Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialized
Education of Republic of Uzbekistan

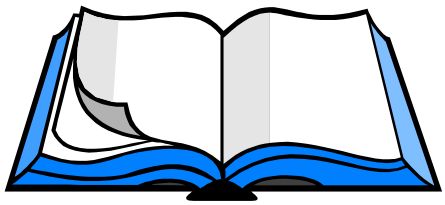
Andizhan State University
named after
Zahiriddin Muhammad Bobur
Department of English Grammar

G. M. Hoshimov

LECTURES ON THE THEORY OF MODERN ENGLISH GRAMMAR

(for the 3 rd course)

(SYNTAX, PART II)



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“Замонавий инглиз тили назарий грамматикаси” курсидан маъруза матнлари

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“**A language is a gem of which we cannot express the value"**

Alisher Navoi

“The central part of a language is its grammar and this should be of vital interest to any intelligent educated person”

Frank Palmer

“Care should be taken that he(the student) understands everything himself, but the teacher should assist him a little”

Akbar the Great

Plan of lectures on "Theoretical Grammar"

№	Themes to be studied	Hours for lectures
8	Part I. Introduction to Syntax. Minor and Major Syntax. Different approaches (structural, cognitive, semantic, etc. approaches) to Syntax. Main categories of Syntax: Phrase and Sentence. Part II. Phrase Theory: Definition. Phrase types and subtypes: Coordinate, Subordinate and Predicative Phrases , problem of mixed types of phrases	2
9	Sentence theory: Sentence types and subtypes. Simple Sentence and its (structural and semantic) types. types. Theory of Parts of the Sentence: principle, secondary parts of the sentence, problem of tertiary and loose parts	2
10	Composite(compound and complex) sentence theory. The problem of syndetic and asyndetic types of Composite Sentence. The disputable types of Composite Sentences (with a parenthetical (introductory clause or comment, and inserted) clause and a clause of proportion "the more…, the more… type)	2
11	Part I. Compound Sentence theory and its structural and semantic types. Part II Complex sentence theory and its structural and semantic types. Complex sentences with subject, object and predicative and attributive appositive clauses	2
12	Complex sentences with adverbial clauses of time and place, reason(cause), purpose condition, concession, manner, comparison result, degree and measure. Cleft sentences.	2
13	Taxemic and other approaches to the Composite sentences: collotaxeme, parataxeme, hypotaxeme, hypertaxeme (supertaxeme, architaxeme, ultrataxeme, binome, polynome, discourseme, cumuleme and occurseme)	2
14	Functional Sentence Perspective. Sentence Pragmatics. Discourse Analysis (Textics or textology). Punctuation in Modern English	2
		28

Lecture 8 (2 hours)

Theme: Introduction to syntax. Minor and major syntax. Different (structural, cognitive, semantic, etc.) Approaches to syntax. Main categories of syntax: phrase and sentence.

Part I

P L A N:

1)Syntax as a part of grammar. Minor and Major Syntax.
2)Different (structural, cognitive, semantic, etc.) approaches to Syntax.
3)Main categories of Syntax: Phrase and Sentence.
4)The subject matter of syntax and its object of linguistic analysis.
5)Basic units of syntax. Phraseme and sentenceme.
6)Notions of syntactical connections (relations) and function.
7)The main types of syntactic connections:
a) coordinate connection (coordination)
b) subordinate connection (subordination)
c) predicative connection (predication)
d) appositive connection (apposition)
8)Notions of deep and surface structure of sentence. Formal and semantic syntax. Categories of semantic syntax as manifestation or reflection of relations of the objective reality.
9)Phrase as a syntactical unit and its definition (phrases, word combinations, word groups).
10) Barkhudarov's theory of phrases in Modern English.
11) The three main types of phrases: distinguished by L.S.Barkhudarov
a) subordinate phrases
b) coordinate phrases
c) predicative phrases
12) L.Bloomfield's exocentric and endocentric phrases (coordinate and subordinate phrases)
13) The problem of mixed types of phrases.
14) Conclusion.
15) *Key words: Syntax, phrases and sentences, intermediate level between morphology and syntax, phrasematic level, word-groups, phrase,combination of words, word groups,word cluster, combination of words, syntactic group, "nexus",endocentric (containing a head-word or centre) and exocentric (i.e. non-headed) phrases, exocentric phrases, sentence, clause, utterance, phrase, nexus, sentenceme, breath group, phrase and a sentence as the basic units of the syntactic level,composite syntactical wholes (units) or" supraphrasal units, passages, text, "syntactical connections(relations)", "syntactical functions", "syntagmatic relations", "paradigmatic relations", types of syntactical connection:1) coordination (coordinate connection),2) subordination (subordinate connection);3) predication (predicative connection),4) apposition (appositive connection),deep" and "surface" structure of sentence*, subordinate phrase, coordinate phrases, predicative phrases
exocentric and endocentric phrases, mixed types of phrases.

The course of lecture

The term "syntax" is of greek origin, and it is derived from the greek term " syntaxis" which means «составление», linguistically it means a part of grammar studying phrases and sentences[1]. Accordingly syntax is a part of grammar of any language, which studies the structural and semantic features of phrases and sentences. So, syntax is treated in Modern Linguistics as a branch of grammar, which has its own basic units: phrases and sentences. Hence there are two levels of analysis. i.e. phrase level and sentence level.

In connection with the aforesaid the subject matter of syntax is a grammatical nature of phrase and sentence structure, where its object of analysis is concrete phrases and sentences of language[2].

Certain group of scholars think it advisable to distinguish two kinds of syntax: 1)minor syntax(of phrases), 2) major syntax(of sentences) and we share their approach.

Many scholars share the idea of two level (phrase and sentence level) analysis of syntax, where as some grammarians prefer one level analysis, that is of sentence as the basic unit of syntax[3].

An original viewpoint is expressed by M.Y.Bloch, who considers it advisable to distinguish an intermediate level between, morphology and syntax, that is a phrasematic level. So he thinks that the basic unit of syntax is sentence (utterance), where as phrase is the intermediate language unit, that has to be treated outside syntax[4] (See: М.Я.Блох. Теоретические основы грамматики. стр. 45).

The problem of phrase and sentence is not so happy one in Modern Linguistics, because there are so many definitions of the sentence given by various scholars.

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[1] See: Словарь иностранных слов. М., 1956, с.640

[2] В.В.Виноградов. Грамматика русского язы.а. М. 1980,).

[3] B.S.Khaimovich, B.I.Rogovskaya. A Course in Modern English Grammar, Kiev, 1976, p. 220).

[4] М.Я.Блох. Теоретические основы грамматики..М., стр. 45)

There are two opinions as to the nature of phrases that answer the question "what is phrase?"

The term "phrase" itself is not so happy either, because in French and as well as in European linguistic tradition it means, first of all, "sentence or utterance" on the one hand, and "word-groups or combinations, on the other[5]. (See: Bloomfield. Language. M. 1968. See; Гак. Теоретическая грамматика. Синтаксис. 1981)

There are so many other terms used to express "combination of words (- словосочетание - суз бирикмаси)" in English, for example,

1)"word group,
2)word cluster,
3)word combination,
4)combination of words,
5)syntactic group", etc.

The term "word group" we find in the works by H.Whitehall[6] and that of Henry Sweets'[7].

Junction(phrase) as apposed to "nexus"(sentence) (which is like drama or a process, dynamic) we find in O.Jespersen's works[8].

In E.Kruisinga's works one can come across the notion of "syntactic groups" in the sense of "word combinations"[9] .

The term "phrase" in the sense of "фраза" of the Russian language and "суз бирикмаси" of the Uzbek language we find in Bloomfield's work[10].

The term "phrase" is now widely used in Modern Linguistics to express the Russian term "словосочетание". It is accepted as a happy one by B.A. Ilyish, L.S.Barkhudarov, V.V.Burlakova and others in their grammatical manuals. We must also keep to this term "phrase" and principles of its usage as it is done in the Russian Linguistics.

If we speak of L.Bloomfield's theory of the endocentric (containing a head-word or centre) and exocentric (i.e. non-headed) phrases, it needs to be commented on. So, as to this scholar, the endocentric group has the same distribution as one of its members and the exocentric group has a distribution different from either of its members. In terms of substitution, the head word of the endocentric group functions in the same way as the whole phrase, where as the members of exocentric phrases cannot be used in the function of either of its members[11].

As to the notion "sentence" there is also no unity among linguists either. There are various terms used to cover the notion of the English"sentence " in the meaning of "гап" in Uzbek and "предложение" in Russian, for example: sentence, clause, utterance, phrase, nexus, sentenceme, breath group, etc. So, one can see the variety of approaches to the language units accordingly termed by them. Special mention deserve here the terms "sentence" and "clause". In modern linguistics the term "sentence" is used in the global sense and means any language phenomenon, that is complete in its meaning, structure and intonation. It may be simple and composite.

"Clause" is the term mostly used in the sense of components of composite sentence or of more complex sentences. The term "sentence" is used by such linguists as H.Sweet[12], E.Krusinga[13], C.Onoins'[14] G.O.Curme[15] (A Grammar of the English Language, volume p, pp.1-2, 5-15), A.H.Gardiner[16] , M.Bryant[17] (A Functional English Grammar, pp. 3-4, 177-122), A.H.Markward[18] (Introduction to the English Language, pp.142-147), Ch.Fries[19]), H.Whitehall[20], O.Tomas [21], W.Chafe[22], G.Lakoff[23] etc. Russian lingiusts also use the term "sentence" in the global sense of it (B.A.Iliysh, M.Y.Blokh, G.G.Pocheptsov[24]).

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[5] L. Bloomfield. Language. M., 1978,

[6] H.Whitehall[6] (Structural Essentials of English. p. 8-11, 17-18

[7] Henry Sweets' (A New English grammar. Part 1p. 16, 19, 32-35.

[8] O.Jespersen. Essentials of English Grammar, p. 91-95.

[9] E.Kruisinga. A.Handbook of Present-Day English, part 2, p. 177-196, 235-236.

[10] L.Bloomfield.Language, New York, 1935, p.194)

[11] …….. Readings in the theory of English Grammar, 1981, p.106.

[12] H.Sweet. A New English Grammar, part 1, p. 155-158).

, G.O.Curme· A Grammar of the English Language, volume p, pp.1-2, 5-15,

[13] E.Krusinga· A handbook of Present-Day English part 2, pp. 162-300,

[14] C.Onoins. An Advanced English Syntax, pp.6-9

[15]G.O.Curme[15] .A Grammar of the English Language, volume p, pp.1-2, 5-15,

[16] A.H.Gardiner[16]. The Theory of Speech and Language, pp.181-190

[17] M.Bryant[17]. A Functional English Grammar, pp. 3-4, 177-122,

[18] A.H.Markward[18]. Introduction to the English Language, pp.142-147

[19] Ch.Fries[19] (The Structure of English, pp.18-20)

[20] H.Whitehall[20] (Structural Essentials of English, pp.36-40),

[21] O.Tomas [21](Transformational Grammar and the Teacher of English, pp.29, 32-35)

[22] W.Chafe[22] (Meaning and Structure of English, p.95-103

[23] G.Lakoff[23] (On Generative Semantics, p.281)

[24] B.A.Iliysh, M.Y.Blokh, G.G.Pocheptsov[24]).

But R.Fowler's opinion is different from that of the linguists who use the term "clause". By clause he understands a "simple sentence"[25] .

Basing ourselves on the aforesaid, we may draw a conclusion that, the opinion about the phrase and sentence being the basic units of the language proves to be accepted by the majority of the linguists. By phrase then we must understand any combination of two or more independent parts of speech, which are obligatorily to be notional part of speech, presupposing each other both structurally and semantically.

By sentence we must understand a combination of a nominal part and verbal part between which we find grammatical predicative relations, or to be more exact, by sentence we understand a combination of a nominal part and verbal part between which we find the subject and predicate structure. How we must make difference between a sentence and a phrase clear.

We have defined a phrase and a sentence as the basic units of the syntactic level. The difference between them lies in the fact that a phrase is a nominative, naming unit like a word is. It is more close to a word, which has no intonation, no communicative peculiarity, where as a sentence is a communicative unit, with the specific intonation and complete meaning or semantics of its own.

For example:

1. Home, table, book are - words.
2. A large house, a writing table, a good book - phrases
3. I have a large house - sentence

The main difference lies also in the fact that a phrase(a nominative unit) is much smaller a unit than a sentence(which is a communicative unit and the former is used as a building material for the latter (sentence). Besides each unit has its peculiarities of both structural and semantic character, that is they are built according to the definite language patterns used specifically in speech.

The latest attempts to thoroughly learn syntax and its basic units have resulted in the establishment of such syntactical units which are larger than a sentence. What units are they? What is their language status? Such language facts as:" The man was ill. That's why he could not come to the meeting. But this caused all the same the indignancy of many of his colleagues" are typical of any language. Between the sentences included into this sequence we see close semantical or more exactly the logical ties, relations. So, they are semantically interlinked and independent sentences positioned in a certain order and distribution.

The linguists of the century are unanimous in their opinion that these syntactical phenomena have to be treated in syntax. Such language constructions have been termed by scholars as "composite syntactical wholes (units) or" supraphrasal units or even "passages" (абзацы), that have almost no clear cut definitions, hence there's no status of theirs as syntactic phenomena. The now linguistics has been calling them by the term "text" and the section of linguistics that studies it is called "Textics".

So, we may arrive at a conclusion that syntax is a part of grammar that studies the laws of the structural and semantic organization of phrases, sentences (simple and composite) and supraprasal units called "texts"[26]

Now we shall pass on to the discussion of the notions: "syntactical connections" and "syntactical fucntions". What is a syntactical connection? As to L.S.Barkhudarov by "syntactical connection (relation) we must understand syntagmatic relations between words or group of words"[27]. Since we have started here with the syntagmatic relations we have also to speak about the paradigmatic relations between the classes of language units of the same structural type united by common features:

a book - books

to write - writes, is writing, was writing, has written, has been writing, will write, will have been writing.

The relations between these forms of a language unit are known as paradigmatic ones. The syntagmatic relations are relations found between different language units in speech, for example:

1) between phonemes (a:) (s) (k) - ask
2) between morphemes un+happy
3) between words I, like, him - I like him
4) between phrases

Nick and I work at a plant.

I and Nick work at a plant.

5) between sentences

"I am a student", "but he is a worker" - I am a student, but he is a worker. This way paradigmatic relations are typical of language, where as syntagmatic ones are typical of speech, communication. So, by syntactical connection we

[25] R.Fowler. Sentence and Clause in English, Linguistics, N 14, 1965

[26] See: Л.С.Бархударов. Структура простого преложения современного английского языка, М., из-во «Высшая школа», 1968, p.p.140 - 141

[27] See: Л.С.Бархударов. Структура простого преложения современного английского языка, М., из-во «Высшая школа», 1968,p.p.30-31

understand such a connection between two words or group of words (or a word and group of words), which are the IC of one and the same larger IC when analysed as such (by the method of IC)

For example:

The old man saw a black dog.

Such syntactical connections are called by L.S.Barkhudarov as "direct" connection"[28] .

Now, let's treat the notion of "syntactical function". By syntactical function we understand such a direct syntactical connection due to which word or a group of words is introduced to a sentence.

I work here (analysis of it by functions). We must point out that various parts of speech or phrases and even sentences may be used in one and the same syntactical function.

For example:

The Book
It
Loving

(Subject) is good (predicate)

What he said

Following L.S.Barkhudarov we distinguish three main types of syntactical connection[29]:

1) coordination (coordinate connection)
2) subordination (subordinate connection)
3) predication (predicative connection)

1. By coordinate connection we understand such a type of a syntactical connection of words or group of words in which the syntactical function of the whole group corresponds to the syntactical function of each of its IC or vise versa.

I and Nick came.

I came. Nick came - Here we see equal syntactical parts of sentences or a phrase.

2. By subordinate connection we understand such a type of a syntactical connection of words or group of words, in which the syntactical function of the IC of it doesn't correspond to the syntactical functions of whole group:

A tall boy came

A boy came. But: A tall came - is impossible

Here we can see unequal parts of sentence or a phrase.

3. By predicative connection we understand such a type of a syntactical connection of words or group of words, in which the syntactical function of the whole group does not correspond to the syntactical function of each of its IC:

He came. He - subject, came – predicate.

The peculiarity of such a connection (predicative) lies in the fact that it can form a sentence, where as the coordinate and subordinate connections can form only phrases, and never sentences alone.

4. By appositive connection we understand such a type of a syntactical connection of words or group of words in which the syntactical function of one of the IC corresponds to that of the whole group. The difference between this type of connection and that of coordinate one lies in the absence of copulative ties (here we find asyndetic phrases) between the IC. This type of connection is called appositive because each IC denotes the objective reality (man or thing) expressed or manifested by the whole group.

Young man Edgar sat there.

Signer Karim is here.(or Karim the singer is here)

“Protessor Stevenson is lecturing”.

DEEP AND SURFACE STRUCTURE

Now, let's consider the notions of "deep" and "surface" structure of sentence. Sentences usually are treated from the point of view of structure or form and meaning (or semantics).

