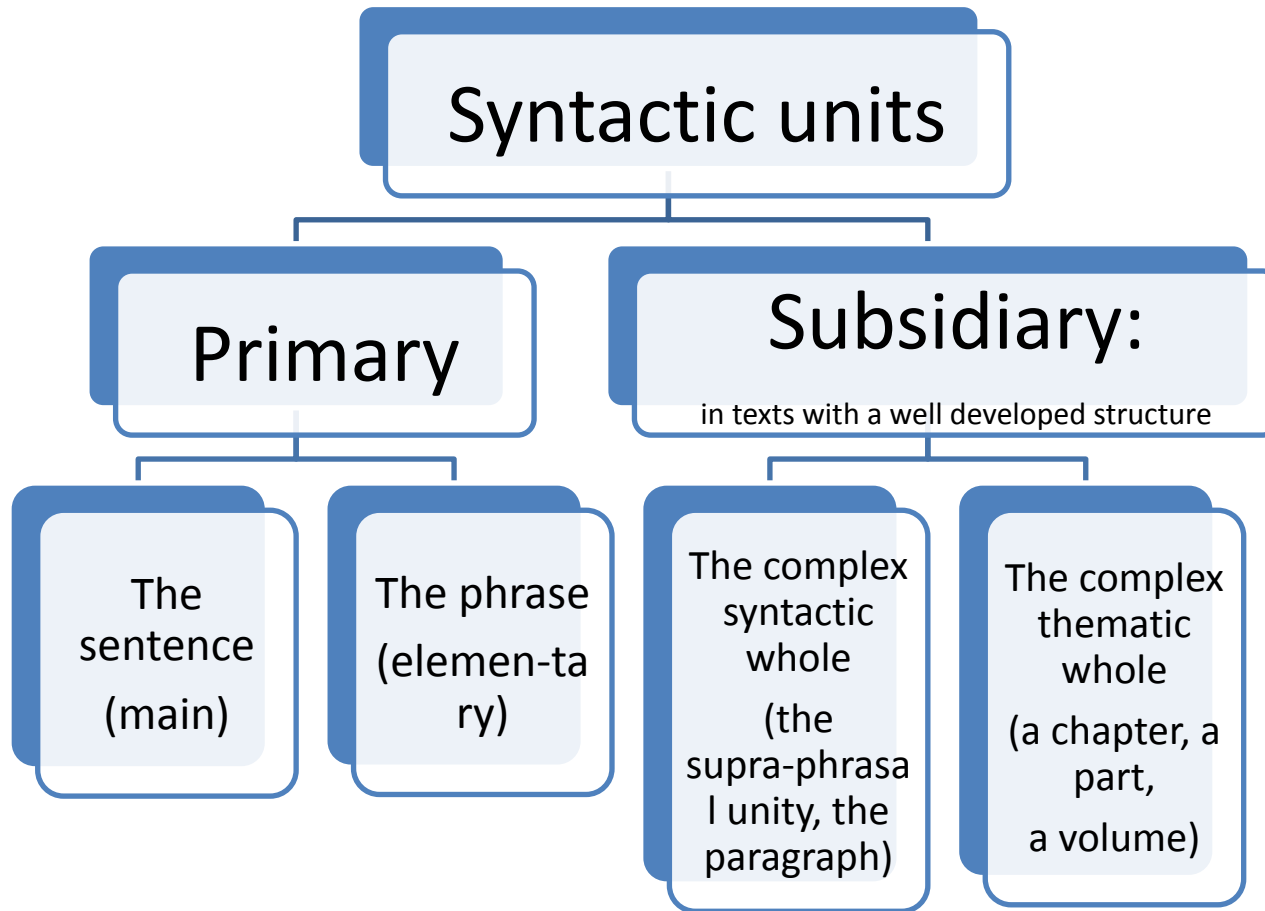
THEME 1

UNITS OF SYNTAX. THE PHRASE

Outline

1. Inventory of syntactic units
2. Meaning of syntactic units
3. The phrase. Syntagmatic connections of words.
 - 3.1. Phrase vs. sentence
 - 3.2. Types of syntagmatic relations
4. Structural classifications of phrases

1. INVENTORY OF SYNTACTIC UNITS



The sentence:

- In prescriptive (pedagogical, applied) grammar
- a group of words that in writing starts with a capital letter and ends with a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark.
- In descriptive (theoretical, fundamental) grammar – the smallest communicative unit of a language.

The most important feature of the sentence is
its **predicativity**:

the relation of the content of the sentence
to the situation of speech
(the communicative context)
as viewed by the speaker.

e.g.

The hunters are shooting. vs. the shooting of the
hunters (agent? object? realis / irrealis? time?)

2. MEANING OF SYNTACTIC UNITS

All units of syntax are bilateral, i.e. they are a unity of form and content (meaning).

The meaning of a syntactic unit comprises:

- the **lexical** meaning of words it is built of
cf. *He walks in.* - *He checks in;*
- the **grammatical** meanings of words it is built of
cf. *He walks in.* - *He walked in.*
- the **syntactic** meanings which are inherent in the syntactic structure (**construction**) itself.

Structures (constructions) are form-meaning correspondences that exist independently of particular words, i.e. they themselves carry meaning, and words receive additional meaning when used in them.

- (1) *Bees are swarming in the garden* (=only part of it)
(2) *The garden is swarming with bees* (= the whole of it)
- (1) *I loaded hay onto the truck.* (= there still may be room for more hay)
(2) *I loaded the truck with hay.* (= it is entirely filled)
- (1) *I am afraid to cross the road.* (= I intend to)
(2) *I am afraid of crossing the road.* (= no intention of doing it is implied)

3. THE PHRASE. SYNTAGMATIC CONNECTION OF WORDS

3.1. Phrase vs. sentence

- *The phrase* is a syntactic unit of a rank lower than that of the sentence. It is the object-matter of **minor syntax**.
- Characteristic features of the phrase are “negative”:
 - it has no suprasegmental characteristics (intonation)
 - it does not perform the communicative function (predicativity)

	The Word	The Phrase	The Sentence
Function	nominative	nominative	nominative, predicative
Referent	a simple object	a complex object	a situation
Number of Notional Words	min/max 1	min 2 max not limited	min 1 max not limited

3.2. Types of syntagmatic relations

- morphology considers **paradigmatic** relations of words (the relations that exist between words in the language system, e.g. *a student* – *students*; *a student's (pen)* – *students' (pens)*);
- syntax studies **syntagmatic** relations of words, i.e. the relations between the words in a speech continuum.

Types of syntagmatic relations:

- **agreement** (узгодження);
- **government** (керування);
- **adjoining** (прилягання);
- **enclosure / nesting** (уключення)

government

The subordinate word is *governed* by the head word when its form is required by the head word but does not mirror it:

e.g.

- *saw him*;
- *to whom it may concern*;
- *depend on him*

agreement

The components of a phrase or a sentence are said to **agree** when the form of the subordinate word is determined by the head word:

e.g.

- *this house* --- *these houses* (number in demonstrative pronouns)
- *Tom runs.* --- *Tom and Mary run.* (third person singular/plural, Present Simple)

adjoining

It is neither agreement, nor government, which are cases when the form of the subordinated word changes. When the elements are *adjoined*, there is no change of form:

e.g.

- *almost fainted;*
- *nod one's head silently*

enclosure/nesting

is a type of syntagmatic relation which is characteristic of English (but not of Ukrainian or Russian):

e.g.

a *challenging* task;

to *never* forget *it*

4. STRUCTURAL CLASSIFICATIONS OF PHRASES

- traditional: based on the part-of-speech status of their constituents;
- alternative: based on the relations of their constituents

Structural classification of phrases based on the part-of-speech status of their constituents

According to this criterion, two types of phrases are distinguished:

- phrases made up of notional words:

e.g.

