

Temenuzhka Seizova-Nankova

STRUCTURE AND FUNCTIONING OF
THE ENGLISH CLAUSE

Konstantin Preslavsky Publishing House
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To the memory of father, mother, and aunt!

Structure and Functioning of the English Clause

A pioneer work on the English clause basically based on the general framework of F. Daneš, the three-level approach to syntax, and concerned with the grammatical, semantic and FSP levels. These have been elaborated to highlight different aspects of the analysis of the sentence/clause/phrase.

Structure is of primary concern among the interplay of factors. However, diverse points of view are considered for comparison. Special attention is drawn to the TMEs of the verb as they pose great problems to Bulgarian learners of English. Semantics is given due attention: basic notions are explained and mappings between syntax and semantics discussed. At the basis of considering the communicative aspect is the theory of FSP. One of its basic tenets among others is taking intonation as something of paramount importance when considering the English clause. This methodology helps students in their understanding of how the different facets of language shed light on the complexity of English as a lingua franca.

The topic together with the framework of how to tackle it, can serve as a point of departure for further research of English word order (linear modification), especially in carrying out contrastive studies for which that manuscript forms a good basis.

The book can be of interest to students, teachers of English, in fact, everybody interested in the language, no matter theoreticians or practitioners.

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CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION	9
1. The universal character of word order	13
2. Basic assumptions	16
3. A short note on the history of the theory of phrase	21
Part One	25
THE GRAMMATICAL LEVEL	26
1_1.1. Deep Structure (DS) and Surface Structure (SS)	26
1_1.2. Clause elements and distribution	28
1_1.2.1. Constituent and phrase	28
1_1.2.2. Distribution	30
1_1.3. Clause structure. Types of constituents	31
1_1.3.1. Continuous and discontinuous constituents	31
1_1.3.1.a. Continuous constituents	31
1_1.3.1.b. Discontinuous constituents	31
1_1.3.2. Endocentric and exocentric constituents	33
1_1.3.2.a. Endocentric constituents	33
1_1.3.2.b. Exocentric constituents	34
1_1.3.3. Constituent types hierarchy	32
1_1.3.3.a. Immediate constituents	33
1_1.3.3.b. Ultimate constituents	33
1_1.3.3.c. Intermediate constituents	33
1_1.3.4. An illustration	33
1_1.4. Phrase structure dependence	38
1_1.4.1. VP dependents	39
1_1.4.2. NP dependents	41
1_1.4.2.a.1. The NP–pre-head dependents	41
1_1.4.2.a.2. The NP–post-head dependents	41
1_1.4.2.b. NP dependents–the sequential view	45
1_1.4.3. AdjP dependents	50
1_1.4.4. Complements and adjuncts	50
1_1.5. Morphosyntactic properties of word classes	51
1_1.5.1. Determiners and adjectives	51
1_1.5.2. Combinations/collocations of words belonging to different word classes related by subordination	53
1_1.5.3. Combinations/collocations of words belonging to one and the same word class related by subordination	55
1_1.5.4. Combining phrases in relation of coordination	55
1_1.6. Grammatical processes and rules connected with the clause/sentence structure	56
1_1.6.1. Substitution rules	56
1_1.6.2. Expanding rules	56
1_1.6.3. Embedding rules	56
1_1.6.4. Extending rules	57

1_1.6.5. Agreement rules	57
1_1.6.6. Government	58
1_1.7. Problems of constituent structure	58
1_1.7.1. Immediate constituent (IC) analysis	58
1_1.7.1.a. Ditransitive verbs	58
1_1.7.1.b. Coordinate constructions	59
1_1.7.1.c. Discontinuous constituents	60
1_1.8. Grammatical functions and the idea of hierarchy	60
1_1.9. Grammatical functions and word order	61
1_1.10. Grammatical functions and grammatical categories (word classes)	62
1_1.11. Ways of Presenting Constituent Structure	62
1_1.11.1. Bracketing	62
1_1.11.2. Labelling	63
1_1.11.2.a. Functional labeling	63
1_1.11.2.b. Categorial labeling	64
1_1.11.2.c. Combination of functional and categorial labeling	64
1_1.11.3. Tree Diagram	65
1_1.11.4. Minimal bracketing	70
1_1.11.5. Maximal bracketing	71
1_1.12. Grammatical ambiguity: types	67
1_1.12.1. Bracketing	67
1_1.12.2. Labelling	69
1_1.12.3. Transformational ambiguity as a function of the deep structure (DS)	70
1_1.12.4. Interpretational ambiguity. Potentiality	71
1_1.12.5. An Ambiguous clause and an ambiguous utterance	71
1_2. Transformations	71
1_2.1. Kernel vs non-kernel clauses	73
1_2.2. Transformations and clause types	83
1_2.3. Transformation in relative clauses	85
1_2.4. Transformations with raising verbs and raising adjectives	88
1_2.5. Transformations with a change in the syntactic functions	89
1_2.6. Transformations with no change in the syntactic function	98
1_2.7. Transformations with ergative and middle structures	99
1_2.8. Classes of words with no fixed position in the sentence	99
Part Two	101
THE SEMANTIC LEVEL	102
2_1. Distinctiveness of the semantic level	102
2_1.1. Referentiality	102
2_1.2. Propositions (PN)	103
2_1.3. Predication: arguments and predicates	104
2_2. Correspondences between the semantic and the syntactic levels	105

2_2.1. Mechanism of matching semantic elements with syntactic constituents – perfect correlation	106
2_2.2. Mechanism of matching semantic elements with syntactic constituents – non-perfect correlation	107
2_2.3. Syntactic devices as varying the order of elements	108
2_3. Syntactic functions and semantic roles	109
2_4. Valency of the verb	110
2_4.1. Semantic character of the verb	113
2_4.2. Transition: the TMEs of the verb	115
Part Three	117
LEVEL OF ORGANIZATION OF THE UTTERANCE	118
3_1. The Theory of FSP as a pragmatic aspect of the utterance	118
3_1.1. Actualization	118
3_1.2. Contextualization	119
3_1.2.a. Context-independent elements	121
3_1.2.b. Context-dependent elements	122
3_1.2.c. Linear modification and the semantic factor	122
3_1.3. CD—the concept of communicative dynamism	123
3_2. Communicative constituent structure of the utterance	125
3_2.1. The interrelation between the thematic (TS) and the rhematic section (RS)	125
3_2.2. Communicative units (CUs) and information structure	126
3_2.3. Communicative position	127
3_2.4. Correspondence between the interpretative arrangement and the actual linear arrangement	128
3_3. Correspondence between syntactic fields (SFs) and communicative fields (CFs)	129
3_3.1. Marked vs unmarked word order	131
3_3.2. Neutral sentence/utterance	133
3_4. The Syntagmatic and the paradigmatic FSP scale of CD	134
3_4.1. The Syntagmatic FSP scale	134
3_4.2. The Paradigmatic FSP scale	135
3_5. Word order as expressive of perfect and non-perfect congruence with the communicative requirements	136
3_5.1. Word order as expressive of perfect congruence with the communicative requirements	136
3_5.1.a. Degrees of communicative dynamisms (CD)	136
3_5.1.b. Theme(Th)–Rheme(Rh)	137
3_5.1.c. Nominalizations	138
3_5.1.d. Transformations in the communicative process	138
3_5.1.e. Pragmatic restrictions: the presentational <i>there</i> construction	139
3_5.2. Word order as expressive of non-perfect congruence with the communicative requirements	142
3_5.3. The phenomenon of potentiality	145

3_6. Word order and intonation	146
3_6.1. Correspondence between the gamut of CD and the gamut of prosodic weight	155
3_6.2. Functions of intonation	149
CONCLUSION	154
ABBREVIATIONS	159
BIBLIOGRAPHY	160

INTRODUCTION

The aim of this work is to show how the English clause works. It is intended for use by the students and teachers of linguistics.

This is an attempt at organizing different aspects of linguistics as a science and building a working and workable framework.

The general framework is basically that of F. Daneš, the three-level approach to syntax: the grammatical, semantic and that of the level of FSP, which has been further elaborated.

Our belief is that as utterances come out linearly, a constraint imposed by the existence of language and its realization in the written and oral media, they are far from being a simple sequence of words. Word order as a universal category follows some characteristic principles which have specific realization in a separate language such as an individual language is a result of mechanisms working, so to say, behind the overt expression which has long been the object of research of linguists. In order to achieve a better understanding of a given language and for the purposes of contrastive analysis there should be a growing awareness of the workings of these mechanisms. This work focuses the issues concerning the English language drawing on the recent developments in linguistic theory.

Constituent structure as forming a part of the sub-categorization principle is the basis of contrastive analysis. Thus starting from structure and function and translating them into semantic content is seen as the main way of realistic research based on the contrastive method.

In building a framework it is important to state what you take as basic. Constituency-based frameworks focus on structural criteria, particularly on matters relating to distribution, permutability, interruptibility, omissibility, etc.

There are alternative approaches in which semantic criteria may be taken as central. I take structure as fundamental because of the clarity of the structural criteria. They are easy to grasp and can

be successfully applied to and used for other languages than English especially the so called configurational languages.

When carrying out a cross-linguistic research the main concern of research includes categorial features, functional features, rules, transformations, clause processes – agreement, government etc., semantic and pragmatic features. Drawing on different aspects of language gives a richer picture of the real language and its function. For example, verbs take complements which can be analysed from the point of view of their morphological subcategorization, i.e. as not only belonging to the class of nouns but also having some specific features of a given subclass (for example belonging to the subclass of proper nouns). Functional grammar is not interested in categorial status (Halliday 1985).

A cross-disciplinary approach is adopted drawing on insights from the fields of deep and surface structure, constituency and transformations (Chomsky), of semantic roles (Fillmore), the theory of functional sentence perspective (FSP–Firbas), the speech act theory (Searle) etc.

In English as compared to other languages say Latin the term 'word order' is not usually applied in the verbal meaning of the words since words taken separately cannot very easily be reshuffled within the frame of the clause the way it can be done in Latin without losing track of the senses.

On the level of the phrase the order of words is more or less fixed and as a gross generalisation it can be said that complements come closer to the head than adjuncts. That's the case with NP, VP and AdjP. There are rules and restrictions that have to be followed and there are also certain possibilities of not so strict an order when other factors like context can interfere with the strict grammatical requirements.

As is well-known English is described as a configurational language with a syntactically fixed word order. What this means is that in English word order has a constructional role to play. The full phrases have to a certain extent some freedom of movement. Sometimes even an intermediate phrase is possible to move which

confirms the idea that not everything in language is logically arranged; that it is difficult to draw boundaries between the different levels and that the idea of levels of language is only used for convenience' sake and for making it easier for the linguist to explain things.

As a basis to the grammatical level the work of Chomsky (1957, 1965) is used: the idea of constituent structure and of transformational relations, not following him in the most technical understanding of the matter. These ideas have been exploited by Huddleston (1984)–Chomsky's idea of transformations, definition of the clause and its congruence with the sentence.

A dictionary of linguistic terms (Trask 1993) treats the new developments in linguistics and serves as a very valuable reference book. The grammar of a language is supposed to explain the mechanism of how that language works.

I have adapted the idea of constituent structure for the present purposes. That's why I discuss two stages of applying it: the first stage is relevant for analysing the mechanisms on clause level, and the second stage – the mechanisms on phrase level since they bear also relevance to the clause level and vice versa. There are no hard and fast lines between these two stages so in certain cases the borderline is blurred and in order to analyse the clause mechanisms it is necessary and inevitable to refer to lower than clause levels.

Where are you going?

To the stadium. or simply

The stadium.

The last answer is not a constituent on clause level, but a constituent on phrase level, forming the object to the preposition 'to'. Nonetheless, in conversational style, it is perfectly acceptable. Sometimes it may be even necessary to go to the very 'bottom' – the feature specification – to find a key to the unravelling of clause mechanisms. The very statement of this fact does not make this idea of levels of depth of analysis superfluous. On the contrary, in

this way the analysis is particularized and worked out to a greater precision.

Since this work has practical aims, transformations are viewed not as abstract processes occurring with abstract units, but applied to actual clauses.

Language is not a perfectly symmetrical system so there are marginal cases which do not exhibit central qualities to the full or in a pure form. Thus the idea of central and/or peripheral features, elements, rules etc. is exploited.

The semantic relations expressing the extralinguistic reality are mapped onto the constructional relations without there seeking to find an immediately straightforward relationship between the two.

The phrase permutations have a relevance to the role word order plays in communication. Again it is a question of degree – to what degree ordering contributes in the communication. In English, word order as a language particular realisation of relations relying solely on sequence and adjacency is decisive to a certain extent but in complementation with other language particular phenomena like intonation for example. The degree to which word order is directly involved is different in different contexts and that can be best judged when compared to languages which reflect differences in the principles and mechanisms underlying the respective word order.

Another important point is the undisputed truth that we cannot talk of grammar, grammatical relations and analysis of their mechanisms disregarding meaning. Very useful and very much in place is Fillmore's case grammar (1977) which makes recourse to Deep Structure (DS) thus trying to capture universal features of language at the same time finding exponents in language-particular phenomena. Similar attempts have been undertaken by different schools. An alternative view is Firbas's (1992) understanding which is further elaborated on the basis of the semantic categories:

Setting>Bearer of Quality>Quality>Specification>Further Specification

etc. or on basis of the other scale:

Presentation of Phenomenon>Phenomenon etc.

The semantic structure of the sentence is viewed as consisting of certain finite number of semantic roles which interact with the communicative value each item has in the process of communication.

I consider the theory of FSP as a necessary improvement on the existing models because it captures things difficult to be explained by other models as for example the non-thematic subjects in English, a stumbling block for linguists like Halliday, Huddleston etc.

Besides, the theory of FSP paves the way to Pragmatics. Studying this aspect of language opens up new vistas in linguistics. FSP proves more applicable to contrastive analysis than any other theory by the very fact that it takes into consideration features both of language as a system and of language as speech phenomenon.

In the theory of FSP intonation takes the central position it deserves in analysing the mechanisms at play. Thus it forms a bridge to the speech acts theories (Searle 1975).

Having all this in mind, the material is organised in three parts.

Part One focuses on the constituent structure and the transformation processes and gives clues to their proving most efficacious for the purpose.

Part Two takes up meaning relations and deals with congruence and non-congruence between the discrete units representing the different levels.

Part Three continues along this line discussing speech in context.

1. The Universal character of word order

Word Order is understood variously by scholars. Judging by its very name, it signifies the linear sequence in which words occur in a clause/sentence or in a phrase. Also it is used to denote the order in which phrases occur in a sentence. In linguistic description, word order studies usually refer to the second type of problem – that is, the sequence in which grammatical elements such as Subject, Verb, and Object occur in sentences (Crystal 1987, 98). In fact we will be interested in both the order of words within phrases and the order of phrases within clauses/sentences.

In order to understand the definitions of word order we have to make sure we understand the nature of the grammatical relations that hold between the elements of a sentence. These grammatical relations form the backbone of a particular language. They consist of features some of which are universal, but a very large part of them are language-specific, i.e. they pertain to a specific language. Universal features combine with language specific. The latter would be of special interest. For example, sentence position and morphological case seem to be in a complementary dependence. Looked upon as a universal principle, it expresses a general observation. Considered from the point of view of a particular language, English for example, syntactic relations are usually expressed by sentence position and sometimes, in the system of pronouns, by case. If we take as an example the Bulgarian language, we will find a modification of this statement.

It is a part of the universal typology that there is a relation of complementation between word order and inflections in that rich inflections go with a language system with free order and poor inflections go with a language system with more fixed word order. Another feature describing the universal character of word order is connected with the fact that whatever the media, written or spoken, words follow unidirectionally one after the other and at the same time complying with the rules of the particular language.

The grammar of a language is supposed to explain the mechanism of how that language works and it is an accepted truth that the grammar of a language is never devoid of meaning. It is

only for the purposes of investigation that we divide natural language into grammar and meaning.

In every language there are different word order patterns serving different purposes. Word order reflects both language (of the language system) and speech phenomena. The different word order patterns in language form the paradigm of the word order variants. What is important is that there is one pattern which is considered most basic and which in a way is expressive of the nature of the particular language in close relation with the historical development this particular language has undergone. In comparing word orders across languages, it is important to appreciate that what is being compared is in relation to the basic or 'favourite' pattern found in each language. In a language it is possible to encounter different sequences of multi-word units, but only one of them will be the natural, usual, unmarked order.

Discussion of word order in languages tends to revolve round the ordering of phrases which are clause elements and it is notable that in English the positions of subject, verb, and object are relatively fixed. In declarative sentences they occur regularly in the order SVO, unless there are particular conditions (for example, the initial placing of the object pronoun in relative clauses) which lead to a disturbance of this order. The more peripheral an element is, the more freedom of position it has. According to Quirk, Greenbaum, and Leech (1985), V, S, O and C in this order represent a scale of mobility with the V being least mobile etc. Of course, there are the various factors which may lead to displacement.

The interest towards word order has been growing in the recent decades. It has been used in classifying languages not in terms of their structural features into isolating/agglutinating/inflecting but on the basis of syntactic or basic word order typologies (Greenberg 1963). Word order, it is hoped, will be a more satisfactory way of doing this.

According to this classification, English is an SVO, i. e. a language in which the normal order of elements in a sentence is S(subject)–V(erb)–O(bject). SVO languages universally tend to

exhibit certain typological characteristics such as prepositions, absence of case systems and right-branching structures in which modifiers follow their heads (Trask 1993). English is usually considered a clear and typical example of a configurational language, a language in which sentences typically have a configurational structure. This feature has to do with constituent structure which is to be considered in more detail later on.

2. Basic assumptions

In order to come to a better understanding of the grammatical, semantic and pragmatic mechanisms working behind the basic word order pattern with which the other word order patterns in English are to be compared we will make recourse to the following theoretical assumptions:

2.1. Syntax is viewed as consisting of three levels: grammatical, semantic and the level of functional sentence perspective (FSP) for achieving observational, descriptive and explanatory adequacy.

Grammatical (or syntactic) rules form the starting point on which the interpretative (semantic and FSP) components are built.

This kind of analysis is simply a device to help organise our material and focus attention more closely on one particular aspect of language organisation – that of word order. Features of one level may reinforce and explain features of another.

Although the levels are kept apart for convenience' sake, cross-referencing is not ignored. On the contrary, the congruence and non-congruence between the levels is further discussed.

2.2. The clause/sentence is not an assembly of words but a structure displaying patterns and characterised with a complex hierarchical relations between its elements – the constituent structure of the clause. Out of limited range of grammatical combinations each language selects its predictable number to build up units such as phrases – the building block of clauses. The

constituent structure of the clause aims at analysing its internal structure and at distinguishing adequately the kinds of units (kinds of phrases) and categories (noun, verb, adjective, etc.) needed.

2.3. In explicating the English word order peculiarities we will need the use of the notions of Deep Structure (DS) and Surface Structure (SS). Our pretheoretical idea of DS is that it underlies an actual sentence, expresses significant grammatical relations of this sentence and is sometimes more revealing and relevant than SS.

The proposition consists of subject and predicate in the Deep Structure (henceforth – DS). Surface Structure (henceforth–SS), according to Chomsky (1965), hides underlying distinctions which no English grammar has pointed out. Chomsky stresses 'superficial similarity with underlying difference, and underlying similarity with superficial difference. An example of the former is the pair of sentences:

<i>John</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>easy</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>please</i>
<i>John</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>eager</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>please</i>
N	V	Adj	to	Infinitive

in which the sequence of N–V–Adj–to–Infinitive shows superficial similarity which stands for underlying difference. John is in relation of object to the verb *please* in the first case and in relation of subject to the verb *please* in the second.

The opposite situation, underlying similarity and superficial difference is illustrated with the following sentences, one of which is in the active and the other one – in the passive.

<i>Ed loves Mary</i>	->
<i>Mary is loved by Ed</i>	

Both these sentences have the same proposition.

2.4. Unmarked and marked members of a system. The following terms can be used for 'unmarked': 'regular', 'normal', or 'usual'; and for 'marked' there are the following terms: 'irregular',

'abnormal', 'exceptional', or 'unusual'. For example, English is a language which generally places a modifier before the head (cf. Radford 1988). Any deviation from this order makes the construction marked. e.g.: criminal court – court martial.

We can apply this distinction to clauses/sentences as: neutral word order or unmarked vs a marked one, kernel vs non-kernel clauses/ sentences – to be discussed in greater detail.

2.5. There are central or core elements and peripheral elements on the one hand (i.e. some nouns do not distinguish number which is a core feature of nouns, nevertheless such nouns still belong to the word class of nouns), and obligatory and optional elements, on the other (i.e. in English a finite verb form obligatorily requires a subject). This characteristic can be exhibited either by a feature, or an element, or a rule. Look at the examples:

2.5.1. *The boy fed the girl.*

2.5.2. *He fed her.*

It is a central rule of transitive constructions that relates these two clauses and that is that there are two NPs. In clause (1) the difference between NP1 and NP2 is on the basis of one feature, that of sequence or position. In clause (2) there are two features combined: sequence plus inflection reflected in the system of nouns.

2.6. Clause and sentence

My understanding of a clause coincides more or less with that of Huddleston. A canonical clause has a subject and a predicate. But a clause or syntactically joined sequence of clauses will be a sentence only if it is not part of a larger syntactic construction.

Where sentence and clause boundaries coincide, we will say that the sentence has the form of a clause, or simply that the sentence is a clause, and that the clause forms a sentence. Thus the subject-predicate construction comes at the highest level in the

constituent structure: there is no higher level construction with a single functional position filled by the clause as a whole (Huddleston 1984, 20)

The term 'clause' we use in two cases: 1. when it coincides with a simple sentence or in other word, a simple sentence represents an independent clause and 2. when it forms a part of a larger structure (a compound, complex or composite sentence). The term 'clause' when realised by a simple sentence is then connected with the orthographic idea of a sentence beginning with a capital letter and ending by a full stop. Since the concept of a sentence is more or less associated with the written language where usually one sentence is divided from another by a full stop, in speech this is a more difficult matter. The clause as a structural unit is easier to identify because of its internal structure: as finite, non-finite or ellipted. It is usually connected with the attributes 'main' and 'subordinate'. Traditionally it excludes any subordinate clauses embedded in it. Such clauses are now considered to form part of the matrix clause – a clause which contains another clause embedded within it.

Thus the term 'sentence' can be very well used when it is coextensive with an independent clause and the term 'simple sentence' can be used as a synonym of clause.

The sentence is the maximal syntactic unit. It is also the word standing for the abstract idea of such a structure and that's why we speak of sentence patterns. Sentence patterns are realized in speech by clauses and sentences.

Therefore a clause and a sentence can be used interchangeably in the cases mentioned above.

Finite clauses and non-finite clauses differ in some respects. Every finite clause contains a finite verb which changes for tense, number and person (or changes in agreement with the subject), while every non-finite clause contains a non-finite verb. When the finite verb carries no overt inflection then certain tests can be made to make the difference? Test 1: the subject can be changed so that the verb shows some inflection in relation with the subject We can call this the person and number test. Test 2: this test

concerns the verb and we can call it the tense test. The non-finite verb is invariable, so it does not change for tense. Since the infinitive as a non-finite verb form and all the forms for the simple present tense with the exception of the 3rd p sg look exactly alike it will be only the tensed forms which will change for past tense for example. Test 3: we shall call it the modal auxiliary test. It is well known that modals are deficient and do not differentiate non-finite forms. This can also be used in certain cases to mark the distinction between the finite and non-finite clauses.

The term 'non-finite clause' also includes verbless clauses like e.g. *They thought him genius*, etc., which lack the finite part of the predicate and which are thus excluded from the nexus constructions headed only by a non-finite form of the verb. Instead of using a different term e.g. complex object for such cases this term covers them as well.

Three different basic concepts of a sentence should be distinguished:

- Singular and individual speech-events or utterance events also to be called utterance tokens. It is 'connected with specific and context-bound purposes which the sender might have had for producing such-and-such an utterance token on some particular occasion' (Trask 1993). Grammatical context (repetition of grammatical formations) and semantic context (the semantic affinity of naming elements – elements naming or referring to some part of the extralinguistic reality) cooperate with each other, the result of their cooperation being a certain utterance event (Svoboda 1968).