So, these two different approaches to a sentence have great importance in the treatment of a sentence as a basic unit of syntax.

In accordance with that it's advisable to speak of formal syntax and semantical syntax of a sentence. Formal syntax deals with the surface structure, that is the form of sentence, where as semantical syntax deals with the deep structure, that is semantics of it.

Lets take some examples:

[28] See :Л.С.Бархударов. Структура простого преложения современного английского языка, М., из-во «Высшая школа», 1968,р.р.31-32
[29]See: Л.С.Бархударов. Структура простого преложения современного английского языка, М., из-во «Высшая школа», 1968,р.р.34-35

1) the eggle swuiggs trazen woubly in the harlish hoop. (In this sentence we see only grammatical meanings, but no content, no logically well-grounded-semantics).

2)The little swine looked quickly around-correct.

3) Ivanov plays football - logically & structurally correct

4)Football plays Ivanov-illogic, incorrect, but formally correct

So, in the first and fourth examples the sentences have correct surface structure, but incorrect deep structures. In the second and third examples we have the correct sentences from the point of view of both the "deep" and "surface" structures.

So, when learning, or studying sentence we have to consider them from their both angles" deep and surface structures, and only sentences which are correct in their deep and surface structures have to be learned and treated. It must be kept in mind that language intercourse is held only by the help of such correct sentences.

So, a syntaxist must analyze sentence from both points of views or else his analysis will be a failure and incomplete. Surface structure of sentence has its categories and Deep structure has its own, because syntax of surface structure treats sentences from the point of view of structural features of it, where as the syntax of Deep Structure studies a sentence from the point of view of its meaning or semantics.

So, we structurally study simple and composite sentences, and semantically we treat declarative, interrogative and exclamatory and imperative sentences.

Methods of syntactical analysis.

In syntax one has to resort to various methods of linguistic analysis such as:

1) The Parts of Sentence Method,
2) The Immediate Constituents Method,
3) The Transformational Method,
4) The Distributional Method,
5) The Componential method
6) The Oppositional Method,
7) The Tagmemic method
8) The Contextual Method,
9) The Method Of Modeling,
10) The Statistical Method
11) The Inductive method
12) The Deductve method, etc.

We have briefly characterized the methods of grammatical analysis above at the second lecture on morphology devoted to the methods of linguistic analysis.

Here we'll draw our attention to the most frequently used methods of grammatical(syntactical) analysis, mainly to the ones mentioned above.

1. Parts of sentence method

This method is extensively used in syntax when parsing sentences (and phrases), according to which the following sentence parts are distinguished and analyzed:

a) the principle (primary, main) parts of a sentence (subject and predicate)

b) the secondary parts of sentence (object attribute and adverbial on modifiers Sometimes the parts of sentence method is helpless towards analysis of such disputable parts of the sentence as "from the people there came shouting of all sorts" for the part "From the people" can be analysis in three ways:

a) as an adverbial modifier complement

b) as an attributive complement (attribute)

c) as a predicative complement (object)

In such cases the distributional method is helpful in its own way:

2. Distributional method

The Distributional method is the one, according to which sentence structure is considered to be consisting of words, belonging to different parts of speech. For example, the sentence "The Old man saw a black dog there" is analyzed as follows by using the distributional model:

	I A	2-d	D3	I b 4
D 3	---	+		---------
	He	-		he/she/it

Here: D - means "noun determiner' - article

3 - means "adjective"

I - means noun in singular, in masculine gender

He

2-d

+ - Means verb in the form of Past Indefinite singular or plural

-

I

------ - Means noun in singular, in masculine gender

He/she/it (or in feminine or neutral)

4 - means "adverb"

"a" and "b" above "I" mean that nouns have different denotates (or referents) which name different subject or persons.

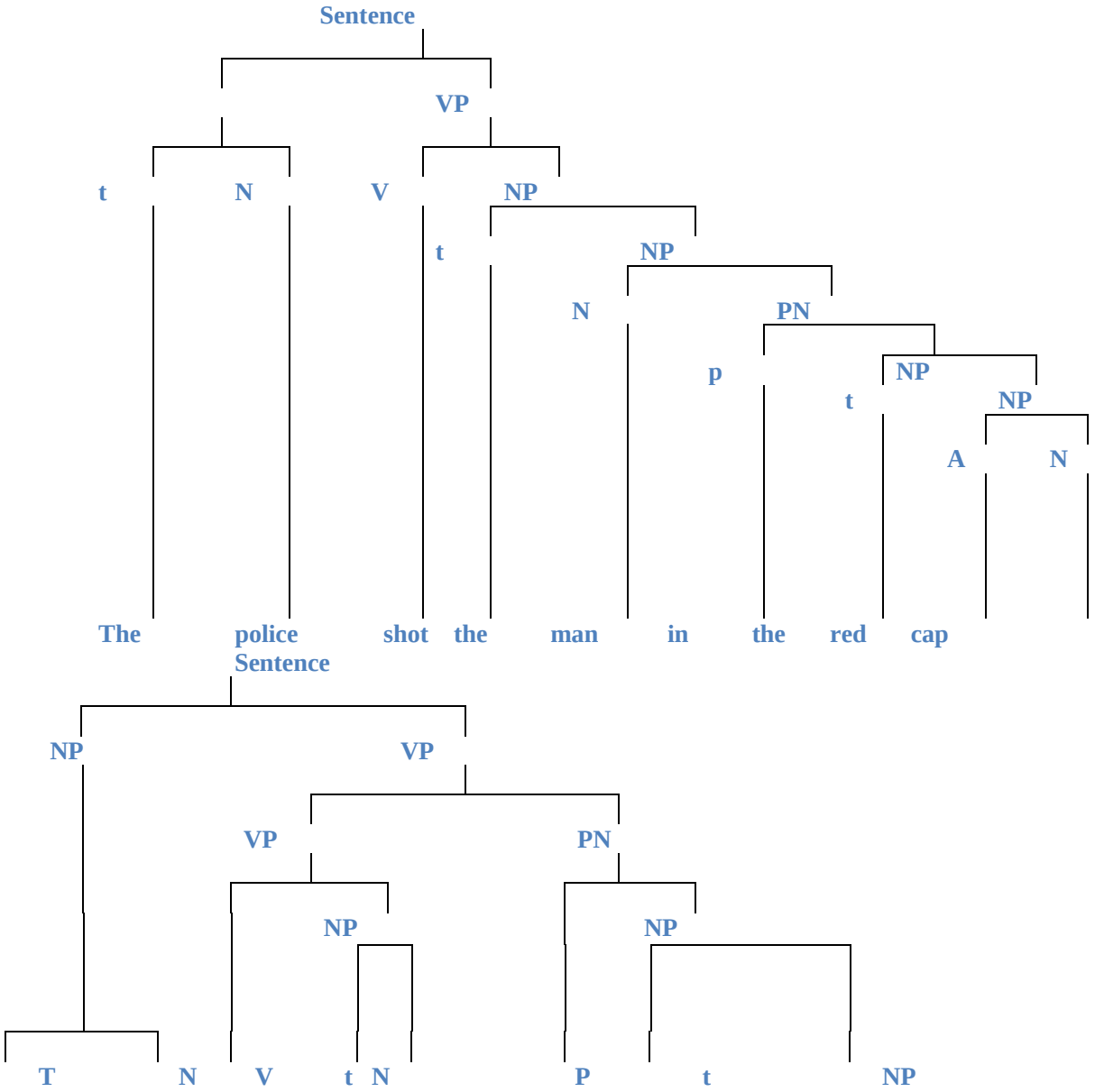
But when such sentences as:

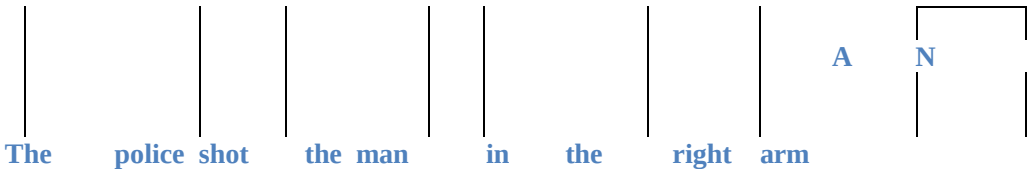
1. The police shot the man in the red cap
2. The police shot the man in the right arm are dealt with, they can not be analyzed by the very distributional method, for they are identical according to the latter, but in reality, we are, naturally, dealing with two different parts of the sentence: that is an attribute in the first sentence and an object in the second sentence.

Such disputable cases of analysis can't be solved by the distributional method and we have to apply the Immediate Constituents method.

3. Immediate Constituents Method

I.C. model is the leading model of analysis in the descriptive linguistics. It is based on not a linear succession of words in a sentence, but on the hierarchy of levels of sentence parts. Each time we distinguish a part of the sentence of maximum length on binary principle.





The IC model clearly shows the differences in the structure of the above sentences. Nevertheless there are some sentence structures, which the Immediate Constituents method is not able to analysis, and here it is necessary to use another model or method of grammatical analyses called transformational.

For example, the distributional method analyses the following sentences as identical, but in fact they are different structures, which can be proved by the transformational method.

1. John is eager to please
John is easy to please

4. The transformational method

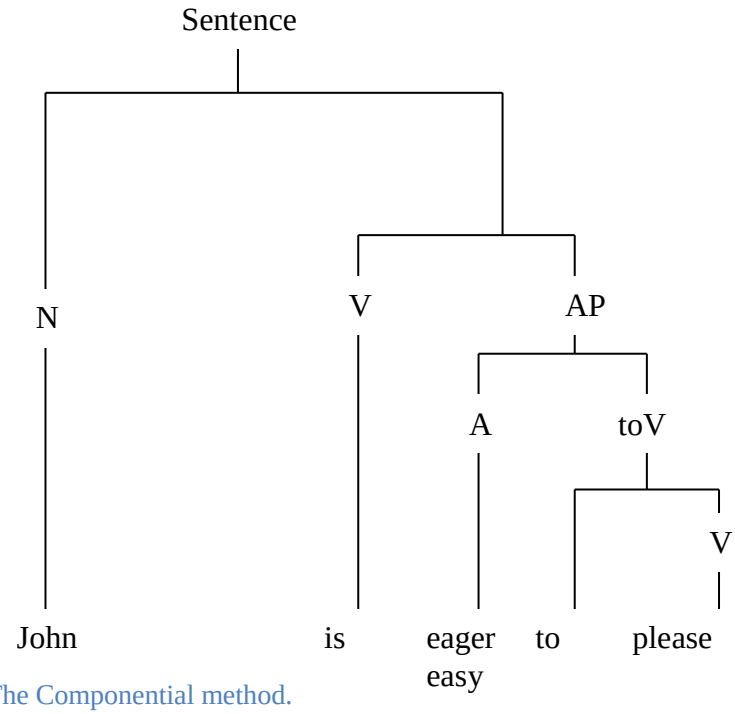
The transformational method is a method that helps linguist to analyse languages structures distinguishing what is kernel (initial) and what is derrivative (transformed).

So, the above two sentences may be well differentiated and identified as totally different structures:

1. John is eager to V ¦
John pleases X ¦--- John is eager to please (X)

2. It is easy ¦ It is easy (for X)
X pleases John ¦ to please John hence: John is easy
¦ to please

So, as is seen from the above described the transformational method analyses language structure in a system and not in isolation, which is the advantage of the former and is seen from the following model:



5. The Componential method.

The Componential method is a method by the help of which we analyze the semantic structures of language units by distinguishing s e m e s in the semantics of the former.

For example: to work - seme of indefiniteness of the action as to the moment ospeech to have worked - seme of completeness of the action as to the moment of speech.

6. The Contextual method.

The Contextual method is a method by the help of which one can analyze language units on the basis of a micro or macro context.

For example: We need hands.

In this sentence we have a polysemantic word "hand", which means “кўл (рука), иш кучи (рабочая сила) and соат стрелкаси (стрелки часов)”. If we want an exact translation of the word "hand", we must work with the context of it, which might be as follows:

1.We need hands, because my watch is out of order.

(соат стрелкалари)
2.We need hands, because we have to finish the work in time.
(иш кучи, кул - рабочая сила, рука)
By the help of the context of the word “hand” we were able to exactly translate it, without which we could have failed.

7. The Tagmemic method

The Tagmemic Method is a method like the IC. The founder of this model (method) is Pike K.L. (see his work "Tagmemes and Immediate Constituents": Language",vol,19, 1943,N2, p 65-82).
The model founded by Pike represents the structure of the sentence as a string (тизим) of tagmemes.

A Tagmeme is a bilaterial unit,"___" a functional slot with its class filler". This is symbolized as "slot"; class with the signs "-(+)" to indicate obligatory and optional tag-memes.
John saw Mary yesterday.

Cl:=+s:n+p:v+o:n+-T: adv (where: cl=clause, s-subject, p-predicate, o-oblect, t-ime, adv-adverbial, n=noun, v=verb, adv=adverb).

This model in fact is another variant of the I C model, differing from it (I C model) in two respects:1) the division of the sentence (clause) into constituents is not necessarily binary:2) all coustituents are given double labels:(functional as well as class names).

8. The Method of Opposition.

The method of opposition is a method by the help of which we analyse language units as to "markedness" and "non-markedness" of the former.
Opposition of language units are given below:
marked member: non-marked member:
boys - boy
boy - boy's
boys - boys'
do - is done

9. Method of modeling

By the method of modeling we learn and analyze the grammatical structures as to the models(which are abstractions from real structures) which makes the efforts of a learner less difficult than it is in analyzing the endless empiric language units, that is it minimizes them by patternizing the latter into abstract models so as to give them a complete list of their invariant forms which are generatable. This method can be used in the analysis of any grammeme(say parts of speech, phrases, sentences, etc). For instance: S+P is the most abstract model of a sentence (with a subject and predicate structure) which can be made a bit more concrete by adding the symbol “O”(object): S+P+O, etc.

10. Statistical method

Statistical method is one that analyses language units, including grammemes, by way of calculations in order to find out the frequency of their usage, that is to find out, for instance, what frequency this or that grammeme has in language as to its use in different functional styles of language.

11.The inductive method

The inductive method is one that demands that conclusions to certain analysis should strictly be made on the basis of concrete investigations of empiric materials which guarantees the authenticity of the postulates and summaries. That is a method of analysis based strictly on the inference of general laws from particular instances. Hence the inductive reasoning is based on the process of induction.

11.The Deductive method

The deductive method is one that presupposes that analyses of grammemes and conclusions to them are made on the basis of logical analyses rather than of empiric materials which guarantee the authenticity of the postulates and summaries. That is a method of analysis based strictly on the inference of particular instances from a general law. Hence deductive reasoning involves drawing conclusions logically from other things that are already known.
Answer the following questions:

1) What is Syntax?
2) What do you understand by Minor and Major Syntax?
3) What are the different approaches to Syntax?.
4) What are the main categories of Syntax: Phrase and Sentence.
5) What is the subject matter of syntax and its object of linguistic analysis.
6) Whar are the basic units of syntax?.
7) What is a phraseme as different from a phrase?
8) What is a sentenceme as different from a sentence?
9) What is a syntactical connection?
10) What is a syntactical function?.
11) What are the main types of syntactic connections?

a. What is a coordinate connection (coordination)?
b. What is a subordinate connection (subordination)?

c. What is a predicative connection (predication)?
d. What is a appositive connection (apposition)?
12) What do you know about the notions of deep and surface structure of sentence?. What is formal syntax? What is semantic syntax.
13) What is a phrase?
14) What do you know about Barkhudarov's theory of phrases in Modern English?.
15) What are the three main types of phrases distinguished by L.S.Barkhudarov?
16) What is a subordinate phrase?
17) What is a coordinate phrase?
18) What is a predicative phrase?
19) What do you know about L.Bloomfield's exocentric and endocentric phrases (coordinate and subordinate phrases)?
20) What main methods of grammatical analuysis do you know?
21) What is a Parts of Sentence Method?
22) What is an Immediate Constituents Method?
23) What is aTransformational Method?
24) What is a Distributional Method?
25) What is a Componential method?
26) What is a Oppositional Method?
27) What is a Tagmemic method?
28) What is a Contextual Method?
29) What is a Method Of Modeling?
30) What is a Statistical Method?
31) What is an Inductive method?
32) What is a Diductve method?

Part II

Phrase Theory: Definition. Phrase types and subtypes. Coordinate Subordinate, predicative phrases and problem of mixed types of phrases

Plan:

1. The two (phrase and sentence) level analysis of syntax.
2. The problem of definition of phrases and phrasemes.
3. The problem of types of phrases.
4. L.S.Barkhudarov's treatment of a phrase as a syntactical unit (coordinate phrases, subordinate phrases, predicative phrases)).
5. B.A.Ilyish's approach to phrases:

1) prepositional(out of, apart from, from behind, in respect to, in front of, on behalf of, with reference to, in accordance with)and
2) conjunctional phrases
in order that, notwithstanding that, as soon as, as long as, for the reason that, for the purpose that, provided that, etc.)

6. Types of phrases in Modern English.:

1)Phrase types proper:
   a) Coordinate phrases.
   b) Subordinate phrases.
   c) Predicative phrases.