N + N: *a stone wall*

Adj + N: *a high wall*

V + N: *to see a wall*

V + Adj: *to see suddenly*

Adv + Adj: *surprisingly tall*

Adv + Adv: *very easily*

- phrases made of notional words and function words:

Structural classification of phrases based on the relations of their constituents

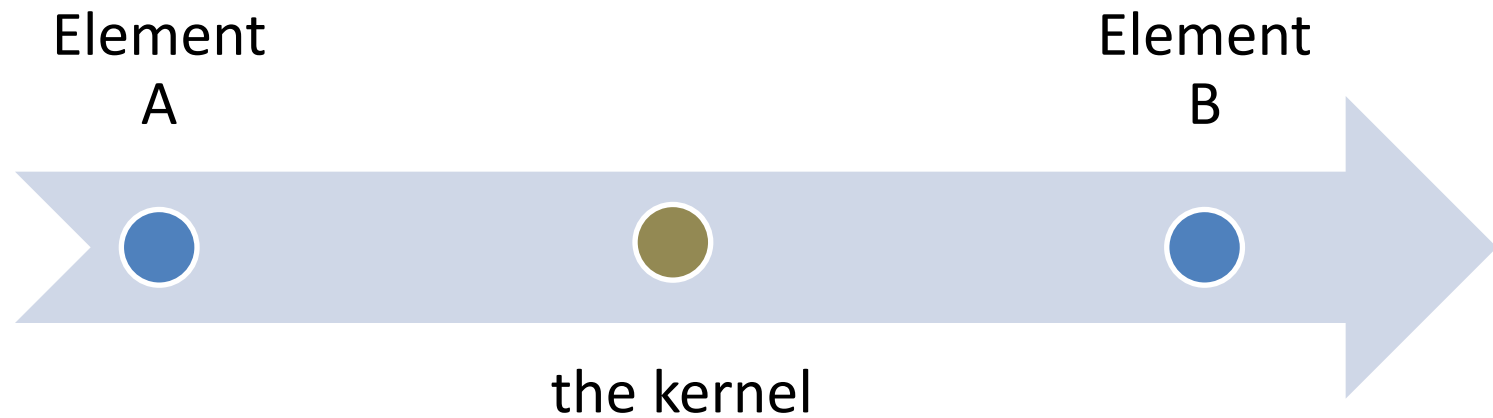
According to this principle, phrases are subdivided into kernel (ядерні) and non-kernel (без'ядерні).

- In **kernel** phrases one element (the **kernel**, or the **head**) dominates the other(s):

e.g. *a good job, famous doctors, sufficiently normal, to walk fast, to watch a man, slightly stiff, to be careful, to seem true;*

The relations between the elements of kernel phrases can be attributive, complementary, adverbial or existential in

Kernel phrases with **attributive** relations can be **regressive** (the kernel follows other elements) or **progressive** (the kernel precedes them):



Regressive kernel phrases:

1. **Adverbial** kernel:

- e.g. *very carefully, fairly easily, more avidly*

2. **Adjectival** kernel:

- e.g. *completely empty, entirely natural, emerald green, knee deep, ice cold, very much upset, almost too easily*

3. **Substantive** kernel:

- e.g. *my book, his brother, this room, white*

Progressive kernel phrases:

1. Substantive kernel:

- e.g. *a candidate for the prize, the fruits of his labour, a number of students, any fact in sight, an action that could poison the plant, a child of five who has been crying, the road back, the man downstairs, problems to solve*

2. Adjectival kernel:

- e.g. *available for study, rich in minerals, full of life, fond of music, easy to understand*

3. Verbal kernel:

- e.g. *to smile a happy smile, to grin a crooked grin, to turn the page, to hear voices, to become unconscious*

4. Prepositional kernel:

- e.g. *(to depend) on him, (to look) at them*

In **non-kernel** phrases none of the elements are dominant.

- ***independent*** non-kernel phrases (no context is needed in order to understand them);
- ***dependent*** non-kernel phrases, which require a context in order to be understood.

Independent non-kernel phrases:

e.g. *easy and simple, shouting and singing,
she nodded*

Words in an independent non-kernel phrase can belong to:

- ***the same word-class:***

e.g. *men and women* (**syndetic** joining),
men, women, children (**asyndetic** joining)

- ***different word-classes:***

e.g. *he yawned* (a primary predication)

Dependent non-kernel phrases: e.g. *his own (dog), (send) him a letter*

Words in a dependent non-kernel phrase can belong to:

- ***the same word-class:***

e.g. *wise old (men), faded green (hat)* (**accumulative** relation)

- ***different word-classes:***

e.g. *his old (friend)* (accumulative relation);
(to find) the car gone, (to see) the man leave,
(stumped out), his face red and wrathful (**secondary** predications)

THEME 2

THE SENTENCE

Outline

1. The definition of the sentence and its distinctive features
2. Aspects of the sentence: formal, semantic, functional
3. The structural classification of English sentences

Terms

- ambiguous, ambiguity
- covert
- explicate
- extralinguistic
- instance, instantiation
- pattern
- token
- construction
- denotatum
- distinctive feature
- functional sentence perspective
- mood, modality
- referent situation
- situation of speech / communicative situation
- sentence onion

1. THE DEFINITION OF THE SENTENCE AND ITS DISTINCTIVE FEATURES

sentence (Lat.) - 'feeling' or 'opinion'

As a grammar term, a sentence is 'an utterance that expresses a feeling or opinion'.

A more technical definition: 'a grammatically self-contained speech unit consisting of a word, or a syntactically related group of words that expresses an assertion, a question, a command, a wish, or an exclamation; in writing it usually begins with a capital letter and ends with a period, question mark, or exclamation mark.'

The term “sentence” is ambiguous since it refers to:

- a specific type of syntactic construction, a generalized pattern, an abstraction

e.g. "Mr SVOMPT" – the formula of the English declarative sentence

- a pattern filled with words

e.g. *Harry (S) reviews (V) spelling rules (O) carefully (M) at home (P) every day (T).*

In order to avoid this ambiguity,
a distinction between the sentence-type and
sentence-token is drawn.

- ***The sentence-type***
is a structural
scheme which
belongs to the
language
system.

- ***The sentence-token***
is a structural
scheme filled with
words, a speech
instantiation of a
certain
sentence-type.
- A sentence-token in
context is called an
utterance.

The distinctive features of the sentence-token are traced its form and content.

- **form:**

- **linguistic**

(characterize both spoken and written sentences);

- **paralinguistic** (from Gr. *pará* – near, beside, past something) characterize only spoken sentences.

- **content:**

the categories of predicativity, modality, etc.

According to its **linguistic form**, the English sentence is characterized by **the fixed order of words**, which sets it apart from a random succession of lexical items:

Cf.: *Gentlemen, I shall be brief.* **vs.** *be shall gentlemen I brief;*

Paralinguistic features of the sentence include:

- gestures,
- mimics,
- intonation (tune, pauses, sentence-stress, etc.)

Though all these contribute to differentiating sentence meaning (e.g., interrogative, declarative, imperative), only intonation is regarded as a distinctive

Among the grammatical categories that characterize the **content** plane of the sentence, predicativity occupies the main place.

- **Predicativity** is the relation of the content of the sentence to the situation of speech as viewed by the speaker.

The relation of the denotatum of the sentence (the situation named / denoted by the sentence) to the situation in which the sentence is pronounced (the situation of speech) is expressed in a specific way.

The situation denoted by the sentence is processed by the human mind. A major result of this processing is shaping the idea of the situation as a **proposition** – a logical scheme which consists of the **logical subject, logical predicate** and **the link** between them: e.g. *Jack* (the logical subject/S) *is* (the link) *a student* (the logical predicate/P).

Thus the predicative relation calls for the presence of the logical subject and the logical predicate.

Their linguistic correlates are the syntactic subject and predicate, which form the predication of the sentence.