- One of all possible different minimal communicative units of the given language or the utterance type. Out of a large number of utterances those patterns that show certain dependence to context and that are typical as a way of expression of a given language and may be regarded as patterns of utterance organization.(ibid.)

- The sentence pattern representing an abstract idea having to do with all the other sentence patterns in the language system (cf. Daneš 1964).

3. A short note on the history of the theory of phrase

The reasons for establishing a specific word order in a particular language are historical, i.e. every language has unique historical development and this is reflected basically in its word order. According to this languages are usually divided into synthetic and analytical. But fundamentally and universally word order in the spoken medium is connected with the unidirectionality of sounds production in time and in the written medium with the linearity or sequencing of putting words one after the other etc. As to what comes first and what follows depends on the nature of the language.

Jespersen introduces the theory of three ranks – the hierarchy of syntactic relations between elements joined together in a grammatical unit. It concerns the 'mutual relations of words in combinations only, and is applicable not only to words but also to groups of words as such'. Analysing the example *terribly cold weather* Jespersen states that the words are 'evidently not on the same footing' and that it is obvious that the word *weather* is 'grammatically, most important'; while *cold* and *terribly* are subordinate to it. *Weather* is determined and defined by *cold*, and *cold* in its turn similarly determined or defined by *terribly*. We have thus three ranks: *weather* – Primary, *cold* – Secondary, *terribly* – Tertiary in this combination (Jespersen 1933, 78-99).

Kruisinga (1932) introduces the term syntactic group – a 'combination of words that forms a distinct part of a sentence. The delimitation between syntactic groups and sentences and a single word and a group of words is not a simple matter' (Burlakova 1971:46).

The notion of syntactic structure as constituent structure was first explicitly proposed by Bloomfield (1933). According to him syntactic constructions are those in which none of the immediate constituents is a bound form. Grammar is assigned four kinds of meaningful arrangements of which 'order' is the first. He defines 'order' as the succession of constituents. Modulation is the use of

pitch, phonetic modification is the change in the primary phonemes and selection of forms is controlled by certain classes.

Syntax is said to consist largely of taxemes of selection stating under what circumstances various form-classes appear in syntactic constructions. Every construction shows us two (or sometimes more) free forms combined in a resultant phrase.

Bloomfield's breakdown of constructions hinges on a certain use of recursion: whether a phrase belongs 'to the same form-class as one or more of its immediate constituents. If not, the construction is exocentric (like '*John ran*'); if so, it is endocentric (like '*poor John*', where both the whole phrase *poor John* and *John* are proper noun expressions and have the same function). The endocentric constructions which include most of those in any language, are of two kinds: i) in coordinative (or serial) ones (e.g. '*boys and girls*'), the phrase belongs to the same form-class as two or more of the constituents (e.g. the nouns *boys/ girls*), ii) in subordinative (or attributive) ones (e.g. '*very fresh milk*'), only one of the constituents – the head or centre (e.g. the noun *milk*) – meets this requirement (cf. 1_4.2.a,1./2.). Bloomfield claims that the structure of subordinative endocentric constructions is different from coordinative ones as it is based on a different kind of syntactic relations between its elements since they are not on the same footing. Only the head can be used for the whole phrase; the other elements are subordinate to the head as *poor John* where *John* is the head and *poor* – its attribute (Burlakova 1971, 50).

Taxemes of order and taxemes of selection are of primary importance for the present survey as they have an evident bearing on the problem under discussion. Bloomfield (1933) says that a taxeme of order shows the arrangement by which the actor form precedes the action-form in the normal type of the English actor-action construction: *John ran* and in the action-goal (in traditional terminology 'verb plus object') construction as in '*catch John*'.

In Bloomfield's view the difference between the two constructions *John hit Bill* and *Bill hit John* rests entirely upon word order (ibid., 52).

Bloomfield points out that in the English language, taxemes of order can occur only together with taxemes of selection, yet in general, for languages like English, taxemes of order are by far the more important than for languages of a different type.

For Chomsky (1957, 1965) the most obvious formal property of sentences is their bracketing into constituents. Hence, constituent analysis by parsing is customary for 'linguistic description on the syntactic level'. As a better means for assigning or imposing constituent structure and obtaining valuable, even compelling evidence about it, Chomsky proposes transformations.

Neither *Syntactic Structures* nor *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* attempts to give a comprehensive list of transformations. A handful are cited for demonstration, such as those for negation, questions, emphatic affirmatives, nominalizations, and comparatives. We see simpler constructions being derived from more complex ones, not the other way round (De Beaugrande 1991).

His demonstration that 'grammatical' cannot be identified with 'meaningful' or 'significant' hinges on the now-famous sentence "*colourless green ideas sleep furiously*". He talks of the self-sufficiency of grammatical categories'. The designation of clauses by phrases, the so called 'phrase markers', are now presented as 'the elementary content elements from which semantic interpretations of actual sentences are constructed' – an insight as old as syntactic theory itself. The manner of combination provided by the surface structure is in general almost totally irrelevant to semantic interpretation, whereas the grammatical relations expressed in deep structure are in many cases just those that determine the meaning of the sentence (De Beaugrande 1991, 177).

Pike (1967) defines the phrase as a unit filling an emic slot in a clause or sentence structure and composed of two words or 'one word which is optionally expandable in that same slot' [...] Still, in English at least, the phrase has a much greater expansion potential than the word and more freedom to vary the order of its parts, and

is more likely to be interruptible by paranthetical forms or phonological junctures (ibid.).

*Part
One*

THE GRAMMATICAL LEVEL

1_1.1. Deep Structure (DS) and Surface Structure (SS)

A canonical clause has a subject and a predicate. In its Deep Structure (DS) it contains a proposition. Clauses stand for states-of-affairs in the external world and they also express a proposition. The relation that exists between clauses and propositions is a different type of relation from that which exists between semantic structure of clauses and states-of-affairs in the external world. Clauses stand for states-of-affairs and in an ideal language they would be in structural correspondence with them (Lyons 1977, 140). In this connection some iconic features of language can be sought.

The proposition expresses a third-order entity. Entity means an unbroken whole. The proposition is invariant as to different languages and it does not change when expressed by different grammatical structures in one language. The main mechanism underlying the clause is expressed by the proposition containing a subject and predicate as logical notions in the Deep Structure (DS) and different from subject and predicate as syntactic notions in Surface Structure (SS). The relationship between clauses and propositions can have different expression.

- One and the same proposition can be expressed by different clauses. Its component elements are the logical predicate (including the logical object).

John read the book.

The book was read by John.

In the second clause 'John' remains the logical subject and 'the book' remains the logical object even though the grammatical subject and object have been shifted.

- One clause may express more than one proposition.

John's trial has finished.

John's trial is a result of the process of nominalization and expresses a proposition in itself.

The subject-predicate relation of the clause and its immediate constituents look very much like the idea of a proposition.

S -> NP VP

This is only at first sight though. There are substantial differences between them. The above sequence indeed can coincide with the logical components but this is not always the case as has already been pointed out.

More on the propositions will be discussed in the Part Two. What is important here is that the proposition whatever its SS realisations is a constant. The SS realisations vascillate around it.

The surface expression has to do with constituent structure. The notion of constituent structure helps us to see word order not only as a linear representation but as implying an hierarchy of grammatical relations. Constituent structure helps us to see behind the superficial linearity and respectively the linear sequence of the elements of the clause a structure which also has depth and reveals complex syntactic relations. It also helps us to learn more about English syntax (grammar) and the possibility of moving words or phrases around. It gives precise and explicit descriptions and facilitates formalisation of the grammatical relations. In other words it helps us specify what is and what is not possible in a language.

We use constituent structure as a means of breaking down sentences and getting to know more about the syntactic structure than we can do by any other means. We break down sentences into phrases and lexical categories. On the other hand we have features characterising single lexical categories. Although features do not directly take part in the breaking down of sentences they do so indirectly influencing the way lexical heads combine with their complements.

Before looking into the intricacies of clause patterning or constituent structure, there are certain problems to be solved first. One is terminology: what is a constituent and what is a phrase?

1_1.2. Clause elements and distribution

1_1.2.1. Constituent and phrase

Constituent and phrase (or a multi-word unit) are two basic terms. They are synonymous and interchangeable. They differ only when constituent is used to mean even a clause in compound or complex sentences, while phrase contrasts with clause. A constituent is any part of a sentence which is regarded as forming a distinct syntactic unit within the overall structure of the sentence.

A phrase is a set of elements which forms a constituent with no restriction on the number of elements. For example a 'Noun Phrase' can be taken as meaning something like: 'an expression containing a head Noun' without any implication that a Noun Phrase must necessarily contain anything other than the head Noun.

They also differ in that constituents can be expressed by different phrasal categories like NP, VP, AdjP, AdvP, PP. For example the cleft sentence is a good example of the difference between a constituent and a phrase. The highlighted element can be expressed by different phrases but what unites them all is that they constitute always a single constituent. What differentiates them is the class of word they belong to which may be different.

The young man went to London on Tuesday.

It was the young man who went to London on Tuesday.

It was the young (not the old) man who went to London on Tuesday.

It was to London that the young man went on Tuesday.

It was on Tuesday that the young man went to London.

The highlighted constituents are respectively a NP, a PP and another PP. This can be classed as *one-to-many* relationship.

On the other hand we can have different constituents in a clause which represent one and the same word class. A good example is a clause with a transitive verb, which consists of two NPs functioning as subject and object respectively.

S	V	O
The little child	greeted	the old man

The NP (*the little child*) and the NP (*the old man*) represent different constituents in the clause even though expressed by one and the same phrase category. This can be classed as *many-to-one* relationship.

Thus in a way 'constituent' seems to be more a technical term; while 'phrase' is somehow more closely connected with the specific morpho-syntactic character of the head word. The syntactic constituent can be further segmented applying the same principles of analysis but this is a second in depth and altogether different level of analysis. It coincides with breaking down of phrases. Anyway, not being equivalent 'constituent' and 'phrase' are very often used interchangeably.

There is also a simple category like N, V, Adj, Adv, P which may sometimes acquire the status of a single constituent. What is important is that simple categories are to be regarded as an instance of the corresponding phrasal category.

We should not forget that the notions 'constituent' and 'phrase' are theoretical constructs. They are part of the grammatical apparatus which the linguist needs in order to explain certain facts about language. The sentence has a categorial constituent structure (or in other words we would need both the morphological notion of phrase together with the syntactic notion of constituent) – this is a principle we will follow in exploring English word order.

Constituent structure we need as much as it can tell us about the syntactic structure of the sentence and no further. Categorial structure we need to understand something more about the inner

structure of these constituents and it has to do with the morphosyntactic characteristics of word classes. This fact is very well reflected in the way clauses are characterised: either as having the structure of SVOA or the structure NVNN etc. This is actually where the constituent and phrase meet and depart: meet – because we reflect one and the same reality through them, and depart – because in doing that, we stress different aspects of this reality. The truth is, one cannot be done without the other, so they reinforce each other with the overtones.

1_1.2.2. Distribution

The identification of the grammatical units and the description of their distribution relative to each other has been the concern of linguists for a long time. Although distributional studies have an important part to play, they cannot provide alone an adequate grammatical analysis, since, ignoring meaning as they do, they are bound to remain largely superficial. A very large number of distributional patterns can be found in any corpus, but there is no way of knowing which of these are significant, without taking meaning into account; and different patterns which sometimes have the same form will never be distinguished without meaning. Thus Harris as a representative of the school of American descriptivists was only able to distinguish the grammatical patterns of his sentence

She made him a good husband.

She made him a good wife.

by going beyond distributionalism to transformational relations.

A constituent is identified as one because it behaves as a unit with respect to certain criteria:

- displacement – only a constituent can be fronted
This book I have read.
- coordination – only a constituent can be a conjunct in a coordinate structure

- She had a brother and a sister.*
- ellipsis – only a constituent can undergo certain types of ellipsis
Mary ate salmon, he – trout.
 - only a constituent can serve as the antecedent to a pro-form
He took the coat and put it on.
 - only a constituent can be clefted
John went to London on Tuesday.
 - a constituent cannot be interrupted by a parenthetical etc.
(Trask 1993, Radford 1988)
 - the reduction test
His big house has been destroyed.
It has been destroyed.
 - the joint omission test
(Allerton 1979, 100, 102)
His very big house has been destroyed.
**His very house .*
His house has been destroyed.

These tests are used for identifying constituents and telling which structure is acceptable or unacceptable, grammatical or ungrammatical.

A constituency test includes various criteria proposed for identifying constituents but no one such test taken separately is infallible.

1_1.3. Clause structure.Types of constituents

1_1.3.1. Continuous and discontinuous constituents:

1_1.3.1.a. Continuous constituents – these are constituents which are next to each other in linear sequence.

1_1.3.1.b. Discontinuous constituents (called also unbounded dependency) such as, for example, *is go-ing* with you, in the English sentence *Is John going with you?* They are characterised by long distance dependence. Examples in English are *wh-*

questions, clefting, topicalization and relative clauses may also involve unbounded dependencies. Discontinuous constituents are common in the language and should not be disregarded. (cf. Quirk, Greenbaum, and Leech 1985, Lyons 1968, 223)

1_1.3.2. Endocentric and exocentric constituents

They can both be differentiated on the basis of difference in distribution. (Lyons 1969, 241)

1_1.3.2.a. Endocentric constituents

Endocentric constituent is called the constituent which has a head. The function of the head coincides with the function of the construction as a whole. 'Noun phrases in English, such as *the boy* and *my friend*, are generally regarded as endocentric, the noun being taken as the head and the article or determiner as the modifier. This is obviously incorrect, as far as countable common nouns such as *boy* or *friend* are concerned: *the boy* and *my friend* are not syntactically equivalent to *boy* or *friend* (i.e. they are not intersubstitutable throughout the grammatically well-formed sentences of English). Such noun phrases as *the boy* or *my friend* are distributionally equivalent to proper names and personal pronouns'. (Lyons 1977, 392). Endocentric constructions can be further subdivided into coordinating (e.g. *bread and cheese*) and subordinating (e.g. *poor John*) (cf. Lyons 1968, 231-235)

1_1.3.2.b. Exocentric constituents

Exocentric constituent is one which has no head. If a phrase according to Bloomfield, appears in a different syntactic position than any of its elements, it is called exocentric, for example '*John ran*' is neither a nominative expression like *John* nor a finite verb expression like *ran*. *They consider [him clever]*. Small clauses like *[him clever]*, are exocentric constructions (i.e. constituents whose categorial status is different from that of any of their immediate constituents) cf. (Radford 1988, 516, cf. also Lyons 1968, 231-235).

1_1.3.3. Constituent types hierarchy

1_1.3.3.a. Immediate constituent

'In a constituent structure analysis, a sentence is assumed to consist of a small number of units (each a continuous sequence) called its (immediate) constituents, each of which also consists of a few still smaller constituents, and so on, until the minimal syntactic units (words or morphemes) are reached.' (Trask 1992).

1_1.3.3.b. Ultimate constituent

Ultimate constituent is an element, normally a word which is a constituent of some category and which cannot itself be broken down into smaller constituents.(Trask 1993).

1_3.3.c. Intermediate constituent

For our purposes it is necessary to recognise a third type of constituent, that is intermediary in status between the immediate constituent and the ultimate constituent. It is a constituent which lacks specifiers. Specifiers are expressions that combine with an intermediate category to form a full phrasal category. There are nominal, adjectival, verbal, prepositional specifiers. (Radford 1991, 30).

For the purposes of this monograph it is necessary that we recognise one more constituent – the intermediate constituent. It is called so because it lacks a specifier to form a full constituent – a full NP, a full VP, a full AdjP. In order to explicate examples like the following:

He loves her and love her he will.

We need the notion of immediate constituent in that *he will (love her)* is nothing but an intermediate constituent.

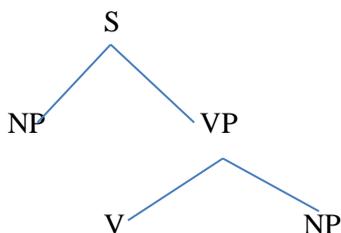
1_1.3.4. An illustration

The units and categories postulated for the grammar of a given language are determined by the syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations that obtain within the sentences of that language.

The syntagmatic relations are layered. The highest layer is the subject predicate relation of the clause–these are the immediate constituents of the clause.

S -> NP VP

Each constituent has a structure which can be further broken down. In this way the hierarchy of relations is effected. What has been said about the two NP constituents in a transitive clause (cf. above) can now be elaborated, i.e. these two NPs belong to different layers in the structure:



The first NP belongs to the highest layer of the structure, the second to the second next layer and respectively expresses a different function in the sentence etc.

The constituents of the clause in this most fundamental fashion express the basic word order principle:

NP VP
NP V NP

On the other hand every constituent has a structure of its own which also follows certain requirements in terms of word order.

The extralinguistic reality is shown through the employment of linguistic (grammatical) means of the language system acquiring so to say a new existence. The extralinguistic reality reflected in the sentence is moulded by the specific grammatical characteristics of the language and in keeping with its rules of grammar. At the same time it enters the system of language through its syntactic pattern which, as all the other lingual unit-types, has both syntagmatic and paradigmatic combinations of words (cf. the exanples below – 1), 2), 3), 4), 5), 6), 7).

In the following example the underlined unit is the object of analysis:

- 1) *He called on me formally during my first week and stayed to tea; he ate a very heavy meat of honey-buns, anchovy toast, and Fuller's walnut cake, then he lit his pipe and, lying back in the basket chair, laid down the rules of conduct which I should follow; he covered most subjects; even today I could repeat much of what he said, word for word. (Waugh 1960)*

This sequence of words represents a complex sentence which begins with a capital letter and ends with a fullstop – the orthographic criterion for a sentence. This larger linguistic unit consists of smaller units, called clauses.

If we take just one clause and analyse it on the syntagmatic axis into sequence of words we will get:

- 2) *he lit his pipe*
pron. + verb + poss.pron. + noun

The potential of the distributional model of analysis is weak since it only tells us that a (pro)noun can be followed by a verb, followed by a possessive pronoun and followed by a noun but does not tell us about different relations of closeness existing between the words. For example it does not tell us that 'his' is closely combined with 'pipe' to form a unit of a higher order than the word. This unit is closely knit by the fact that determination as a syntactic function is normal, if not obligatory, for common nouns. The noun functions as the head of this construction and the possessive pronoun is in a relation of subordination to it, more specifically the modifier is the syntactically subordinate constituent. The unit under discussion here is a phrase or a constituent of a higher order than the individual word and it is a representative of the endocentric constructions.

‘A phrase is said to be endocentric if it is syntactically equivalent to one of its immediate constituents. Endocentric constructions, under the strictest interpretation of distributional equivalence, are necessarily recursive. The endocentric phrase is composed of a head and a modifier: The head is syntactically equivalent to the whole phrase, and the modifier is the syntactically subordinate constituent which modifies or qualifies, the head’ (Lyons 1977, 391). We can elaborate this unit into – *his most favourite pipe* – and the structure will get more complicated since different types of modifiers are presented.

On the other hand the verb–*lit* (past tense)–forms a closely knit unit with the unit just discussed since without it its meaning is unclear and the result is an ungrammatical sentence.

3) * *He lit.*

In order for the verb in this case to fulfill its function of predication syntactically, it requires a complement which completes its meaning and turns the sentence from an ungrammatical into a grammatical one. There are different kinds of complementation: a noun phrase (NP), an adjective phrase (AdjP), a finite clause, a non-finite clause etc. In other words the verb governs its complement. Government as a grammatical relation covers any instance of dependency where the mere presence of an element imposes some requirement upon the form assumed by a second element which is grammatically linked with it. Usually a verb governs its complement (object) in connection with the category of case (nominative, accusative, genitive, etc.) but in English this is explicated by the system of pronouns if the NP is in the third position (e.g. *them* rather than *they* etc.) and by the selection of particular prepositions (or postpositions) and particular kinds of subordinate clauses.

4) *He lit it.*

if we use the pronoun 'it' instead of the NP 'his pipe' the rule seems not to apply since the pronoun 'it' does not differentiate between case forms. The fact that the pronoun 'it' stands for the whole NP 'his pipe' is another evidence that it represents a structure. This unit together with the verb 'lit' forms on the syntagmatic axis a structure of a higher order, usually called the 'predicate' to differentiate it from the predicator. Before coming to the very highest constituent structure relation between the subject and the predicate let us revise the way a constituent structure develops from the bottom upwards. "His pipe" is part of the clause which is regarded as forming a distinct syntactic unit within the overall structure of that clause, on the ground that it behaves as a unit with respect to certain criteria, such as displacement, etc.

5) *His pipe he lit.*

Applying the criterion of displacement we see that the NP 'his pipe' behaves like a constituent. Only constituents are prone to displacement.

The next higher constituent 'lit his pipe' also forms a distinct syntactic unit within the overall structure of the clause. The criterion we can use this time is asking a question:

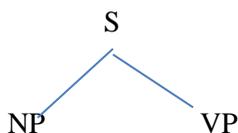
6) *What did he do?*
[He] lit his pipe.

In colloquial speech the answer to this question can only be the entire phrase 'lit his pipe' but not only 'lit' nor, 'his', nor 'pipe'. This phrase is called the verb phrase (VP). The head of the VP is the verb which in this case is monotransitive. Another important point about the verb is that when it is finite it expresses tense and agrees in terms of person and number with the subject. If we turn our example into the present tense,

7) *He lights his pipe ...*

we will see that the verb inflects for tense, expressing third person singular of the Simple Present Tense in concord with the subject 'he'. Agreement takes place within the range of choices offered within one or more grammatical categories which are morphologically marked on certain classes of words, such as number, gender, case, person or tense. The grammatical category of gender, for example, is valid in languages like Bulgarian where it is morphologically marked with the noun and with some forms of the verb.

The notion of the predicate is 'necessarily bound up with the bipartite analysis of sentence-nuclei in terms of their immediate constituents, one of these constituents being the subject and the other the predicate" (Lyons 1977, 434). In this way very roughly we have come to the generalized picture of the clause.



The subject 'he' points to a contextual dependence, refers to a person mentioned earlier in the text and can stand in paradigmatic relation with noun phrases like: 'the man', 'the man in the garden', 'the old man in the garden' etc.

According to GBL (1983, 532-533), the relation between the subject and the predicate which is the predicative centre of the sentence (clause) and the basis of a discrete and complete syntactic unit, is perceived as a typified static model. It is context-free.

1_1.4. Phrase structure dependence

There exists a kind of ranking of the parts of speech. The three major parts of speech the verb, the noun and the adjective, characterise the great majority of simple words. Of these, the verb and noun classes are of special status since all kernel clauses

consist of an NP and a VP, i.e. phrases headed (immediately or ultimately) by verbs or nouns. They are characterised by a much greater structural complexity than those headed by the other parts of speech—e.g. by the adjective or the adverb. What is more, the verb functions as ultimate head of the clause. That's why we will discuss the structure of phrases headed by the three major parts of speech: the NP, the VP and the AdjP, their complements and modifiers (or adjuncts), for these are the phrases of major importance.

1_1.4.1. VP dependents. The VP may consist of the predicator only. When expanded, VP dependents are of the kind of complements and adjuncts. This differentiation is more pronounced here than in NP structure. It may be accompanied by one or more complements.

Complements in VP structure depend on the subclass of the verb it occurs with. With certain verbs, complements are obligatory and this is the main distinction between complements and adjuncts.

Complements distinguish mainly these three properties:

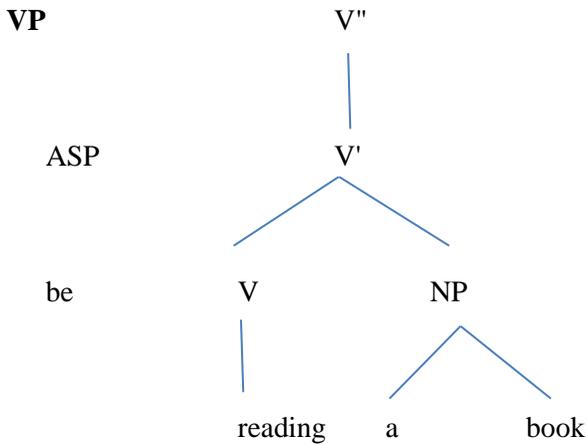
–a verb of an appropriate subclass demands complements of a given kind – e.g. the verbs to the 'persuade' subclass is replaceable by CONVINCe, ASSURE, INFORM, REMIND, SATISFY, TEACH, TELL.