2) "mixed types" of phrase(G.M.Hoshimov) along with the generally acknowledged three: coordinate, subordinate, predicative phrases distinguished by L.S. Barkhudarov:

1) Coordi-subordinate(mother and milky child, Jack and young Jill, etc.)
2) Subordi –coordinate(hurrying father and the cigarettes)
3) Coordi-predicative(brother and David waiting)
4) Subordi-predicative(young Richard dancing)
5) Predicative-coordinate(John's dancing and Nick's laughing)
6) Predicative-subordinate (Ann's visiting young Edgar)
7) Coordi-subordi-predicative(we, old Jack and Jill talking)
8) Subordi –coordi-predicative (little Allan and Steve sitting)
9) Predicative-coordi-subordinate(John's dancing and their dislike).

Key words: *subordinate phrase, noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrases, pronoun phrases ,numeral phrases, the predicative phrases : infinitival:objective phrase, subjective phrases, for-to-infinitive construction, gerundial, participial, objective participial construction, nominative absolute participial construction, absolute predicative constructions (with out not-finites), prepositional absolute participial construction., mixed types" of phrases(as to G.M.H): coordi-subordinate(mother and milky child, jack and young jill, etc.) subordi –coordinate(hurrying father and the cigarettes) (hurrying father and father hurrying are the same in meaning and thus may be considered by us "predicative*

phrases"like "I saw a hurrying father and i see a father hurrying"),coordi-predicative(brother and david waiting),subordi-predicative(young richard dancing),predicative-coordinate(john's dancing and nick's laughing),predicative-subordinate (Ann's visiting young edgar), coordi-subordi-predicative(we, jack and jill talking),subordi –coordi-predicative (little allan and steve sitting),predicative-coordi-subordinate(john's dancing and their dislike).

The course of the lecture:

1) Syntactical relations between the components of a phrase.
2) Government(бошкарув).
3) Agreement(мослашув).
4) Adjoining(битишув)(enclosure, Ilyish)

In giving a general preview of our subject above we pointed out that within the domain of syntax two levels should be distinguished: that of phrases and that of sentences. In giving characteristics of a part of speech we consistently kept apart the two layers in so far as they concern the syntactical functions of parts of speech — their ability to combine with other words into phrases, on the one hand, and their function in the sentence, on the other.

In starting now to analyse problems of syntax itself, we must first of all try to elucidate as far as possible the sphere belonging to each of the two levels. After that we will proceed to a systematic review of each level.

There are a number of opinions as to the nature and definition of the phrases depending on the two main criteria: 1) structural; 2) semantical.

According to B.A. Ilyish every (wise, logically compatible, structurally and semantically correct – H.G.M.) combination of two or more words which is a grammatical unit but is not an analytical form of some word (as, for instance, the perfect forms of verbs) will be termed a "phrase" . The constituent elements of a phrase may belong to any part of speech. For instance, they may both be nouns, or one of them may be an adjective and the other a noun, or again one of them may be a verb and the other a noun, or one may be a preposition and the other a noun; or there may be three of them, one being a preposition, the other a noun, and the third a preposition, etc.

Thus B.A.Ilyish adopts the widest possible definition of a phrase and he does not limit this notion by stipulating that a phrase must contain at least two notional words, as is done in a number of linguistic treatises[30].

As to the above mentioned scholar, the inconvenience of restricting the notion of phrase to those groups which contain at least two notional words is that, for example, the group "preposition + noun"(*at home, in hand, under study etc*.) remains outside the classification and is therefore neglected in grammatical theory.

B.A.Ilyish thinks that the difference between a phrase and a sentence is a fundamental one, for a phrase is a means of naming some phenomena or processes, just as a word is and each component of a phrase can undergo grammatical changes in accordance with grammatical categories represented in it, without destroying the identity of the phrase. For instance, as he thinks, in the phrase *write letters* the first component can change according to the verbal categories of tense, mood, etc., and the second component according to the category of number.

Thus, from B.A.Ilyish's point of view such combinations of words as *writes a letter, has written a letter, would have written letters*, etc., are grammatical modifications of one phrase.

With a sentence, things are entirely different. A sentence is a unit with every word having its definite form. A change in the form of one or more words would produce a new sentence.

It must also be borne in mind that a phrase as such has no intonation, just as a word has none. Intonation is one of the most important features of a sentence, which distinguish it from a phrase.

Last not least, it is necessary to dwell on one of the most difficult questions involved in the study of phrases: the grammatical aspect of that study as distinct from the lexicological one.

The difference should be basically this: grammar has to study the aspects of phrases which spring from the grammatical peculiarities of the words making up the phrase, and of the syntactical functions of the phrase as a whole, while lexicology has to deal with the lexical meaning(semantics) of the words and their semantic groupings.

Thus, for instance, from the grammatical point of view, as B.A.Ilyish rightly stresses, on the one hand, the two phrases *read letters* and *invite friends* are identical, since they are built on the same pattern "verb + noun indicating the object of the action". From the lexicological point of view, on the other hand, they are essentially different, as the verbs belong to totally different semantic spheres, and the nouns too; one of them denotes a material object, while the other denotes a human being. Thus, the basic difference between the grammatical and the lexicological approach to phrases appears to be clear. However, it is not always easy to draw this demarcation line while doing concrete research in this sphere.

It is to the phrase level that the syntactical notions of agreement (or concord) and government apply.

In studying phrases from a grammatical viewpoint we will divide them according to their function in the sentence into (1) those which perform the function of one or more parts of the sentence, for example, predicate, or predicate and object, or predicate and adverbial modifier, etc., and (2) those which do not perform any such function but whose function is equivalent to that of a preposition, or conjunction, and which are, in fact, to all intents and purposes equivalents of those parts of speech. The former of these two classes comprises the overwhelming majority of English phrases, but the latter is no less important from a general point of view.

[30] See, for instance, *Грамматика русского языка,* т. II, 1954, ч. 1, стр. 10.

The type "noun + noun" is a most usual type of phrase in Modern English. It must be divided into two subtypes, depending on the form of the first component, which may be in the common or in the genitive case[31].

The type "noun in the common case + noun" may be used to denote one idea as modified by another, in the widest sense. We find here a most varied choice of semantic spheres, such as *speech sound, silver watch, army unit,* which of course deserve detailed study from the lexicological viewpoint. We may only note that the first component may be a proper name as well, as in the phrases *a Beethoven symphony* or *London Bridge.*

The type "noun in the genitive case + noun" has a more restricted meaning and use, which we need not go into here,, as we have discussed the meaning of the form in *-'s* at some length in the Chapter of the nouns.

Another very common type is "adjective + noun", which is used to express all possible kinds of things with their properties.

The type "verb + noun" may correspond to two different types of relation between an action and a thing. In the vast majority of cases the noun denotes an object of the action expressed by the verb, but in a certain number of phrases it denotes a measure, rather than , the object, of the action. This may be seen in such phrases as, *walk a mile, sleep an hour, wait a minute,* etc. It is only the meaning of the verb and that of the noun which enable the hearer or reader to understand the relation correctly. The meaning of the verb distinguishes, for instance, the phrase *wait an hour* from the phrase *appoint an hour*, and shows the relations in the two phrases to be basically different.

B.A.Ilyish thinks that in a similar way other types of phrases should be set down and analyzed. Among them will be the types, "verb + adverb", "adverb + adjective", "adverb + adverb", "noun + preposition + noun", "adjective + preposition + noun", "verb + preposition + noun", etc.

As B. A. Ilyish rightly points out, an important question arises concerning the pattern "noun + verb". In the linguistic theory different opinions have been put forward on this issue. One view is that the phrase type "noun + verb" (which is sometimes called "predicative phrase") exists and ought to be studied just like any other phrase type such as we have enumerated above.[32]

The other view is that no such type as "noun + verb" exists, as the combination "noun + verb" constitutes a sentence rather than a phrase.[33] This objection, however, is not convincing, because we have such phrases as" Jack coming, Ann dance, the teacher speak, etc. which are well-known as predicative phrases in Modern English.

According to B.A.Ilyish, if we take the combination "noun + verb" as a sentence, which is sometimes possible, we are analyzing it on a different level, namely, on sentence level, and what we can discover on sentence level cannot affect analysis on phrase level, or indeed take its place.

Besides, the above mentioned scholar thinks that there is another point to be noted here. If we take, for instance, the group *a man writes* on the phrase level, this means that each of the components can be changed in accordance with its paradigm in any way so long as the connection with the other component does not prevent this. In the given case, the first component, *man,* can be changed according to number, that is, it can appear in the plural form, and the second component, *writes,* can be changed according to the verbal categories of aspect, tense, correlation, and mood (change of person is impossible due to the first component, change of number is predetermined by the number of the first component, and change of voice is made impossible by its meaning). Thus, the groups, *a man writes, men write, a man wrote, men are writing, men have written, a man would have been writing,* etc., are all variants of the same phrase, just as *man* and *men* are forms of the same noun, while *writes, wrote, has written,* etc. are forms of the same verb. It is also important to note that a phrase as such has no intonation of its own, no more than a word as such has one. On the sentence level things are different. *A man writes,* even if we could take it as a sentence at all, which is not certain, is not the same sentence as *Men have been writing,* but a different sentence[34].

Our treatment the of syntactical units like *" a man writes"*type in such cases is different from that of B.A. Ilyish's, for we we are inclined to treat them as sentences and not phrases at all , because the very phrase has a grammatical "subject-predicate structure" which undoubtedly makes anyone accept it as a normal sentence, whereas the phrase as such , if ever it existed, would not ever have such a structure.

This example is sufficient to show the difference between a phrase of the pattern "noun + verb" and a sentence. The existence of phrases of this type is therefore certain. The phrase pattern "noun + verb" has very ample possibilities of expressing actions as performed by any kind of subject, whether living, material, or abstract.

Besides phrase patterns consisting of two notional words with or without a preposition between them, there are also phrases consisting of a preposition and another word, mainly a noun. Thus, such groups as *in the street, at the station, at noon, after midnight, in time, by heart,* etc. are prepositional phrases performing some function or other in a sentence.

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[31] We will use these terms here in the traditional way. On the problems concerning them, see above, p. 44

[2] See, for instance, В. П. Сухотин, *Проблема словосочетания в современном русском языке.* Вопросы синтаксиса современного русского языка стр. 127—182.

1 B.A.Ilyish. The Structure of Modern English. M., L., 1965. p.180-181

[2] See В. В. Виноградов, *Понятие синтагмы в синтаксисе русского языка.* Вопросы синтаксиса современного русского языка, стр. 183—256.

[34] See: The Structure of Modern English, M., - L., 1965, p. 180

Some of these phrases are phraseological units (e. g. *in time, by heart),* but this is a lexicological observation which is irrelevant from the grammatical viewpoint.

Phrases consisting of two components may be enlarged by addition of a third component, and so forth, for instance the phrase pattern "adjective + noun" *(high houses)* may be enlarged by the addition of an adjective in front, so that the type "adjective + adjective + noun" arises *(new high houses, or new high modern houses, or new high fashionable modern houses, etc.).* This, in its turn, may be further enlarged by more additions. The limit of the possible growth of a phrase is hard to define, and we will not inquire into this subject any further.

Syntactical relations between the components of a phrase. The syntactical relations between the components of a phrase fall under three main heads: (1) agreement or concord (мослашув); (2) government (бошкарув); 3) or " enclosure" as it is called , though not so properly, by B.A.Ilyish[35].

Here the term "enclosure" does not fit all the peculiarities of the syntactical features of the Russian "примыкание" which the scholar pushes off. So we prefer to use the term "adjoining or adjoining(or adjoinment – примыкание -битишув)" (by analogy of the first two syntactical relations mentioned above).

Agreement. By agreement we mean a method of expressing a syntactical relationship, which consists in making the subordinate word take a form similar to that of the word to which it is subordinate. In Modern English this can refer only to the category of number: a subordinate word agrees in number with its head word if it has different number forms at all.[36] This is practically found in two words only, the pronouns *this* and *that,* which agree in number with their head word. Since no other word, to whatever part of speech it may belong, agrees in number with its head word, these two pronouns stand quite apart in the Modern English syntactical system.

As to the problem of agreement of the verb with the noun or pronoun denoting the subject of the action *(a child plays, children play),* this is a controversial problem. Usually it is treated as agreement of the predicate with the subject, that is, as a phenomenon of sentence structure. However, if we assume (as we have done) that agreement and government belong to the phrase level, rather than to the sentence level, and that phrases of the pattern "noun + verb" do exist, we have to treat this problem in this chapter devoted to phrases.

The controversy is this. Does the verb stand, say, in the plural number because the noun denoting the subject of the action is plural, so that the verb is in the full sense of the word subordinate to the noun? Or does the verb, in its own right, express by its category of number the singularity or plurality of the doer (or doers) of the action some phenomena in Modern English which would seem to how that the verb does not always follow the noun in the category of number. Such examples as, *My family are early risers,* on the one hand, and *The United Nations is an international organization,* on the other, prove that the verb can be independent of the noun in this respect: though the noun is in the singular, the verb may be in the plural, if the doer is understood to be plural; though the noun is plural, the verb may be singular if the doer is understood to be singular. Examples of such usage are arguments in favour of the view that there is no agreement in number of the verb with the noun expressing the doer of the action.

The fact that sentences like *My family is small,* and *My family are early risers* exist side by side proves that there is no agreement of the verb with the noun in either case: the verb shows whether the subject of the action is to be thought of as singular or plural, no matter what the category of number in the noun may be.

Thus, the sphere of agreement in Modern English is extremely small: it is restricted to two pronouns — *this* and *that,* which agree with their head word in number when they are used in front of it as the first components of a phrase of which the noun is the centre.

Government. By government we understand the use of a certain form of the subordinate word required by its head word, but not coinciding with the form of the head word itself — that is the difference between agreement and government.

The role of government in Modern English is almost as insignificant as that of agreement. We do not find in English any verbs, or nouns, or adjectives, requiring the subordinate noun to be in one case rather than in another. Nor do we find prepositions requiring anything of the kind.

The only thing that may be termed government in Modern English is the use of the objective case of personal pronouns and of the pronoun *who* when they are subordinate to a verb or follow a preposition. Thus, for instance, the forms *me, him, her, us, them,* are required if the pronoun follows a verb (e. g. *find* or *invite)* or any preposition whatever. Even this type of government is, however, made somewhat doubtful by the rising tendency, mentioned above , to use the forms me, *him,* etc., outside their original sphere as forms of the objective case. The notion of government has also become doubtful as applied to the form *whom,* which is rather often superseded by the form *who* in such sentences as, *Who(m) did you see?.*

As to nouns, the notion of government may be said to have become quite uncertain in present-day English. Even if we stick to the view that *father* and *father's* are forms of the common and the genitive case, respectively, we could not

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1 B.A.Ilyish. The Structure of Modern English. M., L., 1965. p.180-181

2 In some other languages, such as Russian, there is also agreement in case and gender

3 This question was raised with reference to Indo-European languages in general by A. Meillet in his book *Introduction a l'etude comparative des langues indoeuropeennes, 6 eme ed., 1924, p.323,* and with reference to the Russian language by A.M. Peshkovsky(see А.М.ПешковскийЮ Русская грамматика в научном освещении, изд. 7-е, 1956, стр. 183 сл.)

assert that a preposition always requires the form of the common case. For instance, the preposition *at* can be combined with both case forms: compare / *looked at my father* and / *spent the summer at my father's,* or, with the preposition *to: I wrote to the chemist,* and / *went to the chemist's,* etc. It seems to follow that the notion of government does not apply to forms of nouns.

Adjoining. In Russian linguistic theory, there is a third way of expressing syntactical relations between components of a phrase, which is termed примыкание. No exact definition of this notion is given: its characteristic feature is usually described in a negative way, as absence both of agreement and of government. The most usual example of this type of connection is the relation between an adverb and its head word, whether this is an adjective or a verb (or another adverb, for that matter). An adverb is subordinate to its head word, without either agreeing with or being governed by it. This negative characteristic cannot, however, be said to be sufficient as a definition of a concrete syntactical means of expression. It is evident that the subject requires some more exact investigation. For instance, if we take such a simple case as the sentence, ... *lashes of rain striped the great windows almost horizontally* and inquire what it is that shows the adverb *horizontally* to be subordinate to the verb *striped,* we shall have to conclude that this is achieved by a certain combination of factors, some of which are grammatical, while others are not. The grammatical factor is the fact that an adverb can be subordinate to a verb. That, however, is not sufficient in a number of cases. There may be several verbs in the sentence, and the question has to be answered, how does the reader (or hearer) know to which of them the adverb is actually subordinated. Here a lexicological factor intervenes: the adverb must be semantically compatible with its head word. Examples may be found where the connection between an adverb and its head word is preserved even at a considerable distance, owing to the grammatical and semantic compatibility of the adverb. Compare, for instance, the following sentences: *Nobly, nobly Cape Saint Vincent to the North-West died away. Swiftly he thought of the different things she had told him.*

An adverb can only be connected with its head word in this manner, since it has no grammatical categories which would allow it to agree with another word or to be governed by it. With other parts of speech things stand differently in different languages. In inflected languages an' adjective will agree with its head word, and even in French and Italian, though they are analytical languages, adjectives agree with their head words both in number and gender. In Modern English no agreement is possible. The same can be said about many other types of phrases.