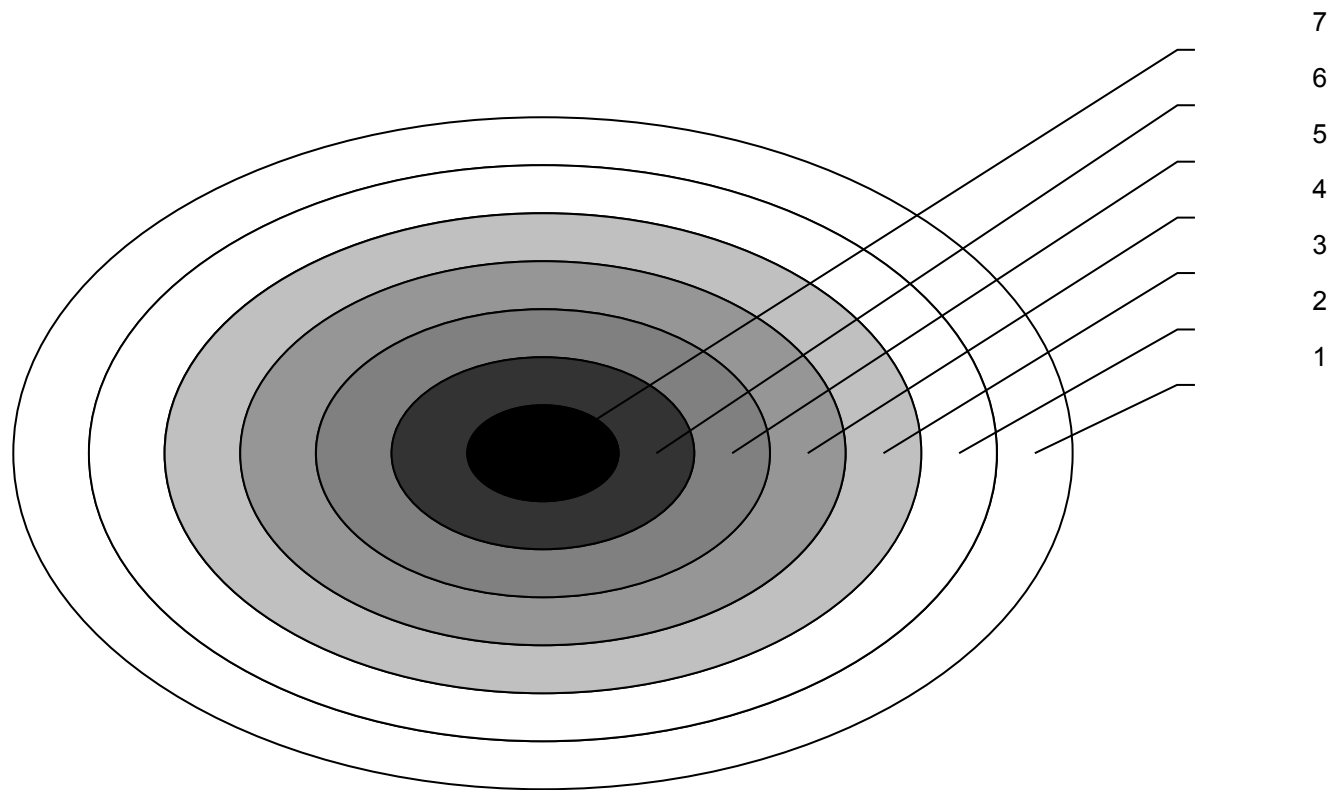
The syntactic meaning of predicativity is signaled:

- paralinguistically (by its intonation, which indicates completeness);
- by the morphological meanings of the verb:
 - objective modality (mood);
 - temporality (tense);
 - personality (person), etc.
- by the lexical meanings of the verb:
 - subjective modality (modal verbs)

Mood stands out among the morphological categories of the verb since it contributes into predicativity more than temporality or personality. As set out in the course of English morphology, the category of mood (or grammatical/ objective modality), finds its expression in the form of the verb which presents the referent situation as real or unreal.

Mood characteristics can be traced in any sentence, thus this category is obligatory for it.

A graphic illustration of the contribution of the verbal categories into the category of predicativity is the 'sentence onion' (a 'hard core' and many 'layers' around it): the farther away from the core is the corresponding 'layer', the greater is its role in expressing predicativity.



The outermost layer (1) represents ***the speaker's subjective attitude*** to the event described (.....).

The next layer (2) represents ***the speaker's objective evaluation*** of the event described (.....).

The next one (3) pertains to ***the speaker's perspective*** of viewing the situation described in the sentence (.....).

Layer (4) relates to ***the moment the event occurs*** (.....).

Layer (5) represents ***the time at which the event described is situated in relation to the speech act time*** or other events (.....).

The innermost layer (6) concerns ***the internal progression of the event*** (.....).

The core of the sentence onion (7) is formed by ***the subject-relational categories of the verb*** (..... and).

2. ASPECTS OF THE SENTENCE: FORMAL, SEMANTIC, FUNCTIONAL

The sentence is set in a multiple system of coordinates.

Being a nominative unit, it possesses a form and a content. Hence, it can be characterized in its ***formal*** and ***semantic*** aspects.

Being a communicative unit, the sentence performs certain functions. Hence, it can be considered in its ***functional*** aspect.

1. The formal study of the sentence addresses the following issues:

- ways in which the sentence differs from a linear succession of words;
- the principles of its structural organization;
- the formal markers of its semantic distinctions.

2. The *semantic* study of the sentence focuses on the following problems:

- semantic categories of the sentence (predicativity, modality, etc.);
- semantic features of its components – clauses, members of the sentence;
- semantic characteristics of combinations of clauses;
- the **deep semantic structure** of a sentence Ch. Fillmore points out that as opposed to the syntactic (surface) structure, the sentence has also a covert structure, or **the role structure**: it is formed by such categories as AGENT, EXPERIENCER, INSTRUMENT, OBJECT, SOURCE, GOAL, LOCATION, TIME, etc.

3. *The functional* aspects of the sentence relate to:

- the **communicative (functional) perspective** of the sentence;
- the pragmatic aspects of the sentence (its **speech-act characteristics**)

The **communicative (functional) perspective** of a sentence (V. Mathesius):

- **the theme** (the starting point of the message which does not reflect the aim with which the sentence is uttered; contains the information on what the sentence is about)
- **the rheme** (communicatively the main part of the sentence which relates to the aim with which the sentence is uttered; presents additional, new information)

Cf.: The best day to start is tomorrow – Tomorrow is the best day to start.

The **pragmatic** aspect of the sentence

- concerns its **speech act** characteristics, i.e. the ability of a sentence to carry out socially significant acts, in addition to merely describing aspects of the world (J. Austin, J. Searle).

For example, the sentence *Here she is!* can be a mere statement of the fact, but it can also serve as a warning, an expression of emotion (surprise, irritation, disappointment, joy, etc.).

The sentence shall be further considered as a trichotomy of ***form, meaning*** and ***function***.

Accordingly, distinction is drawn between such areas of syntactic theory as:

- construction syntax,
- semantic syntax,
- functional syntax (communicative and pragmatic).

In sentence-tokens these aspects are inextricably linked, so the distinction is essentially a research convention.