–with certain verbs complements are obligatory – e.g. to become

–generally complements are realised by NPs or AdjPs—e.g. *He became a teacher. Mary turned pale.*

In English a verb can be followed by adverbials (of time, place and manner). The resultant number of possible combinations is limitless: e.g. *They did it – after lunch, at three o'clock, during recess, immediately, in the library, on the boat, quickly, reluctantly, unhesitatingly, with a heavy heart, etc.*

On the syntagmatic level every constituent/phrase represents the same layered structure.



When the different possibilities are reduced to a simple form, then we have:

V''	(be)	read	(-ing)	(a book)
V'		read		(a book)
V		read		

- V'' e.g.: (be) *reading a book*
- V' e.g.: *read a book*
- V e.g.: *read*

The brackets show optional elements, and when deprived from the aspectual discontinuous morpheme (be *-ing*) and the complement (*a book*), the phrase is reduced to its V element which at one and the same time can be equivalent to V, V' and V'' like in the example: *They read a lot.*

A very important point to mention here is the class of operators (this is the first verb in the tensed verb phrase).

The relative order of the auxiliaries here is rigidly fixed (Leech, Svartvik 1992, 305). There are rules for combining the verbs in a verb phrase when they are more than one:

- | | |
|------------------------------|----------------------|
| (A) modal auxiliary+ inf | -> can + read [ri:d] |
| (B) perfective(Have + Vpp) | -> have + read [red] |
| (C) progressive (be + V-ing) | -> be + reading |
| (D) passive (be + Vpp) | -> be + read [red] |

These can also combine within each other to make longer strings but always in the alphabetical order.

- (A) + (B) -> He *can't have read* that book.
 (A) + (C) -> He *can be reading* now.
 (A) + (D) -> This book *cannot be read* in a night.
 (B) + (C) -> I *have been reading* the whole night.
 (B) + (D) -> The book *has been sold*.
 (C) + (D) -> The book *is being read*.
 (A) + (B) + (C) -> He *might have been reading* at that time.
 (A) + (B) + (D) -> The picture **must have been sold** by then.

1_1.4.2. NP dependents

There are two views discussed: the hierarchical view and the sequential view of NP structure.

Functionally, a noun phrase may be defined as any category which can bear some grammatical relation within a sentence, such as subject (S), direct object (dO), indirect object (iO), oblique object (pO), complement (C) or adverbial modifier (adjunct>A).

Structurally, the NP can have complements and adjuncts both in pre- and post-position. Moreover, complements in NP structure are both pre-head and post-head dependents.

1_1.4.2.a. Hierarchical view of NP structure

1_1.4.2.a.1. The NP–post-head dependents

The relationship between the head and the post-head complements and modifiers parallels that between a verb and its complements and modifiers in the VP (see above 1_1.4.1.), as well as that between an adjective and its complements and modifiers in AdjP even though it is less strongly felt (see below 1_1.4.3.).

She relied on her father - > her reliance on her father

He was eager to win - > *his eagerness to win*
(Huddleston 1984, 260)

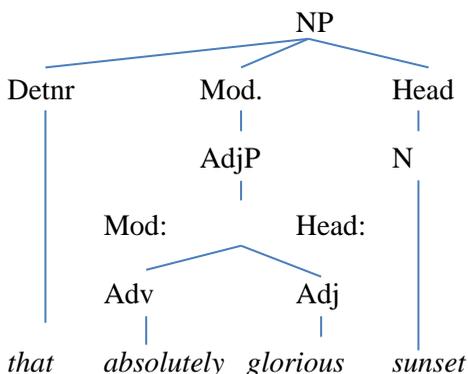
Complements as post-head dependents are typically realized by PPs (e.g. *her reliance on her father, a man with long hair*). On the other hand, post-head modifiers are also realized subordinate clauses (finite or non-finite, e.g. *the man who stole the silver*), AdjPs (e.g. *the man worthy of praise*), or NPs (*Mr. Brown, the head master*). They generally give properties of what is denoted by the head.

There is no grammatical limit to the number of post-head modifiers occurring in a single NP since the subclassification of head nouns is not so strict as the subclassification of verbs. Syntactically the distinction between complements and modifiers in NP structure is more difficult to draw than that between complements and modifiers (or adjuncts) in VP structure and clause structure. Cf.:

<i>a student with long hair</i>	modifier
<i>a student of Physics</i>	complement

The distinction is not directly clear because we can have an adjunct modifying a N' with or without a complement. It is worth remembering that:

- complements in NP structure are as freely omissible as modifiers are. Cf. *a student (of Physics)*, *a student (with long hair)* – the brackets mark their omissibility.
- when they are present, complements and modifiers differ in terms of linear order in that complements precede modifiers. Cf. *a student of Physics with long hair*
- the modifiers should not be analysed (immediately) as words but as phrases, for although they are most frequently single words, they have the potential to expand and have their own dependents – compare *'that absolutely glorious sunset'* (cf. Huddleston 1984).



Interpreting the structure of the NP, we can see that it consists of layers (Radford 1988, 192).

a student of Physics with long hair

The head of the construction is the noun (N) – *student*. Complements and adjuncts follow this order, complements being more closely related to the head come first. 'It appears that PP Adjuncts can be extraposed from their Heads more freely than PP Complements' (Radford 1988, 191). The reverse situation is when we consider preposing. The Object of a Complement Preposition can be preposed, but not the Object of an Adjunct Preposition. (ibid, 191-192). The same structure can be expressed in a different, linear way:

(Determiner) + Noun + (Complement PP) + (Adjunct PP)

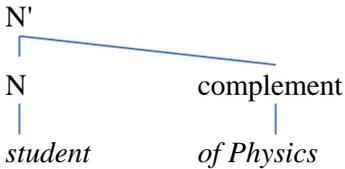
The brackets indicate that these are optional elements of the construction.

The potential for expansion of the noun is very great. Here we see three types of phrase:

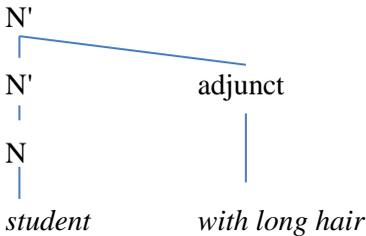
- the simple category – N. The exponent of it in the above example is 'student'
- the intermediate category – N'.

There are two exponents of this category in the example:

a) when a N is modified by a complement we get N', which is expressed graphically like that, e.g.



b) when N' with or without a complement (e.g. *of Physics*) is modified by an adjunct (*with long hair*), we get N' recursive, which is expressed graphically like that, e.g.



- the full NP–N". The exponent is the phrase with the determiner 'a'. These can be expressed like that: a student, a student of Physics, a student with long hair and a student of Physics with long hair. This makes up four exponents of the full NP–N".

This analysis 'enables us to define 'closeness' in purely structural terms' (ibid., 192).

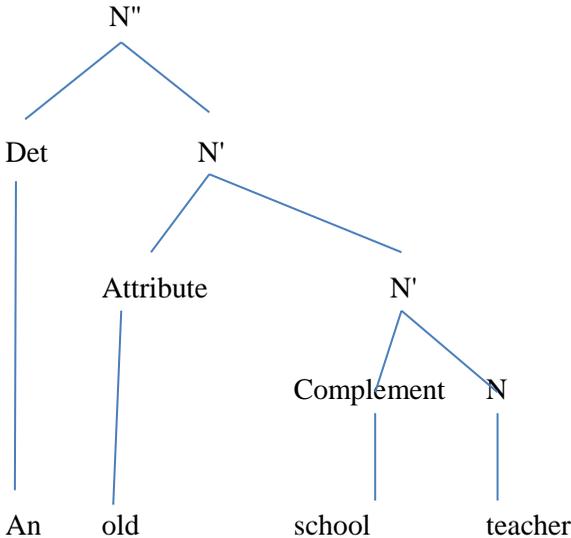
Post-head modifiers of a noun can also be appositional.

In NP structure there are also peripheral dependents (e.g. *the letter, which John has written*) (Huddleston 1984, 264), the so called non-restrictive relative clauses. In English, they are marked by a punctuation mark–comma (,).

1_1.4.2.a.2. The NP–pre-head dependents

The linear representation of the phrase will look like that:

(Determiners)+(Attributes)+(Complements)+Noun



The Complement expansion forms the intermediate category–N'. The Attribute expansion is recursive. It expands N' into N'. The Specifier (=Determiner) forms the full phrase–N''.

When we have only 'a teacher' then the structure can be reduced to:

N''	a(n)			
N'		(old)	(school)	
N				teacher

The simple category is N–*teacher*; the intermediate category N' has the following exponents: *old teacher*, *school teacher*, *old school teacher*; and the full category N''–*a teacher*, *an old teacher*, *a school teacher* and *an old school teacher*.

1_1.4.2.b. Sequential view of NP structure

Muir (1972) suggests that the NP be analysed in relation to word classes as mhq sequence–m (modifiers) h (head) q (qualifiers):

The occurrence of items at **d** is not entirely independent of other items at **m**. The occurrence of items at **d** is related to the occurrence of items at **o**. Muir gives the dependence between items at **d** and items at **o** and their relation with the headword **h**. Cardinal numerals may occur with or without a determiner. Number concord is required between numerals and headwords; i.e. the cardinal 'one' requires a singular headword, and the other cardinals require a plural headword. When ordinal numerals are used they require a determiner for 'identifying' e.g. *his first opportunity*, *my first attempts*. The ordinal numerals require a determiner as well as number concord with the headword, since the same numerals occur with plural headwords as well as with singular headwords.

At the element **e** the word-class adjective operates (this class can operate at **h** also), and the number of items in this class is very great. If we translate this statement in accord with 1_4.2.a.1./2., we will say that **e** expands N' into N' (no change in status). It is a recursive element. At this element of structure in the NP, recursion becomes marked; that is, there are often two or more exponents of **e** present in one phrase. The position at **e** is somewhat more complicated than at **d**, and the place orderings, the permissible sequences, have not been fully worked out. The sequences are not invariable, they are preferred rather than prescribed, and even the usual sequences can be altered if accompanied by an intonation break. These sequences are not the focus of attention in TGG. Muir gives the following guidance:

e consists of 3 secondary structures: **e1**, **e2**, **e3**.

Each of them establishes some typical sequences. Adjectives which identify the headword by 'comparison' or 'degree' seem to occur in first position; this means adjectives which are regularly compared either by preposing *more:most* or taking the *-er:-est* inflexions, and adjectives which are submodified by items such as

rather, quite, very, terribly, unbearably, etc. This position is called **e1**.

e1:

e.g.: *the cleverER brown dog, the MORE graceful blue car, the oldEST wooden houses, the fifteen BEST American sprinters.*

It can be seen from these examples that such adjectives precede other adjectives such as *blue, American, wooden*. It can also be seen that there are two points to note when superlative adjectives occur at **e1**:

- i) the presence of a superlative in this position requires a determiner at **d**, a relation similar to that obtaining between ordinal numerals and determiners, e.g. *the best chair, his most polished performance, his sheerest silk* and
- ii) a superlative almost always points forward to a **q** in the NP, e.g.

e1	h	q
<i>the best</i>	<i>chair</i>	<i>[in the room]</i>
e1	h	q
<i>the most graceful animal</i>		<i>[in the world]</i>

Place orderings within **e1** can be distinguished. In the first position occur the 'size-shape' modifiers, in the second position – the 'quality' modifiers and in the third position the 'age' modifiers:

e1

<i>size-shape</i>	<i>quality</i>	<i>age</i>
big fat	fine	young
tall thin	graceful	old
large slim	scraggy	new
huge square	precious	year-old

Rarely all modifiers are present, but smaller sequences suggest the following, e.g. *a tall young man* rather than **a young tall man*, *a precious young thing* rather than **a young precious thing*.

e2

pink, green, blue, yellow, etc.

At **e2** the 'colour' adjectives are displayed. They are less readily submodified, and have a range of submodifiers with which they typically occur, e.g. *salmon pink, emerald green, royal blue, dark blue, bottle green, buttercup yellow* etc.

e3

wooden, silken, American, etc.

These adjectives are followed (at **e3**) by what may be called the derived adjectives. These adjectives are formally derived from other word-classes, so they are usually compound in structure. They do not appear in the forms of the degrees of comparison. In the table below, >2. example, the **e2** position is empty.

		e1	e2	e3	h
			'colour' adj.	derived adj.	
1.	th e	large	blue	American	carpet
2.	th e	huge old	-	wooden	trunk

At the element **n** the same word-class operates as at **h** in the NP. It is often said that a noun in this position is 'acting as an adjective', and should presumably be considered as an exponent of **e**. There are both formal and semantic differences between adjectives at **m** and nouns at **m**. In the most general terms, items which operate at **e** denote accidental properties of the headword: thus, 'a stony path' is not the same as a 'stone path'; a 'stony path' is presumably a path which has stones on or in it. But this is not an

essential feature and does not contribute to the inherent nature of the path; a 'stone path', on the other hand, is presumably a path made of stone, an inherent property of the path.

Sub-sections (1_4.2.a.1./2/) and (1_4.2.b.) display two approaches in analysing the NP structure, each of which has its advantages and disadvantages.

1_1.4.3. AdjP dependents

AdjP dependents are also of complement and modifier kind.

<i>He was anxious to be a minister.</i>	Complement
<i>He was young to be a minister.</i>	Modifier

Syntactically, the complement for its occurrence depends on the selection of an adjective head allowing an infinitival complement. The modifier, on the other hand, 'can occur with all gradable adjectives, though it will often sound more natural if there is also a pre-head modifier' (Huddleston 1984, 310). 'For the most part nouns and adjectives differ with respect to the pre-head dependents they take' (ibid., 308) although there is some overlap (*the* and *this*, etc. cannot be taken as sufficient to indicate a nominal construction – *He was much the wiser for it, He hadn't much patience*). There are some AdjPs which contain a single discontinuous modifier—e.g. 'more useful than I had expected' and 'so tall that he could see over the wall'. Again the complement precedes the modifier.

1_1.4.4. Complements¹ and adjuncts

The class of phrase realising the functions of complement are noun phrases (NPs) or adjective phrases (AdjPs) and very rarely by prepositional phrase (PPs) and adverb phrases (AdvPs); while

¹ Complement as a term can be used either as a general term meaning any complement to the verb or as a term having a narrow of a specific complement type, ie as a (predicative) complement. Here C means (predicative) complement.

adjuncts are usually realised by AdvPs or PPs as well as NPs and AdjPs.

Subjects (S) and objects (O) are usually realised by either NPs, or subordinate (embedded) clauses. S can also be realised though very rarely by PPs.

Complements or more precisely (predicative) complements (C) can be realised both by NPs, AdjPs and clauses. Here there is one possibility of using a specific unit/intermediate category between noun (N) and NP – called N-bar (N'). These are the nouns used without a definite article like 'secretary' in the construction: e.g. *They elected him secretary.*

Adjuncts are adverbials integrated within the structure of the clause hence they are considered nuclear elements as compared to disjuncts and conjuncts which are extranuclear elements.

1_1.5. Morphosyntactic properties of word classes

A class of words is a set of words which share a common set of linguistic (especially morpho-syntactic) properties. Words belong to a restricted set of word classes. According to Radford (1988, 62-63) six word classes can be justified on distributional grounds. Individual words may belong to a more than one word class. The distribution of a word is the set of sentence positions it can occur in. The problems as a first approximation can be formulated as follows: 1. to identify to which word class a word belongs to and 2. which word classes can occur in which sentence positions.

That one lexeme rather than another can be, or must be, in a given position in order to produce an acceptable sentence is something that falls outside the scope of syntax. That the lexeme must belong to a particular word class, however, does fall within the scope of syntax; and the fact that the phonological realization of a particular morpho-syntactic word is such-and-such a form falls within the scope of morphology (Lyons 1977).

1_1.5.1. Determiners and adjectives

Determiners and adjectives are syntactically distinct in a variety of ways, in respect to their distribution. For example, adjectives can

be recursively inserted to the left of the noun they modify (i.e. you can go on putting more and more adjectives in front of the noun they modify, indefinitely), whereas determiners cannot be inserted in this way: cf.

a. Adjectives: men: *handsome, dark handsome, tall dark handsome, sensitive tall dark handsome, intelligent sensitive tall dark handsome,*

b. Determiners: *the car, *the my car, *which my cars, *my some cars,* etc.

Moreover, determiners and adjectives have different distributions, since when they are used together to modify a noun, the determiner always has to precede the adjective.

Likewise, determiners can be coordinated (i.e. joined together by *and*) with other determiners of the same type (subject to semantic etc. restrictions), as in: e.g. [*each*] and [*every*] *member of the class.*

And in much the same way, adjectives can be coordinated with other adjectives: cf. *a [provocative] and [contentious] proposition.* However, determiners cannot be coordinated with adjectives: e.g. * [*D my*] and [*A lazy*] *son* (determiners and adjectives) (Radford 1988, 143)

A final argument in support of distinguishing determiners from adjectives can be formulated in relation to the different semantic properties (i.e. meaning) of determiners and adjectives. Because of their semantic properties, adjectives can generally only be used to modify a restricted class of nouns, so that, for example, the bracketed adjectives e.g. [*thoughtful*] *person/cat/?fish/??pan!/problem* can be used to modify some but not all of the italicised noun.

The restrictions with the adjectives are semantic in character. An adjective like *thoughtful* can only 'select' certain kinds of noun to modify, e.g. a noun designating a rational entity. By contrast, determiners seem to be semantically much more 'neutral' or 'transparent' (in some sense), and hence are not selectionally constrained in the same way, as we see below, e.g.

[a/the/this] person/cat/fish/pan/problem
(ibid., 144)

Some determiners impose restrictions on the choice of head nouns which they can modify, but these restrictions are syntactic in nature, and relate to grammatical number. Nouns can be divided into the following two major syntactic classes: countables and uncountables

Determiners can be divided into three classes according to the type of nouns they can occur with. On the one hand, there are:

–determiners like *the* which can modify any kind of noun, viz. a singular count noun, a plural count noun, and an uncount noun;

–determiners like *enough* which can modify plural count nouns and noncount nouns;

–determiners like *a(an)* which can modify only a singular count noun.

Moreover, adjectives are not generally subject to number restrictions while determiners typically are. In other words, adjectives can usually modify any grammatical kind of noun, whether a mass noun, a singular count noun, or a plural count noun.

For expository purposes the possibility that some items (e.g. *many, few*, etc.) may have dual categorial status, and thus function both as determiners and adjectives have been ignored.

Determiners and adjectives are both morphologically and syntactically distinct.

1_1.5.2. Combinations/collocations of words belonging to different word classes related by subordination

Adj + N	-> <i>hot tea</i> ,
V _{be} + N	-> <i>be a poet</i> ,
Vtr + N	-> <i>read books</i> .

The relation between the verb 'be' and the NP does not allow for any change of their places—the permutation test. This means that this relation is also connected with the sequencing based on certain requirements. These requirements demand the strict distribution of the elements and are syntactically motivated. What is important here is not the very combination of these elements but the order in which they combine. The order SVC cannot be changed. The following examples illustrate the fact when a similar combination points to a dissimilar structure:

V + N -> *to make a good wife*
 V + N -> *to make a good cake*

These show how the combination of V + N cannot explain by itself the relation that holds between them by only identifying the morphological classes of words. The syntactic relations in these groups can vary according to the fact whether they are referential or non-referential units. In the first case, 'good wife' is prone to two interpretations. The relation can be either objective or existential (predicative). In the second case, 'good cake' can be only referential. Not only categorial affiliation is important but also referentiality.

The adjective shows similarity in its combinatorial possibilities. The relations are not only described in terms of combinations between different classes of words but also in terms of the latter's distribution.

Adj + N -> *red bricks*,
 V_{intr} + Adv -> *behave stupidly*,
 V_{intr} + 0 -> *Stefan paused*

(Borsley 1991, 66),

V + PP -> *go to London*.
 V + S -> *I think that Maya likes him*.
 V + NP PP -> *put the book on the shelf*,
 V + NP S -> *X persuaded M. that he liked her*,
 Int. + Adv -> *very closely*,
 Adv + Adj -> *awfully clever*,
 N + Adv -> *man on the bus*

1_1.5.3. Combinations/collocations of Words Belonging to One and the Same Word Class Related by Subordination:

N + N	-> <i>car door</i>
N's + N	-> <i>John's book</i>
V + V	-> <i>seems to like</i>

With the so called catenative verbs the relation can be only objective or adverbial. There are much greater restrictions on the verbs in such cases. It is only the infinitive that can enter in this kind of relationship: 'to try to write'

Adj + Adj	-> <i>deep green</i>
-----------	----------------------

This combination is restricted only to one semantic subclass of adjectives – colour and its intensity.

Adv + Adv	-> <i>fairly quickly</i>
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1_1.5.4. Combining phrases in relation of coordination

The previous unit discussed combining words belonging to one and the same word class. Here are cases of conjoining identical phrases.

NP + NP	-> <i>John wrote a letter and a postcard.</i>
PP + PP	-> <i>John wrote to Mary and to Fred.</i>
AP + AP	-> <i>He is a very shy and rather inarticulate man.</i>
VP + VP	-> <i>He may go to London and visit his mother.</i>

This assumption (Radford 1988, 76) is challenged by Huddleston (1984, 385) who claims that not only identical phrases can be conjoined. E.g.:

He was unwell, very tired and in a terrible temper.

The distributional equivalence of a non-coordinative) NP and a coordination of NPs gives support to such an interpretation (Huddleston 1989, 385).

1_1.6. Grammatical processes and rules connected with the clause/sentence structure

1_1.6.1. Substitution rules

In the clause *It rains*, the subject cannot be substituted by another unit because of the paradigmatic restrictions connected with verbs expressing natural phenomena.

It is through substitution rules that word classes are identified simply by exploring the paradigmatic possibilities of a language. Substitution can be applied at different levels: to classes of morphemes, words, phrases, clauses.

1_1.6.2. Expanding rules

They are based on the principle of structural syntactic equivalence and hence the possibility to replace a shorter or smaller unit by a longer sequence. In a clause the following phrases are syntactically equivalent.

a teacher -> an old teacher-> a very old teacher

These rules are also based on relations of subordination and accumulation within the phrase structure: e.g. *their own teacher*. Both 'their' and 'own' modify 'teacher' but they are not related between themselves.

The rule: NP -> Det N' is applied, the NP node is expanded as a sequence of a determiner and an N-bar.

1_1.6.3. Embedding

It accounts for indefinite extensibility of certain units. There is no reason for describing one unit as more extensible than another: the PP 'in the room' has a NP 'the room' embedded into it but they are

both as phrases, placed at the same position in the hierarchy. This rule belongs to the expanding rules and the relation is that of subordination.

1_1.6.4. Extending rules

These are based on the relation of adjoining (coordination). Any NP can be extended and as such can play the role of a subject, object, predicative, etc. For example 'father, mother and children' can function as:

- An extended subject ->
Father, mother and children joined the party.
- An extended object ->
He greeted father, mother and children.
- An extended predicative 'He looked happy' ->
He looked happy and contented.

1_1.6.5. Agreement rules

They represent quite a different type of rules. They are means of expressing the colligation of elements in a syntagm or in a group of adjoined elements; in a syntagm, the dependent member may be held for a dependent variable. There is agreement between subject and predicate as shown in the following examples:

The girl is talking. The girl talks.
The girls are talking. The girls talk.

Besides, there is also agreement between subject and object as in the examples:

She hurt herself.
They hurt themselves.

where the reflexive pronoun agrees in number with the subject. The relevant rule here though is that a pronoun agrees with its antecedent.