However, there is another means of expressing syntactical connection which plays a significant part in Modern English. It may be called "enclosure" (Russian замыкание – we are inclined to call it “adjoining” or “adjoinment”) and its essence is this. Some element of a phrase is, as it were, enclosed between two parts of another element. The most widely known case of "enclosure" is the putting of a word between an article and the noun to which the article belongs. Any word or phrase thus enclosed is shown to be an attribute to the noun. As is well known, many other words than adjectives and nouns can be found in that position, and many phrases, too. It seems unnecessary to give examples of adjectives and nouns in that position, as they are familiar to everybody. However, examples of other parts of speech, and also of phrases enclosed will not be out of place here. *The then government* — here the adverb *then,* being enclosed between the article and the noun it belongs to, is in this way shown to be an attribute to the noun.[37]

In the phrase *an on-the-spot investigation* the phrase *on-the-spot* is enclosed between the article and the noun to which the article belongs, and this characterizes the syntactic connections of the phrase.

The unity of a phrase is quite clear if the phrase as a whole is modified by an adverb. It is a rather common phenomenon for an adverb to modify a phrase, usually one consisting of a preposition and a noun (with possible words serving as attributes to the noun). Here, first, is an example where the phrase so modified is a phraseological unit: ... *that little thimbleful of brandy ... went sorely against the grain with her.* The adverb *sorely* cannot possibly be said to modify the preposition *against* alone. So it is bound to belong to the phrase *against the grain* as a whole.

An adverb modifying a prepositional phrase is also found in the following example: *The funeral was well under way.* The adverb *well* can only modify the phrase *under way,* as a phrase *well under* is unthinkable. This is possible because the phrase *under way,* which is a phraseological unit, has much the same meaning as *going on, developing,* etc.

A phrase may also be modified by a pronoun (it should be noted, though, that in our example the whole phrase, including the pronoun, is a phraseological unit): *Every now and again she would stop and move her mouth as though to speak, but nothing was said.*

It is clear that a phrase *every now* would not be possible. A similar case is the following: *Every three or four months Mr Bodiham preached a sermon on the subject.* It is quite evident that the whole phrase *three or four months* is here modified by the pronoun *every.* This may be to some extent connected with the tendency to take phrases consisting of a numeral and a noun in the plural indicating some measure of time or space as denoting a higher unit.

The phrase "noun + *after* + the same noun" may be a syntactic unit introduced as a whole by a preposition, thus:

Her father owned a drug-store, even though in letter after letter Eve Grayson had urged and begged her to come to New Orleans .....

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[37] Another view is that *then* is an adjective here.

That the preposition *in* introduces the whole phrase *letter after letter* is evident from the fact that it would not be possible to use the noun *letter* (alone) after the preposition without either an article or some other determinative, such as, for example, *her.*

In the following example the preposition *with* introduces, not a noun, but a phrase consisting of a noun, a preposition *(upon)* and the same noun repeated. ……*The walls were filled with row upon row of those thick, heavy theological works(which the second-hand booksellers generally sell by weight).*

That the preposition *with* introduces the phrase *row upon row* rather than the noun *row* alone, is evident from the fact that it would not be possible to say ... *filled with row of those ... works* ... The noun *row* could not be used without the article, to say nothing of the fact that one row of books was not enough to fill the walls of a room.

Sometimes a phrase of the pattern "adverb + preposition + noun" may be introduced by another preposition. Compare this sentence from Prof. D. Jones's Preface to his "English Pronouncing Dictionary":

I am particularly indebted to Mr P. A. D. MacCarthy, who supplied me with upwards of 500 notes and suggestions.

The phrase *upwards of 500 notes and suggestions* means the same as *more than 500 notes and suggestions,* and this may explain its use after the preposition *with.* But the fact remains that a preposition *(with)* is immediately followed by a prepositional phrase *(upwards of).*

Phrases equivalent to prepositions and conjunctions. In the phrase theory it is important to discuss such formations as *apart from, with reference to, as soon as, so long as,* etc., which, as B.A Ilyish thinks, quite obviously are phrases rather than words, and which quite definitely perform the same function in a sentence as prepositions and conjunctions respectively.

The treatment of these units in grammatical theory has been vague and often contradictory. Most usually they are treated as prepositions or conjunctions of a special type, variously described as compound, analytical, etc. This view ignores the basic difference between a word and a phrase and is therefore unacceptable. We will stick to the principle that a phrase (as different from a word) cannot be a part of speech and that phrases should be studied in Syntax.

An obstacle to this treatment, as to B.A.Ilyish, was the view that a phrase must include at least two notional words. As this very limitation has rightly been rejected by the scholar, one can include under phrases any groups, whether consisting of a form word and a notional word, or of two form words, etc.

Among phrases equivalent to prepositions one can note the pattern "adverb + preposition", represented, for instance, by *out of, apart from, down to,* as in the sentences, "/ *love you so," she answered, "but apart from that, you were right." As the cool of the evening now came on, Lester proposed to Aram to enjoy it without, previous to returning to the parlour. All within was the same, down to the sea-weed in the blue mug in my bedroom.*

The phrases equivalent to prepositions (we may accept the term "prepositional phrases") perform the very functions that are typical of prepositions, and some of them have synonyms among prepositions. Thus, the phrase *apart from* is a synonym of the preposition *besides,* the phrase *previous to* a synonym of the preposition *before,* etc.

Another pattern of prepositional phrases is "preposition + noun+ preposition", e. g. *in front of, on behalf of, with reference to, in accordance with,* as in the sentences, *His friend was seated in front of the fire. Caesar crossed in spite of this.* It must be admitted that there may be doubts whether a group of this type has or has not become a prepositional phrase. Special methods can then be used to find this out. For instance, it may prove important whether the noun within such a phrase can or cannot be modified by an adjective, whether it can or cannot be changed into the plural, and so forth. Opinions may differ on whether a given phrase should or should not be included in this group. On the whole, however, the existence of such prepositional phrases is beyond doubt.

Other types of prepositional phrases ought to be carefully studied in a similar way, for example the phrase *of course,* which is the equivalent of a modal word, etc.

According to B.A.Ilyish, "the number of phrases equivalent to conjunctions is rather considerable. Some of the more specialized time relations are expressed by phrases, e. g. *as soon as, as long as.* Phrases with other meanings also belong here, e. g. *in order that, notwithstanding that.* These phrases may be conveniently termed "conjunctional phrases", though this term is not so usual as the term "prepositional phrases"[38].

There are several patterns of conjunctional phrases. One of them is "adverb adverb+conjunction" *(as soon as, as long as, so long.…* as). 'The first component of the two former phrases is probably an adverb, though it might also be argued that it is a conjunction. We may say that the distinction between the two is here neutralized.

There is also the pattern "preposition + noun + conjunction", \y as in the phrase *in order that,* which is used to introduce adverbial clauses of purpose, or in the phrase *for fear that,* which tends to be-come a kind of conjunctional phrase introducing a special kind of clause of cause: *For fear that his voice might betray more of his feelings… , he simply repeated again how good, good it was to see her...* [39].

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[38] See: B.A.Ilyish. The Structure of Modern English. M., L., 1965. p.187

[39] From the lexicological viewpoint some of these phrases functioning as equivalents of prepositions and conjunctions must certainly be described as phraseological units. This, however, is irrelevant for their grammatical characteristic.

It would appear that the treatment of such phrases attempted here does better justice both to their structure and function than a treatment which includes them under prepositions and conjunctions proper and thus obliterates the essential difference between words (parts of speech) and phrases (groups of words).

In passing now from a study of phrases to that of the sentence we are, it should be remembered, proceeding to a different level of language structure. Notions referring to the phrase level should be carefully kept apart from those referring to the sentence and its members. An indiscriminate use of terms belonging to the two levels (as, for instance, in the familiar expression "subject, verb and object") leads to a hopeless muddle and makes all serious syntactic investigation impossible. It must, however, be pointed out that in some cases distinction between the two levels proves to be a very difficult task indeed.[40] We will try in such cases to point out whatever can be urged in favour of each of the diverging views and to suggest a solution of the problem.

There are various definitions of a phrase in Modern English. So what is a phrase?

As to L.S.Barkhudarov's definition, phrase is a group of syntactically linked notional (meaningful) words in a sentence, which itself is not a sentence[41]. In simple terms a phrase is a combination of at least two meaningful(or notional) parts of speech, presupposing each other both structurally and semantically.

B.A. Ilyish is of the opinion that a phrase may consist of at least two words(both of which may be either meaningful parts of speech(like the ones: new house, good friend), or one of them (always the first one) may be even a functional/secondary/ part of speech(as in " at home, in the street, by heart, with the help).

So according to B.A. Ilyish , in Modern English along with the phrase types " good weather, to read books, two friends", etc .there are also such (prepositional) phrases as "at home, at school, in hand" , etc, , so a phrase for him is a language unit consisting of at least two elements expressed either by primary parts of speech or the first element here even may be expressed by a semi-notional (functional or structural) part of speech, analytical forms being totally excluded here[42]..

L.S. Barkhudarov distinguishes three types of phrases:

1. Coordinate
2. Subordinate
3. Predicative

A coordinate phrase is then a phrase the immediate constituents of which are coordinated and can replace each other: Nick and Jack, father and mother, salt and water, etc.

A subordinate phrase is a phrase the immediate constituents of which is subordinated to and can't replace each other (one can distinguish the head word and the adjunct word in it): cold winter

black pepper
good answer
politically active

A predicative phrase is a phrase the immediate constituents of which represent seeming subject and predicate structure and they can't replace each other in a phrase structure.

John's dancing
My coming
Nick jumping, etc.

The problem of the "mixed types" of phrase(G.M.Hoshimov) In Modern English besides those three main types of the phrases we can distinguish their following mixed types :

1) Coordi-subordinate(mother and milky child, Jack and young Jill, etc.)
2) Subordi –coordinate(hurrying father and the cigarettes)
3) Coordi-predicative(brother and David waiting)
4) Subordi-predicative(young Richard dancing)
5) Predicative-coordinate(John's dancing and Nick's laughing)
6) Predicative-subordinate (Ann's visiting young Edgar)
7) Coordi-subordi-predicative(we, old Jack and Jill talking)
8) Subordi –coordi-predicative (little Allan and Steve sitting)
9) Predicative-coordi-subordinate(John's dancing and their dislike).

The mixed types of phrases are also very frequently used in the language, but in the grammar manuals there isn't any piece of theory about them, so they have been established and considered here for the first time in linguistics in general, and in English in particular.

1) Subordinate phrase: its definition, types and subtypes
2) Noun phrase

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[40] We shall see this when we come to the problem of the attribute (p. 230 ff.).

[41] Л.С.Бархударов. Структура простого предложения современного английского языка, М., 1966, изд-во «Высшая школа», с. 44

[42] See: B.A.Ilyish. The Structure of Modern English. M., L., 1965. p.187

3) Verb phrase
4) Adjective phrase
5) Adverb phrases
6) Pronoun phrases
7) Numeral phrases
8) the predicative phrases are :

a) Infinitival:

1) objective phrases: …him (to) sing, …them(to) cross
2) Subjective phrases:

a) he…..to be seen,
b) they…. to be coming,
c) we…to be doing,
d) she …to have done,
e) they ….to have been doing

3) For-to-infinitive: for him to read

b) Gerundial :

John's coming, to John coming

c) Participial:

1) objective participial construction
2) Nominative Absolute participial construction
3) Prepositional absolute participial construction

d) Absolute predicative constructions (with out not-finites)

Key words: *subordinate phrase, noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrases, pronoun phrases ,numeral phrases, the predicative phrases : infinitival:objective phrase, subjective phrases, for-to-infinitive construction, gerundial, participial, objective participial construction, nominative absolute participial construction, absolute predicative constructions (with out not-finites), prepositional absolute participial construction.*

The course of the lecture:

In the subordinate phrases we distinguish its subtypes. As to the parts of speech representing the head word in the phrase we can distinguish the noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase and pronoun phrase) etc.

a) Noun phrase - noun as the head with the adjunct in preposition (or with preposed adjunct):

a good book
clever boys
singing boy
stone wall
brick house

b) noun phrases with the postposed adjunct:

the roof of the house
the saving of him
the people present
the poorest girl alive
with no word good, bad desire to work
desire of a trip
a problem to solve
three hours during which

c) verb phrases (with the verb as the head)

see a soldier
read a book
work hard
crying loudly
to speak quickly
meet next week
came to eat
standing there
stood smiling
stand scared to death
sat, reading a book
stan up for John to pass
looking as if surprised

a) Adjective phrases(with Adjectives a head word)

politically active

typically French (way)
undoubtedly beautiful
good for young children
politically active
so very unlike
worth doing
happy to wait
loudest of all
older then George
e) Adverb phrases (with adverb as a head word of nucleus)
awfully quickly
so quickly
very wildly
six weeks ago
high in the air
once a week
f) Pronoun phrases (pronoun as head word)
some of the workers
some of us
something strange
noody for him to see
g) Numeral phrases (numeral as head word)
two of us
the first to come
thousands upon the usands
h) A special group of phrases:
enough to surprise
too difficult to learn
such as to require (that)
2. Coordinate phrases are of the type:
1) asyndetic coordinate phrases
2) syndetic coordinate phrases
Let's consider them seperately:

1) Syndetic coordinate phrases (simple syndetic coordinate phrases):

harsh and loud
precious but remote
the content and as well as the main idea
everything but a piece of bread
nothing but her book
everybody but him
b) Relative syndetic phrases
both the book and the notebook
either...or; either he or we must live here
neither... nor; neither he nor his brother
now,...now; now with the boy now with the old man
not...only...but; not only he but we

2) Asyndetic coordinate phrases are divided into:

a) copulative asyndetic phrases
b) appositive asyndetic phrases
We shall treat them separately:
1) copulative asyndetic phrases (word order and intonation is important here):
his great, shining eyes
warm, pleasant spring weather
(insertion of "and" is possible)
clean, handsome, well dressed and sympathetic man.
2) appositive asyndetic phrases

King Lear	the young Man Edgar
president Reagan	Lir, the speaker's daughter
professor Nelson	the city of London

you boys	he himself
you young people	it itself
Bill the dean's boy	we ourselves
John the Baptist	they both

As we have mentioned above, such phrases could rather be referred to as subordinate phrase types with postpositive adjuncts than coordinate asyndetic ones:

3) the predicative phrases are expressed by :

a. Infinitival constructions
b. Gerundial constructions
c. Participial constructions
d. Absolute predicative constructions (with out not-finites)

Let's consider them one by one:

1.*Infinitival predicative phrases expressed by:*

b) Objective with the infinitive constructions: let him pass,watch him cross, see her jump, make them wash, want him to sing, order them to cross, etc.

c) The Subjective with the infinitive constructions: he(is said) to be seen, they (are considered) to be coming, she (was thought) to have done, they were seen to be coming down, they were supposed to have been working for 10 hours,

d) The For-to-infinitiveconstruction: for him to read, for Jack to translate, etc.

2. *Gerundial predicative phrases:*

a) John's coming
b) Kate's swimming
c) (object) to it(s) being brought, (against) Jack('s) going there alone

3) *Participial lpredicative phrases expressed by:*

a) The objective participal constructions: …..Kate swimming, ……. him coming, …..him changed
b) The prepositional absolute participial constructions: with Jack waiting, with Dad having a talk, etc.
c) The absolute participial constructions without participle: We talked, Jack waiting for me, I was sitting there, Dad reading a paper , etc.
d) The Nominative Absolute Participal Constructions: Jack being very busy, (we went there our selves): The room being dark, (we could not find anything), etc.

4) *Absolute constructions without verbals:*

a) The Nominative absolute constructions: his shot a failure,….., her attempt a success, …. etc.
b) The absolute prepositional constructions: with a hat in his hand, with his head full of problems, etc.
c) The absolute constructions without a preposition: ……, a hat in his hand, ….. his head full of problems, etc.

So these are the basic phrase types in Modern English.

Questions on the theme:

1) What subtypes of a subordinate phrase do you know?
2) What is a noun phrase?
3) What is a verb phrase?
4) What is an adjective phrase?
5) What is an adverb phrase?
6) What is a pronoun phrase?
7) What is a numeral phrase?
8) What is a predicative phrase?
9) What gerundial phrases do you know?
10) What participial predicative phrases do you know
11) What infinitival predicative phrases do you know?
12) What absolute predicative phrases(without not-finites) do you know?
13) What absolute prepositional predicative phrases(without not-finites) do you know?

LECTURE 9 (2 HOURS)

SENTENCE THEORY: SENTENCE TYPES AND SUBTYPES. SIMPLE SENTENCE AND ITS(STRUCTURAL AND SEMANTIC) TYPES. TYPES.THEORY OF PARTS OF THE SENTENCE:PRINCIPLE, SECONDARY PARTS OF THE SENTENCE, PROBLEM OF TERTIARY AND LOOSE PARTS.