3. THE STRUCTURAL CLASSIFICATION OF ENGLISH SENTENCES

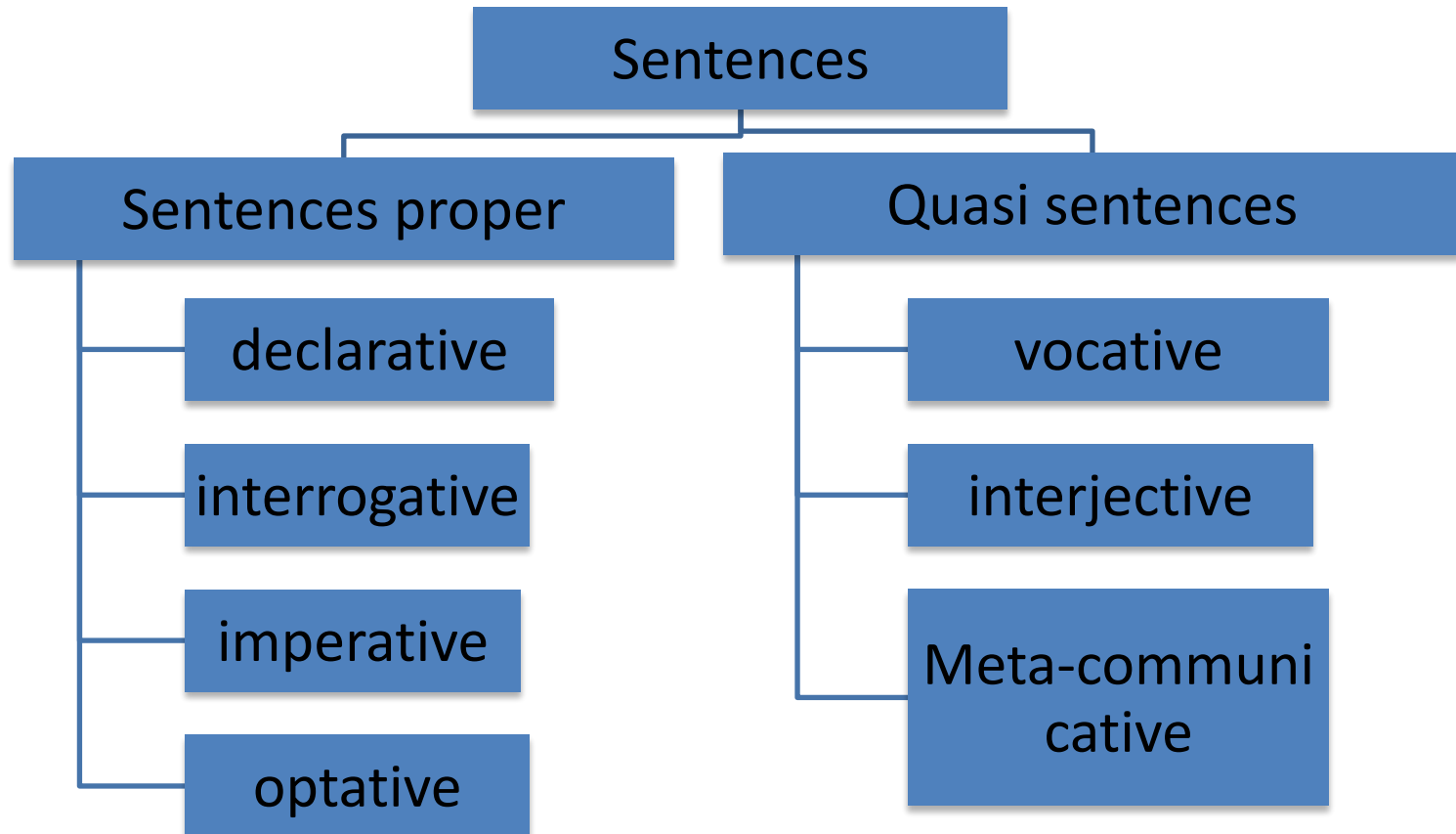
- Is *Hey, you!* a sentence or not?

The answer would depend on whether you take the meaning, the function or the form of the utterance as a starting point.

In the framework of this theme, we will classify English sentences on a structural basis in agreement with their semantic characteristics. Since predicativity is the constitutive feature of the sentence, it would be logical to use it as the basis for dividing English sentences into:

- **sentences proper** (further on just sentences), which are predicative structures,
- **quasi-sentences**, which do not have this categorial feature.

Types and subtypes of English sentences :



Characteristic features of the types of sentences proper

	Sentence token	Syntactic characteristics	Communicative function
Declara-tive	<i>John is leaving.</i>	subject + whole predicate	giving information about something
Interro-gative	<i>Is John leaving?</i>	part of predicate + subject + rest of predicate	asking for information about something
Optative	<i>If John only left!</i>	if + subject + whole predicate	expressing one's desire that somebody should do something
Impera-tive	<i>Leave!</i>	predicate by itself	getting somebody do something

Characteristic features of the types of quasi-sentences

	Sentence pattern	Syntactic characteristics	Communicative function
Vocative	<i>John!</i>	denotation of the person addressed	to address someone
Interjective	<i>Ouch!</i>	interjection	to express emotion
Metacommunicative	<i>See you!</i>	greeting / parting words	to establish or terminate contact

Declarative and **interrogative** sentences differ in their informational aspect: the former provide information, and the latter call for information.

The amount of information carried by **declarative** sentences varies.

e.g. *I am asking that because I want to know* as an answer to the question *Why are you asking that?* repeats the predicative part of the preceding sentence thus giving redundant information.

Declarative sentences can be **positive** or **negative**, i.e. they assert or negate the predicative link between the subject and the predicate.

We call a sentence negative only if negation concerns the predicate (the so-called "**general negation**"), e.g. *You don't understand him at all.*

Special negation can refer to any member of the sentence except the predicate, e.g. *Not a person could be seen around.*

Interrogative sentences are not "pure questions": they carry some information, which is called ***the presupposition of the question***.

e.g. *Why are you asking that?* has a presupposition *<You are asking that>*;
Why have you murdered your wife? presupposes that the addressee has murdered his wife.

Interrogative sentences demonstrate a great variety of meanings, forms, and pragmatic functions. Due to that, only their most general **features** can serve as a basis for setting them apart:

- a specific intonation contour;
- the inverted order of words;
- interrogative pronouns;
- the information gap in the knowledge of the subject about the denotatum, etc.

Alternative questions do not form a special type. Alternativity can be brought both into general and special questions

e.g. Is it Peter or John? Who(m) do you like better, Peter or John?

Disjunctive (tag) questions are a variety of general questions.

General Questions	Special Questions
Formal Features	
- no interrogative pronouns	- wh-pronouns
- a rising intonation contour	- a falling intonation contour
Semantic Features	
- a request for information about the existence of a link between the entity expressed by the subject and its characteristics (static or dynamic)	- a request for some specific information
Functional Features	
- call for an answer "Yes / No", "Certainly", "Perhaps", "Never", etc.	- are to be answered with a declarative sentence

Quasi-sentences are called "sentences" due to their:

- ability to substitute a sentence (take its position in a speech chain);
- discreteness;
- intonation properties.

Yet quasi-sentences cannot be said to have a full sentential status (hence the prefix *quasi*- from Lat. *quasi* – as if, like, almost): they can be embedded into a sentence as syntactically dependent elements which:

- do not have a nominative meaning (just evaluative);
- are context dependent, e.g. *John!* (amazement, indignation, approval, reproof);
- are easily substituted by non-verbal signals, e.g. *John!* Attracting attention: punch in the ribs, tap on the shoulder, clearing one's throat);

Well done! Phhh (Yak!) Good bye! Hi!

- can be combined, e.g. *Oh, John! Hello Cliff!*
- can be emotionally coloured (become exclamatory).

Exclamation is not a structural element of a sentence, i.e. it is optional.

Yet certain types of quasi-sentences demonstrate a tendency to being exclamatory (the conventionality of the exclamation mark), e.g. *Dear sir!* (Cf. Здравствуй, Аня!).

THEME 3

SIMPLE SENTENCE CONSTITUENTS

1. Types of sentence constituents
2. The system of English sentence members
 - 2.1. The subject
 - 2.2. The predicate
 - 2.3. The object / complement
 - 2.4. The (adverbial) modifier
 - 2.5. The attribute

Key words

- a sentence constituent
- a clause / an elementary sentence
- a sentence member / part / member of the sentence
- an independent / main clause
- a dependent / subordinate clause
- the head(-word)
- the situation
- environment (obligatory / optional)
- ellipsis; elliptical
- to omit, to be omitted
- the subject
- the predicate (simple verbal, complex verbal /nominal, phraseological)
- the object (complement) (object-oriented, addressee-oriented, subject-oriented) (prepositionless / direct, prepositional)
- the (adverbial) modifier
- the attribute (prepositive, postpositive)
- an inherent characteristic
- a nominative sentence

1. TYPES OF SENTENCE CONSTITUENTS

Explicating the structure of a **declarative** sentence is a two-step procedure:

- segmenting the sentence into smaller components – sentence constituents;
- clarifying the nature of links between them.

Sentence constituents

- of the upper level – **clauses / elementary sentences**

the smallest
predicative units
of a language

- of the lower level – **members of the sentence / sentence members / sentence parts**

are not characterized by
predicativity;

can have the form of

- a word (e.g. *there, forgot*)
- a word-combination

(e.g. *at the seaside, shall forget*).

Some sentences consist of only one clause.

A clause expresses a whole event or situation with a subject/predicate structure.

sentence 1

clause

Whales cannot breathe underwater.