Agreement (or concord) can be differentiated from government on the basis of endocentricity and exocentricity. According to Hockett (1958), government is found 'only in exocentric constructions', while concord is found both in endocentric and exocentric constructions linking 'certain predicate attributes to subjects'. Examples:

She was a beauty,
They were beauties.

1_6.6. Government

This is an instance of dependency in which the two members: the governor and the governed (a principal and a dependent member) are linked grammatically in that the governor imposes some requirements upon the second element—the governed one. Examples: *He likes the girl* -> *He likes her*, not * *He likes she*. The verb 'to like' requires an object and the pronoun in English has a distinctive (called objective) form for this function.

In languages which differentiate case, the verb governs its object. In English, personal pronouns (I—me, he—him, she—her, we—our, they—their) have a different form when they function as object and are governed by the verb: *I asked John*, *I asked him*. Only the pronoun *you* (*you—you*) does not change in form in the subject and object position, but this is only in form.

1_1.7. Problems of constituent structure

1_1.7.1. Immediate constituent (IC) analysis

1_1.7.1.a. Ditransitive verbs

The first problem arises from the IC (immediate constituent) analysis which requires that every structure should be divided into two constituent parts. For instance:

Mary gave the boy a book.

From the syntactic point of view the two components are dependent on the verb but the difference of the relation between them is not clearly expressed. In the example, the VP – '*gave the boy a book*' receives the following interpretation:

Both of them are unsatisfactory.

1_1.7.1.c. Discontinuous constituents

The latter poses some difficulties in the Immediate Constituent (IC) analysis.

A girl who had called the previous day turned up this morning.

vs

A girl turned up this morning *who had called the previous day*.

'A girl who had called the previous day'

appears to be uncontroversially a constituent, but in the alternative form the same sequence is discontinuous.

1_1.8. Grammatical functions and the idea of hierarchy

The basic question in syntax is the relation between the subject and the predicate. There is a controversy as to which is the central in grammatical terms. Traditional grammar claims that it is the subject that is the most important and the predicate is dependent on it agreeing with it in number and person. Some consider that both are equally important and interdependent. Modern linguistics regards the verb as having the highest ranking in importance in the organisation of the grammar.

There is a hierarchy of grammatical relations/functions proposed by Keenan and Comrie (1977), as follows:

Subject<DO<IO<Oblique object<Genitive<Object of comparison

Such processes as passivization, relative clause formation and causative formation support this view.

They built the bridge. The bridge was built (by them)

The woman went away. She saw the man. The woman who saw the man went away.

The woman saw the man. The man broke the vase. The man (who) the woman saw broke the vase.

He walked in the garden. He walked the dog in the garden.

In linguistics, a causative (cf. <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Causative>.) is a form that indicates that a subject causes someone or something else to do or be something, or causes a change in state of a non-volitional event.

All languages have ways to express causation, but differ in the means. Some languages have grammatical, some have lexical means (English: *rise* → *raise*).

The identification of this hierarchy greatly stimulated recognition of the importance of grammatical relations in syntax, which had previously been neglected.

1_1.9. Grammatical functions and word order

Let's look at the examples:

The boy kissed the girl.
The girl kissed the boy.
S V O

The model is: S–V–O. Both clauses have the same underlying structure. S(subject)–V(erb)–O(bject) is the basic, neutral word order sequence in English.

Word order belongs to the suprasegmental devices of language together with intonation and stress. It is imposed over and above the segmental clause elements represented by the grammatical functions of S, V, O, C etc. These are syntactic signals which have a meaning of their own independent of the meaning of the individual words as is seen in the above examples. The grammatical information it carries is that this sequence can be described as a declarative sentence. It also shows the grammatical relations between the words in a clause. Although we do not use different words the two clauses express different meaning only on

the ground of difference in the sequence of the word. Thus word order is the only distinctive feature between the two clauses.

The verb forms the structural centre of the clause and according to the situation described there is a hierarchy in its grammaticalisation to the following effect: first comes the subject which is expressed by a dummy (when it has no semantic function e.g. expressing natural phenomena)—playing the grammatical role of the so called 'empty' subject, then comes the subject with a semantic function etc., the direct object, the indirect object, the oblique object etc.

1_10 Grammatical functions and grammatical categories (word classes)

1_10.a. Grammatical functions

Grammatical functions are relational and are to be sharply distinguished from grammatical categories like NP and VP. They are often referred to as *grammatical relations*. Much of the meaning attributable to word order derives from the syntactic functions.

1_10.b. Grammatical categories (word classes)

There is, however, a correlation, although not perfect, between grammatical relations and grammatical categories. Typically the subject as a grammatical function/relation is expressed by an NP but it can also be expressed by a clause or even a PP:e.g. *From Sofia to Varna is about 360 kms.* (About the ways of expression of complements and adjuncts or modifiers cf. 1_1.4.4.).

1_1.11 Ways of Presenting Constituent Structure

In order to represent the constituent structure of a sentence there are different ways to do that. One is bracketing—a representation with archaically ordered brackets (i.e. brackets within brackets).

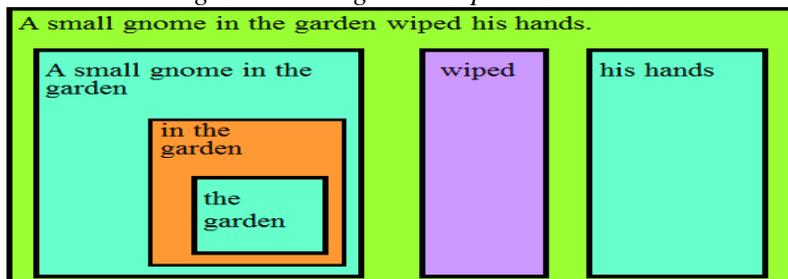
1_1.11.1. Bracketing

[[Her] [daughter]] [[works] [[[three] [days]] [[a] [week]]]]].

Each left-facing bracket pairs with a right-facing one to mark the exyent of a particular constituent.

Another notational equivalent is the Chinese box representation: e.g.

A small gnome in the garden wiped his hands.



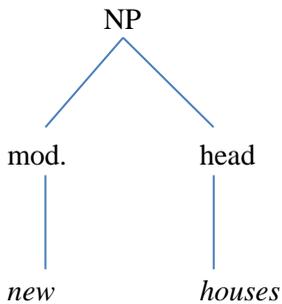
1_1.11.2. Labelling

It is still another way of notational representation, a way of indicating what the role of the constituent is. The constituents of a grammatical structure can be labelled

- i) by class called categorial labeling, and
- ii) by function called functional labelling.

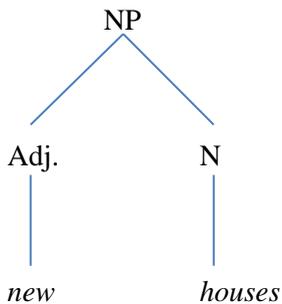
1_1.11.2.a. Functional labelling

e.g. head and modifier (look at the example) – the label provides some kind of definition of the units that have been identified as parts of some larger whole. By associating each part with a functional label, we explain its value in relation to the whole. Eg:



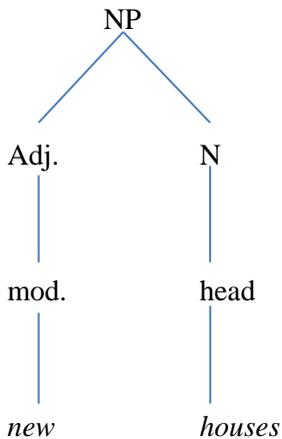
1_11.2.b. Categorical labeling

The label provides information about the class of words the unit belongs to (N, V, Adj. etc.). Such labels are part of the dictionary; they indicate the potential that the word or any other item has in the grammar of a language. Example:



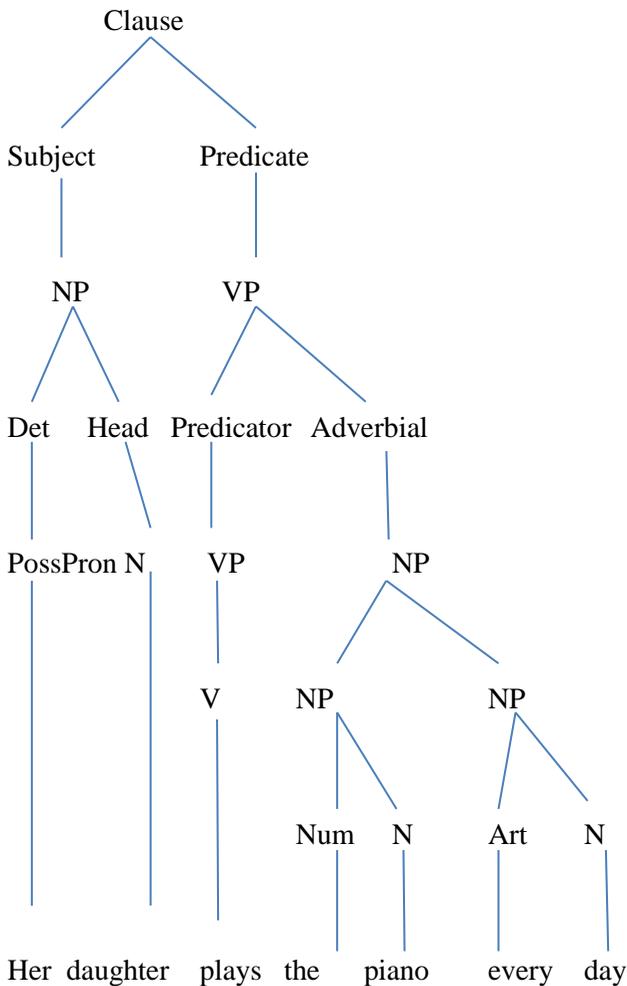
1_1.11.2.c. Combination of categorical and functional labeling

Functional labels are used as interpretation; they indicate the part that item is playing in the particular structure under consideration



1_1.11.3. Tree diagram

The *tree diagram* is a graphical representation of the constituent structure of a sentence in which each constituent is represented by a node label which indicates the word class it belongs to and possibly its syntactic function and lines link the words with the labels. Both functional and categorial information can be incorporated into the diagrammatical representation of the structure.



The concept of constituent structure is employed by both a functional and a formal grammar but in a functional grammar it is much weaker. Halliday (1985) differentiates between **minimal** and **maximal** bracketing.

1_1.11.4. Minimal bracketing

Only those items are identified that have some recognizable function in the structure of a larger unit. The principle of minimal bracketing means putting together as constituents only those sequences that actually function as structural units in the item in question.

1_11.5. Maximal bracketing,

It is a way of explaining as much as possible about linguistic structure by means of the notion of constituency. It says nothing about the function constituent parts have.

To make the information about a structure complete it may be supplemented by additional notational material such as gaps or referential indices, to identify unambiguously the structure which is being characterised.

In the following example the index (i) is used to mark referentiality.

Stefan_i thinks he_i is clever.

He thinks Stefan is clever.

Here, in the first example *Stefan=he*, but in the second example, *he≠Stefan*.

1_1.12 Grammatical ambiguity

We are interested in ambiguity as a property of clauses. We speak of grammatical ambiguity when there is identity of representation at some level of analysis be that morphological or syntactic. Grammatical ambiguity depends solely upon the structure of the language-system. The relation between syntax and sense is a relation of one-more than one interpretations of the structure.

Ambiguity can be recognized on the ground of three different reasons:

1_1.12.1. Bracketing

The ambiguity may be a function of the constituent structure:

John attacked the man with a knife

Table 1.

S	V	O	A
John	attacked	the man	with a knife

Table 2.

S	V	O
John	attacked	the man with a knife

Table 1. The interpretation of 'with a knife' is part of the description of the person attacked.

Table 2. The interpretation here indicates the means or instrument used for the attack: *John attacked with a knife*.

Each constituent structure analysis corresponds to a different interpretation 'the man with the knife' in one case forms a constituent, playing the function of object (O), in the other 'the man' and 'with a knife' are separate constituents 'the man' identifying the person and playing the function of object (O) and '*with a knife*'—the means of attack, playing the function of an adverbial.

Sometimes such ambiguities are resolved prosodically—the different constituent structures are distinguished by the intonation and rhythm (in writing—by punctuation).

Consider the multiple analysis and gradience in verb complementation in (Quirk, Greenbaum, and Leech 1985, 1216).

N1 V (N2 to V N3)
 S V O
We like (all parents to visit the school).
 S V O Co
They expected James (to win the race).
 S V Oi Od
We asked the students (to attend a lecture).

They all follow the same sequence (i.e. $N_1 V N_2$ to $V N_3$) and yet are analysed by Quirk, Greenbaum, and Leech (1985) as monotransitive (SVO), complex transitive (S V O Co), and ditransitive (S V Oi Od). N_2 is respectively analysed as S, S/O (raised object) and O.

Here are some more examples (Lyons 1977, 401). Consider the different bracketing below.

1. He arrived late last night:
He (arrived late) (last night)

vs

He (arrived) (late last night)

2. Tom or Dick and Harry will go:
(Tom or Dick) and (Harry) will go.

vs

(Tom) or (Dick and Harry) will go.

3. He hit the man with a stick:
He (hit) (the man with a stick)

vs

He (hit) (the man) (with a stick).

4. You can't get fresh fruit and vegetables these days:
You can't get (fresh) (fruit and vegetables) these days.

vs

You can't get (fresh fruit) and (vegetables) these days.

5. They are eating apples
They (are) (eating apples)

vs

They (are eating) (apples).

1_1.12.2. Labelling

Ambiguity as a function of the distributional classification of the elements:

They can fish.

The ambiguity is accounted for by the double classification of both 'can' (as a modal auxiliary or a transitive verb) and 'fish' (as an intransitive verb or a noun).

In English the VP may consist of a transitive verb and a noun or of an intransitive verb with a preceding auxiliary, that's why 'can fish' is analysable in two ways.

There is, however, no difference in bracketing; under both interpretations the sentence is to be bracketed as:

They (can fish).
(Lyons 1968, 212)

1_1.12.3. Transformational ambiguity as a function of the deep structure (DS)

Chomsky uses ambiguity [...] as a motivation for [...] transformations, e.g. to clear up constructions like "the shooting of the hunters" or "flying planes can be dangerous". Transformational grammar offers a way to make ambiguity analysable in syntactic terms by treating it as *constructional homonymity*. An ambiguity signalled by some 'intuitive similarity of utterances' points to dual representations on some level' (cf. Lyons 1968, 249-253). Consider the famous example:

Flying planes can be dangerous

First, *flying* can be interpreted either as a gerund form of the verb with an object, thus exhibiting nominal characteristic features and functioning as the head of a noun phrase or a present participle, thus exhibiting adjectival characteristic features and functioning as modifier to a noun.

Second, *can* when interpreted as a modal verb is not subject to singular/plural concord in English and in this way contributes to the ambiguity.

Third, the verb *fly* can be either transitive or intransitive:

DS: Somebody flies planes,
 Planes that fly.

All that accounts for the clause to be called *grammatically ambiguous*. Furthermore it is *transformationally* ambiguous. A clause is transformationally ambiguous if and only if there are two distinct structures in the DS. The transformational account of phrases like 'flying planes' is connected with the syntactic processes of *adjectivalization* and *nominalization* of the clauses 'Planes fly' and 'X flies planes'.(Lyons 1977, 403). In the first case, *flying* is adjective in NP structure and in the second, *flying* is a deverbal noun functioning as head.

1_12.4. Interpretational Ambiguity. Potentiality

There are cases where one structure contains potentiality for two different interpretations. To give just one example of the construction SVC where the V is expressed by 'be' and the subject and complement are NPs. There is a very considerable potential for ambiguity between identifying and non-identifying uses of 'be'.

This box is the most precious thing I have ever had.

Does it identify 'what is the most precious thing I ever had ' or characterise by giving a property of the box. This is a borderline case between grammar and pragmatics and it is very difficult to draw the line.

1_1.12.5. An Ambiguous clause and an ambiguous utterance

Not every grammatically ambiguous clause will in fact be interpretable in more than one way. This is because the context is such that only one of the interpretations is relevant. In this respect grammatical ambiguity is like lexical ambiguity. *He shot the man with a stick* (Lyons 1977, 401) would not normally be interpreted as meaning "*He used a stick to shoot the man*".

1_2. Transformations

Transformations have long been invoked in language teaching, where the learner is given drills to transform declaratives into interrogatives, actives into passives, and so on.

The main reason for using them is that grammatical complexity cannot always be accommodated simply in terms of bracketed constructions with labelled constituents and that's where transformations come in to supplement constituent structure.

Movement transformations allow items to be moved about, to be added or omitted. Thus transformations perform three basic types of operations: they move material, by either changing the rest or leaving it unchanged, they can also drop out or add material.

A typical 'movement' property is that of leaving a **gap** at the place of extraction (i.e. in the position out of which the moved constituent has been extracted). This gap is marked by ()—Who did you see_? Apart from being able to move constituents around, transformations can also delete items, in the case of ellipsis.

a. One boy ate pastries and the other boy ate fruit.

b. One boy ate pastries and the other—fruit.

Finally, transformations may add syntactic features. A transformation could be set up to copy the feature [+singular] or [–singular] from the subject NP onto the verb, guaranteeing the correct agreement. The form of the verb would in all cases be determined by the form of the subject.

The boy is writing letters.

Letters are being written.

A very important point about transformations is that they are structure-dependent – this means that the strings of words can be categorised syntactically as S, O, A etc. in terms of constituency.

Transformations as used here to apply to actual clauses. Example:

He does not like this book.

->

This book he does not like.

Perhaps the most central use of the notion of transformation is for cases where complex differences in form correspond to a simple difference in meaning or function (Allerton 1979, 156).

The transformation itself is required to be *meaning-preserving*. This may not be the case where there is quantification + negation.

Many students did not sign the document.

The document was not signed by many students.

Transformations (usually) involve operating with grammatical segments, but it is often necessary to break down elements into their constituent features. Agreement feature-specification transformations are normally obligatory.

The boy is writing letters.

Letters are being written.

Transformations are possible only when certain requirements are met. They should follow general syntactic conditions of well-formed structures in syntactic and semantic terms.

1_2.1. Kernel vs non-kernel clauses

Transformations are connected with the idea of kernel clauses used here for brevity's sake. It is easier to describe a finite number of clauses and derive the others from them. The elements of the kernel clause occupy a normal (neutral) position in the clause from which they may be moved. It should be pointed out, however, that there are clauses which do not stand in such derivation relations with a kernel clause. *Did he bother to finish it?* has no actual counterpart since the verb *bother* + *to* is restricted to negative and interrogative clauses (Huddleston 1984, 15).

1_2.1.a. Kernel clauses

According to Quirk, Greenbaum, and Leech (1985, 53) this is the set of patterns which can be usefully applied to the whole range of English clauses, both main and subordinate.

1. SV -> *Mary was laughing.*
2. SVO -> *I took the draught.*
3. SVC -> *You are a student.*
4. SVA -> *His car was outside.*
5. SVOO -> *Mary gave the visitor a glass of milk.*
6. SVOC -> *Most people consider these books rather expensive.*
7. SVOA -> *You must put all the toys upstairs.*

They are all characterized by a complete form and a tensed verb phrase. They lack the situationally restricted features that would turn these structures into an utterance. The clauses from 1. to 7. are tensed and from 5. to 7. consist of verbs demanding a complement.

The extent to which the basic, normal word order facilitates communication seems to be very wide because of its grammatical potential.

On this basic level what is important is the relation of predication-'subject'-'predicate' in the most abstract sense of the word.

According to Lyons (1977, 468) a kernel-clause may be defined as a simple sentence which is unmarked in mood, voice and polarity and does not contain any optional, or omissible, expressions, the unmarked meaning being the indicative, the active, the affirmative.

The importance of this notion is that on the basis of the meaning of a relatively small number of clauses, the meaning of all the clauses of a language can be accounted for. The kernel clauses are relatively short and simple in structure and the vocabulary of which they are composed will be restricted, for the most part, to morphologically simple lexemes with a concrete meaning (Lyons 1977).

If we take, for example, *He painted the window blue*, it consists of the two 'kernel' structures: He (paint) the window and The window (be, become) blue. Although on the level of SS we have one clause, on the level of DS it is decomposable into two 'kernel' structures. On the other hand, this clause can exist as *He painted the window*. The verb 'paint' does not demand necessarily the 'complement'—*blue*. The complement comes as an addition to what has already been said, as a clarification and definitely belongs to the level of SS. This is not the case with e.g. *He considers her foolish* in which, due to the semantics of the verb 'consider', the latter cannot perform its predicative function without the presence of the complement. The kernels of DS consist of first-order nominals and a single proposition. The differentiation of these two levels (DS and SS) is necessary to make certain distinctions clear.

The considerations that prompt the movement of elements from their normal position can be classified as obligatory with some constructions which means that this process is viewed as indispensable and optional with others.

The basic order is that of the canonical declarative clause. It is relatively fixed, in general following the sequence in the designation of the clause types (SVC, SVOiOd, etc.). But a number of factors may interfere with this order. Optional adverbials may intervene between the elements in the clause pattern.

The Subject

The subject is viewed here from a structural point of view. In Part Two it will be discussed semantically. The subject is one of the most important clause element. There is an acting, all powerful rule in English which says that there is no clause without a subject. The S belongs to the grammatical nucleus of the clause, or in other words it is one of the main parts of the clause. This is a grammatical function but very often grammarians have given it a semantic definition as: the subject is the doer of the action. This definition does not explain cases like: It rained yesterday. It is the

element for which we can find the greatest number of characteristic features.

1. Position—the subject normally occurs before the verb in declarative clauses.

2. It has number and person concord, where applicable, with the VP

3. It can be relativized, questioned, clefted. E.g.:

John who you met yesterday is coming to see mother.

Who is coming to see mother etc.

It is John who is coming to see mother.

4. It can undergo raising (cf. here Permutations with raising verbs 1_2.4)

He seems to be a good guy.

(It seems that he is a good guy).

5. Case marking—in languages like English the NP in subject position is expressed in Nominative (or subjective) case. Only the system of pronouns exhibits case differences. It distinguishes:

subjective case: *I, we, he, she, they, who*;

objective case: *me, us, him, her, them, who(m)*;

genitive case: *my, our, his, her, their, whose*.

In English the subject can be identified by using substitution of the appropriate pronoun in subjective case for the NP.

1_2.1.b. Non-kernel clauses

Apart of syntagmatic relations there also exist paradigmatic relations in the clauses. They are expressed by the following oppositions since the order may be affected by variations in the syntactic form of the clause.

kernel clause		<i>He plays tennis.</i>
non-kernel	yes-no qns	<i>Does he play tennis?</i>
non-kernel	wh-interrogatives	<i>What does he play?</i>
non-kernel	relative clauses	<i>The man that plays tennis</i>
non-kernel	negative clauses	<i>He does not play tennis.</i>
non-kernel	exclamatives	<i>How he plays tennis!</i>

The non-kernel clauses differ in one or more of these basic features

1. finite (tensed) vs non-finite (non-tensed)

He went home.
Going home, he met a friend.

2. declarative mood vs imperative, interrogative, exclamative

He went home.
Go home!
Are you going home?

3. active voice vs passive voice

He read the book.
The book was read (by him).

4. polarity: positive vs negative

He went home.
He didn't go home.

5. unmarked word order–S V O (C)/(A) vs the marked

He read that book.
That book he read.

Subordinate and coordinate clauses, which relate to non-kernel clauses, may or may not lead to structural change in the clause. The most common kind of subordinate clause is embedded within the superordinate. Example: *I remember that he refused*, is a kernel clause with an embedded object. Hence, a kernel clause can contain a non-kernel clause within it. The elements of the kernel clause S, O, C and A can be expressed by non-kernel clauses. The rule with relative clauses is that in this type of relative clause 'that' is omissible only when it is followed by the subject of the subordinate clause.

Ellipsis and *substitution* are also part of the mechanisms of clause structure. Both serve to avoid repetition and permit the use of a form that is in general short. With substitution there are two forms which are in paradigmatic relation, the one stands for the other, while with ellipsis the missing part can be inserted.

Ellipsis:

Do I pay the bill?