Plan:

1. Notion of a sentence(a simple and composite sentence types)
2. Structural types of a simple sentence:
   1) one member unextended;
   2) one member extended.

3) two member unextended;
4)two member extended

3. The problem of sentence patterns(models).

3. Composite sentence : Compound and complex and mixed types

4. Semantic types of it:

b) Declarative
c) Interrogative
d) Imperative
e) Exclamatory

5. Simple sentence

6.The theory of the parts of the sentence:

a) primary parts of the sentence
b) secondary parts of the sentence
c) "tertiary" and "loose parts" of the sentence.

5.Secondary parts of the sentence

a) object
b) attribute
c) apposition
d) adverbial modifiers
e) "appendid modifiers"

6.Tertiary parts" of a sentence(direct address, parentheticals/introductory elements, words, phrases, clauses, vocatives(oh, hey, hi , etc.).

7. Loose parts of the sentence.

8.Conclusion.

Key words: notion of "part of the sentence, theory of parts of a sentence, parts of a sentence, *principal(subject, predicate), secondary(object, attribute, adverbial modifier), and tertiary parts of sentence(parenthesis, introductory and inserted elements); sentence, sentence theory: types of simple sentences, semantical types of it, structural types of it, notion of a simple sentence, structural (a two-member, one member sentence, sentence word, elliptical sentence, semantical types of sentence: 1) declarative; 2) interrogative(interrogative sentences: special, alternative, disjunctive, echo, general, rhetorical); 3) imperative; 4) exclamatory (emotive), different approaches to the sentence structure, problem of sentence patterns(models) , nomenclature of sentence patterns, grammatical categories of sentence: predicativity, personality, negopositivity, adverbiality(term is ours – H.G.M.): temporality, locativity, concessivity, conditionality, reason or cause, manner, result, comparison, measure and degree, modality, etc., word order, inversion, ellipsis, sillepsis, separation, partition, etc,*

The course of lecture:

Sentence theory

In studying the sentence we are faced with a number of problems belonging to the science of language as a whole rather than to English philology. Among these are: definition of a sentence, classification of sentences, parts of a sentence, and many other problems of a similar character raised at different times by different scholars. We cannot here go full length into all these problems. For example, we cannot take up the problem of defining a sentence, and discuss the various definitions that have been put forward at different times by different scholars. We will content ourselves with stating the main requirements for a definition of a sentence, and of other fundamental notions.

Any definition of a sentence must include several basic items: (1) it must state the relation of the sentence, a unit of language, to thought, (2) it must take into account the specific structure of the language in question, and (3) it must leave room for as many possible varieties of sentence as can be reasonably expected to occur in the given language.

The problem of classification of sentences is a highly complicated one, and we will first consider the question of the principles of classification, and of the notions on which it can be based Let us begin by comparing a few sentences differing from each other in some respect. Take, for example, the following two sentences: (1) *But why did you leave England?* and (2) *There are to-day more people writing extremely well, in all departments of life, than ever before; what we have to do is to sharpen our judgement and pick these out from the still larger number who write extremely badly.*

Everyone will see that the two sentences are basically different. This is true, but very general and not grammatically exact. In order to arrive at a strictly grammatical statement of the difference (or differences) between them we must apply more exact methods of observation and analysis.

Let us, then, proceed to a careful observation of the features which constitute the difference between the two sentences.

1. The first sentence expresses a question, that is the speaker expects an answer which will supply the information he wants. The second sentence expresses a statement, that is, the author (or speaker) states his opinion on a certain subject. He does not ask about anything, or expect anybody to supply him any information. This difference is expressed in writing by the first sentence having a question mark at the end, while the second sentence has a full stop.

2. The first sentence is addressed to a certain hearer (or a few hearers present), and is meant to provoke the

hearer's reaction (answer). The second sentence is not addressed to any particular person or persons and the author does not know how anybody will react to it.

3. The two sentences differ greatly in length: the first consists of only 6 words, while the second has 39.
4. The first sentence has no punctuation marks within it, while the second has two commas and a semicolon.
5. The first sentence has only one finite verb *(did ... leave)*, while the second has three *(are, have, write)*.

These would seem to be some essential points of difference. We have not yet found out which of them are really relevant from a grammatical viewpoint. We have not included in the above list those which are quite obviously irrelevant from that viewpoint; for example, the first sentence contains a proper name *(England)*, while the second does not contain any, or, the second sentence contains a possessive pronoun *(our)* while the first does not, etc.

Let us now consider each of the five points of difference and see which of them are relevant from a purely grammatical point of view, for a classification of sentences.

Point 1 states a difference in the types of thought expressed in the two sentences. Without going into details of logical analysis, we can merely say that a question (as in the first sentence), and a proposition (as in the second)[43] are different types of thought, in the logical acceptation of that term. The problem now is, whether this difference is or is not of any importance from the grammatical viewpoint. In Modern English sentences expressing questions (we will call them, as is usually done, interrogative sentences) have some characteristic grammatical features. These features are, in the first place, a specific word order in most cases (predicate — subject), as against the order subject — predicate [44] in sentences expressing propositions (declarative sentences). Thus word order may, with some reservations, be considered as a feature distinguishing this particular type of sentence from others. Another grammatical feature characterizing interrogative sentences (again, with some reservations) is the structure of the predicate verb, namely its analytical form *"do* + infinitive" (in our first sentence, *did... leave...*, not *left)*, where in a declarative sentence there would be the simple form (without *do)*. However, this feature is not restricted to interrogative sentences: as is well known, it also characterizes negative sentences. Anyhow, we can (always with some reservations) assume that word order and the form *do* + infinitive" are grammatical features characterizing interrogative sentences, and in so far the first item of our list appears to be grammatically relevant. We will, accordingly, accept the types "interrogative sentence" and "declarative sentence" as grammatical types of sentences.

Point 2, treating of a difference between a sentence addressed to a definite hearer (or reader) and a sentence free from such limitation, appears not to be grammatical, important as it may be from other points of view. Accordingly, we will not include this distinction among grammatical features of sentences.

Point 3, showing a difference in the length of the sentences, namely in the number of words making up each of them, does not in itself constitute a grammatical feature, though it may be more remotely connected with grammatical distinctions.

Point 4 bears a close relation to grammatical peculiarities; more especially semicolon would be hardly possible in certain types of sentences (so-called
simple sentences). But punctuation marks within a sentence are not in themselves grammatical features: they are rather a consequence of grammatical features whose essence is to be looked for elsewhere.

Point 5, on the contrary, is very important from a grammatical viewpoint. Indeed the number of finite verbs in a sentence is one of its main grammatical features. In this particular instance it should be noted that each of the three finite verbs has its own noun or pronoun belonging to it and expressing the doer of the action denoted by the verb: *are* has the noun *people*, *have* the pronoun *we*, and *write* the pronoun *who*. These are sure signs of the sentence being composite, not simple.[45] Thus we will adopt the distinction between simple and composite sentences as a distinction between two grammatical types.

The items we have established as a result of comparing the two sentences (1) "*But why did you leave England?* and (2) *There are to-day more people writing extremely well, in all departments of life, than ever before; what we have to do is to sharpen our judgement and pick these out from the still larger number who write extremely badly"* certainly do not exhaust all the possible grammatical features a sentence can be shown to possess. They were only meant to illustrate the method to be applied if a reasonable grammatical classification of sentences is to be achieved. If we were to take another pair or other pairs of sentences and proceed to compare them in a similar way we should arrive at some more grammatical distinctions which have to be taken into account in making up a classification. We will not give any more examples but we will take up the grammatical classification of sentences in a systematic way.

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[43] As a matter of fact, our second sentence contains more than one proposition; but this does not affect the basic difference between the two types of sentences.

[2] We will here provisionally accept the terms "subject" and "predicate" without definition. For a full discussion of these terms see the chapters devoted to the main parts of sentence..

[45] We use the term "composite sentence" in the same meaning as that attributed to it in H. Poutsma's *Grammar of Late Modern English* namely as opposite to the term "simple sentence".

It is evident that there are two principles of classification. Applying one of them, we obtain a classification into declarative, interrogative, and imperative sentences. We can call this principle that of "types of communication".

The other classification is according to structure. Here we state two main types: simple sentences and composite sentences. We will not now go into the question of a further subdivision of composite sentences, or into the question of possible intermediate types between simple and composite ones. These questions will be treated later on (see pages 274 and 263 respectively). Meanwhile, then, we get the following results:

Types of Sentences according to Purpose of Communication

(1) Declarative
(2) Interrogative
(3) Imperative

Sentences belonging to the several types differ from each other in some grammatical points, too. Thus, interrogative sentences are characterized by a special word order. In interrogative sentences very few modal words are used, as the meanings of some modal words are incompatible with the meaning of an interrogative sentence. It is clear that modal words expressing full certainty, such as *certainly, surely, naturally,* etc., cannot appear in a sentence expressing a question. On the other hand, the modal word *indeed,* with its peculiar shades of meaning, is quite possible in interrogative sentences, for instance, *Is't so indeed?*

There are also sentences which, as to B.A.Ilyish, might be termed semi-interrogative. The third sentence in the following passage belongs to this type:

"Well, I daresay that's more revealing about poor George than you. At any rate, "he seems to have survived it." "Oh, you've seen him?" She did not particularly mark her question for an answer, but was, after all, the pivot-point, and Bone found himself replying — that indeed he had.

The sentence *Oh, you've seen him?* is halfway between the affirmative declarative sentence, *You have seen him,* and the interrogative sentence, *Have you seen him?* Let us proceed to find out the precise characteristics of the sentence in the text as against the two sentences just given for the sake of comparison. From the syntactical viewpoint, the sentence is declarative, as the mutual position of subject and predicate is, *you have seen,* not *have you seen,* which would be the interrogative order. In what way or ways does it, then, differ from a usual declarative sentence? That is where the question of the intonation comes in. Whether the question mark at the end of the sentence does or does not mean that the intonation is not that typical of a declarative sentence, is hard to tell, though it would rather seem that it does. To be certain about this a phonetic experiment should be undertaken, but in this particular case the author gives a context which itself goes some way toward settling the question. The author's words, *She did not particularly mark her question for an answer,* seem to refer to the intonation with which it was pronounced: the intonation must not have been clearly interrogative, that is not clearly rising, though it must have differed from the regular falling intonation to some extent: if it had not been at all different, the sentence could not have been termed a "question", and the author does call it a question. Reacting to this semi-interrogative intonation, Bone (the man to whom the question was addressed) answered in the affirmative. It seems the best way, on the whole, to term such sentences semi-interrogative. Their purpose of course is to utter a somewhat hesitating statement and to expect the other person to confirm it.

Imperative sentences also show marked peculiarities in the use of modal words. It is quite evident, for example, that modal words expressing possibility, such as *perhaps, maybe, possibly,* are incompatible with the notion of order or request. Indeed, modal words are hardly used at all in imperative sentences.

The notion of exclamatory sentences and their relation to the three established types of declarative, interrogative, and imperative sentences presents some difficulty. It would seem that the best way to deal with it is this. On the one hand, every sentence, whether narrative, interrogative, or imperative, may be exclamatory at the same time, that is, it may convey the speaker's "feelings and be characterized by emphatic intonation and by an exclamation mark in writing. This may be seen in the following examples: *But he can't do anything to you! What can he possibly do to you! Scarlett, spare me!*

On the other hand, a sentence may be purely exclamatory, that is, it may not belong to any of the three types classed above. This would be the case in the following examples: *"Well, fiddle-dee-dee!" said Scarlett. Oh, for God's sake, Henry!*

However, it would perhaps be better to use different terms for sentences which are purely exclamatory, and thus constitute a special type, and those which add an emotional element to their basic quality, which is either declarative, or interrogative, or imperative.

If this view expressed by B.A.Ilyish is endorsed, we should have a classification of sentences according to type of communication thus modified:

(1) Declarative (including emotional ones)
(2) Interrogative (including emotional ones)
(3) Imperative (including emotional ones)
(4) Exclamatory

This view would avoid the awkward contradiction of exclamatory sentences constituting a special type and belonging to the first three types at the same time.

Types of Sentences According to Structure

(1) Simple

(2) Composite(compound, complex, mixed):

The relations between the two classifications should now be considered.

It is plain that a simple sentence can be either declarative, or interrogative, or imperative. But things are somewhat more complicated with reference to composite sentences. If both (or all) clauses making up a composite sentence are declarative, the composite sentence as a whole is of course declarative too. And so it is bound to be in every case when both (or all) clauses making a composite sentence belong to the same type of communication (that is the case in an overwhelming majority of examples). Sometimes, however, composite sentences are found which consist of clauses belonging to different types of communication. Here it will sometimes be impossible to say to what type of communication the composite sentence as a whole belongs. We will take up this question when we come to the composite sentence.

Some other questions connected with the mutual relation of the two classifications will be considered as we proceed.

Simple Sentence(its structural and semantic types). Parts of the Sentence. Principle, secondary parts of the sentence. The Problem of tertiary and loose parts.

As we have pointed out in our previous lecture, the simple sentences may be of different types as classified due to different aspects of sentence analysis. In Modern English at least two main strict criteria are applied for classifing them into certain types:

1. Structural (a two-member,one member sentence word+elliptical)
2. Semantical 1) declarative; 2) interrogative;
3) imperative; 4) exclamatory (emotive)

The three other criteria are to be mentioned though they are not so much preferable as the former two (structural and semantical):

1. Functional
2. Phonetical - phonological (requestive sentence type).
3. Pragmatic (prohibitive, promissive, menasive, etc)

Linguists are unanimous in the opinion that structurally sentences are devided into:

1. Simple sentences
2. Composite sentences

Sentences have different aspects of analysis:

1)structural, semantic, cognitive, functional, nominative, pragmatic, statistical, stylistic aspects etc.

Let's analyze the structure of a simple sentence. We must, first of all, give a definition to it, according to which it can be treated as such.

The most popular definition is the following:

A sentence (simple one) is a language unit, consisting of a subject and a predicate and built up according to a definite kernel pattern in a language and expresses a complete thought and is intonationally formulated.

As we see in the definition there is no strict (one sided) approach to the sentence. Sentence needs a definition that covers it from one angle, that is: either structural or semantic (declarative, inlerrogative utterances) or functional (expressing, state, weather) phonetical (breath groups, utterances) or even pragmatic (promissive, quesitive, menasive, etc.). Structurally speaking the classificaion of a sentence into a simple and a composite one is open to no objections among linguists.

It seems that the most happy definition of a sentence to the present day is that of L.S. Barkhudarov's: "Sentence is a language unit that has a structure, giving it the possibility of being used as a minimal utterance(speech unit), that is a subject and predicate-structure"[46] . *He sings songs. He sleeps. We are students*
(topic and commentary - subject and predicate). Here arises the problem of such
phenomena as *"Come here!* (imperative) *Poor John!*(exclamatory). *Spring(*nominative). *Flowers everywhere*(nominative), which are known as nominative sentences or sentences words. Some grammarians speak of the existance of"sentence-words" (H.Sweet, G.G.Pocheptsov, E.Krusinga), as well as "nonsentences" (M.Bryant).

We fully appreciate the very definition, because we think that any sentence (irrespective of its one or two memberness) is a subject –predicate structure either explicitly or implicitly expressed, and in the latter case one can easily restore the missing parts of the sentence: "Come here!" means "You come here !", etc.

There is a division of sentences into:

1) elliptical (What about him?)
2) non-elliptical (full,complete) (What do you know of it(or what of it?).

H.Whitehall's classification is original (his is more pragmatic) than anything else.

1) question sentences
2) equational sentences (the more, the better)
3) completive sentences: when shall we leave?-Now
4) exclamatory sentences: Go away! Stop!
5) reportage sentences: age 50,medium height, blue ayes.

[46] See: Бархударов Л.С. Структура простого предложения современного английского языка,М., изд-во «Высшая школа» , 1966, с.141.

The sentence words are initial sentence forms in any natural language. Child speech proves that right. When we analyze the simple sentence types, it is important to consider their kernel structures (patterns).

So in Modern English many grammarians have been attempting to give the nomenclature of the kernel sentence patterns.

H.White gives 3 sentence patterns or sentence situations in Modern English:

I. S+P Birds chirp
The snake hisses
II. S+P+complement:
All the men talked shop.
It rains cats and dogs.
He called her.
III. S+P+inner complement+outer complement
The boy gave her a present
I taught him English.
We found the house broken down
P.Roberts' kernel patterns:
I. Pattern I (has the following types)
1) N+V Lions roar
He left
She sleeps
2) D+N+V The lion roared
My son came
3) D+N+aux+V Charlie was roaring
The lions were roaring
He had left it
The car may explode.
4) D+N+aux+V+adv
The lions were roaring loudly
Albert has gone out
My brother has gone away.
II. Pattern II:
1) N+V+adj
Bill is young
2) D+N+V+aux+adj+adv
The boy had been unhappy often.
III. Pattern III:
1) N+V+N Lions eat meat
2) D+N+aux+V+D+N+adv
The lion was eating the meat greedily.
IV. Pattern IV:
D+N+LVerb+D+N
That man is my brother
V. Pattern V:
N+V+N+N
My father gave my brother a book
(indirect) (direct object)
VI. Pattern VI:
N+V+M+N (objective complement)
Albert called my brother a monkey
VII. Pattern VII.
There+V+N+adv
There were (some) men here
Seldom was the man there
There goes Charlie
Up jumped the tiger

So P.Roberts' distinguishes seven kernel patterns in Modern English.