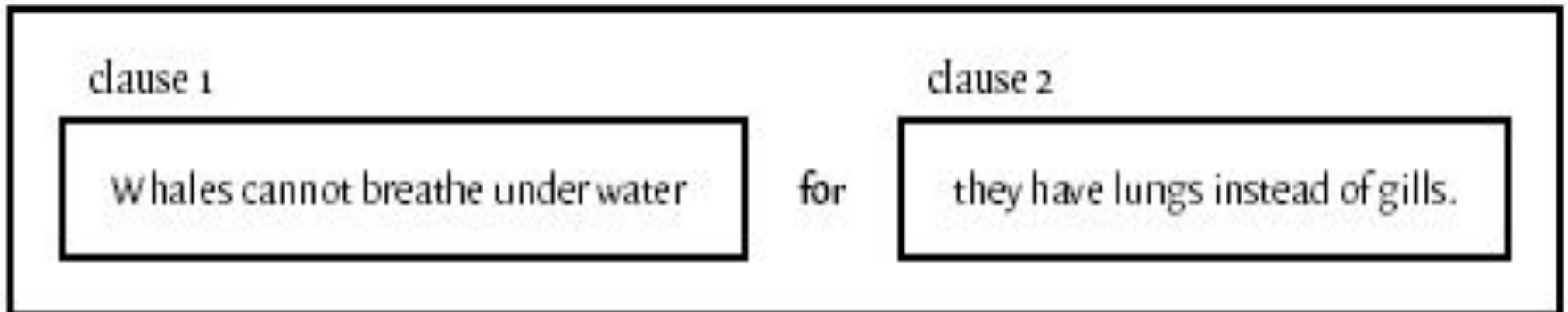
sentence 2

clause

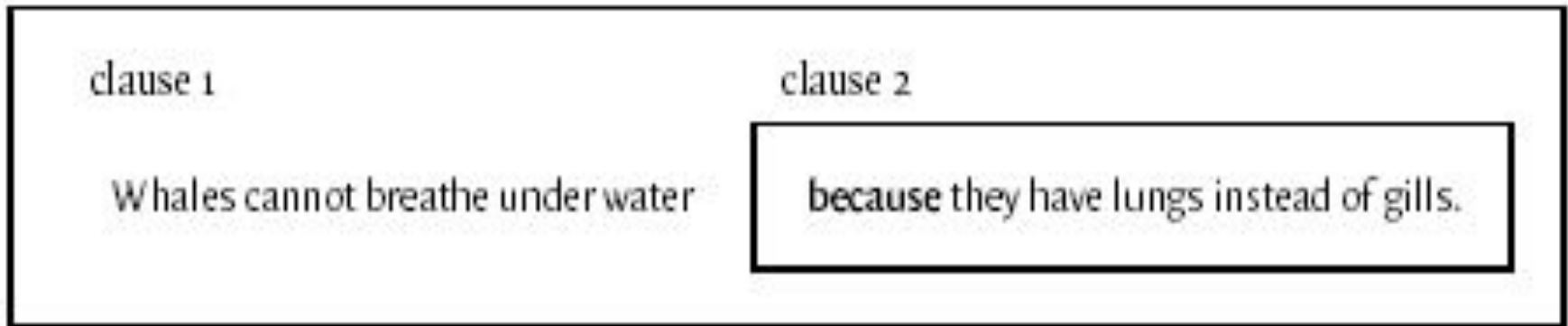
They have lungs instead of gills.

Some sentences consist of two or more clauses;
these can be of the same type or of different types:

sentence



sentence



Types of clauses

- **independent / main** – form a meaningful unit by themselves
- **subordinate / dependent** – cannot stand on their own because they function as a constituent (subject, object, etc.) of another clause

2. THE SYSTEM OF ENGLISH SENTENCE MEMBERS

Used in the syntagmatic chain, words are no longer viewed as parts of speech: they become sentence members.

The sentence member is a two-facet unit.

Content : its relation to other constituents in the syntagmatic chain.

Form (morphological, yet syntactically relevant) :

- the part-of-speech status of the word it is represented by (in case the form is analytical, it is called **the head**, or head-word, e.g. *on the beach*)
- the availability of function words which accompany the head
- the position of the head in relation to other components of the sentence (e.g. *They sunbathed on the beach*)
- its paralinguistic features (intonation), etc.

In other words, sentence members as syntactic entities are set in a different system of coordinates than their morphological correlates – parts of speech.

This system of coordinates is
the situation.

Object complements and modifiers can make **obligatory** or **optional** environment of the word that performs the predicative function.

Obligatory environment is an inherent syntactic characteristic of the word which functions as the predicate,

e.g.

to tell something (the truth/a lie);

to be subject to something (fits of anger)

Elements of the obligatory environment **may be omitted (ellipsis)**, though this happens not often and not with all of them. Their implicit presence will be suggested,

e.g. *Do you know about his divorce? He told me [about it].*

Obligatory environment may serve to
differentiate lexical/semantic variants of words:
Cf.:

She treated him. – She treated him like a child.

Her cheeks were full. – She was full of sympathy.

The **optional** environment of an element may remain unrealized in a sentence:

e.g.

adverbial modifiers of manner with the verbs of speech:

... said Mr. Bently reflectively.

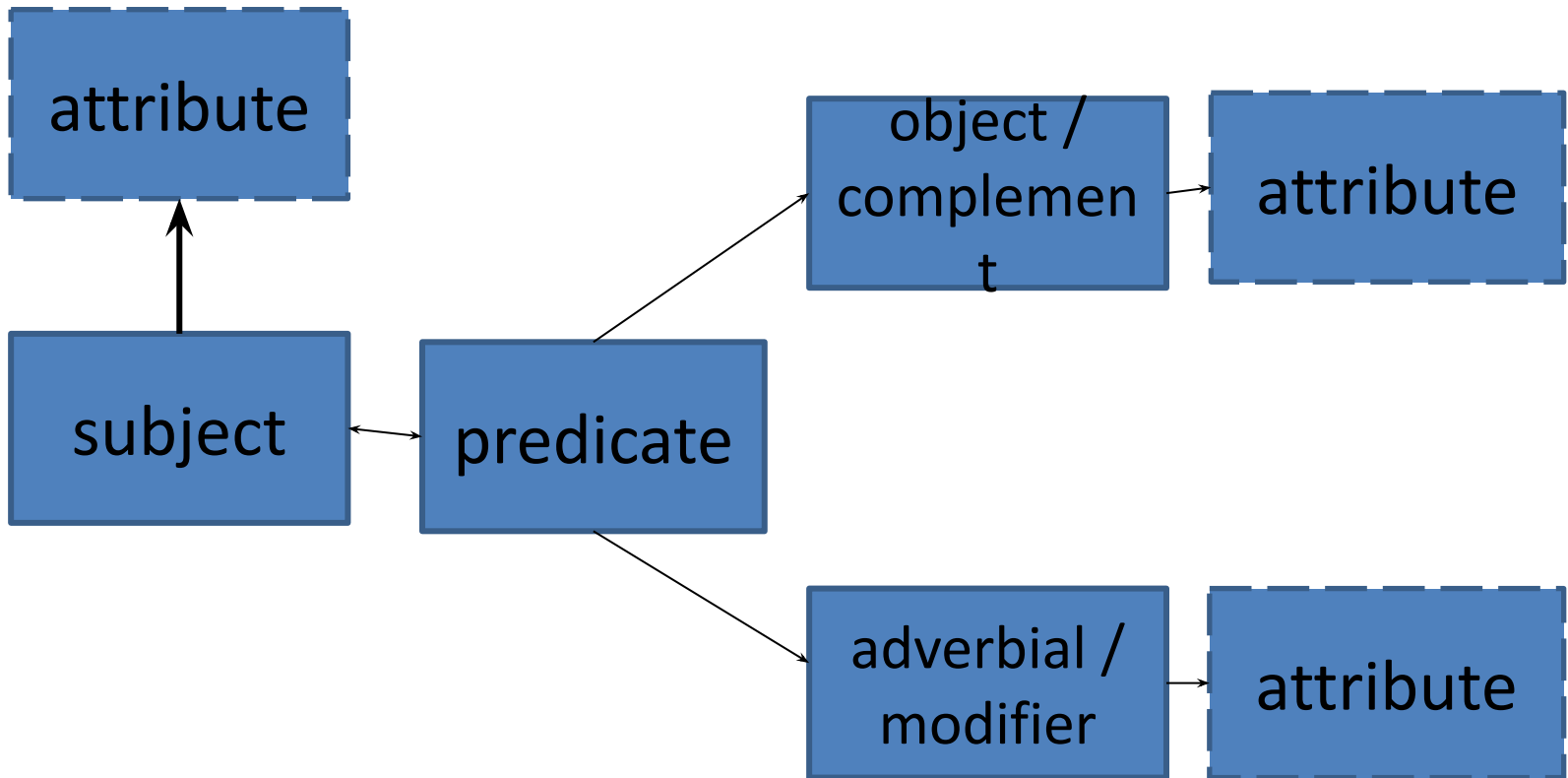
Sentence members can be grouped together in the following way:

- **the subject – the predicate**: these sentence members are interconnected yet syntactically independent from other members of the sentence;
- **the object (complement) – the (adverbial) modifier**: these sentence members are both syntactically dependent upon the verb.