– *Yes, you do.*

(Huddleston 1984, 140)

Substitution:

Who pays the bill?

– *You do. (do = pay the bill).*

(ibid.)

Transformation or movement together with constituent structure identification are the basic processes involved in this analysis.

The kernel structures can be compared with derived structures. Transformation, another mechanism, is closely connected with the constituent structure of the clause and the corresponding phrases: NP, VP, AdjP, AdvP, PP. The correspondence between the two is not full. To a limit constituents and phrases coincide, but that need not be necessarily always the case. E.g.:

He was in the room.

The constituent '*in the room*' is expressed by a PP. There is a NP embedded within the PP which is not a constituent of the clause.

Movement transformations relate two constructions in such a way that a constituent present in one construction is present in a different place in the other construction. These constituents may vary as to being continuous vs discontinuous, some may be added or omitted. They are usually construction-specific. E.g.:

The boy broke the window.
The window was broken (by the boy).
You are coming tonight.
Are you coming tonight.

The rules that relate one type of construction to another make reference besides to

- constituent structure,
- categorial classes like NP, PP, etc., and
- functions like subject, object, etc.

The way such rules apply to a clause provides an indispensable guide to its analysis. E.g.:

He was in the room.
He was a teacher.

If we replace the constituent '*in the room*' with '*a teacher*' the syntactic pattern of the clause is changed. In what way? The two constituents have i) different syntactic function although they both are used after the verb '*to be*' while they are expressed by different categorial classes: PP '*in the room*' and NP '*a teacher*' respectively.

1_2.2. Transformations and Clause Types

1_2.2.a. Transformation of subject-operator inversion

If in the clause with unmarked order there is no operator, the dummy operator 'do' is added. This transformation effects the opposition:

declarative–non-wh interrogative

With this transformation the pre-subject position is occupied by the operator. If we mark this pre-subject position by 'x' it will look like that:

(xS) x S

x -> a pre-subject position,

S = subject

He will answer the question.

Will he _ answer the question?

1_2.2.b. Transformation of wh phrase fronting with the transformation of subject-operator inversion. This transformation effects the opposition:

declarative – wh-interrogative

With this transformation there are two pre-subject positions: one occupied by the *wh*-phrase, the other by the operator, to be expressed:

(xxS) x x S

x -> a position before the subject (S).

xx -> two positions preceding S.

Let us consider a canonical Od position which is immediately to the right of the verb,

She read a book ->

She read what ->

What did she read _ ?
x(what) x(did) S(she)

The *wh*-word is moved to the front of the clause (sentence) by a transformation of *wh*-movement. The *wh*-phrase appears overtly in a position different from its canonical position. The *subject-operator* inversion is done independently to account for the word order of the clause.

Note! Where the *wh*-phrase is subject, it will already be in initial position, so that the transformation doesn't apply.

1_2.2.c. Transformation in which the subject is (usually) missing and the first verb is not tensed but expressed by the infinitive without 'to':

declarative '*a teacher*' imperative

Be quiet!
Heaven forbid!

1_2.2.d. Transformation moving the *wh* phrase to initial position – as with interrogatives, where its application is obligatory.

declarative–exclamatory

She dances well.
How well she dances!

1_2.2.e. Transformations that effect a change in the syntactic structure by omission of some elements:

kernel–non-kernel/elliptical clauses

- a. *One boy ate pastries and the other boy ate fruit.*
- b. *One boy ate pastries and the other–fruit.*

The element *ate* in a. is elipted in b. (_).

Kernel clauses are always complete, non-kernel clauses may be elliptical or structurally incomplete.

The missing element(s) can be reinstated without loss of acceptability.

1_2.3. Transformation in relative clauses

This concerns fronting of the *wh*-phrase to initial position from a position identical to that occupied by a phrase with equivalent function in a declarative main clause.

Antecedent + relative clause form a unitary constituent. There are three types of restrictive clause

1_2.3.a. '*wh*' restrictive relative clauses (RRC)

In the main here we follow Huddleston (1984) as regards relative clauses.

Restrictive relatives function only within NP structure, as modifier i.e. embedded in the NP. Example (ibid., 394):

Nobody who knows her could believe her capable of such an act.

1. One assumption of the easy process is that the relative clause is an independent clause while embedding takes place in stages. First stage: the clause is put close to the modified noun. Second stage—transforming the NP into a relative pronoun. The relative pronoun can function as subject or object.

2. A second point is that things are not so simple with negation and quantification since in such cases the relative clause does not express a proposition. It is only RRCs that enter into construction with negative NPs or NPs quantified by 'every, each, all, any'. Examples:

Not everyone who says so believes that.
Any of you who is volunteering can go.

The relative pronoun is no longer a referring expression. The two stages mentioned earlier cannot take place because the relative clause does not derive from 'main clauses by the transformational substitution of a relative anaphor for some non-anaphoric NP'(Huddleston 1984, 395):

Who knows her?

is not considered a transform of

Nobody knows her.

The RRC is derived from a position identical with the one occupied by a phrase with equivalent function in a declarative main clause. This is similar to *wh*-fronting by a movement transformation to an initial position. The order difference between relative and main clauses is handled in this way (ibid: 396). Except for the fact that the rule is obligatory, it works in the same way as with interrogative *wh*-phrases.

1_2.3.b. non-'*wh*' restrictive relatives (non-*wh*RRC)

There are non-*wh*RRC as is well-known. First, it is important to bring out the difference between the *wh*RRC and the non-*wh*RRC. The non-*wh*RRC is introduced by the conjunction 'that'. Where in the *wh*RRC the overt relative *wh*-pronoun takes the place of the element that is to be moved, here the subordinate clause is incomplete because the relevant place is empty, indicated by O/, which represents a covert relative *wh*-pronoun. Example:

The book (that) he read O/___

It is only a matter of theoretical importance to say that the incompleteness of the non-*wh*RRC arises from the deletion of the overt *wh*-pronoun and then this empty element – O/ undergoes the movement transformation with no obvious change in word order. (cf. also Radford 1988: 490-492)

N' + (Adjunct) -> N'

The brackets show that the optional expansion has not taken place but even if it had the effect would be N-bar (N') anyway.

2. N + (Complement) -> N'
N' + (Adjunct) -> N'

The CC plays the function of complement to the noun thus changing it from a simple category to an intermediate one (N'), while the RRC—a modifier (an adjunct) is simply added to the N' without affecting the status of the construction in any way. Because the distinction between complement and adjunct is a very difficult part in understanding of English grammatical structure I would like to represent this difference in structural terms.

➤ structural disambiguation can show the semantic difference

1.a [N'[N claim] that you made a mistake] -> CC
2.a [N' [N' [N claim]] that you made] -> RRC

The CC which gives the content of the claim but does not form a constituent with the N which it complements. The RRC on the other hand forms one unity with the N which itself is a part of the RRC.

In our case it functions as object:

you made a claim ->
a claim that you made.

- syntactic argument: the adjunct rule is recursive, the complement is not;
- *one* replaces *claim*, e.g.:

Which claim? The one you made.

*Which claim? *The one that you made a mistake*

–here *claim* cannot be substituted by *one* though CC also represents N'. The relation between the subordinate content clause (CC) and the NP is so close that the NP cannot be substituted by *one*.

➤ ordinary coordination

1. Two complements can be coordinated but not a complement and an adjunct

a claim that you made a mistake and that you failed your friend

**a claim that you made a mistake and that you made*

2. Two adjuncts can be coordinated but not a complement and an adjunct:

**a claim that you made and that you made a mistake*
a claim that you made and didn't support

➤ postponement is possible with both, examples:

The claim remains that you made a mistake

?*The claim remains that you made*—this example sounds perhaps a bit awkward out of context but otherwise it is possible to postpone a relative clause modifier.

A difficulty arose that no one had foreseen.

(Huddleston 1984, 457)

➤ co-occurrence restrictions

An adjunct can be used to modify any type of head while with complements there is a severe restriction on the N-head

a claim that you made a mistake

**a decision that you made a mistake*

**a cake that you made a mistake*

**a proposal that you made a mistake*

**a choice that you made a mistake*

- *a conclusion that you made a mistake
- *a parallel that you made a mistake
- *a telephone call that you made a mistake
- *a visit/trip/journey that you made a mistake
- *a judgement that you made a mistake
- *a start that you made a mistake
- a claim that you made
- a decision that you made
- a cake that you made
- a proposal that you made
- a choice that you made
- a conclusion that you made
- a parallel that you made
- a telephone call that you made
- a visit/trip/journey that you made
- a judgement that you made
- a start that you made

1_2.3.c. Non-restrictive relative clauses (non-RRC)

They are called peripheral dependents in NP structure because their absence does not result in ungrammaticalness. They are not only NP modifiers but can also be subordinated to a clause. Besides clauses like: John passed his exams, which made his mother very happy and NP antecedents like: *Little Lily, who was crying again...*, the AdjP can also serve as one like: Mary considered him rude, which indeed he was. Proper nouns can take only non-restrictives. NonRRCs present a separate piece of information. They express a proposition, the relative pronouns 'which', 'who' etc. as in the above examples are referring expressions.

1_2.3.d. The cleft construction does not contain a prototypical relative clause, it only resembles one. There are different cases. 1. Proper nouns cannot serve as the antecedent of a RRC (restrictive relative clause) while here they can: *It is John [who she really loves]*, 2. Preposing is possible with the cleft: *John it is [who she really loves]* while with the RRC antecedent and relative clause form a unitary constituent which makes it for the head alone to be

preposed. The precise internal structure of cleft sentences is far from clear.

1_2.4. Transformations with raising verbs and raising adjectives

There are transformations connected with raising verbs and raising adjectives. The idea of raising verbs and adjectives is closely connected with the notions of overt and covert subject/object or canonical or non-canonical subject/object.

1_2.4.a. Raising verbs: *seem, happen, appear*, etc.

1_2.4.a.1. Non-canonical subjects. This is an instance of a language-particular transformation.

We differentiate three types of subject: the normal subject, the non-canonical subject and the dummy subject. They differ in that the normal subject is a participant of the verb whose subject it is while the non-canonical subject is not. It is extracted from its canonical position and appears overtly in another position:

She seems to be clever.

in which 'she' is a subject of '*to be clever*'. Such subjects are called covert or non-canonical subjects. The first verb is in agreement with the NP-subject although it is the infinitive which expresses a property of the subject. The infinitive itself has no overt subject in the construction.

The dummy subject, called also expletive or pleonastic (Borsley 1991) or split subject (Jespersen 1933) has grammatical but no semantic function: It is raining. There is a book there.

1_2.4.a.2 Non-canonical object

The letter took an hour to write.

1_2.4.b. Raising adjectives: *tough, hard, difficult, easy, likely, impossible*.

John is easy to please

->

To please John is easy. It is easy + X pleases John(Object).

1_2.5. Transformations with a change in the syntactic functions

1_2.5.a. Passivisation

He broke the vase.
The vase was broken.

This construction is usually overtly marked in a specific way to show its passive character.

It involves a transformation relation in the clause in which the object is shifted from its position in the clause to another position – that of the subject. The passive construction which is the marked one is derived from the active, the unmarked, by means of a syntactic transformation. In this way two word order patterns are realised.

There is another suggestion: that the two surface structure constructions are derived from one and the same underlying structure. The important thing is that between the two clauses there is this kind of relation.

This transformation is known as NP movement in Chomskyan terms.

Relations between active and passive clause types:

1.

type SVO–SV_{pass}(A)

The man paid the rent.
The rent was paid (by the man).

2.

type SVOO–SV_{pass}Od(A) and SV_{pass}Oi(Ag)

Her mother gave her this bracelet.
She was given this bracelet (by her mother).
This bracelet was given (to) her (by her mother).

3.

type SVOC–SV_{pass}Cs(by-Ag)

The president appointed him secretary.

He was appointed secretary (by the president).

4.

type SVOA–SV_{pass}As(*by*-Ag)

John put the car in the garage.

The car was put in the garage (by John).

There is a systematic correspondence between active and passive clauses in that the direct or indirect object of an active clause becomes the subject of a passive clause while the subject of the active clause is either omitted or made the complement in a *by*-agent phrase (Quirk, Greenbaum, and Leech 1985, 725). The agent *by*-phrase is optional. It incorporates a NP equivalent to the subject of the corresponding active clause.

There are certain restrictions on extensions in terms of particular uses or senses of certain verbs. Let's consider the following examples:

1. *Ed liked Liz to accompany them.*

That example is impossible to passivise. Its constituent structure in the active is unclear, so that it is arguable whether *Liz* is in fact an object. That's why no indication about its constituent structure is given.

2.a *Ed expected Liz to accompany them.*

N1 V N2 to inf. N3

2.b *Liz is expected to accompany them.'*

That example looks superficially similar to 1., yet in 2. *Liz* can become subject under passivisation.

We have N1 + V + N2 + *to* + inf. + N3, but the way the individual words combine seems to be different. In 1. '*Liz to accompany them*' acts as a constituent. That's why it cannot be passivised to **Liz was liked to accompany them*, but in 2. we can say '*Liz is expected to accompany them*', where '*Liz*' behaves like

an object to the verb 'expect' and a constituent of itself, and 'to accompany them' as another constituent.

The difference lies in the semantics of the two verbs: *to expect and to like*.

1_2.5.b. Extraposition is another case of movement transformation:

To disregard the past is dangerous.

It is dangerous to disregard the past.

The basic, non-marked construction consists of an 'intraposed' subject clause and the corresponding one is the marked construction.

There are cases in which it is difficult to decide which construction is the basic and which the derived. We take that the construction with the embedded subject clause is the unmarked member of the pair since it conforms to the structure of a kernel clause:

That he is guilty is obvious.

->

It is obvious that he is guilty.

On the other hand the other construction is the marked member on the ground that it is expanded into a complex sentence. The criterion of structure we take as primary and that of frequency of use as secondary (If one decides to change the places of the criteria, then we change the approach to language analysis). The fact that the marked construction is more frequently used cannot rule out the importance of structure. The embedded subject clause is shifted to the end of the clause and inserted in the vacated position.

Two points should be made clear:

First, both the marked and the unmarked constructions express two propositions and not a single one. The unmarked construction contains a second-order entity for a subject—which itself is a proposition. Not all kernel structures express a single

1_2.5.d.1. The shift of indirect object (usu. animate) to a position before the direct object, with omission of 'to':

The father sent the money to his son ->
The father sent his son the money.

1_2.5.d.2. No omission of 'to' is possible:

I explained this to her. ->
I explained to her this.

1_2.5.d.3. The shift of indirect object (usu. animate) to a position before the direct object, with omission of 'for':

He bought a bracelet for his wife ->
He bought his wife a bracelet.

1_2.5.e. Subject-complement identifying construction

It represents SV(be)C/A in which C and/or A can switch to the function of subject.

- i. *The first concern of company officers will be to organize recreation for their men.*
- ii. *To organize recreation for their men will be the first concern of company officers.*

This construction (both i and ii) represents the structure SV(be)C. In (i) S is the phrase '*the first concern of company officers*' and in (ii) S is the phrase '*to organize the recreation for their men*'.

It is very difficult to say which is the thematically basic or unmarked version. One can always be derived from the other. There is a *reassignment* of functions.

Correlating with the syntactic difference there is a semantic one: Let's consider: (i) gives indication as to what the first concern of company officers is, whereas (ii) identifies the first concern of company officers.

To my mind, the basic or the unmarked version in this case will be the one found in the particular context while the marked will be the derived one – the criterion here being not structural so much as contextual although the real reason for this regularity does indeed lie within the very specificity of this structure.

The two semantic roles associated with this construction are *identified member* related to the phrase in initial position and *identifier*-related to the phrase taking final position. The expression referring to the identified member is always an NP, whereas the identifier can be a PP as in '*The best place for it was inside the clock*', a content clause (CC), as in '*The point I want to emphasise is that they went separately*' (declarative) or '*The question we should focus on is how he got out*' (interrogative); an AdvP, as in '*The only way to proceed in such cases is very cautiously*' or NPs (Huddleston 1984).

Huddleston also poses some restrictions on the kind of material across which a finite clause or an infinitive clause would be moved. One such restriction is that the first embedded subject clause cannot be extraposed across the second embedded complement clause, e.g. *That he survived at all shows that he must have been remarkably fit*.

Another restriction he finds in: *How he escaped is the really important question*, or *That he knew her was the important point* (ibid., 458) by commenting that extraposition is excluded in the 'identifying' *be*-construction, or in other words, a clause cannot be extraposed over a complement (C) (PC–predicative complement–in his terminology). Such restrictions do not hold if the subject is not an embedded clause.

1_2.6. Transformations with no change in the syntactic function

Other departures from the basic order even though motivated solely by thematic factors again include various transformations that move an element from an unmarked to a marked position.

1_2.6.1. Thematic postponement

In the literature on the subject this transformation phenomenon is very often confused with extraposition because in the two transformations there is a movement of an element or part of one to the right of its basic position. The difference is that here the moved element is extracted from its usual position and moved to the right thus leaving a gap which cannot be filled by another element.

1_2.6.1.a. Postponement of the subject

1_2.6.1.a.1. The subject can be postponed to post-operator position. The transformation of the subject-operator inversion discussed here under 1_2.2.a. is not an independent variable. This transformation is obligatory because it is triggered by certain types of element: *only then, very rarely* and other negative phrases, with certain kinds of verb by the omission of the conjunction in a conditional clause. Examples:

Very rarely do people think the right thing_.
Never have I seen her so beautiful.
Such galantry did he show_, that he was awarded the Victoria Cross.

(Radford 1988, 529)

The moved constituent ends up in the second next position before the subject:

(xxS) x x S
 xxS - > (x *such galantry* (x *did* (S *he*)))

1_2.6.1.a.2. Postponement to post-VP position transformation is not obligatory. Besides, the restrictions in such instances are quite great. This phenomenon occurs with a quite small set of verbs, of position and motion with rather general meanings, e.g. *be, come, go, stand, lie*, etc. Compare,

Over the top of the mountain appeared a flock of birds.
Over the top of the mountain a flock of birds appeared.

The adverbial of place or direction comes first, then the verb and last the subject. The kernel SVA, *A flock of birds appeared over the top of the mountain* is transformed into the non-kernel AVS which is syntactically marked. Another example, *Away ran the dog*. But it is virtually impossible if the subject is a personal pronoun, **Away ran he*.

This type of transformation is also to be found in parenthetical reporting clauses: *'It was', observed her father, 'a simple case of mistaken identity'*.

1_2.6.1.b. Postponement of an object

If a kernel SVOC, e.g.

He considers everything that can serve their purpose quite good.

undergoes postponement of its object it will be turned into the non-kernel sequence of SVCO, e.g.

He considers quite good everything that can serve their purpose.

1_2.6.1.c. Postponement of part of a phrase which acts as a constituent

The examples given concern the NP in subject position.

A rumour that he is ill has been circulating.

A rumour_has been circulating that he is ill.

(Radford 1988, 449)

The modifier *'that he is ill'* to the noun *'a rumour'* is moved or postponed to end position or adjoined to the clause (*A rumour has been circulating*) plus the adjunction (*that he is ill*) which by itself forms a constituent.

A snag that I hadn't forseen emerged later.

A snag_emerged later that I hadn't forseen.

(ibid.)

Here the modifier '(that) I hadn't foreseen' to the noun 'a snag' is extracted from its position and postposed to end position by being adjoined to the clause (*A snag emerged later*).

Part of an object can also be postponed. Instead of the usual word order of SVO in which the verb takes an NP plus particle this being considered the kernel order,

*John will call people from Boston up, we get,
John will call people_up from Boston
(Radford1988, 449)*

Now, 'call up' is a phrasal verb and the particle is an indispensable part of it.

1_2.6.2. Subject-complement characterising construction

It can be expressed: $S + V_{be} + C/A \rightarrow C/A + V_{be} + S$

a.) *The key he'd been looking for was inside the clock.*

b.) *Inside the clock was the key he was looking for.*

(Huddleston 1984, 457)

The structural relationship is quite different from the subject-complement identifying construction with a switch of syntactic functions. In the characterising construction a *reordering* of functions takes place instead (cf. here point 1_2.5.e.)

1_2.6.3. From a psycholinguistic point there exists *thematic fronting* also called *preposing* or *topicalisation*. The position of the more nuclear elements in kernel clauses can be changed to a marked position in non-kernel clauses due to thematic factors.

I would like to raise terminological problems first. *Preposing* (Radford 1988) seems to be the right term to use here as the opposite counterpart of *postponement* as well as the term *thematic fronting* (Huddleston 1984). The only objection I have to the latter is that somehow it mainly draws the attention to the motivations for the transformation, while what we are more interested here is exactly the linguistic mechanism underlying them. Having this in mind, both terms can be used equally well.

The term *topicalisation* is found not quite to the point because it expresses the believe of certain scholars (Halliday 1985) that the fronted element corresponds to the topic. Since there is no one-to-one correspondence between subject and topic nor is there between initial element and topic so we cannot accept this term as representing adequately the given phenomenon. Here are some examples with fronted elements:

1. The fronted element coincides with the topic:

That much the jury had thoroughly appreciated_ (object)
Most of these problems a computer could take_in its stride.
 (object).

This latter topic we have examined_in chapter 3 and need not
 reconsider. (object)

To this list may be added ten further items of importance.
 (adjunct)
 (Firbas 1992, 125)

In the last example from this group there is a reversal of function in the syntactically basic order, i.e. SVA turns into AVS in both of which the verb is in the passive form: i.e. *Ten further items of importance may be added to this list.*

2. The fronted element does not coincide with the topic (ibid.).

Wilson his name is_. (subject complement)

An utter fool she made me feel_. (subject complement)

Really good meals they serve_at that hotel. (object)

The fronted element can also be an adjunct e.g. *With this model you could do it a lot more quickly*, or even a part of an embedded clause, e.g. *The others I told him he could keep*. What I would like to draw the attention to is that it can also be an intermediate constituent (cf. 1_1.3.3.c.). Radford calls especially this type–VP preposing (1988, 533). The moved elements that we

have discussed so far are all expressed by full phrases representing constituents. Compare:

John intends to make a table, and make one he will _.

This concerns sentences in which the intermediate VP is moved out of the position marked () into the position at the front of the second clause.

1_2.7. Transformations with ergative and middle structures

These concern the relationship between transitive objects and ergative subjects (Radford 1988, 446).

1. *The stone moved.*
2. *John moved.*
3. *John moved the stone.*

Transitive objects and their ergative subject counterparts (or in other words 1. and 3.) are subject to the same selection restrictions.

The NP movement is involved in the derivation of 'ergative' structures as well as middle constructions, like,

The boxes will not transport easily.

1_2.8. Classes of words with no fixed position in the sentence

In English there are 'connective' adverbs like '*however, nevertheless*', etc., 'parentheticals' like '*I think, it is true, it seems, etc.*', quantifiers like *all* for which 'it would be quite arbitrary to select just one position [...] and treat the other possibilities as derived by some movement transformation (Huddleston 1984, 38,224).

John, however, had misunderstood her intentions.
John had, however, misunderstood her intentions.

We need to recognise in syntax classes of forms with no fixed basic position.

*Part
Two*

THE SEMANTIC LEVEL

2_1. Distinctiveness of the semantic level

The semantic level studies the linguistic meaning of a clause/sentence as a whole.

To bring precision and insight to the study of language, the two basic principles of contrastiveness and constituent structure on the paradigmatic (or selectional) and syntagmatic (or combinatory) axes of linguistic structure are applied also in the study of the semantic as well as the FSP levels.

The semantic level consists of distinctive semantic units just as any other level discussed: the syntactic and that of FSP. It shows the non-correspondence between the syntactic and semantic on the one hand and the semantic and FSP units on the other which is many-to-one or vice versa in both directions.

In practice language is so complex that a single meaning may have multiple realization (cf. syntactic synonymy), a single grammatical pattern may have variant meanings (cf. grammatical ambiguities > 1_1.12), grammatically linked items are not always adjacent to each other (cf. continuous/discontinuous constituents > 1_1.3.1) etc.

2_1.1. Referentiality

Semantic criteria are based on reference and predication or the distinction between entities, properties, actions, relations, etc.