Let's see the kernel sentences distinguished by Zelling Harris[47]:

1) N+fv (without object)

[47] Harris Z. S. Discourse Analysis. —"Language", 28, No. 1, 1952. p p. 55-56

The team went there
2) N+fV+N:
We read it
3) N+fVPrep+N:
The teacher looked at him
4) N+N
Man is a worker. He is a driver
5) N+is+A (adj)
The girl is pretty
6) N+is+Prep+N
The paper is of importance
7) N+is +D:
The man is here

Robert Lees finds only two kernel sentence patterns in Modern English

1) N+V
2) N+N/A

Grammarian G.G.Pocheptsov distinguishes 39 kernel patterns of English even sentences including such sentences as "Silence (N39).

We can find the full list of kernel sentences of 39 types in his fundamental work[48].

Below is the table of 39 kernel patterns of simple sentences offered by prof. G.G.Pocheptsov with the abbreviations to them :

S	-	sentence
s	-	kernel sentence
E	-	subject
P	-	predicate
Q	-	direct object
pQ	-	prepositional object
aQ	-	non-prepositional object
to-aQ	-	prepositional object of addressee with “to”
v	-	finite verb, active
L	-	finite verb, passive
Adv.place	-	adverbial modifier of place
Adv.time	-	adverbial modifier of time
Adv.manner	-	adverbial modifier of manner
Adv.purpose	-	adverbial modifier of purpose

Kernel sentence patterns of English (offered by G.G. Pocheptsov)

Ttype of kernel sentences		Formula of kernel sentences	Examples	Note
1.		3.	4.	5.
1.a.		Ep-1	Frieta nodded	P1=v1
1.b.			It was raining	
2.		Ep-20	She took my hand	P2=v2
3.		Ep-3a-QQ	Andrew handed her the child	P3=v3
		Ep-3to-a-QQ	She handed her brouquet to Rain	
4.		Ep-4-QQ	I’ve taught him that	P4=v4
5.		Ep-5p-Q	He looked at me	P5=v5
6.		Ep-6a-Qp-Q	I’ll tell Gert about this	P6=v6
		Ep-6to-a-Qp-Q	He wrote to me about this	
7.		Ep-7p-Qp-Q	You agree with me in that	P7=v7
8.		Ep-8-Qp-Q	He had thought that of his sister	P8=v8
9.		Ep-9a-QQp-Q	I told you the truth about the	P9=v

[48] Поцепцов Г.Г. Конструктивный анализ структуры предложения. Киев, 1971, стр.106

			umbrella	9
		Ep-9to-aQpQ	I sad nothing to the lawyer about Anne	P5=v 5
10.		Ep-10a-Q	He telephoned me	P10= v10
		Ep-10to-a-Q	He wrote to Dornford	
11.		Ep-11adv.place	She went to the window	P11= v11
12.		Ep-12adv.time	Dinner's at one	P12= v12
13.		Ep-13adv.manner	He behaved badly	P13= v13
14.		Ep-14adv.purpose	I've come to see you	P14= v14
15.		Ep-15adv.place adv.time	You were ages in the garden	P15= v15
16.		Ep-16-Q-adv.place	I'm driving him to the infirmary	P16= v16
17.		Ep-17a-Q-QAdv.place	He passed me your letter across the table	P17= v17
		Ep-17to-a-QQ-adv.place	He had written to her a few lines from Japan	
18.		Ep-18adv.place p-Q	He reached across the table for the check	P18= v18
19.		Ep-19-Q-Adv.time	I won't keep you long	P19= v19
20.		Ep-20-Q-adv.place adv.time	Johnny kept them in a box for many years	P20= v20
21.		Ep-21-Q-adv.manner	I've treated you badly	P21= v21
22.		Ep-22p-Q-adv.manner	You'll play straight with me	P22= v22
23.		Ep-23-QAdv.purpose	He used his report to laud the Government	P23= v23
24.		Ep-24a-QAdv.manner	The rains haven't done as badly	P24= v24
25.		Ep-25	Other defects are noted. His cases were looked after. The room hasn't been lived in	P25= L25 P25= L5 P25= L11
26.		Ep-26a-Q	Information was given the Americans	P26= L3
		Ep-26to-a-Q	The Ball was thrown to Garde	
27.a 27.b 27.c 27.d		Ep-27-Q	I was not told these things. He was fined L2. A question was asked him. *Mad Sam had been seen little of*	P27a =L3 P27b =L4 P27c =L4 P27d =L8
28.a 28.b		Ep-28p-Q	Mor was reminded of the scene They were searched for letters	P28a =L6 P28b =L9
29.		Ep-29a-Qp-Q	Nothing has been told me of it	P29=

				L9
		Ep-29to-a-Qp-Q	Nothing was said to me about it	
30.		Ep-30-Qp-Q	I was told nothing about it	P30= L9
31.a 31.b		Ep-31-Adv.place	We were shown upstairs Money was fished for in her bag	P31a =L16 P31b =L18
32.		Ep-32-Adv.times	The case was adjourned until today	P32= L19
33.		Ep-33-Adv.place-Adv.times	You will be remanded in custody for a week	P33= L20
34.a 34.b		Ep-34-Adv.manner	I'm unfairly treated You're played with fairly	P34a =L21 P34b =L22
35.		Ep-35-Adv.purpose	Servants were sent to alarm the neighbor	P35= L23
36.a 36.b		Ep-36	She was pale It's cold	P36= глагол-связка+ предикатив
37.		P-37-E	There was a pause	P37= конструкция there is
38.		P-38-E	Here is Gerald	P38= конструкция here is
39		Ep -39	Silence	

We must admit that it is the most original and complete list of the kernel patterns of the simple sentences of Modern English by today. We highly appreciate it , but even this hard working grammarian did not pay the slightest attention to or simply ignored the kernel composite sentence patterns, that is why we can't call the classification of sentences by G.G.Pocheptsov complete and happy, for here half the work is done and the next half is waiting for its solution, and we hope we will devote a chapter to this urgent problem in the near future.

Sentence Types (As To The Semantics)

It is still disputable to analyze such sentence structures as interrogative, negative, and interrogative-negative and imperative sentences. One can not see their kernel structures (patterns) in the list of patterns. It means that they are transforms or paradigms of the declarative sentence types.

Such is the case with exclamatory (or emotive) sentence types as "Long live students!, Come here!" Russian grammarian Pocheptsov G.G. treats the following four main semantic and structural types of sentences[49] in the required chapter:

Sentences proper :

(1) declarative (Real sentence types);

(2) interrogative;

(3) imperative;

(4) optative (if John come);

B.A.Ilyish's classification[50] of sentences as to the purpose of communication is as follows:

1) declarative

2) interrogative

3) imperative

4) exclamatory(exclamative)

(Compare his quasi-sentences of the type "Oh!", "John!", "Hi!", "Hey!"). B.A.Ilyish thinks that the first two types may be even joined into one, but he says there is no proper term for it[51]).

G.G.Porcheptsov considers the three types (declarative, interrogative, imperative) of a sentence to be universal types, peculiar to any language.

[49]See: Поцепцов Г.Г. Конструктивный анализ структуры предложения. Киев, 1971, стр.106

[50] See: Ilyish B.A. The Structure of Modern English" , M., "Просвещение", 1965, стр.193

[51] See: Ilyish B.A. The Structure of Modern English" , M., "Просвещение", 1965, стр.187

We can and must add the "exclamatory sentence" here as the forth universal sentence type typical of any concrete language: *"What a nice house!", "Какой хороший дом!", "Қандай ажойиб уй!", etc.*

It is very interesting to discuss the problem of such sentence types as interrogative ones.

The grammarians' opinions and approaches vary as to the subtypes of the interrogative sentences, but more acceptable, traditional classification of them is the following:

1) general questions
2) special questions
3) disjunctive questions
4) alternative question

Some English and American grammarians speak of "wh" questions instead, of special questions because they begin with interrogative words, with initial "wh" as in" who, when, whom, where, which ", etc.

The well-known Russian grammarian L.S.Barchudarov distinguishes the following types of interrogative sentences:

1) general (yes, or, no) questions
2) special (or wh-) questions
3) alternative questions
4) disjunctive (or tag) questions
5) echo-questions : *John broke the window?*
John broke what?
John broke the window when?
6) rhetorical questions.

The rhetorical question , as is known, needs no answer at all, because it contains the answer in itself, it implies the answer needed.

If he beats me, must I wait?
After such scandals, could I do anything?
У мени хаоратласа қараб турайми?
Сен ўзи шумлигингни тўхтатасанми?
Сенинг қулоғингга гап кирадими, а?
Агар хўп десам, у ерга бормасмидингиз?

We are inclined to think that there may be such a sentence type as requestive , for instance:

Could you help me, please? Wouldn't you mind coming and helping him, please! (with the exclamatoty mark turned upside down) or a slash(/)may be used to differenciateit from other sentences/

We think that there may also be distinguished such mixed types of sentences like:

1)Interrogative- rhetorical questions(sentences) :

Will you stop your unbearable behavior then?(it means "all the same you won't");

2) Interogative–exclamatory(exclamative):

When will you understand her properly?!(Never)

3)Interrogative –imperative:

Won't you go?! Бор'майсанми?(rarher an order than a question).

As to negative sentences they are the transforms of declarative sentences their paradigms.

The problem of predicativity is important in sentence theory.

So is the problem of grammatical categories of sentence. Each sentence has to express predicativity, so it's the main feature of any sentence.

Predicativity is the main category of a sentence (be it one-member or two member, full, or elliptical). It includes the following subcategories of sentence:

a) modality(mood, modal verbs, modal words, paralinguistic means, etc.
b) personality;
c) negopositivity (negativeness/positiveness);
d) adverbiality(temporality, locality, causativity, conditionality, comparison, manner, concessivity), etc.

It must have the following subcategory as well.

a) locativity, because any action is to be actualized in some space or locativity(as to Hashimov G.M).

Predicativity is the grammatical category of a sentence, expressing the relation of the content (meaning) of it to the objective reality as viewed by the speaker and listener (or writer and reader).

Modality is a subcategory of sentence expressing the speaker's/writer's attitude to the objective reality reflected in the sentence.

There are various language means of expressing modality as such:

1) mood forms (synthetic, analytical)
2) modal verbs (can, may, want, wish, desire)
3) modal words (evidently, frankly, (adverbs) certainly, probably surely, strictly, perhaps)
4) word order (direct, inverted)

5) time correlations of verbs in a composite sentence, etc.

6)paralinguistic means, etc.

Theory of Parts of Sentence. The principle Parts of the sentence

There are two approaches to the theory of parts of sentence:

1) A sentence may have only principle (subject, predicate) and secondary (object, attribute, adverbial modifier) parts of a sentence: 2) a sentence may have principal, secondary and tertiary (direct address, parenthesis) parts of a sentence.

The first approach is a traditional one, which presupposes the existence of a one-member and a two-member sentence types.

1. Winter. (one member sentence):
2. Winter has come now. (Two member sentence).

The second approach is a new one, which presupposes the existence of tertiary parts of a sentence along with primary and secondary ones. Tertiary parts of a sentence are parenthetical elements and direct addresses:

1. Frankly speaking, I don't know it. (parenthesis)
2. To cut a long story short, I am not ready for life. (parenthesis)
3. Jack, are you in? (direct address)
4. Nick, why are you here? (direct address)

As to the theory of principal parts of a sentence, we may add that today it is correct to consider the object as one of the principal parts of a sentence in languages of ergative type like some of the Caucasian languages (I. I Meshchaninov), because the object not only governs the verb, but the subject as well, but such a feature is not peculiar to the English language.

Now it is about the time we discussed the primary parts of a sentence i. e. "subject" and "predicate" and revealed their syntactic nature.

First of all, we are to define the syntactical notion of subject and predicate. In this connection prof L.S. Barkhudarov`s definition of the primary parts of the sentence is original in that he considers the subject and predicate to be the immediate constituents of a sentence.

The Subject theory.

A renowned scholar, a conspicuious theoretician of the English language professor L.S.Barkhudarov defines the subject as follows: "A subject is an immediate constituent of a sentence, which remains after the predicate is taken off the structure of a sentence (and is linked with a predicative form of the verb in a predicate by the help of correspondence in person and number)".

Here is the definition of a predicate offered by L. S. Barkhudarov: A predicate is an immediate constituent of a sentence which includes the predicative (finite) form of the verb (even in a zero alternant)[52].

The types of subject in English as to prof. L.S. Barkhudarov are as follows:

1) Simple subject expressed by a single element (usually an independent part of speech or any part of speech used as a quotation)

John is working. Table is good. To live is to fight. Getting tired is the problem. For you to go there is important. What he says is correct. (Here prof. L.S. Barkhudarov doesn't want or is not inclined) to call such subjects simple as opposed to the second subject type called "compound or complex".[53]

2) Compound or complex subject, which may have the following subtypes:

a) subject expressed by an anticipatory or introductory "It":

It was strange to be hated

It was funny to be among people

It is necessary that he should do it (or that he should do it is necessary)

b) Subject expressed by an anticipatory there:

There was a long silence.

There were the footsteps of the people.

There seemed a question in them.

There came a boyish cry.

Here we can continue the list of compound or complex subject types by adding one more: that is: "a subject expressed by a clause (subject clause)":

That he should by there is important (or It is important that he should be there).

What he says is what we know.

Speaking of the functional types of subjects M. Bryant distinguishes the following:

1) Grammatical and notional subject (He lives here)
2) Elliptical subject (Why not try: Pray, don't move, etc.)
3) Appositive subject (Mr. Jones, the lawyer, works here)
4) Phrase subject ("Night have been" is a sad thought: Just over the bridge is where you'll find it, etc.)

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[52] Л.С.Бархударов. Структура простого предложения современного английского язқка, М., 1966, p.143

[53] See: op. cit. p. 159.

5) Clause subject (What I saw was interesting: Whoever is here gets a prize, etc.)
6) Accusative subject (For you to go there is impossible, etc.)

It is interesting to mention the structural classification of the subject by N.A.Kobrina, E.I.Korneeva et al [54]:

Structurally subjects fall into four types: *the simple subject, the phrasal subject, the complex subject, and the clausal subject.*

1.The simple subject is expressed by a single word-form.
Seeing is believing.

2. The phrasal subject is expressed by any of the phrases mentioned in
To ask him again was impossible. *Uncle Laurie* sent me to you.

3. The complex subject is expressed by a predicative complex. *For them to go back* would be to admit defeat.

4. The clausal subject is expressed by a clause. *Who has done this* is still to be found out.

The same authors give the following grammatical classification of the subject: *notional or formal.*

The notional subject denotes or (if expressed by a pronoun) points out a person or a non-person.

The formal subject neither denotes nor points out any person or non-person and is only a structural element of the sentence filling the linear position of the subject. Thus a formal subject functions only as a position-filler. In English there are two such position-fillers: *it* and *there.*

The Notional Subject: *The policeman* stepped back. *The audience* cheered wildly.

The Formal Subject: a)The F o r m a l S u b j e c t *It*
*It i*s spring. *It's* cold today.
It seems that he was frank.— Кажется, он был откровенен.
It turned out that she was deaf.— Оказалось, что она глухая.
It is impossible *to deny this.*
It thrilled her *to be invited there.*
It gave him a pain in the head *to walk.*
It was no good *coming there again.*
It would be wonderful for you *to stay with us.*
It was lucky *that she agreed to undertake the job.*
It did not occur to her *that the idea was his.*

b)The F o r m a l S u b j e c t *There*
There was *silence* for a moment.
There was *a needle and thread* in her fingers.
There was *nobody in. There* was *nothing* to do.

The Predicate theory

Prof. Barkhudarov's treatment of the predicate is original for he distinguishesthes two main structural types of the predicate:

Structurally prof. Barkhudarov distinguishes the following predicate types:

1. Simple predicate (which is always verbal): She sleeps. We study there.
2. Compound predicate which falls into:

a) nominal predicate: He is young. He is a student.
b) verbal predicate: You must work. He is asked to sing.

Prof. B.A.Ilyish distinguishes the following types of the predicate:

A Simple predicate:
(1) Verbal(He works.)
(2) Nominal(My ideas obsolete!!!).

B Compound predicate:
(1) Verbal(They must work, we are to go there)
(2) Nominal(She is a doctor, The man is ill)

If we were to take the morphological classification as the basic one the result would be the following:

A Verbal predicate
(1) Simple
(2) Compound

B Nominal predicate
(1) Simple
(2) Compound

In this connection prof. Ilyish`s treatment of a predicate type as simple nominal is interesting, for example: *"My ideas obsolete!* (See: B. A. Ilyish. The structure of Modern Ehglish, , L., 1976).