Though in some sentences the object complement may be adjective-dependent, it happens only in case the adjective functions as part of the predicate, e.g. *She is very good at cooking.*

- **the attribute:** this sentence member is noun-dependent.

In contrast to other sentence members, it does not enter the structural scheme of the sentence, i.e. it is always optional.



Relations of the sentence
members

2.1. The subject is a syntactic correlate of the predicate.

It performs :

- ***the categorial function*** – denoting the carrier of some predicative feature/s;
- ***the relational function*** – being the initial element in the syntagmatic succession of words making a sentence.

As a sentence member, the subject presupposes the presence of the predicate, even if the latter is elliptical:
e.g.

- *Darling, you would be a marvelous dancer but for two things.*
- *What are they, sweetheart?*
- *Your feet* *[prevent you from being a marvelous dancer].*

In a **nominative sentence** the noun cannot be said to perform the function of the subject: it is **the element which combines the properties of the subject and the predicate**, e.g. *Night*.

The form of the predicate in English tends to be determined by **the meaning of the subject**, not its form:
e.g.

The Gang of Four has been discredited. (= the gang as a whole)

The Gang of Four have been discredited. (= the individual gang members)

The bread and cheese was brought and distributed.

2.2. The predicate performs the following functions:

- ***the categorial function*** – predicating some feature/s to the subject;
- ***the relational function*** – being the element which links the subject with the object complement and/or adverbial modifier.

The predicate is the hub around which the subject and the object rotate with the change of the speaker's perspective of viewing the referent situation (ACTIVE VOICE :: PASSIVE VOICE):

e.g.

The choir practiced a song. vs. The song was practiced by the choir.

Grammatical and lexical meanings:

- go together in **simple verbal** predicates: e.g. *He reddened*.

- go separate in:

- **complex verbal** predicates (an auxiliary verb + a notional verb):

- e.g. *He is sleeping*.

- **complex nominal** predicates (a link verb/a copula + a noun/an adjective):

- e.g. *He is a student. He grew old*.

- **phraseological** predicates formed according to the model FINITE VERB + DEVERBAL NOUN:

- e.g. *He gave a gasp / took a breath*.

Predicates with the so-called "notional links" (e.g. *The moon rose red*) result from the process of syntactic **blending (contamination)**:

e.g. *The moon rose*. (a simple verbal predicate) +
 It was red. (a complex nominal predicate).

Cf. *He grew old*. # **He grew*. + *He was old*.

Predicates of the above listed types can be **elaborated** by introducing modal and aspect markers which carry respective meanings:

e.g. *I can give you a call*. *She kept chattering*.

2.3. The object (complement) in English has the following varieties:

(1) **Object-oriented** complements denote the object of the action expressed by the verb. They come in two varieties:

- **prepositionless /direct** object-oriented complements:

e.g. *He knows this. He saw me.*

- **prepositional** object-oriented complements:

e.g. *He knows of this. He looked at me.*

(2) **Addressee-oriented** complements denote the person or object towards whom/which the action expressed by the verb is directed. There are two varieties of them, too:

- **prepositionless /direct** addressee-oriented complements:

e.g. *She gave me a letter.*

- **prepositional** addressee-oriented complements:

e.g. *She gave a letter to me.*

(3) **Subject-oriented** complements, related to the state of the person or object denoted by the word which functions as the subject, are taken by verbs in the passive form:

e.g. *Mor was overcome with emotion. The house was covered with vine.*

2.4. The (adverbial) modifier possesses a number of features which set it apart from the object complement.

The Adverbial Modifier	The Object Complement
cannot be transformed into the subject	can be transformed into the subject
its presence is not always determined by verbal semantics	its presence is always determined by verbal semantics
is a component of the structural scheme of the sentence only with certain verbs: e.g. <i>He stayed <u>alive</u>.</i>	is always a component of the structural scheme of the sentence
can be expressed with nouns, pronouns, adverbs or participles, e.g. <i>with eagerness – eagerly;</i> <i>with dignity – quietly</i>	can be expressed only with nouns or pronouns

2.5. The attribute is a noun-oriented part of speech (irrespective of the syntactic function of the latter).

Attributes in English fall into:

- **prepositive** (e.g. visible stars, a stone wall);
- **postpositive** (the stars visible).

Among the language units which can function as postpositive attributes there are grammatical idioms:

e.g.

It was a surprisingly competent story for a man his age.

Attributes can undergo syntactic expansion in English:

e.g. *a young man, serious-faced and with the air of one born to command*

The string of attributes of a noun can be quite long: in this case they are arranged according to the OPSHACOM formula:

OP (opinion)	SH (size/ shape)	A (age)	C (colour)	O (origin)	M (material)	Gerund, etc.	Noun
<i>daring</i>		<i>young</i>					<i>man</i>
	<i>round</i>				<i>oak</i>		<i>table</i>
<i>dirty</i>		<i>old</i>	<i>brown</i>				<i>coat</i>
<i>charming</i>				<i>French</i>		<i>writing</i>	<i>desk</i>
	<i>large</i>		<i>green</i>	<i>Chinese</i>			<i>carpet</i>
<i>famous</i>				<i>German</i>		<i>medical</i>	
<i>wonderful</i>						<i>autumnal</i>	<i>panoram a</i>
<i>attractive</i>	<i>small</i>						<i>property</i>

THEME 4

COMPOSITE SENTENCE CONSTITUENTS: CLAUSES

1. Parataxis and hypotaxis
2. English composite sentence
 - 2.1. Characteristic features
 - 2.2. Classification

KEY WORDS

- parataxis / coordination
- hypotaxis / subordination
- coordinative / subordinative link
- mono-/polypredicative (unit)
- initiating / continuing (element)
- composite sentence: compound or complex
- co-clause
- fixed order
- coordinate conjunction
- correlative conjunction
- conjunctive adverb
- subordinator
- colon
- semi-colon
- adverbial clause
- attributive / adjective / adjectival / relative clause

1. PARATAXIS AND HYPOTAXIS

The composite sentence is a structural, semantic and functional unity of two or more monopredicative syntactic constructions – clauses.

Thus the composite sentence is a **polypredicative** syntactic unit.

Between the clauses in a composite sentence there is the same kind of relationship as between words in a phrase.

These relations can be those of **coordination** of the constitutive elements (**parataxis**) or of **subordination** (**hypotaxis**).