Reference is the phenomenon by which some noun phrase in a particular utterance or sentence is associated with some entity in the real or conceptual world, its referent. Reference is a semantic phenomenon, but its expression is often grammaticalized in important ways (Trask 1992). Referentiality is the ability of phrases to exhibit the above quality.

AdjPs don't occur as subject or object (in kernel clauses) and their exclusion from both object and subject positions is related to

the fact that they cannot be used referentially (Huddleston 1984, 185).

Furthermore, the AdjP is felt more central for the C position in SVC and SVOC structure than the NPs which have more restrictions. NPs used in this position are usually used non-referentially.

Another important point to mention here is that case-variable pronouns do not in fact occur in prototypical C function. This is related to their semantics: the prototypical C is used to predicate, not to refer, whereas personal pronouns can be used to refer but not to predicate.

Nouns are traditionally said to denote entities, verbs and adjectives to denote first-order properties. It is characteristic of first-order entities (persons, animals and things) that under normal conditions, they are relatively constant as to their perceptual properties; that they are located, at any point in time, in what is, psychologically at least a three-dimensional space; and that they are publicly observable.

By second-order entities are meant events, processes, states-of-affairs which are located in time and which in English, are said to occur and take place, rather than to exist.

2_1.2. Propositions (P/PN)

Subject and predicate as logical notions are connected with the notion of proposition. At the level of deep structure we have only propositions. 'In the most elementary cases a proposition is analysable into a semantic predicate accompanied by one or more arguments representing particular persons, other kinds of living creature or inanimate entities of various kinds. [...] Thus a semantic predicate ascribes a property or a role in a relation, action, event, etc., to what is represented by its argument or arguments.' (Huddleston 1984, 182). Sometimes a single simple clause may contain not one but two or more propositions,

e.g. *He likes going to the theatre.*

consists of:

PN1 (he + like + something) and PN2 (he + go + place).

2_1.3. Predication (P): arguments and semantic predicates

Predications consist of *arguments* which consist of *predicates* which consist of *features*.

The predicate is the main element of a predication in the sense that it cannot be dispensed with while there are some predications which have no argument at all, e.g. *It is raining*. It has no meaning independent of the predicate (Leech 1981, 131). Besides, although syntactically '*Ed became fond of Kim*' is a single clause, semantically there are two predicates – the fact that a semantic predicate need not be expressed by a verb means that we can have more than one semantic predication in a simple clause (i.e. the definition of a clause being that it does not have another clause embedded within it).

We talk of features under the grammatical level and this is because it is very difficult to specify where exactly they should be discussed. Features are indispensable in syntax as was shown and at the same time they represent the semantic elements which combine to form arguments and predicates (Leech 1981, 148)

E.g. *Children like sweets*.

This can be formally represented as (a.P.b)–which means a two-place predication, a and b standing for the two arguments that go with a given P–a proposition also to be marked PN (see below). On the other hand,

e.g. *Cats are small*,

can be represented as (a.P) or (P.a) -> a one-place predication. Presentational *there*-construction for example (cf. 1_2.5.c. and 3_5.1.e.) will be analysed basically as a set of two predications (1) an implicit existential proposition, PN1/A (Entity) + P(Be at

Place/Time) and (2) an explicit PN2, which may acquire the following major values: (i) PN2/A(Entity) +P (Be in a Certain Mode: BE ALIVE IN A CERTAIN POSITION at a place/Time (ii) PN2/A (Entity) +P (Come into Being at Place/Time)(iii) PN2/A (Entity) + P (Move into the perceptual field of Speaker at Place/Time) and (iv) PN2/A (Entity) + P (Act: IN A CERTAIN WAY) (Alexieva 1988, 11-12).

Predications are also hierarchized–reduced in the semantic hierarchy. Such are the downgraded predications e.g. *a man who writes novels* (Leech 1981, 145).

At the semantic level we talk of 'logical subject' and 'logical object' which motivates a level of deep structure. Sometimes these may coincide with the surface structure subject and object:

The diver fascinated the dolphins.

Direct inspection of SS does not always help to find the logical subject as is seen from the sentences where all the italicized NPs bear the logical subject relation to the verb leave:

Which man left last night

Which man did John say left last night?

The woman left yesterday and the man today.

The man who I thought left last night was your uncle.

The man wanted to try to leave last night.

The man was thought by many to have been supposed to leave last night.

Leaving, the man tripped over the doorstep.

(Wilson and Wilson 1979, 102)

2_2 Correspondences between the semantic and the syntactic levels

Syntax cannot be thought of without taking into consideration meaning. There is a high degree of interdependence between the syntactic structure of sentence-nuclei and the semantic function of

their constituent expressions. But on the other hand there is no one-to-one correspondence between the two levels.

It must be emphasized that the correlation between syntax and semantics is not perfect. What is from a semantic point of view indeterminate may be determined syntactically to be a member of one-part-of-speech rather than another.

The cat is out of the bag.

Semantically this structure is an idiom. It has an homonym in a free combination without an idiomatic meaning. 'The cat is out of the bag' can be analysed syntactically—it has a subject, subject-verb concord, we can ask a question: Is the cat out of the bag? etc. With the idiom the syntactic relations are fossilised.

We are concerned not only with the syntactic but the semantic relations which hold between the constituents of these sentence nuclei as well.

2_2.1. Mechanism of matching semantic elements with syntactic constituents—perfect correlation

There are some cases in which the correlation between semantic and syntactic elements is perfect. Since this had not been the case it is necessary to talk of a separate semantic level. Here are some examples of perfect correspondence between the two levels:

<u>syntactic</u>	< - >	<u>semantic</u>
NP	< - >	Argument
<i>The cat is sleeping: a.P</i>		
VP	< - >	Predicate
<i>The boy saw the film: a.P.b</i>		

The semantic predicate is classified according to the number of arguments it takes. There can be one-place, two-place, three-place etc. semantic predicates. 'From a two-place semantic predicate like 'love' can be derived a complex 'one-place' semantic

predicate incorporating the other argument. [...] This is where the semantic and syntactic predicate come together: in syntax the term 'predicate' is employed for the function of the constituent which enters into construction with the subject—one which typically expresses a one-place semantic predicate that is either simple or derived from a simple one by the incorporation (Huddleston 1984, 182).

2.2.2. Mechanism of matching semantic elements with syntactic constituents—non-perfect correlation

Here are some examples of non-perfect correspondence between the two levels:

syntactic	< - >	semantic
AdjP	< - >	One-place predicate:
		<i>a good student</i>

Relative clause < - > Downgraded qualifying predication:
The man that won the game.

Preposition* < - > Predicate:
he went up and over the bridge

Nominal clause < - > Subordinate predication
(i.e. clause with the function of a NP):
That she was guilty was evident.

'Nominalization' < - > Subordinate predication:
John's arrival

This shows that the mappings are not one-to-one but even where they coincide (as with the NP <-> Argument and with the VP <-> Predicate cf. 6.4.1) they are not always straightforward. For example, the subject is a syntactic category and it does not stand in a one-to-one relation with any semantic category figuring in the semantic analysis of clauses (Huddleston 1984, 72). The

locative, temporal and causative subjects as well as there of the there construction, (for example Tonight sees the last episode of Poldark–Alexieva 1991, 102), display such properties as can be accounted for 'by the fact that they are not exponents of deep semantic arguments', [...] but are 'exponents of what semantically can be described as part of the predicate, and to be more precise, as that part of the predicate giving information about its spatial, temporal and causal parameters' (ibid.). This supports the idea that there is an asymmetry between syntax and meaning.

The semantic predicate can be expressed syntactically either by a verb or an adjective. (Huddleston 1984, 184).

The way grammatical units are grouped together syntactically and morphologically does not always match the way the corresponding meanings are grouped. For example *to pull up one's leg* is an idiom and with idioms the grammatical relations are fossilised and do not show the way the components of meaning are grouped together.

About 'zero' mappings—existence of elements on one level and having 'zero' mapping on another—an example in point is the semantic predicate of 'rain' which has no semantic argument but syntax requires that the subject position be occupied by a dummy element.

2_2.3. Syntactic devices as varying the order of elements They are used for expressing different meaning. The very fact that even syntactic means are used for expressing different meaning shows that syntax and semantics although autonomous are closely interrelated and interdependent.

English contains numerous syntactic devices for omitting semantic elements. The most well-known of these is the rule converting active into passive clauses, *John wrote the letter* -> *The letter was written (by John)*. In this case the by-phrase becomes omissible. The two-place semantic predicate in the active construction is transformed into one-place semantic predicate in the passive one.

In the clauses,

He is reading *and*
He is reading a book,

the argument '*a book*' in the second clause is optional. It can be overtly expressed or otherwise inferred from the context.

Besides, synonymous clauses show that one and the same meaning (though it can't be exactly the same) can be expressed through different syntactic structures.

1.a *John drove carefully /John in a careful manner.*

AdvP/PP

1.b *John opened the door/John made the door open.* SVO/SVOC

Depending on the interpretation of '*open*' in 1.b as verb or adjective we have two different constructions:

The SVO or Accusativus cum Infinitivo construction (O= *the door open*)

vs

the SVOC construction (O=*the door*).

John killed the duckling/John made the duckling die.

The non-causative vs the causative constructions

John sliced the salami with a knife/

John used a knife to slice the salami

The syntactic functions of object and adverbial have been switched because of the use of different verbs: '*slice smth*' and '*use smth*'.

(Allerton 1979, 166)

2_3. Syntactic functions and semantic roles

On the other hand, the relation between syntax and the semantic level which characterizes a given situation is expressed

by semantic roles. The NPs refer to the participants in a situation. The correlation between syntactic functions and semantic roles can be best presented by the function of the subject having in mind that the function of subject is treated here from a semantic point of view. In Part One the focus is on the structural characteristics of the subject.

The subject represents a referential entity with independent existence. It controls coreference in reflexives, pronouns etc.

Mary washed,
Mary washed the child,
Mary washed herself.

She hurt herself.
Mary entered the room. She looked happy.

The most typical role for the subject, for example, is the agent or doer of the action, but this is far from exhausting its roles. It exhibits a large number of roles: Affected, Recipient, Instrument, Temporal, Locative, Spatial, external Causer etc. This means that the semantic content of the subject can be very wide. The relation here is not always symmetrical either.

2_4. Valency of the Verb

Mechanisms connected with the verb in terms of its semantic content—the verb as the organizing centre of the clause.

Here we will concentrate on the role played by the semantic content of the verb and its semantic relations. We will examine the syntactic and the semantic surroundings of the verb in clauses. The examples are from CELD (1987) and the idea is to demonstrate some features of the arguments connected with the verb 'to sell'. By I is expressed the corresponding meaning of the verb, by II—the syntactic functions that go with it, by III—the features connected with the syntactic functions of subject, object (direct, indirect) and the prepositions and adverbs.

to sell

I. to sell (V1 = trade, let someone have something in return for an agreed sum of money)

II. to sell – (S, dO, iO, A/ (for/at)

III. S 1.+Hum (He is going to sell me his car.)

2. Abstr (like + Hum The company is selling a house.)

dO 1. ±Anim (-Hum)(He is going to sell me his car.)

2. Abstr (He has sold the patent.)

iO 1. +Hum (He is going to sell me his car.)

2. +Abstr (like + Hum) (He is selling the library his books.)

p=to

p1N 1. + Hum (Who are you going to sell to?)

2. + Abstr (like + Hum) (He is selling his books to the library.)

p=for

p2N -Anim(I hope to sell the house for £ 30,000.)

p=by

p3N + Abstr (They sell the goods by the ton.)

Adv Mod (He sells the goods at a reasonable price.)

I. to sell (V2=to be a dealer in)

II. to sell S,O

III. S 1. + Hum (Mr Miller sells wool.)

2.+Abstr (like + Hum) (Our branch sells chemicals.)

O ±Anim (-Hum) (Do you sell needles/crans?)

I. to sell (V3=to find buyers)

II.to sell S, Adv

III. S 1. ±Anim (These little books sell for 95p each; Pets sell best in summer.)

2. +Abstr (It's a nice design, but I'm not sure if it will sell

Adv Mod (Our product sells in forty-seven countries

I.to sell (V4 = to cause to be sold)

II. to sell S,O

III. S Abstr (Scandal and gossip is what sells newspapers.)
O ±Anim(-Hum)(Scandal and gossip is what sells
newspapers. Quality sells cattle.) (Perl 1976).

As is seen from above, it is not enough to say simply that the verb takes an object (for example V + O) because that is a very gross approximation to the question. Nouns (or NPs) are usually used to function as objects but that distribution is valid only at the 'relatively high level of classification for which the term 'noun' is used without further qualification. At a lower level two nouns might have a different distribution, one being 'animate' and the other 'inanimate' etc. (Lyons 1968, 233). Here we speak of distribution with respect to some 'specified depth' of subclassification. This depth of hierarchical relations that holds within a clause and which is compounded to word order as a linear notion is further subjected to subcategorisation. This is the phenomenon by which the members of a single word class (e.g. nouns) do not all exhibit identical syntactic behaviour. Some verbs (tr verbs like *kill* and *build*) take direct objects, while others (intr verbs like *die* and *smile*) do not; some verbs (*say*, *decide*) permit a following *that*-complement clause; some (*enquire*, *wonder*) permit a following *whether*-complement clause, others (*kill*, *die*, *speak*) permit neither, still others (*ask*, *consider*) permit both.

Subcategorization phenomena represent the principal area in which syntax comes to deal with the properties of individual words. Syntactic features make up part of the structure of a word class singled out by its morphological and syntactic behaviour, such as nouns, etc. The features specify and subcategorize the basic word classes. For example, we can present the word class of noun into a set of features:

[± common]
[±count]
[±animate]
[±abstract], etc.

The four major word-classes can be broken down into feature sets in the manner indicated below in order to capture super word class generalisations.

verb	= [+V, -N]	adjective	= [+V, +N]
noun	= [-V, +N]	preposition	= [-V, -N]

In English only verbs and prepositions take NP complements (direct object NPs) and this unites them into super word class:

V + NP -> enter + the room
P + NP -> in + the room

To put it in a different way: single features of subcategorization build up word classes, the morpho-syntactic word classes of N, V, Adj, P etc. expand into the corresponding phrases. Super word classes combine two morpho-syntactic word classes on the basis of a common feature in terms of syntactic behaviour. All that represents the building block of clause structure.

2_4.1. Semantic character of the verb

As Firbas says, the successful competitors of the verb, i.e. those which amplify its meaning and contribute further for the communication show that the verb perspectives the communication either

- i) towards the phenomenon presented by the subject, or
- (ii) towards the quality ascribed to the phenomenon expressed by the subject or beyond this quality towards its specification (Firbas 1992, 66).

The sentence elements perform in the process of communication the dynamic functions:

Set(ting), Pr(esentation of Phenomenon), Ph(enomenon), B(earer), Ascription of quality (AofQ), Q(uality), Sp(ecification), F(urther) Sp(ecification) etc. They are called 'dynamic' because the semantic content concerned is viewed:

- i) as related to the flow of communication, or
- ii) as linked with definite contextual conditions or
- iii) as actively participating in developing the perspective of the communication.

The verb performs one of the following two dynamic semantic functions,

- i) that of presentation (Pr) or
- ii) that of expressing a quality (Q).

In accordance with these two functions two basic types of word order in sentences with verbs of action and verbs of appearance (*come, appear, occur, be* and *live* in existential sentences) are to be distinguished.

The subject performs the dynamic semantic function

- i) of expressing the phenomenon to be presented (Ph), or
- ii) of expressing the phenomenon bearer (B).

The object and the adverbials – the amplifiers or competitors of the verb – deal with two other dynamic semantic functions:

- i) that of expressing a Setting (Set) or
- ii) that of expressing a specification (Sp) or further specification (FSp).

The syntactic implementations of the dynamic functions must be further investigated.

In terms of degrees of CD of the semantic elements of a sentence we can also speak of arrangement, but it is semantic or interpretative arrangement.

These sets of dynamic functions reflect the interpretative, not the actual linear arrangement and that's why they are discussed here in Part Two—the semantic level while the sets of dynamic functions of the actual linear arrangement are discussed in Part Three—the level of the organization of the utterance.

1. The Presentation Scale

Set(ting), Pr(esentation of Phenomenon), Ph(enomenon presented);

Set-Pr-Ph-B-Q-Sp-FSp

2. The Quality Scale

Set(ting), B(earer of Quality), Q(ality), Sp(ecification) and F(urther) Sp(ecification).

Set-B-Q-Sp-FSp

3. The ascribing of quality function (AofQ) in the quality Scale

Set-B-AofQ-Q-Sp-FSp

3. The combined Scale

Set-Pr-Ph-B-AofQ-Q-Sp-FSp

At the beginning of his reign (Set), the young king (B) rules (Q) his country (Sp) capriciously and despotically (FSp)

(Firbas 1992, 69)

2_4.2. Transition: the TMEs of the verb

It has a linking and boundary function. The verb phrase consists of a notional verb and a part expressing the TMEs. The dynamic semantic functions associated with the transition are various:

transition proper (TrP) ,

transition proper oriented (TrPo),

transition (Tr) to the exclusion of transition proper(TrP) and transition proper oriented elements (TrPo),

question focus anticipator (QFocA) and

negative focus anticipator (NegFocA).

(cf. Firbas 1992, 77-9, 101-4)

The verb shows a strong tendency to serve as mediator or transition between two types of elements, the categorial exponents of the verb do so invariably. They do so especially through the indications of tense and mood – conveyed by the temporal and modal exponents (TMEs). In this respect the TMEs are transitional *par excellence* and are regarded as performing the function of transition proper'(Firbas 1992, 70-71).

There are two basic types of word order in sentences with verbs of action and verbs of appearance (*come, appear, occur, be* and *live*) in existential sentences.

Verbs of appearance/existence and verbs of motion play a crucial role in the communication. They help context-independent adverbials to function as specification since the 'dynamic function of specification is not expressed solely by adverbials conveying an obligatory amplification of the verb' (Firbas 1992, 52). The relevance of such verbs to word order may be traced in different languages. Ascertaining relevant semantic categories and sentence patterns in various languages is one of the most important and interesting tasks of structural analysis (Daneš 1972).

The interpretation of a verb as belonging to this type depends only partly on the semantics of the verb itself.

The significance of the semantic structure of the sentence shows on sentences rendering man's inner states and sensations – the 'recipient' of sensations, or 'bearer' of states (Daneš 1972, 220).

*Part
Three*

LEVEL OF ORGANIZATION OF THE UTTERANCE

3_1. The theory of FSP as a pragmatic aspect of the utterance

The theory of FSP is used as a means of linguistic description. We will use it to investigate the pragmatic aspect of word order.

Word order is both a means of FSP and itself here an object of investigation as to the ways it copes with the requirements of FSP.

We subscribe to the idea that the thematic/pragmatic structure is not entirely superimposed on the grammatical structure of the utterance but is to a great extent an inherent quality of language implemented by language-particular means. It is connected with 'the deepest semantic structure (giving the referential meaning of the utterance) and the result of it is a structure giving information about the referential and the thematic (pragmatic) meanings of the utterance, for the expression of which different surface structure devices may be used. (Alexieva 1981, 20)

Therefore, the general linguistic principles that underlie the typological characteristic feature of English as subject-prominent language, i.e. a language exhibiting the SVO word order, are such that they vacillate around this word order.

When we analyse a sentence in context we can always start from the linguistic system (the grammatical level), analyse the lexico-semantic structure and different possibilities of collocation (the semantic level) and then discuss the FSP.

In terms of dynamic progress we can first analyse the theme and then see how the rheme has been built (see also Dahl 1969).

3_1.1. Actualization

Actualization is a term used to denote temporal and modal qualification carried by the utterance and in this way 'actualizing' it. It is in this sense that the act of reference is to be regarded as 'actual' (Svoboda 1968).

The concept of Utterance—A particular piece of speech produced by a particular individual on a particular occasion.

'An utterance (a sentence actualized in speech) is the name of an extralinguistic situation (scene) It is a complex sign whose meaning can be adequately described by drawing the following two major distinctions: (i) between referential, pragmatic and intralinguistic meaning, dependent on the type of relationship involved (between the sign and its extralinguistic referent, the sign and its users, and the sign and the other signs in the system, subsystem or paradigm) and (ii) between meanings which are explicit (i.e. rendered overtly) and meanings which are only implied, i.e. signalled by the overtly expressed elements' (Alexieva 1982).

Actual utterances are in contrast with indefinitely many potential utterances which might have been actualized on the occasion in question, but were not.

Both the speaker's behaviour and the utterances he produces are observable and can be described in purely physical, or observable, terms.

The American structuralists regarded utterances as constituting the primary data for linguistic investigation; generative grammarians, in contrast, frequently attach little importance to utterances (Trask 1993).

There are utterance-tokens and utterance-types. Utterance-tokens are strongly individualized. They can also be called utterance events or utterance-signals. Chomsky makes the assumption that spoken utterance-signals can be regarded as strings of discrete forms and that each form is identifiable as a token of a certain type in terms of its phonological shape (Lyons 1977, 383, see also Firbas 1992, 16). Most utterance-tokens can be identified as tokens of a given type independently of the actual situations in which they occur and grouped into utterance-types.

We should differentiate between the actual perspective and the type of perspective and in this respect we speak of an utterance event and utterance type.

3_1.2. Contextualization

Contextualization as another mechanism in realizing the sentence elements. It is a process which involves much more than knowledge of the language system

Like Svoboda (1968, 54) we distinguish semantic context and grammatical context 'which co-operate with each other, the result of their co-operation being a certain degree of contextual dependence.'

Consituation (context + situation) is a very important means which influences the semantic meaning of the sentence. The operation of consituation can radically change the relative importance of an element. It can 'dedynamize' or 'dynamize' sentence elements. According to the effect of the consituation we speak of contextual dependence or independence which, strictly speaking, is determined by what is called the narrow scene, i.e. the very purpose of the communication.

The expressions 'context-dependent' and 'context-independent' are to be understood—unless specified otherwise—as retrievable and irretrievable from the immediately relevant context (Firbas 1992, 31). Fully and predominantly context-dependent elements do not convey information towards where the communication is perspectived. With regard to the influence of consituation, Firbas differentiates the following types of sentence:

a) Basic instance level—on the basic instance level, a semantic and grammatical sentence structure is entirely context-independent. Since on that level 'none of the information is dedynamized by the contextual factor, the semantic factor and linear modification fully assert themselves. (Firbas 1992, 112)

b) Ordinary instance level—this level is affected by contextual dedynamization. 'The higher the number of elements dedynamized, the greater the distance from the basic instance level.[...] The contextual factor is also activated in addition to the semantic factor and linear modification – a full interplay of the three factors is achieved. (ibid., 113)

c) Special instance level—here can be included the syntactic structures of questions, negative sentences, commands and comparative sentences which by the very fact of their syntactic

and semantic structure possess a higher, special degree of contextual dependence. Linear modification is still of importance here for it can act in accord or counter to the other two factors but the contextual and the semantic factors take the upper hand.

d) Second instance level—within second instance it is the contextual factor that almost exclusively and absolutely asserts itself, the operations of the semantic factor and linear modification being reduced to a minimum.

3_1.2.a. Context-independent elements

- a context-independent object acts as a successful competitor of the verb by the very fact that it states the goal or result, or in any case the recipient, of the action named by the verb. There are certain restrictions to beware! (cf. Firbas 1992, 45-46)
- the context-independent subject complement and the context-independent object complement supply description or characterization of the subject or object.
- a context-independent adverbial may perform the dynamic semantic function of expressing a setting or the dynamic semantic function of expressing a specification. The latter 'belongs to the core of the message by particularizing points in space and time,' 'or the manner in which the action is carried out' etc.(Firbas 1992, 52) There is a third dynamic semantic function of transition proper oriented (TrPro) elements—adverbials of indefinite time and sentence adverbs. (Cf. Firbas 1992, 77). What has to be taken into consideration as well is the position in the linear arrangement.
- a context-independent subject With verbs of existence/appearance on the scene, performing a presentation function, the subject expresses the phenomenon presented irrespective to sentence position:

He led me through a baize door into a dark corridor; I could dimly see a gilt cornice and vaulted plaster above; then, opening a heavy,

than the object Patient in the same clause because of sentence position.