[54] N. A. Kobrina, E. A. Korneyeva, M. I. Ossovskaya, K. A. Guzeyeva . An English Grammar Syntax, Moskow "Prosvesheniye", 1986, pp. 30-37

But we think that there's no solid ground for it, because there is no link verb to form a predicate as such here (because canonically any predicate should be expressed by a finite verb that should stand in certain tense (demonstrating absolute grammatical time), mood, and agree with subject in number and person and then form the so called absolute predication. The following simple predicate types are also discriminated by the same author:

Wind southerly, later veering westward, sea slight, etc.

The simple nominal predicates are also recognized by N.A. Kobrina and N.I. Korneeva who treat them as follows[55]:

The simple nominal predicate is expressed by a noun, or an adjective, or a verbal. It does not contain a link verb, as it shows the incompatibility of the idea expressed by the subject and that expressed by the predicate; thus in the meaning of the simple nominal predicate there is an implied negation.

He *a gentlemanl*
You *a botherl* Never.
Fred, *a priestl*
Rondal, *jealous*\
Nick, *dishonestl*
Such an old lady *to come* so *far*\

Sentences with the simple nominal predicate are always exclamatory evidently-owing to the impifcatlon of a negation or of an evaluation. . These predicates are used in colloquial English, although not frequently.

The simple nominal predicate can be expressed by:

1. A noun.

My son *a clergyman!*
She, *a nun!*
Me *a liar!*

2. An adjective.

My ideas *obsolete!*
Ronnie, *good-looking!*
You *sad!*

3. An infinitive or an infinitive phrase.

Hercule Poirot *to sleep* while murder is committed! My boy *insult* a gentleman at my table!

4. Participle 1 or a participial phrase.

She *spying!*
Me *trying* to be funny!

It is interesting to note that the same authors think that there is such a kind of a predicate called by them as the Compound Nominal Double Predicate[56].

The compound nominal double predicate combines, as it name suggests, the features of two different types of predicate. It has th features of the simple verbal predicate and those of the compound nom nal predicate. It consists of two parts, both of which are notional. Th first one is verbal and is expressed by a notional verb denoting an actio or process performed by the person/non-person expressed by the subjec From this point of view it resembles the simple verbal predicate. But *i* the same time the verbal part of this predicate performs a linking functioi as it links its second part (which is a predicative) to the subject. The second part of the compound nominal double predicate is expressed by a noun or an adjective which denotes the properties of the subject in the same way as the predicative of the compound nominal predicate proper does.

The moon was shining cold and bright.

The predicate here denotes two separate notions: 1) The moon was shining, and at the same time 2) The moon was cold and bright.

It is noteworthy that in their later grammar manual there were distinguished some other types original types of the compound predicate were distinguished by N.A. Kobrina and E.A. Korneeva et al[57]:

1. The Compound Verbal Predicate:

a) The Compound Verbal Phasal Predicate:
Andrew and he *began to talk* about the famous clinic

b) The Compound Verbal Modal Predicate:
He *can't say* a word,

[55] N. A. Kobrina, E. A. Korneyeva, M. I. Ossovskaya, K. A. Guzeyeva . An English Grammar Syntax, Moskow "Prosvesheniye", 1986, pp. 37-39

[56] N. A. Kobrina, E. A. Korneyeva, M. I. Ossovskaya, K. A. Guzeyeva . An English Grammar Syntax, Moskow "Prosvesheniye", 1986, pp. 145-146

[57] For the detailed treatment of the compound predicate see: N. A. Kobrina, E. A. Korneyeva, M. I. Ossovskaya, K. A. Guzeyeva . An English Grammar Syntax, Moskow "Prosvesheniye", 1986, pp. 39-49:

Are you *able to walk* another two miles?

2. The Compound Verbal Predicate of Double Orientation

c) The Gadfly *seemed to have taken a dislike* to her.
d) The plane *is reported to have been lost*
e) He *seemed to understand* everything I said
f) This country *is said to be rich* in oil.
g) The room *looked snug and cheerful.*
h) His face *looked awful* all the time.
i) His voice *sounded cold and hostile.*

3. The Compound Nominal Predicate:

a) The Compound Nominal Predicate Proper:
a) The girl *looked tired but pretty*
b) . We *are seven.*
c) My wish *is to learn many languages.* -
d) That request *seemed superfluous.*

4. The Compound Nominal Double Predicate:

a) *After the meeting is* the time to speak
b) *To know everything is* to know nothing. *To be loved and to be wanted is* always good.
c) *Where you found him does* not concern me.
d) *Four and four is* eight
e) *Many a lie has* been told.
f) Here *is Tom and Peter.*
g) Here *was a man, was experience* and *culture.*
h) *It is you who are* right. It is I who *am* wrong.
(But: *It's me who is* wrong).

There are a number of verbs that most often occur in this type of predicate, performing the double function of denoting a process and serving as link verb at the same time. They are: *to die, to leave, to lie, to marry, to return, to rise, to sit, to stand, to shine*, etc. But as in Modern English there is a growing tendency to use this type of predicate, the verbs occurring in it are not limited by any particular lexical class.

My daughter sat silent.
He died a hero.
She married young. , .
The light came gray and pale.
The sun was now shining warm and bright.
The men stood silent and motionless.
They met friends and parted enemies.
The moon rose round and yellow.

Besides the above mentioned types of a compound predicate they distinguish the mixed Types of Compound Predicate.

Compound predicates can combine elements of different types. Thus we have:

1. The compound modal nominal predicate.

Jane must feel better pleased than ever. She couldn't be happy.

2. The phasal nominal predicate.

He was beginning to look desperate-George began to be rather ashamed.

3. The compound modal phasal predicate.

You ought to stop doing that.
He can't continue training.

4. The compound nominal predicate of double orientation.

Mrs Bacon is said to be very ill.
Walter seems to be unhappy.

In the theory of the predicate B.S. Khaimovich and B.I. Rogovskaya`s “communicative predicate type” is also noteworthy, the latter may be of two subtypes:

1) simple (one word used)
2) Compound (more than one word used). Which may morphologically be either “verbal” (She sleeps) or “nominal” (She is a teacher. He is young, etc.) (See: op. cit. p. 255).

Other Types of Nominal Predicate. Besides these main cases of a simple nominal predicate there are also some rare types, such as in the text of weather bulletins, and the like, for instance: *Wind southerly, later veering westward, sea slight*, etc. Such sentences as these read like passages from a questionnaire, the adjective answering a question referring to the thing denoted by the noun (wind, sea, etc.).

Limits of the Compound Verbal Predicate as to prof. B.A.Ilyish

Now we come to the second question, about the limits of the compound verbal predicate. It arises from the fact that a rather considerable number of verbs can be followed by an infinitive, some of them with, others without the particle *to.* Among such verbs are: *shall, will, should, would, can, may, must* (without to); *ought, wish, want, desire, hate, fear, begin, start, continue, omit? forge t, remember,* etc. (with *to).*

The relation between these phrases and parts of the sentence is of course not the same in all cases. We can at once eliminate the phrases *"shall, should, will, would* -f infinitive", which constitute tense or mood forms of the verb. Thus, the phrase *shall write* is a form of the verb *write* (as it does not differ from the forms *write, writes, wrote* in its lexical meaning) and, consequently, it is a simple verbal predicate. The phrases with the verbs *can, may, must, ought* (in the latter case with *to)* constitute a compound verbal predicate (this is almost universally recognized). But the phrases with the verbs *wish, want, desire, hate, fear, begin, start, continue,* etc. give rise to doubts and controversies. On the whole, there are two views expressed in this matter. According to one of them, all such phrases are also a compound predicate: the finite verb *(wish, begin,* etc.) does not denote "any action of its own, it merely denotes the subject's attitude to the action expressed by the following infinitive (in the case of *wish, fear,* etc.), or a phase in the development of that action, namely, its beginning, continuation, etc. (in the case of *begin, continue,* etc.); consequently, it is argued, the phrase as a whole constitutes the predicate of the sentence: it is a compound verbal predicate, just as in the case of *can, may,* or *ought.*

This argument, as will be easily seen, is based on purely semantic reasons: its decisive point is that the finite verb does not denote any special action and only denotes the subject's attitude to it, or a phase of the action itself. But this is irrelevant from the grammatical viewpoint. What is more, this line of reasoning is dangerous: if we were to follow it to its logical consequences we should have to include into the predicate not only such phrases as *stopped laughing, avoided meeting,* and a number of other phrases including the gerund, but also such phrases as *began his work, continued his speech, liked his job,* and a number of other phrases containing a noun. Indeed, from the semantic viewpoint, on which the argument for *began to work* being the predicate is based, there is no difference between *began to work* and *began his work.*

Therefore, approaching phenomena from a grammatical view point, which is the essential one here, we start from the assumption that in the phrase *began his work* the group *his work* is a "separate -(secondary) part of the sentence (an object)[58]. This shows that the verb *begin* can be followed by a noun functioning as an object (the same of course applies to a number of other verbs). Since the verb begin can take an object there appears to be no reason to deny that an infinitive following this verb is an object as well. We might give here a table based on what is called transformation:

began to work — began *his*(rather *the* - H.G.M) *work*
continued to work — continued *his*(rather *the*- H.G.M) *work*
liked to sing— liked songs, etc.

On the other hand, no table of this kind is possible with such verbs as *can, may, must, ought:* they cannot under any circumstances be followed by a noun, and this is an important difference on which syntactic analysis should be based.

Another question of a similar kind arises with reference to sentences containing idioms of the pattern verb+noun", e. g. *мак a mistake, make one's appearance, have a look, have a smoke, take a glance,* etc. Here two different approaches are possible, and the approach chosen will predetermine all conclusions to be arrived at in considering concrete examples.

One approach would be to say that if a phrase is a phraseological unit, that is, if its meaning is not equal to the sum of the meanings of its components, it cannot be divided into two parts of the sentence, and has to be taken as one part, namely, the predicate.

The other approach would be to say that such phraseological phenomena belong to the sphere of lexicology alone and are irrelevant for grammar, that is, for sentence analysis.

The choice between the two approaches entirely depends on the view one takes of grammar, its place in linguistics, and its relation to lexicology. It does not seem possible to prove that one of the approaches is right and the other wrong.

One of the arguments in favour of the view that phraseological units should be treated as one part of the sentence, is this. If the phrase "verb +- noun" is not a phraseological unit, a separate question can be put to the noun, that is, a question to which the noun supplies an answer. For instance, if we take the sentence *He makes toys* the question would be, *What does he make?* and the answer would be supplied by the word *toys,* which, accordingly, is a separate part of the sentence, namely, an object. If, on the other hand, we take the sentence, *He makes mistakes,* it would not be possible to ask the question, *What does he make?* and to give *mistakes* as an answer to it. Consequently, according to this view, we -cannot say that *mistakes* is a separate part of the sentence, and we must conclude that the phrase *makes mistakes* as a whole is the predicate.

However, this sort of argument is not binding.. The method of asking questions, though widely used In school language teaching, is not a scientifically valid method of syntactic study. In a number of cases the choice of the question is arbitrary, and there are even cases when no question at all can be asked. Thus, the decision between the two alternatives presented above rests with the scholar. This is, and most probably will always be, a matter of opinion rather than of proved knowledge.

Before we go further in this matter, let us consider another case-, also belonging here, namely phrases of the type *come in, bring up, put down,* etc., which we discussed in the chapter of the prepositions, when studying parts of speech.

[58] We are not discussing here the syntactic position of the word *his* (the attribute). For this problem, see p. 229 ff.

Should these phrases be taken as the predicate," or should the predicate be limited to the verb alone *(come, bring, put,* etc.)? This again is a matter of_opinion. The phrase *come in,*]for instance, can equally well be analysed as the predicate of the sentence, and as a combination of the predicate and a secondary part.

On the other hand, the phrase *bring up* (as in the sentence, *They brought up three children)* would be taken to be the predicate, rather than a combination of the predicate with a secondary part, and this of course is due to the meaning of the phrase, which certainly is not equal to the sum of meanings of the verb *bring* and the adverb *up.* This semantic consideration is in favour of taking the whole phrase to be one part of the sentence (its predicate). But again, this argument is not binding. Whether such semantic considerations should or should not be taken into account in syntactic analysis is a matter of opinion. It is ossible to argue that considerations of this kind should not weigh when we are engaged in syntactic studies.

On the whole, we will adhere to the view that such considerations should be taken into account, and accordingly we will consider the phrases *bring up, set in,* etc., as the predicate of the sentence.

Predicate, Or Predicate and Adverbial Modifier .

A long discussion has been going on concerning the structure of such sentences as *He is here,* or *They are at home,* etc. Two views have been put forward.

The traditional view, which had remained undoubted for a long time, was that these were sentences with a simple verbal predicate, expressed by a form of the verb *be,* and followed by an adverbial modifier of place expressed either by an adverb or by a phrase of the pattern "preposition + noun". According to this view, sentences of this type are grammatically quite different from such sentences as, *He is tall,* or *They are on the move,* which of course have a compound nominal predicate consisting of the link verb *be* and a predicative expressed either by an adjective or noun, or by a phrase of the pattern "preposition -+- noun".

However, this view began to arouse doubts and it was pointed out that there was no essential difference between the meaning and function of the verb *be* in one type and in the other; accordingly it would seem that the verb was a link verb in all cases, and whatever followed it was a predicative in all cases, too. It is this view that we find in Prof. A. Smirnitsky's book on English syntax.[59] He considers the group *is here* in a sentence like *He is here,* and the group *are at home* in a sentence like *We are at home* to be a special kind of predicate, which he terms **the adverbial predicate.** In this way the types *They are in London* and *They live in London* are separated from each other: with the verb *be* the phrase "verb + preposition +noun" is an adverbial predicate, while with the verb *live* the verb alone is the predicate and the phrase "preposition -f- noun" is an adverbial modifier, that is, a secondary part of the sentence.

The type *They are in London* is thus brought closer together with the type *They are glad,* etc., where no doubt arises about the structure of the sentence.

It would seem that this is one of the questions which do not admit of a definite solution that might be proved to be the only correct one. The answer which this or that scholar will give to the question is bound to be subjective, that is, some personal predilection of his for this or that way of treating language phenomena is sure to play some part in it. For instance, there is a strong argument in favour of the view that the phrase "preposition+noun" is part of the predicate, not a special secondary part of the sentence, and this is the fact that without the prepositional phrase the sentence with the verb *be* would not be possible: we could not say *They are.* This is an important point, and a point marking a real difference between the sentences *They are in London* and *They live in London:* in the latter sentence we certainly might drop the prepositional phrase, and the sentence would not on that account become impossible: *They live* is quite a normal sentence, though its meaning is quite different from that of the sentence *They live in London: They live* means much the same as *They are alive.*

The sentence *They are in London* is similar to the sentence *They are glad,* in so far as in both cases it is impossible to drop what follows the verb *be:* in both cases the result would be *They are,* which is impossible.

Those, on the other hand, who would prove that the prepositional phrase is an adverbial modifier, might point out that the phrase *in London* in both cases shows the place of the action (it answers the question *Where?)* and that the impossibility of leaving out the prepositional group is irrelevant for defining its syntactic function.

In this way the argument might be protracted indefinitely. In case we arrive at some sort of decision, we must give such an"answer 'as will best suit our view of syntactic phenomena with its inevitable subjective element. So if we have to choose one of the above alternatives, it would seem that the arguments in favour of the group *are in London* being the predicate are more convincing than those given by the other side. So we will rather prefer to say that in the sentence *They are in London* there is only the subject and the predicate and no adverbial modifier at all.

A similar question would of course arise in a number of other sentences and the same sort of reasoning would have to be applied there.

C. Onions, depending on the words modifying the predicate or attached to it, distinguishes two main types of the predicate which may consist of:

a) the verb alone
b) the verb together with some other part or parts of the sentence:
c) verb+predicative adjective

[59] See А. И. Смирницкий, *Синтаксис английского языка,* стр. 115.

d) verb+predicative noun
e) verb+predicative pronoun

We think tht this list may be continued by the following:

a) verb+predicative stative (adlink) (She is alone)
b) verb+predicative numeral (There are two there)
c) verb+predicative adverb (He is there)
d) verb+predicative verbal (s) (My aim is to study)
e) verb+predicative clause (This is what he said), etc.

Here by "verb" C. Onions means the link verb (for further subtypes see his "An Advanced English Syntax", p. 6-9).

It is interesting to refer to **O. Curme**`s treatment of predicate types as to their form:

1. A Finite verb of complete predication (Birds sing, Dogs bark, etc.)
2. A Predicate verb of incomplete predication +complement (The whale is a mammal: Man is mortal, etc.). Here we see the link verb of various types functioning as a grammatical part of the predicate (See: O. Curme. Grammar of the English Language, p. 5-158).
3. Predicate Appositive (He came home sick: I went to bed tired and sleepy, etc.)

Such grammarians as **N. A. Kobrina, E. A. Korneyeva** speak of the following types of the predicate as to their semantics:

1) The actional predicate (She sighed a little). In such cases there`s always a notional verb functioning as a predicate.
2) The statal predicate (He is afraid of it: We are surprised by that, etc.)
3) The qualificative predicate (He was young: She became governess to our children).
4) The objective predicate (…. It contained all the past: She had friends, etc).
5) The situational predicate (It was under your roof: You were there: She remained in the room, etc).
6) The actional-qualificative predicate (I lived coach-man with Mrs. Reed: the sun struck hot, etc).
7) The actional statal predicate (He remained silent: He stood sick and tired, etc).
8) The actional situational predicate (They sat in the parlour: They talked in the kitchen, etc).