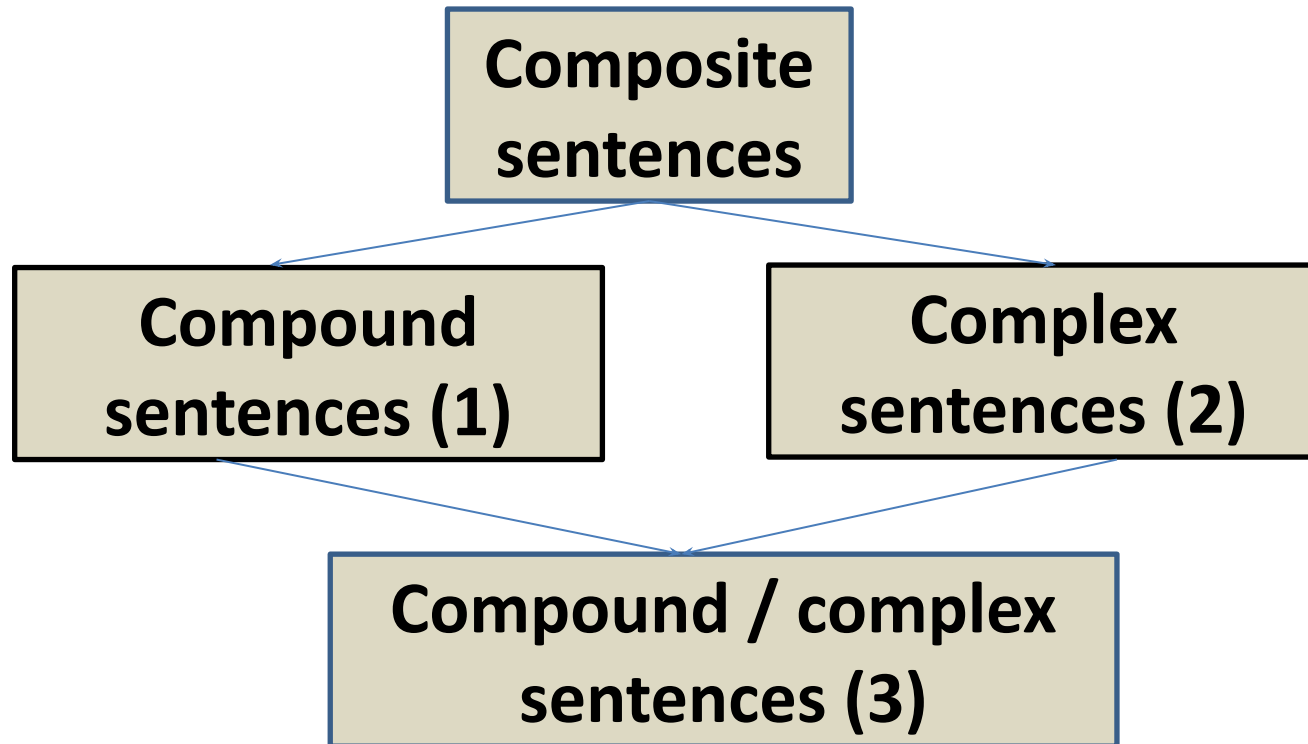
	Parataxis (Coordination of Elements) The elements are: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - of equal status; - free (i.e. each one can stand as a functional whole); - logically symmetrical e.g. <i>pepper and salt – salt and pepper</i>	Hypotaxis (Subordination of Elements) The elements are: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - of unequal status; - the dominant element is free, while the dependent one is not; - logically asymmetrical e.g. <i>I breathe when I sleep. # I sleep when I breathe</i>
Words	<i>apples and pears, easy and simple</i> (non-kernel independent phrases); <i>his own (dog)</i> (a non-kernel dependent phrase)	<i>John's books, completely empty</i> (kernel regressive phrases); <i>the road back</i> (a kernel progressive phrase)
	initiating element – continuing element	dominant element (the head) – dependent / subordinate element (the modifier)
Clauses	<i>Dogs bark and cats mew.</i>	<i>I don't know what you're talking about.</i>
	initiating clause – continuing clause	dominant / main clause – dependent / subordinate clause

2. ENGLISH COMPOSITE SENTENCE

2.1. Characteristic features

Elementary sentence / clause	Composite sentence
Communicatively self-sufficient	
Can be declarative, interrogative, optative or imperative	
Constituents – non-predicative units / sentence members	Constituents – predicative units / clauses

2.2. Classification of English composite sentences



(1) Compound Sentences

A compound sentence consists of two or more clauses (sometimes called **co-clauses**) which are joined **paratactically** (i.e., by a coordinative link).

e.g.

Jason offered the girl his handkerchief (the initiating co-clause) and she took it without a moment's hesitation (the continuing co-clause).

Clauses in a compound sentence have a **fixed order**, i.e. they cannot be moved without changing the overall meaning of the whole sentence.

Cf.:

Jason offered the girl his handkerchief and she took it without a moment's hesitation.

?She took it without a moment's hesitation and Jason offered the girl his handkerchief.

Coordinators

Coordinate conjunctions		Correlative conjunctions
<i>and</i>	<i>for</i>	<i>both... and</i>
<i>but</i>	<i>yet</i>	<i>not only... but also</i>
<i>or</i>	<i>so</i>	<i>either... or</i>
<i>nor</i>		<i>neither... nor</i>

Another way to connect two clauses and form a compound sentence is to put a **semi-colon (;)** between the co-clauses:

e.g. *Jason offered the girl his handkerchief; she took it without a moment's hesitation.*

To make the logical connection clear, the semi-colon is often followed by a word like *therefore, besides, similarly* called a **conjunctive adverb**.

It is **not** possible to change the order of the two clauses joined by a conjunctive adverb:

e.g. *Whales have lungs instead of gills;
therefore, they cannot breathe under water.*

****Therefore**, they cannot breathe under water;
whales have lungs instead of gills.*

Coordinate conjunctions and conjunctive adverbs
have rather similar meanings

e.g. *and* and *moreover* express addition

so and *therefore* express result

Yet they are different grammatically.

Unlike a coordinate conjunction, a conjunctive adverb can be moved within the second clause:

e.g. *Whales have lungs instead of gills; they **therefore** cannot breathe under water.*

*Whales have lungs instead of gills; they can **therefore** not breathe under water.*

*Whales have lungs instead of gills, **so** they cannot breathe under water.*

** Whales have lungs instead of gills, they can **so** not breathe under water.*

(2) Complex Sentences

Clauses in a **complex sentence** (the principal / main clause and the sub-clause/s) are joined by **subordination** (hypotaxis), which is a way of linking dependent grammatical elements.

e.g.

Often tell your kids (the principal clause)
how terrific they are (the sub-clause).

Subordinators

<i>after</i>	<i>however much</i>	<i>though</i>	<i>whether</i>
<i>although</i>	<i>if</i>	<i>unless</i>	<i>which(ever)</i>
<i>as</i>	<i>in order that</i>	<i>until</i>	<i>while</i>
<i>as if</i>	<i>how that</i>	<i>what(ever)</i>	<i>who</i>
<i>as though</i>	<i>once</i>	<i>when</i>	<i>who(m)(ever)</i>
<i>because</i>	<i>rather than</i>	<i>whenever</i>	
<i>before</i>	<i>since</i>	<i>where</i>	
<i>even though</i>	<i>so that</i>	<i>whereas</i>	
<i>how</i>	<i>that</i>	<i>wherever</i>	

Compound sentences

both parts (co-clauses)
are independent
structures

Complex sentences

the dependent clause
cannot stand on its own
and functions as a
constituent (subject,
object, adverbial, or
attribute) of the main
clause, or in some cases it
is only a part of another
sentence constituent.

Adverbial clauses

Main clause	Dependent clause functioning as adverbial
<i>Whales cannot breathe underwater</i>	<i>because they have lungs instead of gills</i>

Adverbials may occupy different positions in a sentence:

e.g. Because they have lungs instead of gills, whales cannot breathe under water.

If you are not sure whether a clause functions as adverbial, you can try moving it

ATTRIBUTIVE / ADJECTIVE / ADJECTIVAL / RELATIVE CLAUSES

Main clause	Dependent clause functioning as an attributive modifier of the subject
<i>Whales ... have lungs instead of gills</i>	<i>, which cannot breathe underwater,</i>

Relative clauses can be left out:

Consider the sentence below and say if its clauses are of a similar status:

e.g. *John, **who always kicks the ball hard**, is the player **who scores the most**.*

RESTRICTIVE AND NON-RESTRICTIVE RELATIVE CLAUSES

- *The book **that she read** was important for her literature review. (restrictive)*
- *The participants **who were interviewed** volunteered to be part of the study. (restrictive)*
- *Walden University, **which is entirely online**, has main administrative offices in Baltimore and Minneapolis. (nonrestrictive)*

SUBJECT, OBJECT, AND PREDICATIVE CLAUSES

Since these are obligatory parts of a sentence, there is no complete main clause

Main clause		
Dependent clause 1 functioning as subject	Dependent clause 2 functioning as a predicative	
<i>What is surprising</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>that whales cannot breathe underwater.</i>

One way to tell if the dependent clause functions as subject or object is to replace the whole clause with the word *it*.

e.g.

That John kicks the ball hard is common knowledge.

It is common knowledge.

We all know ***that John kicks the ball hard***.

We all know ***it***.

Complex sentences may have a hierarchy of clauses, i.e. be characterized by **consecutive**, or **successive subordination**:

The teacher realized (the principal clause)
that the class did not understand the rule (the 1st sub-clause)

which had just been explained to them (the 2nd sub-clause which is subordinated to the 1st one).

John reported that Mary told him that Fred had said the day would be fine.

(3) Compound / Complex and Complex / Compound Sentences

It is also possible to have a compound sentence with complex parts, or a complex sentence with compound parts. We will call both types **compound-complex** sentences.

e.g.