An adverbial can take different positions in the sentence and according to the position it takes it can perform three different functions: that of a setting (Set), of specification (Sp) and transition proper oriented (TrPo) element.

Once rendered context-dependent, it serves as setting irrespective of sentence position.

The infinitive of purpose also changes its communicative status due to position,

He went to Prague to see the film.

To see the film, he went to Prague

as well as the adverbial of manner,

Nobody can touch him if he properly does his work.

Nobody can touch him if he does his work properly.

(Firbas 1992, 53)

A context-independent subject in English when used with verbs of existence/appearance on the scene may become semantically the most important element irrespective to sentence position.

Semantic and contextual factors are capable of working counter to linear modification. Sentence elements that convey retrievable information irrespective of sentence position and semantic content carry low degree of CD (Firbas 1992, 11)

2_1.3. CD—the concept of communicative dynamism

Linguistic communication is a dynamic phenomenon. The concept of communicative dynamism (CD)—first used by Firbas—is understood as a property of communication. The degree of CD carried by a linguistic element equals the relative extent to which the element contributes to the development of the communication. In a sentence one can observe a gamut of degrees of varying importance, of varying degrees of CD. Any element

that names, or refers to, some phenomenon of extra-linguistic reality (in the widest sense of the word) carries a certain amount of CD.

It has to be stressed here that CD is a concept belonging to the level of the organization of utterance, and must not be confused with the concepts of semantic information or even subjective information (Svoboda 1968, 93). The term CD is a more abstract term than contextual dependence, because it expresses the mutual relations of elements in the patterns mentioned above, and can be employed also in such utterance as are contextually quite independent, but follow one of the pattern of utterance organization. Similarly to the degree of contextual dependence, we can distinguish only relative amounts of CD carried by certain elements, i. e. we can only state whether a given element carries a higher or a lower amount of CD (whether it is more or less dynamic) than some other element or elements. (ibid., 54)

How sentence position contributes to the development of communication? According to Firbas (1992, 8) sentence linearity is involved in the development of communication but the actual linear arrangement of sentence elements is not always in perfect agreement with a gradual rise of CD. Final position is usually connected with the element towards which the communication is perceived. The final position is usually connected with two principles: that of end-weight and end-focus. In languages like English where order is grammatically fixed the perspective (the presentative or the quality/specification perspective—cf. previous chapter) may remain unaffected even though the end position may not be occupied by that element—*I saw her*. 'Her' is context dependent and even though it takes final position it does not present the aim of communication.

Nevertheless, there is evidence of a tendency to arrange the sentence elements in accordance with a gradual rise in CD—*At the beginning of his reign the young king ruled his country capriciously and despotically* (Firbas 1992, 69).

A basic distribution of degrees of CD, reflecting a gradual rise in CD, is according to Firbas (1992) not language specific. This is a very important point. It differs only to the extent to which it is implemented in a given language.

There are languages (e.g. Czech) in which the word order basically corresponds to the theme-rheme sequence as the FSP principle is the leading principle of word order. This is generally considered the *objective* word order.

The opposite is called *subjective* word order and is used as a means of stylistic marking, above all in expressive sentences.

3_2. Communicative constituent structure of the utterance

On this level we speak of the word order of the utterance. The constituent structure of the utterance, in other words, consists of communicative units (CUs) functioning in communicative or distributional fields.

3_2.1. The interrelation between the thematic (TS) and the rhematic section (RS)

The utterance represents a communicative field in which the clause elements carry different degrees of CD relative to each other.

On the functional level, the clause can be regarded as a field of relations, the results of a co-operation between the other two levels. This is necessitated by the very act of communication, the most important relation being here the interrelation between the thematic and the rhematic section. 'Hence the co-operation of the grammatical field displaying the relation of dependence with the semantic field displaying the relation of predication is the general precondition on the basis of which the communicative field displaying the interrelation between TS and RS comes into existence'.(Svoboda 1968, 55).

TS <=> RS

There are various thematizing and rhematizing words like personal pronouns (they tend to appear as thematic); words like

'only' and 'even' which rhematize. Generalisations of a different kind are applied here: we talk of personal pronouns as kind of NP, even we talk of individual words and their peculiarities of behaviour. The use of the article when it is influenced by contextual factors is also very important. The definite article is used more often than not to indicate that a NP is thematic, while the indefinite article under certain conditions is used to indicate that a NP is rhematic. What counts here is exactly what these conditions are because they have specific reference to the specific utterance. The various grammatical devices, such as certain constructions: It was ... that..., the there construction, play a part in that the factors for choosing one rather than the other may be dictated by contextual reasons (Firbas 1966, Bily 1981, 38).

3_2.2. Communicative units (CUs) and information structure

Just as we speak of grammatical units in a clause, so here we speak of communicative units (CUs) analogous to them.

Firbas differentiates three ranks of communicative units. The sentence structure provides a basic, or first-rank, distributional field and the clause/semiclause (a non-finite verb form together with the elements expanding it) occurring within it a second-rank distributional field. Nominal phrases etc. being themselves CUs within a subfield, represent a distributional field of third rank.

Peter/ decided/ to learn foreign languages.

CU CU CU

This sentence structure provides a distributional field with three CUs: the subject, the verb and the object. On the other hand 'to learn foreign languages' provides a distributional subfield the respective CUs being the non-finite verb 'to learn' and the object 'foreign languages'. The nominal phrase 'foreign languages' provides a subfield as well, its CUs being the headword 'languages' and the attribute 'foreign'. Being itself a CU within a subfield, it represents a distributional field of third rank. Let's look at the following example cf.

tigers climb trees

We can have different bracketings suggestive of different information structure:

What do tigers climb?

b) (*tigers climb*) + *trees*

What climbs trees? or

What do tigers do?

c) *tigers* + (*climb trees*)

What have you to tell me?

a) (*tigers*) + (*climb*) + (*trees*)

The last is more neutral than the other two.

(Halliday 1985, 27).

3_2.3. Communicative position

Just like we speak of grammatical position within the clause/sentence so we speak of communicative position analogous to it. By the latter we understand the position a CU takes in the communicative structure of the utterance.

CUs may occupy various positions in the thematic or the rhematic section of the communicative field. In defining communicative positions of CUs three basic kinds of means cooperate linear arrangement of elements (i.e. word order) being one of them: context, semantic structure and linear arrangement of elements.

At this point we don't mention intonation as still another means in that it will be taken up later on (cf. 3_5.2). The interrelation between them is the major concern of this chapter.

If not interfered with by other means, word order signals the so-called basic distribution of CD. There are cases in which linearity alone determines the degree of CD:

Mary kissed John.

John kissed Mary.

I went to Prague in order to meet him.

In order to meet him, I went to Prague. (Firbas 1992, 38)

3_2.4. Correspondence between the interpretative arrangement and the actual linear arrangement

The level of the organization of utterance is concerned with the interpretative arrangement of the CUs not with the actual linear arrangement of the clause elements. But what counts is how they correlate for the interpretative arrangement always finds an explicit way of rendering its message. Cf.

Th -> Tr -> Rh
John kissed Mary.

The example illustrates a perfect coincidence between the interpretative and the actual arrangement of the clause element – the TMEs of the verb 'kiss' serve as TrPr and the verb itself is transitional.

The interpretative arrangement, to be more precise, consists of:

- theme proper,
- transition proper (includes the temporal and modal exponents of the verb in their unmarked use–TMEs–Firbas (1968),
- transition (the least rhematic part of the rheme),
- other rhematic elements (if there are such) and
- the rheme proper:

John (Th) kissed (TrPr, Tr) Mary (RhPr).

Of these only the transition and the rheme proper are absolutely obligatory elements. To these correspond the basic SVOA word order with its versions and the obligatory elements discussed under the grammatical level in Part One.

Sometimes it is the word order which takes the upper hand and determines the organisation of utterance. Sometimes it is the context that carries the impact and sometimes the semantic means assert themselves. Whatever the decisive factor, they always co-

occur and either reinforce each other or work counter to each other.

Since word order in English is the grammatical and grammaticized SVO word order, it is interesting to find out to what extent it conforms with the requirements of FSP. Apart from that word order there is an order of CUs irrespective of the grammatical one which may work together with or contrary to it—the interpretative order.

3_3. Correspondence between syntactic fields (SFs) and communicative fields (CFs)—i.e. correspondence between syntactic fields (SFs) and communicative fields (CFs) on the one hand and syntactic units (SUs) and communicative units (CUs) on the other.

To answer these questions we accept Svoboda's (1968) findings:

–The SUs of subject, predicate (both verbal and nominal), the object, and the adverbial usually correspond to CUs. Subject, verb, object [...] head element, attributive element [...] serve as CUs (Firbas 1992, 17).

Table 1: CU: first-rank–clause

<i>Peter</i>	<i>/decided</i>	<i>/ to learn foreign languages.</i>
CU	CU	CU

Table 2: CU1: second-rank–VP (V+NP)

to learn	foreign languages
CU1/	CU1

Table 3: CU2: third-rank–NP(Ø+Adj+N)

<i>foreign</i>	<i>Languages</i>
CU2/	CU2

We can illustrate that in the following way:
Peter/decided/ to learn foreign languages.
 CU CU CU
 CU1(*to learn foreign languages*)
 CU2(*to learn*)CU2(*foreign*
 languages)

–The verb is considered to represent two CUs in FSP, one is its notional component and the other its categorial exponents. In English the nominal predicate containing some other verb than *to be* contains even three CUs corresponding to the SU of nominal predicate. Cf.

Her face was red.
 T Tr RPr
Her face turn -ed red
 T Tr TrPr RPr

A CU can carry more degrees of CD than one and in this respect be heterogeneous in regard to CD. Also a CU is always a carrier of CD, but a carrier of CD need not constitute a CU. A CU always has its form – TrPr in 'turned' is expressed by '-ed'.

But not every discernible semantic element has its special form – for example the semantic element of affirmation in '*He HAS done the right thing*' is expressed through the TMEs of the verb, it does not have a special form.

The CUs and the CD carriers in general are organized through syntax, which induces them to operate in hierarchically ranked distributional fields. (Firbas1992, 19).

–The exponents of person and number (PNEs) which form part of the predicate are also expressed in the SU of subject. In this way although representing two elements referring to one and the same phenomenon of the extra-linguistic reality, they represent only one CU.

The boy sings

vs

The boys sing.

–Carriers of certain amount of CD can be practically 'any element that names, or refers to, some phenomenon of the extra-linguistic reality (by which we understand all the things – in the widest sense of the word – about which communication is being made). Consequently, even a morpheme has to be considered a carrier of CD, and if necessary (if, for instance, a consistently detailed analysis is attempted for contrastive purposes) marked out as such' (ibid., 57). In the second instance level even only one semantic feature can be highlighted.

'Linguistic element' in the wide sense is used for a clause, a phrase, a word, a morpheme or even a submorphemic feature (e.g. the vowel alternation *sing, sang, sung*) and can become a carrier of CD on account of the meaning it conveys. Even a semantic feature without a formal implementation of its own is a meaningful linguistic element and is therefore to be regarded as a carrier of CD.

3_3.1. Marked vs unmarked word order

The answer to the question is not an easy one. It is closely connected with the type of grammatical organisation of a given language, i.e. whether it is with free or fixed or grammaticised word order. Now, the syntactic level consists of the three sublevels: the grammatical, the semantic and the FSP level.

According to Daneš (1972) the unmarkedness of the given variant or utterance would follow from the agreement (correspondence) of the actual sequence of the particular words in the utterance with the order of the respective elements in the underlying pattern (each of the sublevels having both an actual sequence and an underlying pattern), while the other variants would be experienced as marked in consequence of the disagreement of both orders. The Russian sentences:

1. *Rebjata kupalis.*

and

S-V-> B-Q-> Th-Rh

2. *Nastala vesna.*

V-S-> Pr-Pr-> Th-Rh

(see also Svensson 1986, 38-9)

have the respective grammatical structures: S->V; V->S. Both orders are neutral, unmarked. Both are based on one and the same underlying grammatical sentence pattern, As both possible orders lead (under certain circumstances) to an unmarked utterance, we must conclude that the order of elements in the underlying pattern is free (labile).

The situation with a grammaticalized or fixed order is different. Consider the configuration of the following utterances:

3. (*They fell and were scattered*)(Firbas 1992, 78)

S-V -> B-Q -> Th-Rh

4. (*A boy came into the room*)

S-V -> Ph-Pr -> Rh-Th

Both orders are neutral, unmarked, as far as position is concerned because the grammatical principle has not been violated. In English the explanation must be sought for on the semantic level—two semantic types of verbs. This observation is in conflict with that of Daneš (1972, 225) where he claims that when 'John' is rheme in the sentence, *John is writing to his father*, the utterance would be experienced as marked, with emphatic colouring. When talking of order of elements he considers the three syntactic sublevels. If in any one of them there is a difference in the actual sequence and the underlying pattern, then the utterance is marked. The three sublevels have to be kept apart for the purposes of syntactic analysis. The explanation of the above-mentioned shift must be sought for in the fact that the usual order of Th-Rh is inverted. In the written language there is no formal device to signal the shift in the contextual structure of the given sentence. It should be inferred from the consituation only. The spoken language employs for this purpose the sentence intonation. Marked word order implies the solution of a conflict between

levels. It involves the existence of a hierarchy of levels and of some specific linguistic devices.

a. hierarchy of different orders:

1. strong rule (grammaticalized order and fixed order)
2. weak rules (usual order),
3. free rules (labile order)

b. hierarchy of levels:

1. the Th–Rh (or FSP level)
2. the semantic level
3. the grammatical level.

The means for solving conflicts are:

- inversion in the case of weak rules;
- sentence intonation;
- particles, articles, lexical means, specific grammatical constructions;
- selection of a different pattern.

(Daneš 1972)

In English, the 'normal', unmarked word order is the grammatical and grammaticalized SVO word order and the expressively (pragmatically or thematically) marked word order is that differing from SVO.

Therefore, being a grammatical means of expressing the FSP in a way it conforms to the requirements of the FSP which boils down to the following: the most important comes at the end. The two principles of end-weight and end-focus are relevant at this point.

3_3.2. Neutral sentence/utterance

Daneš (1972, 216-232.) defines the order of elements as a linguistic device (and a very elementary and a primitive one) which operates on different linguistic levels and which will be employed for various intra-linguistic functions. The fixed order of elements belongs to the constituent or even distinctive features of

the SVO pattern, e.g. *John bought a book*. An element is determined by its syntactic function. The order is functional in cases where the opposition between two syntactic categories like subject/object is implemented (realized) by two different positions of the elements in the sentence and the order may be termed 'grammaticalized'. English is characterised as having a grammaticalized but not an entirely fixed word order.

In English the S–V order must be considered usual (neither grammaticalized nor fixed) allowing of the inversion in:

There+V–S inversion. Deviation from the usual order is permitted by the so called 'weak' rule and is associated with the feature of 'non-neutrality' or 'markedness' (Daneš 1972, 218).

The variations are motivated by their contextual (and situational) dependence and applicability. Even the neutral variant presupposes a certain context or a certain class of contexts. The known–new information links the utterance with the consituation.

The order of elements is governed by a set of different factors the Th–Rh (or FSP factor) being one of them.

When an utterance links up fully with the given context if valued from the point of view of the linguistic system it will be experienced as marked, otherwise it is not marked but normal.

A neutral sentence is such that no functional needs of the Th–Rh sequence leads to the change (inversion) of a usual order. It should be remembered that this is valid if the three levels (the syntactic, semantic and that of FSP) are in agreement and at least one pattern contains a bound element. In patterns, some of the elements (or all of them) may be positionally bound, by a strong or by a weak rule.

3_4. The Syntagmatic and the Paradigmatic Scale of CD

3_4.1. The Syntagmatic FSP Scale

The FSP theory is usually concerned with FSP syntax, i.e. the degrees of CD are 'measured' in CUs that occur simultaneously in a given utterance. These scales express syntagmatic relations irrespective to real position in the actual linear arrangement. This

is an illustration of non-sequential syntagmatic relations (Lyons 1968, 77) on the FSP level.

By way of illustration look at the simple example:

Dazzling white the picotees shone.

Dazzling white(Q, RhPr) the picotees(B,Th) shone(+,TrPr)
(Firbas 1992, 76)

On the semantic underlying level we have the elements (B–Q) which on the FSP level express the Th–Tr–Rh relation but with a certain reorganization in their sequence, viz. (Q, RhPr–B,Th–+,Tr) so that the elements from the semantic level come to play a pragmatic role and the semantic units combine with the communicative units in an unique way.

3_4.2. The Paradigmatic Scale of CD

By the paradigmatic scale of FSP is meant the comparison of potential CUs that could replace an actual instance of a CU in a given FSP structure (Firbas 1959).

There is a scale of inherent paradigmatic degrees of CD by NPs: The inherently most thematic NPs are personal pronouns, which usually do not convey more information than that the entity referred to by the pronoun is context-dependent (plus the information about genus and numerus).

Various 'epithets' are the next most thematic NPs. They signal context-dependence (as personal pronouns do) combined with extra information about the speaker's/writer's evaluation of the entity in question, or with a reminder about which class the entity belongs to.

Definite descriptions with common nouns come next, followed by proper names. Definite descriptions refer uniquely within one possible world, one universe of discourse. Proper names being rigid designators refer uniquely in all possible worlds and therefore carry an inherently still higher degree of CD than other definite descriptions since the former provide more information than the latter.

The NPs with the inherently highest degrees of CD, i.e. the inherently most rhematic NPs are non-definite descriptions which are not indefinite pronouns. When a 'new' entity is introduced into an utterance, it develops the message, it 'pushes the message forward', most. (Bily 1981, 46-7)

No matter how loaded a communicative unit can be it does not exceed in CD the more dynamic units.

3_5. Word order as expressive of perfect and non-perfect congruence with the communicative requirements

3_5.1. Word order as congruence with the communicative requirements

Here we are to discuss certain principles of word order:

3_5.1.a. Degrees of communicative dynamisms (CD)

One word order principle is when elements of an utterance follow each other according to the amount (degrees) of communicative dynamism they convey, starting with the lowest and gradually passing on to the highest (Firbas 1992).

There are languages like Czech which follow this principle in word order—i.e. the basic principle is the FSP principle. There is a good example in point in English about the presentation order which 'reflects linear modification and strengthens the perspective of the communication towards the context-independent subject, occurring in end position.'—*His answer was a disgrace; equally regrettable was his departure immediately afterwards* (Firbas 1992, 47).

The primary role of word order in English being to indicate grammatical relation and not to meet the requirements of the organization of utterance, how is it possible then that the subject very often expresses the theme in English? A very important point here is the fact that the SVO order serves to a very great extent the purposes of FSP. With the change of the basic word order the grammatical and semantic relations are distorted. Cf. *Mary John kissed*. There is something behind this 'normal' word order which facilitates this process.

The language has developed some devices for expressing a wider range of possibilities of semantic roles for the subject (Kovatcheva 1987, 67-89). The same is the case with Temporal, Locative and Spatial subjects (cf. Alexieva 1981, see also under semantic level–Part Two).

3_5.1.1.b. Theme(Th)–Rheme(Rh)

There is a second tendency which is universal and it is related to the way a speaker usually organizes his text in terms of theme-rheme sequences. One would first say what they are going to talk about (which is usually the knowledge presumed to be shared by both Speaker and Addressee), and then would offer the new information about it, whatever it may be. Languages enjoying a greater word order freedom can very easily secure initial position for the topic, irrespective of what its syntactic function is. [...] English, undeniably, is a subject-prominent language. But in my view the opposite tendency is very, very strong, namely, to begin the sentence with the topic, rendered however as the subject of the sentence. And it is this tendency that is responsible for the great ease with which almost anything can be selected as the subject of the sentence in English (Alexieva 1991, 93).

This very fact is connected with the easy change of status of linguistic expressions:

John opened the letter with a knife.

John used a knife to open the letter.

The instrumental expression is promoted to nuclear status by employing the transitive verb 'use' whose valency is such that it takes an Agent and an Instrument as its arguments. But the promotion from adjunct status of an expression referring to the instrument with which an action is performed (or more generally of an expression referring to one of the circumstances of the situation) to that of subject or complement in the sentence nucleus always constitutes a deviation from what is the most usual and the most neutral way of describing a situation (Lyons 1977, 497).

3_5.1.c. Nominalizations

Increasing nominalization processes (syntactic nominalization) are also markedly connected with the very structure of language which reflects on its functioning. The verbal idea can very easily be shifted onto the nominal component

In English distinction should be made between morphological and syntactic nominalizations which is not always immediately clear. The English suffix *-ing* can be involved in either type:

1.*This constant smoking of marijuana has to stop.*

In 1. '*smoking*' is clearly a morphological nominalization, as shown by the abnominal elements;

2.*Regularly smoking twenty cigarettes a day will ruin your health.*

In 2. '*smoking*' is clearly the head of a syntactic nominalization of a VP, as shown by the object NP and the adverbials

3.*Smoking is bad for you.*

In 3. '*smoking*' can be interpreted either way (Trask 1993).

To this can be added the growing analyticity of the English verb and a tendency of decreasing its semantic range (Molhova 1991).

3_5.1.d. Transformations in the communicative process: the subject-operator inversion, fronting, or giving end-weight to a long and complex subject.

Transformations also come into the picture to help word order play a part in the communication process. Being an analytical language English serves as a good basis for the development of transformational grammar. Even when the transformations are meaning-preserving the respective utterances are not interchangeable since their applicability to the consituation is

different. In Part Three we see permutations that are no longer dictated by grammatical reasons. They are discussed from the point of view of entirely different parameters.

Transformations employing subject-operator inversion, for example, are used as a concomitant factor when a negative element is fronted.

*Never have I seen her so beautiful.
Not a word did he say.*

Fronting here is dictated not by grammatical reasons/rules as was shown in the first section but for other reasons, Subject-operator as well as subject-verb inversion sometimes serve the purpose of giving end-focus to the subject

Down came the rain (in torrents).

or giving end-weight to a long and complex subject:

*Throwing the hammer here is champion William Anderson,
who, when he's not winning prizes, is a hard-working
shepherd in the Highlands of Scotland.*
(Leech and Svartvik 1975, 178).

Compare with the unmarked versions:

*I have never seen her so beautiful.
He did not say a word.
The rain came down (in torrents).*

3_5.1.e. Pragmatic restrictions: the presentational *there* construction

There are certain pragmatic restrictions in the employment of different constructions which also present an alternative to linear modification. On the sentential and suprasentential level of analysis pragmatic restrictions on the use of different

constructions come into play. As an example I will give the paradigm of the presentational *there*-construction (PTC) describing the same extralinguistic situation. Consider the following examples i), ii), iii), iv), v), vi), vii):

i) Adv.PI/Time + V + S
(Adv.)+*there*+Adv.(Pl./Time/Man.)+V+S-PTC (deictic)
PTC (non-deictic)
The Existential "There +Be"
Subject + Verb + X
It + be + Adv, Pl/Time + that + S + V (Alexieva 1988)

To be taken into consideration are the following parameters:

- the longer and heavier NP for subject
- the referentiality connected with the NP
- the CD of the NP in relation with the VP
- frequency of use

The most important restriction on the NP in the presentational *there*-construction (PTC) e.g. *Suddenly there burst into the room a tall, brawny mean-looking cop* is that it 'must convey more new content than the VP' (Lakoff 1984, 99 found in Alexieva 1988) i.e. the difference between the CD of the NP and the VP must be substantial. This is a pragmatic constraint taking into consideration the difference between the CD of the NP and the VP. Referentially, the constraint on the NP can be formulated as follows: The NP must be the surface structure exponent not only of an argument, but of a whole (at least one) predication (ibid., 13).

There are certain restrictions about the VP concerning its valency – it is mainly intransitive. As far as semantic structure is concerned – the simpler the verb and the smaller the package of

semantic features it has, the higher the probability of its appearance in a PTC. The function of the VP is 'either to predicate the entrance of the new element into the scene or to set a background against which a new element can be introduced' (ibid., 18). It has an extremely low frequency in English original texts.

ii) Adv.Pl/Time + V + S (=NP referring to Entity)

It belongs to the same paradigmatic axis only it is characterized by a higher frequency than the PTC in original English texts. An explanation for the latter tendency can be also looked for along the pragmatic axis. From a pragmatic point of view the double marking of (SPACE) ensures an emphasis on the 'there' of Entity's introduction into the narrative. Such a focusing cannot be employed too often and good writers make a very parsimonious use of it. The inversion of the S + V word order is caused by the initial position of the adverb, e.g.

On his palm rested a two carat diamond and a partial denture.

The deictic PTC also occurs with NP's /+DEFINITE/ i.e. it does not only introduce an Entity into the narrative, but it may also reintroduce an Entity that has been already mentioned, bringing to the Addressee's attention the entity's specific mode of existence/coming into being, etc., at a certain point (ibid., 23).

iii) (Adv.) + there + Adv. (Pl./Time/Man.) +V + S

– the more deictic type with a 'there' preceding the adverb with or without another initial adverb, e.g.

From down there somewhere ascended a faint sound of dance music. (ibid., 23)

ensuring the strongest emphasis on a particular point of the narrative's Space/Time. The PTC occupies a medium position. It ensures a more moderate emphasis than the deictic variant, but is much more cumbersome and heavier than the other two, which is another reason for its low frequency.

iv) The existential "*there +Be*"

This is still another construction describing the same situation as a, b, and c. but it has very high frequency in original English texts.

There are plenty of easily obtainable recipes for apple chutney, combined with various things, but mainly raisins, onions and perhaps tomatoes, too, along with the usual spices, vinegar and sugar;

(Hill, 165)

v) The cleft construction

Employing the cleft construction which operates counter to linear modification we can turn different elements of the sentence into RhPr. etc.

The boy met the girl in the cafe. ->

It was in the cafe that the boy met the girl.

It was the boy that met the girl in the cafe.

It was the girl that the boy met in the cafe.

vi) Combinations of transformations

Combining different transformations are also possible. For example, sometimes the *there*-construction can be combined with the passive in this way employing two transformation processes merged into one for the purposes of communication.

On the following day, there was held a splendid banquet.

Here the *there*-transformation together with the passive transformation are employed.

vii) Other means, besides word order, employed for organization of the utterance, e.g. lexical means, intonation etc. (cf. 3_3.1 Marked vs unmarked word order).

3_5.2. Word order can express non-perfect congruence with the communicative requirements

–Word order plays the primary role of indicating the grammatical relations; sometimes the grammatical devices act contrary to the requirements on the functional level. Neutral or unmarked word order is such word order that does not change the position of the elements in the underlying syntactic pattern even though the Th–Rh sequence may be inverse (cf. below the SVA constructions). As a result the interpretative arrangement does not coincide with the actual linear arrangement. The grammaticized order cannot be violated but still the communicative requirements are met due to the interplay of other factors than word order on the FSP level, viz. the indefinite article in combination with a verb of 'existence' or 'appearance on the scene' etc.

–The SVA constructions

A girl entered the room.

Rh Th

The subject is a word with an indefinite article. Statistical data show that such word order is not only possible, but rather frequent. Although the word order is objective, the information is perspectivized towards introducing a new Entity, though not invariably so, depending on concomitant factors. There are certain constraints though concerning this kind of sentence perspective and it is that the subject should be much shorter. So even when the subject expresses the Ph-function as well as being rhematic (RhPr) with a verb of appearance performing the Pr-function and accompanied by the Set-function it is the grammatical principle that asserts itself in this way (which is SVO etc.). The initial position of the rhematic subject in present-day English is in an unmarked position as far as position is concerned (it is in accord with the grammatical principle).

A boy entered the room.

This is because it is in agreement with the principle dominant in present-day English word order – the principle of grammatical

function (Firbas 1992, 131). English is a *subject-prominent* language, i.e. the tendency for the subject to take initial position is language-specific in that it is due to the severe word order restrictions.

–Intonation–in this case the IC is moved from the place of neutrality to a marked clause position (cf. 3_6 Word order and intonation).

–Openings with RhPr word orders are marked, e.g.
Never will I see you.

But this is not because of their rhematic opening, but because of their deviation from the grammatical principle: e.g. the finite verb occurring before the subject of a declarative sentence (Firbas 1992, 132). In these sentences the primary role of word order is not to indicate grammatical relations, but to organize the utterance in a certain way (Svoboda 1968, 53).

–Thematic elements due to their semantics may occur anywhere in the clause structure irrespective of sentence position. Consider the adduced example:

You brushed them off your frock as you talked.
(Firbas 1992, 76)

–Marked placement of an adverbial acts ontrary to the grammatical principle

But in vain do they worship me.
(Firbas 1992, 131)

In comparison with Old English, present-day English word order shows lesser flexibility, which reduces its applicability (Firbas 1992, 133). The lesser mobility of elements within a present-day English sentence limits the use of present-day English word order as a vehicle of emotion. The exact assessment of the

extent to which this observation applies must be left to further research (Firbas 1992, 134).

–The Presentation Scale (Set–Pr–Ph) on the basic instance level is often realised contrary to linear modification:

An accident occurred yesterday.

–The Quality Scale (Set–B–Q–Sp)
on the basic instance level

A boy made a mistake through inattentiveness yesterday. and

–The Quality Scale (Set–B–Q–Sp–FSp)
on the ordinary instance level

The boy made a mistake through inattentiveness yesterday.

realise different relations between the three sublevels of syntax. The difference concerns the CD relationship between the adverb 'yesterday' and the subject. 'Whereas on the basic instance level this adverb is exceeded in CD by the subject, on the ordinary instance level it is the other way round.' (cf. Firbas 1992, 138).

3_5.3. The phenomenon of potentiality

The phenomenon of potentiality is present when there is a possibility for word order to work according or contrary to the communicative requirements opening the possibility for different interpretation. This question is similar to that of grammatical ambiguity discussed not on the grammatical level but on the FSP level.

Realizing the Set, Pr, Ph and Sp functions, the sentence is then an implementation of the Combined Scale (Firbas 1992, 129). There is a possibility for the sentence to implement the Quality Scale in which case the subject will perform the B–function and

become thematic. The phenomenon of potentiality cannot be ruled out completely (ibid., 130). Cf.

It was in those days that John the Baptist began his mission
(Rieu).

*In those days John the Baptist came on the scene, preaching
in the desert of Judaea* (Moffatt).

(both examples found in Firbas 1992, 129)

3_6. Word order and intonation

Word order and intonation are in complementary distribution. The meaning is realized through phonology, rather than through syntax or semantics. The variable is position of the nucleus in a tone unit.

The two phenomena are independent. Intonation is yet another factor connected with the FSP means. The connection between intonation and word order is realised in different ways. In the spoken language, the interplay of FSP factors is joined by intonation (Firbas 1992, 41). Intonation as a means of FSP belongs to an entirely different linguistic level. This can be best demonstrated by the cleft sentence and the contrastive focus (capital letters express contrastive focus).

The boy met the girl in the cafe.

1. *It was in the cafe that the BOY met the girl.*

vs.

It was in the CAFÉ that the boy met the girl.

2. *It was the boy that MET the girl in the cafe.*

vs.

It was the BOY that met the girl in the cafe.

3. *It was the girl that the boy met in the CAFE.*

vs.

It was the GIRL that the boy met in the cafe.

There is no one-to-one correspondence between the focus of a cleft sentence and the contrastive focus of intonation in spite of their resemblance to one another (Leech 1981, 294). The cleft sentence is a syntactic device which enables to highlight different elements of the sentence thanks to the specific type of construction. Intonation does the same but it has much wider possibilities. In English there are no restrictions posed on the intonation centre as a marker of the focus of the utterance whatsoever.

Like most linguists we support the idea that at least some part of what is covered by the term 'prosodic' should be handled in describing the structure of clauses (Lyons 1977).

3_6.1. Correspondence between the gamut of CD and the gamut of prosodic weight.

The gamut of CD is constituted by theme proper, rest of theme, transition, transition proper, rest of transition, rheme excluding rheme proper, rheme proper. As to the gamut of prosodic weight, it is constituted by Gimson's four degrees of accentuation. The weakest degree is shown by unaccented syllables, which do not normally have pitch or other prominence. Prosodically heavier are syllables bearing secondary accent without pitch prominence. Still heavier are syllables bearing secondary (pitch prominent) accent, pitch prominence being achieved 'by means of a change of pitch level (higher or lower)'. Prosodically heaviest are syllables bearing primary (nuclear) accent. The four types of syllable are for short referred to as unstressed (and left unmarked), partially stressed (marked . or '), stressed (marked ' and ") and bearing a nucleus (marked `).

Prosodic features are also used to distinguish the stress-patterns and intonation-patterns associated with the utterance as a whole. E.g.

I've seen `her, not `him.

contains two heavily stressed forms, her and him. The same sentence may have superimposed upon it several different prosodic patterns.

Two or more prosodically distinct (and therefore non-ambiguous) utterances may be mapped on to what we will refer to a single sentence with two or more meanings.

Whether stress and intonation are more appropriately handled as part of the structure of sentences or as part of another layer of structure that is superimposed upon sentences in the course of their utterance – we need not go into this.

We accept that intonation is the outcome of the interplay of the non-prosodic means of FSP (Firbas 1992).

Focal items can be not only lexical items. Of the grammatical items, interrogatives and demonstratives [...] are frequently marked by non-nuclear or nuclear accents. Other grammatical items, e.g. personal pronouns, are rarely focal unless they are used contrastively.

Verbs require a special notice. The finite auxiliaries, or rather the 'operators' are typically used unstressed, but they may also bear accents, even nuclear accents. When they do so, it is usually not the grammatical function of the individual operator that is marked as focal, but rather the 'invisible' component that is common to the whole class, viz. the 'assertive' component of the operator.' (Taglicht 1982, 221).

*Is he going to write the letter?
He HAS written it already.*

The grammatical focus-bearers, like the lexical ones, may be syntactically complex and may enter into complicated relationships with the syntactic constituency structure.

*This book ought to be reprinted.
But it's BEEN reprinted.
(Taglicht 1982, 221)*

The perfect aspect component is focal (i.e. the apostrophe 's standing for *has* plus the past participle of the following verb (V_{PP} = BE): [*s* + V_{PP}]) but not the very verb *reprinted*. Nevertheless the nucleus falls on '*BEEN*'.

There is a neutral and a non-neutral position of the nucleus.

1. *He has SEEN her.*
2. *HE has seen her.*
3. *He has seen HER.*

For special contrastive emphasis, the nucleus can occur in an earlier position (e.g. 2.), or even a later position (e.g. 3.), as well as in its expected place (e.g. 1.) which is the neutral position.

In order for the message to be presented in an appropriate form, it has to be chopped up into 'chunks' so that each chunk has one information centre which we would not call 'new' information (Halliday 1967) nor should it be called context-independent although it may be something familiar but presented as context-independent (Firbas 1992). Neither information structure nor division into tone-units is determined by constituent structure.

3_6.2. Functions of intonation

Intonation in non-tonal languages makes pitch distinctions on the utterance level, not on the word (Couper-Kuhlen 1986, 118). It bears a close relationship on word order, still there is no perfect coincidence between syntactic units (SUs) and information units.

3_6.2.a. it marks different information structure

One of the functions of English intonation is to mark different information structure (see the example above: *He has seen her*). This type of example has been used to substantiate the claim that intonation choice (here, position of the nucleus) functions to signal the information structure of utterances. Not only changing the position of the nucleus but also placement of different tone unit boundaries contributes to information-related meaning.

[Mother] [does not drive a car in the evening].
[Mother does not drive a car in the evening].
[Mother] [does not drive a car] [in the evening] etc.

3_6.2.b. it marks different syntactic functions

Intonation can also have syntactic functions thus referring to relations obtaining between grammatical categories such as NP, VP, etc. Intonation is claimed to disambiguate what would otherwise be an ambiguous syntactic construction:

George has directions to follow.

in which 'direction to follow' can have the following interpretations in connection with the two intonations:

- 1) George has directions to FOLLow,
- 2) George has diRECtions to follow ->

- 1) 'directions that George must follow someone'
- 2) 'George must follow the directions'

3_6.2.c. it marks illocutionary functions

Intonation has also an illocutionary function in English. There is a connection between rising and falling tone and the sentence type.

He is a student.
He is a student?

3_6.2.d. it marks pragmatic functions

In relation with the pragmatic function of intonation Couper-Kuhlen (1986, 156) suggests 'a three-way distinction between intonational shape—rising or falling tone, etc.; grammatical form—declarative, interrogative, imperative, etc.; and pragmatic function—question, statement, command, etc. For example yes/no questions are pronounced with a rise, while *wh*-questions are pronounced with a fall in neutral intonation.

While there appears to be little relationship between choice of tone and grammatical form in this strict sense, on the other hand linguists have begun to suspect that there may be important correlations between intonational shape and pragmatic function.

3_6.2.e. intonation and word order

All these functions of intonation bear a close relation to word order. Although there is no strict correspondence between intonation and constituent structure, still there is a relation of coincidence between them.

Placement of tone unit boundaries also contributes to information-related meaning. Intonation can be viewed as connected with the idea of constituents. "The grouping of words into larger syntactic constituents is necessary for phonological, as well as syntactic and semantic reasons. The NP acts as a phonological unit, so that all the elements of a NP are normally pronounced as a whole, and parenthetical remarks and pauses for breath are typically injected not into the middle of the NP, but only at the beginning or the end.

a. *The purple book, Bill said, disturbed the funny cat.*

b. *The purple book disturbed the funny cat, Bill said.*

Again, the claim that the syntactic analysis of a sentence provides information necessary for the semantic and phonological rules is borne out (Wilson and Wilson 1979, 81).

3_6.2.f. Prosodic features are used to distinguish not only words and phrases but also clauses

(Lyons 1977)

3_6.2.f.1. Non-restrictive relative clauses are spoken with a separate intonation contour. They are marked off prosodically from the remainder of the sentence. In writing, non-restrictives are typically separated off from the remainder by commas (or stronger

punctuation, such as dashes or parentheses); punctuation is not a completely reliable guide, in that commas are sometimes omitted.

Mrs Green, /who called here last night,/left this message for you.

His brother,/who lives in Spain,/ has come back.

3_6.2.f.2. Restrictive relative clauses are prosodically bound to their antecedent.

brother who lives in Spain,/ has come back.

3_6.2.f.3. The following example is to be read as a whole, without an intonational break after 'relevant':

It is highly relevant that she is an atheist.

3_6.2.f.4. Propositions are assumed to have a binary immediate constituent structure (Radford 1988:510). The type of evidence in support of the binary analysis is phonological in nature. The major intonation break in sentences/clauses comes immediately after the NP subject.

*The man next door * may be moving house soon.*

The major internal tone-group boundary comes in the position marked by the asterisk; this position corresponds to the constituent break between the NP subject and the VP (*ibid.*, 511).

3_6.2.g.1. Coordination facts

Another piece of evidence comes from coordination facts.

I'm anxious for you [to enter the race]and [to win].(ibid.)

She likes tennis, / books, and movies/.

3_6.2.g.2. Likewise, Shared Constituent Coordination

Jean wants Paul—and Mary wants Jim—to end the race.
(ibid.)

CONCLUSION

The analysis of the structure and functioning of the English clause allows for certain generalizations.

The terms of Deep Structure (DS) and Surface Structure (SS) are used in a different way from that in generative-transformational grammar (TGG) in that they are viewed as a very useful and indispensable means of analyzing the grammatical level of the English clause especially in accounting for the similarities in form and differences in meaning and vice versa—similarities in meaning and differences in form—of syntactic structures.

Correspondence and non-correspondence between the two structures is dealt with. The surface expression has to do with constituent structure, illustrated in the discussion of examples and counterexamples (Part One, 1_1.7.). Constituent structure helps one in learning certain intricacies about English syntax and especially about the possibilities of moving words and phrases around (word order). It is a means of breaking down structure in order to learn more about the syntactic structure of the clause than any other means. Complex syntactic relations emerge behind superficial linearity and the hierarchical structure of the clause/phrase reveals depths of analysis (1_1.4.).

Subjectivity of analysis can be eliminated by applying certain criteria and subjecting the clause constituents to different tests (Part One, 1_1.2.).

Terminological problems have to be faced and dealt with. A definition of the clause is provided, finite and non-finite clauses (i.e. nexus constructions) are differentiated, a distinction is made between the terms like constituent and phrase and between different constituent types: continuous/ discontinuous; endocentric/exocentric; immediate, ultimate and intermediate constituents (1_1.3.). These provide the very basis of the analysis. When the need arises, a new term is coined—for example the term ‘referentiality’ as contrasted to reference (Part Two, 2_1.1.).

Clause structure dependency is analogous to phrase structure dependency although the different phrase types exhibit certain

peculiarities (Part One, 1_1.4./5.). Syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations are of paramount importance and essential when discussing elements of structure (they are however essential on every level of analysis). Complements and adjuncts form part of the most recent approach to the analysis of the phrase and clause. The importance of these two elements on phrase and clause level relates to a definite position in word order: first come the complements, then the adjuncts. The analogy made between the phrase and the clause is not perfect, because phrase premodifiers and postmodifiers are optional and their relative position is mainly potential. The structure of the noun phrase is given two parallel approaches: the Sequential View of NP structure is described along with the Hierarchical View, thus making clear the pros and cons of the respective type of analysis (ibid.).

In regard to word classes themselves, it is shown that the morphosyntactic properties they exhibit determine different potentialities of structures compounded by different potentialities of relation (Part One, 1_1.6.). A special focus is made on the different distribution of determiners and adjectives which brings out the fact that adjectives can be recursively inserted while determiners cannot; besides, they differ in word order. When they are used together with a noun, the determiner always has to precede the adjective, etc. Distributional abilities of word classes can be further peculiarized on the basis of different principles of coordination and subordination.

Since the grammatical level deals with grammatical relations at a high degree of abstraction (Part One, 1_1.8./9./10.), there are different ways of representing syntactic clause structure (1_1.11.). Identity of representation at some level of analysis, be that morphological or syntactic, involves the phenomenon called *ambiguity*, i.e. *structural ambiguity*. This is the point where the demarcation lines of clause structure get blurred and the possibility for different interpretations arise. We are here dealing with several different types of structural/grammatical ambiguity (Part One, 1_1.12.).

Transformations (Part One, 1_2.) are made the focus of research, but not in the sense of generating sentences from DS into SS as described in generative grammar (Chomsky). Here they are applied to real clauses and the distinction between kernel and non-kernel clauses, found superfluous by Chomsky and associates, is explored as a very suitable means for the purposes of the present research. Transformations are organized, depending on the kind of features they exhibit into several, more generalized types: clause transformation types, relativization (i.e. in relative clauses), transformations affecting no change in the grammatical function, or with a change in the grammatical function, ergative and middle structure transformations as well as a mixed lot of words with no fixed position in the clause. Much of Part One is directed to a discussion of different transformation possibilities of the English clause on the basis of two notions: *rearrangement* and *reordering*.

Part Two deals with the discussion of the semantic level and focuses on the new notions of referentiality, proposition and predication. Predications are also hierarchized. Semantic features are shown as indispensable in syntax under the grammatical level, but here, under the semantic level, they represent the components which combine to form *arguments* and *predicates*. Subcategorization phenomena represent the principal area in which syntax comes to deal with the properties of individual words. This is made clear with the valency of the verb by giving a kind of analysis in which the statement 'a verb takes a complement/object' is a gross approximation to the question since nouns too can be analysed in a similar way, as well as adjectives, for that matter.

The semantic level, like the other levels, is characterized by discrete units and our attempts in showing that reflect the fact that there is no direct correspondence of matching syntactic and semantic units (the syntax/semantics interface). Even when the levels coincide, the mappings are not always straightforward—the description of the semantic roles of the subject is used as a demonstration pointing that the syntactic category of subject in the case with Temporal, Locative, and Causative subjects does not

stand in one-to-one relation with any semantic category figuring in the semantic analysis of the clause. 'Zero' mappings are possible cases in which existence of elements on one level of organization have zero mapping on another (i.e. the empty subject, etc.).

Part Three is the chapter dealing with the level of organization of the Utterance and throws us directly into the pragmatic aspect of language. The theory of Functional Sentence Perspective (FSP–Firbas) is the proper way of linguistic description that enables us to gain insight into the nature of language based on Daneš's three-level approach to syntax. The basic notions of *actualization*, *contextualization* and *communicative dynamism* (CD) are explored. A distinction is made between utterance tokens and utterance types.

By considering the notion of *consituation* which combines the two: *context* and *situation* and its operation in language, the idea of radical change of the relative importance of a clause element is highlighted. With regard to its influence four types of sentence are distinguished: i) on the basic instance level, ii) the ordinary instance level, iii) the special instance level, and iv) the second instance level. Subjects, objects, subject complements, and object complements as well as adjuncts, when context-independent, act as such with the cooperation of the type of verb along with other language-specific means. Word order may or may not affect the distribution of CD. Clause elements beside context-independent can also be context-dependent. When context-dependent, they differ in degree of CD. The adverbials can perform three different functions: that of a setting, of specification, and of transition-proper oriented element. Once rendered context-dependent, they serve as setting, irrespective of their position. The role of the TMEs reflects the intricacy between the levels and poses one of the greatest problems of Bulgarian learners of English. That fact places the acquisition of the TMEs very high in the foreign language linguistics.

The interrelation between the grammatical field and the semantic field gives rise to the communicative field displaying the relation between Theme and Rheme. Numerous examples are

discussed to demonstrate the various aspects. At that point, the syntagmatic and the paradigmatic scale of CD are introduced into the description of the utterance.

Word order cooperates with the other means of FSP in various ways and the interpretation of its importance comes out as a result of this complex cooperation, not least important of which is *intonation*. In this way, intonation is usually analysed as an integral and essential part of the utterance on which further details are discussed and examples given.

In their entirety and interconnection, the deliberations and explorations dealt with here constitute a new approach to the topic. It should prove of interest both to theoreticians and language teachers and translators, and will hopefully stimulate further research into comparative studies of word order.

ABBREVIATIONS

S	–Sentence
	–Subject
V	–Verb
V _{tr}	–transitive verb
V _{intr}	–intransitive verb
V _{pass}	–passive verb form
O	–Object
O _i	–Indirect Object
O _d	–Direct Object
C	–Complement
C _s	–Complement to the Subject
C _o	–Complement to the Object
A	–Adverbial
A/Ag	–Agent
NP	–Noun Phrase
VP	–Verb Phrase
AdjP	–Adjective Phrase
AdvP	–Adverb Phrase
PP	–Prepositional Phrase
P	–Preposition
	–Predicate
	–Predication
a, b.	–Arguments
PN	–Predication
	–Proposition
N	–Simple Category
N'(N-bar)	–Intermediate Category
N''(N-double bar)	–Full Phrasal Category
M	–modifier
H	–head
Q	–quantifier
RRC	–restrictive relative construction
non-RRC	–non-restrictive relative construction
CC	–Content Clause
PTC	–Presentational There Construction

FSP	– <i>Functiona Sentence Perspective</i>
Th	– <i>Theme</i>
Rh	– <i>Rheme</i>
Tr	– <i>Transition</i>
TrP	– <i>Transition Proper</i>
TrPo	– <i>Transition Proper Oriented</i>
QFocA	– <i>Question Focus Anticipator</i>
NegFocA	– <i>Negative Focus Anticipator</i>
TMEs	– <i>Temporal and Modal Exponents</i>
CD	– <i>Communicative Dynamism</i>
CU	– <i>Communicative Unit</i>
SU	– <i>Syntactic Unit</i>
SF	– <i>Syntactic Field</i>
CF	– <i>Communicative Field</i>
Set	– <i>Setting</i>
Pr	– <i>Presentation</i>
Ph	– <i>Phenomenon</i>
B	– <i>Bearer</i>
Q	– <i>Qaulity</i>
Sp	– <i>Specification</i>
FSp	– <i>Further Specification</i>
AofQ	– <i>Ascription of Quality</i>

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