Mr. Bloomberg was very proud (the principal clause) when he heard about his son's success (the sub-clause) but at the same time he knew (the principal clause) that it was just luck (the sub-clause)

The headmaster told the teachers (the principal clause) that Weekly Reviews were to be written on Fridays (the 1st sub-clause) and that they should be marked by Mondays (the 2nd sub-clause).

I don't mind if you leave as soon as you're finished as long as you're back when I need you.

The following example of a compound-complex sentence has two complete main clauses connected by the coordinate conjunction *and*. Each of these has a dependent clause.

A compound sentence				
Initiating clause			Continuing clause	
<i>A tone</i>	<i>what you hear</i>	<i>and</i>	<i>a note is the</i>	<i>that you</i>
<i>is</i>	<i>in music</i>		<i>symbol for a</i>	<i>write down</i>
			<i>tone</i>	

THEME 5

SEMANTIC SYNTAX

Outline

1. The logical structure of the sentence
2. The deep semantic structure of the sentence
(semantic roles)

Key terms

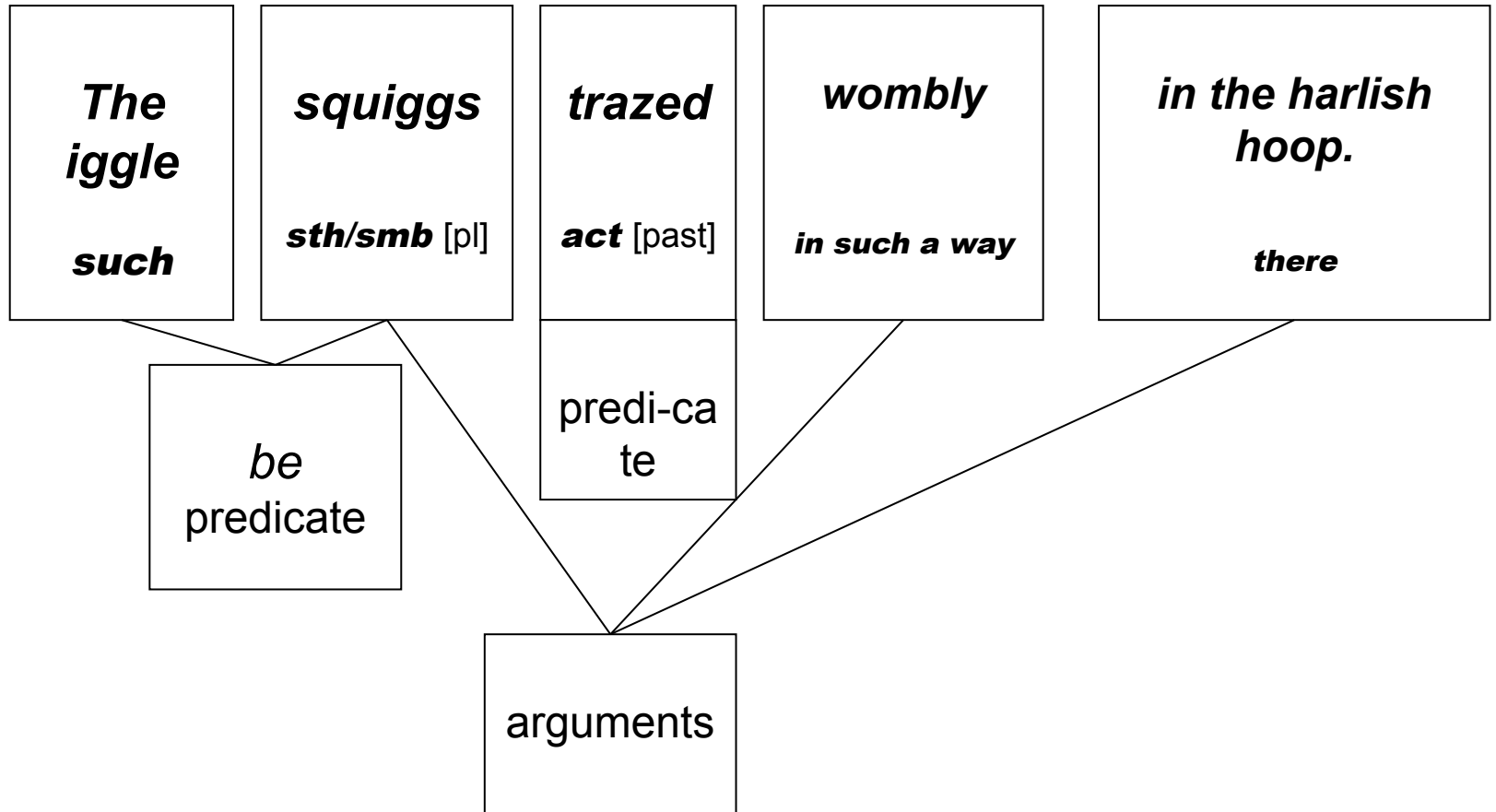
- proposition
- predicate
- argument
- participant
- semantic role
- deep structure
- valence
- case frame
- agent
- object
- patient / undergoer
- addressee
- recipient / beneficiary
- counteragent / reciprocant
- experiencer

1. THE LOGICAL STRUCTURE OF THE SENTENCE

The logical description of the sentence is aimed at establishing the connection between

- the sentence structure and
- the structure of thought

e.g. "subject", "predicate", "copula" are originally logical terms.



2. THE DEEP SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF THE SENTNCE

- the late 1960s
- Ch. Fillmore
- **deep structure valence descriptions for verbs**
- These "**case frames**" specified the **semantic roles of the nominals** which could occur with a given verb (e.g. agent, object, instrument, source, goal, etc.).

AGENT	the instigator of the action, controls it, <u>typically animate</u>	<i><u>John</u> opened the door.</i> <i>The door was opened <u>by John</u>.</i>
ELEMEN-TAT IVE	<u>inanimate</u>	<i><u>The war</u> scattered people.</i>
EXPERIEN-CE R	the <u>receiver of information</u> with the <u>verbs of perception</u> or a <u>bearer of uncontrollable feeling</u>	<i><u>He</u> saw her.</i> <i><u>He</u> hesitated.</i> <i><u>His eyes</u> twinkled.</i> <i><u>My head</u> aches.</i>

OBJECT	<p>the thing affected by the action (AFFECTIVE)</p> <p>or effected by the action (EFFECTIVE)</p>	<p><i>He broke <u>the window</u>.</i></p> <p><i><u>The stone</u> fell.</i></p> <p><i><u>The yard</u> was overlooked.</i></p> <p><i>He wrote <u>a poem</u>.</i></p> <p><i>She told <u>a lie</u>.</i></p>
PATIENT	the <u>animate</u> OBJECT	<i><u>He</u> has been robbed.</i>
ADDRESSEE	the recipient of the message with <u>the verbs of speech</u>	<i>They told <u>him</u> the news.</i>
BENEFICIARY / RECIPIENT	the <u>animate</u> participant involved into the action in terms of <u>harm / benefit</u>	<p><i>He offered his seat to <u>a disabled person</u>.</i></p> <p><i><u>She</u> received a gift.</i></p>
COUNTER-AGENT / RECIPROCANT	the participant of a <u>symmetrical relationship</u> with the AGENT	<p><i>We are friends with <u>Tom</u>.</i></p> <p><i>They trade with <u>many countries</u>.</i></p>

INSTRUMENT	the inanimate object or force <u>causally</u> involved in the action; does not undergo any changes	<i><u>The key</u> opened the door.</i> <i>John opened the door <u>with a key</u>.</i>
MEANS		<i>It was written <u>in ink</u>.</i>

SOURCE	the place from where the action initiates (with verbs of dynamic spatial location; verbs of occupation)	<i>She moved from <u>her apartment</u>. <u>She</u> teaches English.</i>
STIMULUS	the source of information with the verbs of perception or the source of uncontrollable feeling	<i>He saw <u>the girl</u>. <u>The very idea</u> is shocking.</i>

GOAL	the place towards which the action is directed	<i>They left for <u>Poltava</u>.</i>
LOCATION	location /spatial orientation of the state or action identified with the verb	<i><u>Chicago</u> is windy. It is windy <u>in Chicago</u>.</i>