We may add some more of such semantic types of the predicate to the above list:

1) actional statal situational predicate

He remained silent in the room.

2) statal qualificative situational predicate

She is afraid of becoming a teacher at school.

As to structure the above mentioned grammarians distinguish two main types of the predicate:

1) Simple predicate (She sighed: They were standing, etc).
2) Compound predicate (He is a student: She ought to pay for it, etc. See: "N. A. Kobrina", E. A. Korneyeva, An Outline of Modern English Syntax, M., 1065, pp.19-26).

Questions on the theme:

1. *What are the principle parts of the sentence?*
2. *What is a subject?*
3. *What is a predicate?*
4. *What are the secondary parts of the sentence?*
5. *What is an object?*
6. *What ia an attribute?*
7. *What is an adverbial modifier?*
8. *What adverbial modifiers do you know?*
9. *What are the tertiary parts of sentence?*
10. *What is parenthesis?*
11. *What is an appendid modifier distinguished by Kobrina and Korneeva?*
12. *What subtuypes of an appendid modifier do you know in Modern English?*
13. *What are the loose parts?*
14. *What is an introductory element or part of the sentence?*
15. *What is an inserted element or part of the sentence?*
16. *What subjects are their in Modern English(, simple, complex(John's dancing is beautiful) real, formal introductory/anticipatory(with it at the beginning of the sentence)?*
17. *What predicate types do you knowin Modern English?*
18. *What is a simple predicate?*
19. *Is simple predicate always verbal?*
20. *Do you recognize the existence of the simple nominal predicate as to B.A.Ilyish?*
21. *What is a Compound predicate?*
22. *What subtypes of the compound predicate do you know?*
23. *What is a mixed type of a predicate?*

24. *What mixed types of predicates do you know?*
25. *What is an adverbial predicate distinguished by prof I. Smirnitsky?*
26. *What is B.A.Ilyish's reaction to Smirnitsky's adverbial predicate?*
27. *What semantic types of sentences do you know in Modern English?*
28. *Is it correct and complete to distinguish semantic types of predicate? Is it copeable?*

The theory of the secondary parts of the sentence.

In Modern English traditionally the following secondary parts of a sentence are distinguished :

1) Object (direct, indirect, simple, complex, cognate, complement(not always object), etc).
2) Attribute (prepositive/postpositive).
3) Apposition (prepositive/postpositive).

Our analyses show that all the types of the parts of the sentence can be expressed in three ways:

1) words
2) phrases
3) clauses

THE OBJECT. It is well known that there are several types of objects and some kind of classification has to be found for them. Objects differ from one another, on the one hand, by their morphological composition, that is, by the parts of speech or phrases which perform the function of object, and on the. other hand, in some cases objects modifying a part of the sentence expressed by a verb form (and that is most usually the predicate) differ by the type of their relation to the action expressed by the verb (it is to this difference that the terms "direct object" and "indirect object" are due).

Since the latter distinction applies only to a certain morphological type of objects, it will be convenient to take first the classification according to morphological differences.

From this point of view we must draw a distinction between non-prepositional and prepositional objects. Under the latter heading we will include every object of the type "preposition + noun or pronoun", no matter what preposition makes part of it, whether it be a preposition with a very concrete meaning, such as *between,* or a most abstract one, such as *of* or *to.* In establishing the two types of objects (non-prepositional and prepositional) we do not ask the question whether a prepositional object can or cannot be synonymous with a non-prepositional (as is the case with some objects containing the preposition *to).*

Both non-prepositional and prepositional objects (more especially the latter) may sometimes be hard to distinguish from adverbial modifiers.

We will not attempt to give an exhaustive list of possible morphological types of non-prepositional objects but we will content ourselves with pointing out the essential ones.

These, then, are the important morphological types. An object may be expressed by a noun, a pronoun (of different types), a subst construction antivized adjective, an infinitive, and a gerund. In some few special cases an object may be expressed by an adverb (as in the sentence *We will leave here next week)*[1]

The classification of objects into direct and indirect ones applies only to objects expressed by nouns or pronouns (and occasionally substantivized adjectives). It has no reference whatever to objects expressed by an infinitive, a gerund, or a phrase. With objects of these kinds the question whether they are direct or indirect would be meaningless. But even with objects expressed by nouns or pronouns the distinction is far from being always clear.

We will begin our study of direct and indirect objects by a type of sentence in which both objects are found simultaneously and no other interpretation of the facts seems possible.

A case in point are sentences in which the predicate is expressed by the verbs *send, show, lend, give,* and the like. These verbs usually take two different kinds of objects simultaneously: (1) an object expressing the thing which is sent, shown, lent, given, etc., and (2) the person or persons to whom the thing is sent, shown, lent, given, etc. The difference between the two relations is clear enough: the direct object denotes the thing immediately affected by the action denoted by the predicate verb, whereas the indirect object expresses the person towards whom the thing is moved. This is familiar in sentences like *We sent them a present, You showed my friend your pictures,* etc. It is well known that when the two objects occur together in a sentence, they are distinguished by their relative places in the sentence, that is, by word order: the indirect object stands first, and the direct object comes after it.[2]

However, even in sentences in which there are two objects simultaneously the distinction between direct and indirect objects is not always clear. With some verbs, and owing to their peculiar meanings, there are not sufficient objective facts to prove that one object is direct, and the other indirect. This is the case with the verbs *tell* and *teach.* They can take simultaneously two objects, one denoting the person addressed and the other the news told or the subject taught, as in the sentences, *He told me the whole story,* or *She taught the children geography.* So far the structure seems to be the same as in the above sentences with the verbs *send, show,* etc., and we might call the objects *me* and *the children* indirect, and the objects *the whole story* and *geography* direct. There is, however, something to be said against that view. The verbs *tell* and *teach* can also be used in a different way, as will be seen from the following sentences, *He told me about his success,* and *She taught children.* In the former sentence the first object denotes the person addressed but the second is expressed by a prepositional phrase and cannot be called a direct object; in the latter sentence there is no second object at all. Under these

circumstances there would seem to be no reasonable objective ground for calling the first object in each of these sentences an indirect object.

There is another consideration here which rather tends toward the same conclusion. In studying different kinds of objects it is also essential to take into account the possibility of the corresponding passive construction. It is well known that in English there is a greater variety of possible passive constructions than in many other languages. For instance, the sentence *We gave him a present* can have two passive equivalents: *A present was given to him* (here the subject corresponds to the direct object in the active construction), and *He was given a present* (here the subject corresponds to the indirect object of the active construction). However, the second passive variant is only possible if the direct object is there, too The sentence *He was given* in this sense (without the direct object) would not be possible. Now, with the verbs *tell* and *teach* things are different. It is quite possible to say *The story has been told many times* and I *have been told about it* (in this case the subject corresponds to the indirect object of the active construction, and there is no direct object in the sentence). In a similar way, it is possible to say *Geography is taught by a new teacher* and also *Children are taught by a new teacher* (without any direct object and indeed without any object corresponding to "geography"). From this point of view the sentences with the verbs *tell* and *teach* are different from those with the verbs *send, show, give,* etc. With the former there are not sufficient objective grounds for saying that one object is direct, and the other indirect.

As to sentences containing one object only, there are no grounds at all for saying that the object is "indirect". Sentences with the verb *help* are a case in point. In the sentence *We will help our friends,* for instance, there is nothing to show whether the object is direct or indirect. *

The object with verbs meaning 'to call by telephone or telegraph' is another case in point. We might suppose that the object with such verbs is indirect. The usual type of sentence, with the verb in the active voice, does not give any clue to this. *For* instance, in the following sentence there is nothing to show whether the object of *telegraph* is direct or indirect: *"That's fine," she replied. "ТЦ telegraph Lee right away that I'm coming."* But there are cases in which a verb of this category is used in the passive voice, e. g. *Three days later, I was surprised to be rung up by Charles,* that is, in the corresponding sentence with the predicate verb in the active voice, *he rang me up,* the object might equally be said to be a direct one.

Now, moreover, this question of direct and indirect objects is also connected with one type of object expressed by a phrase, namely the one of the pattern *"to* -f- noun or pronoun". It is common knowledge that the thought expressed in the sentence *He gave me a present* can also be expressed in a slightly different way, namely, *He gave a present to me. t* We may call the first of the two objects direct because it stands in the same relation to the predicate verb as in the sentence *He gave me a present.* As to the second object, which includes a preposition, it is doubtful whether it will serve any useful purpose to call it an indirect object, since objects of the pattern "preposition -f- noun or pronoun" cannot be direct, [2] so that for objects of this kind there is no opposition of direct and indirect. If, however, we insist that the function of *to me* in this sentence is the same as that of *me* in the sentence *He gave me a present,* we shall have to include all prepositional objects under the heading of indirect objects and to change the system of classification which we have so far followed, in accordance with this view. It must be admitted that either way entails difficulties. If we follow the line adopted, we have to separate *to me* in the sentence *He gave a present to me* from *me* in the sentence *He gave me a present;* but then we can restrict the division of objects into direct and indirect to noun and pronoun objects (without preposition). If, on the other hand, we take *to me* to be an indirect object, we are obliged to extend the category of indirect objects to the prepositional ones; by way of compensation, we can keep up the connection between *me* in the sentence *He gave me a present* and *to me* in the sentence *He gave a present to me.* It would seem that, on the whole, the first alternative is preferable.

There is another question to be discussed concerning prepositional objects. Let us compare the following two sentences: *We spoke about recent events,* and *We bought about twenty books.* Everybody will see at once that relations between the parts of the sentence are not the same in both cases. In the first sentence, the preposition denotes a relation between the action denoted by the verb and the thing denoted by the noun. The sentence is based on the pattern "speak about something". In the second sentence, the verb *buy* is not associated with a preposition: there is no pattern "buy about something". The word *about* does not denote any relation between the action and the thing, and bears in fact no relation at all to the verb. It is connected with[1] the numeral only and shows that the number denoted by the numeral is not here given as exact. It is even doubtful whether the word *about* is here a preposition, as both its meaning and function are different from those of prepositions.[1] If we take this view, the object in this case will not be prepositional, and this is perhaps the best way out of the difficulty. If, however, we insist on the word *about* being a preposition we shall have to distinguish between two different types of objects corresponding to the pattern "preposition -f- noun or pronoun"; a necessary feature of the type we are now considering would be the numeral preceding the noun, so that the pattern would be this: "preposition *(about, over, under)* -f- cardinal numeral -f- noun". A decisive point of difference between the types would be this. In type 1 (as in the sentence *We spoke about recent events)* the preposition cannot be left out: a sentence *We spoke recent events* is impossible. In type 2 the preposition can be left out without affecting the grammatical correctness of the sentence; only the idea of approximation conveyed by the word *about* in this context will disappear.

THE ATTRIBUTE. As we have already discussed the cases where the distinction between object and attribute is neutralized, so that a secondary part can equally be termed the one or the other (see above, p. 222), we need not dwell on these cases here but we can turn to the attribute as such.

An attribute can either precede or follow the noun it modifies. Accordingly we use the terms "prepositive" and "postpositive" attribute. The position of an attribute with respect to its head word depends partly on the morphological peculiarities of the attribute itself, and partly on stylistic factors.

We will discuss this question at some length in the chapter on word order. Now we will examine some questions concerning the prepositive attribute, that is, one that comes before its head word.

The size of a prepositive attributive phrase can be large in Modern English. This is mainly due to the fact that whatever is included between the article (definite or indefinite) and the noun is apprehended as an attribute to the noun. Examples of attributes reaching considerable length are met with in usual literary (though not in colloquial) style. This is what we can see in the following sentence:

Leander was above all young, it seemed to him, charmingly, crashingly so, with only a slightly greater than usual *grace*

The phrase *slightly greater than usual* is characterized as an attribute by its position between the indefinite article and the noun *grace*, so that no misunderstanding is possible here. Compare the following example:

... her courage was not equal to a wish of exploring them after dinner, either by the fading light of the sky between six and seven o'clock, or by the yet more partial though stronger *illumination of a treacherous lamp.*

It is interesting to note that some antecedents can have both types of attribute (prepositive and postpositive) as in the cases of "*the fading light of the sky",* which is characteristic of English and even Russian, for they both represent Indoeuropean languages, whereas Uzbek has only prepositive attributes like "осмоннинг сўниб бораётган ёруғи»

The attributive group here is rather long *(yet more partial though stronger)* but it is held together by being placed between the definite article and the noun *illumination.* It is essential that no other noun appears between the article and *illumination.* In this example we have even the subordinating conjunction *though* introducing the second attributive adjective *stronger,* so that the structure of the attributive group almost oversteps the limits of a clause. Compare also the following sentence from a modern novel: *He was relieved when I motioned to him and started to wrap the by now almost insensible figure of Melissa in the soft Bokhara rug.*

Such attributes can acquire enormous proportions in humorous writings, so that whole sentences with subordinate clauses are squeezed into them, as in the following example (from an article containing criticism of the most common types of British crime films):

The "I-ain't-askin'-no-questions-just-tell-me-what-to-do" kind and the "My-God,-Henry,-you-must-believe-me" kind (which can also be described as the "Why-the-devil-can' t-you-leave-my-wif'e-alone-C'an't-you-see-she's-distressed" kind of the threadbare variations are endlessly woven around them.

The hyphens connecting the various elements do not of course mean that the whole has coalesced into one monstrous word: they merely serve to show the unity of the syntactical formation functioning as an attribute. It goes without saying that such possibilities are due to the absence of inflections for number, gender, and case in the part of speech which most-usually performs the function of an attribute, namely, the adjective.

This consideration brings us to what is the most difficult question in the study of the attribute, its position in the general system of parts of the sentence. The question is briefly this: is the attribute a secondary part of the sentence standing on a footing of equality with the object and the adverbial modifier, or is it a unit of a lower rank? Approached from another angle, the question would be this: is the attribute a constituent of the sentence, or does it belong to the level of phrases? This is of course a problem of general linguistics, and it has been discussed with reference to different languages. Here we will treat it taking into account the specific conditions of Modern English.

The problem can best be approached in the following way. If we take the sentence: *History only emerged in the eighteenth century as a literary art...* and if we want to state the parts of the sentence, we shall stop at the phrase *in the eighteenth century.* We shall have to choose between two views: (1) *in the century* is an adverbial modifier of time; *eighteenth* is an attribute; the two secondary parts of the sentence stand on the same syntactical level; (2) *in the eighteenth century* is an adverbial modifier of^t^jp and is (as a whole) a secondary member of the sentence, ^..v^/j-iug the predicate verb *emerged; eighteenth* is part of that adverbial modifier, which is expressed by a phrase, and it is part of the phrase, not of the sentence: it stands on a lower level than the sentence with its parts, i. e. it stands on the phrase level, being an attribute to the noun *century.*

The same reasoning and the same choice would of course apply to the phrase *as a literary art.* The two possible views of its syntactic function would be these: (1) *as a(n) art* is a part of the sentence, namely a predicative; *literary* is another part, namely an attribute, standing syntactically on the same level with it; (2) *as a literary art* as a whole is a part of the sentence, namely, a predicative; *literary* is part of the predicative, and thus not a separate part of the sentence: it is part of the phrase, namely an attribute to the noun *art,* and stands on a lower level than the sentence and its parts: it stands on the phrase level.

To give another example, prof B.A.Ilyish takes the sentence which is abundant in attributes as such:

"*In the rich brown atmosphere peculiar to back rooms in the mansion of a Forsyte, the Rembrandtesque effect of his great head, with its white hair, against the cushion of his high-backed seat, was spoiled by the moustache, which imparted a somewhat military look to his face.*

We will consider the following phrases: *in the rich brown atmosphere; the Rembrandtesque effect; of his great head; with its white hair; a somewhat military look.* With all of these the following two ways of analysis are possible: (1) *in*

the atmosphere is an adverbial modifier of place, *rich* and *brown* are attributes — secondary parts of the sentence, on the same level as the adverbial modifier; *the effect* is the subject of the sentence, *Rembrandtesque* is an attribute — a secondary part of the sentence; *with hair* is an object, *its* and *white* are attributes; *a look* is an object, *military* an attribute, *somewhat* an adverbial modifier of degree, the last two being separate secondary parts and outside the object; (2) *in the rich brown atmosphere* is an adverbial modifier of place, *rich* and *brown* are parts of the phrase and, being attributes, stand on a lower level than secondary parts of the sentence; *the Rembrandtesque effect* is the subject of the sentence; *Rembrandtesque*, the attribute, is part of the phrase, not of the sentence as such; *with its white hair* is an object; *white*, the attribute, a part of the phrase; *a somewhat military look* is an object, *military* and *somewhat* are parts of the phrase, not of the sentence as such, *military* being an attribute to the noun *look.*[60]

There obviously is much to be said in favour of the view that the attribute in each case is a part of a phrase, rather than of the sentence. For one thing, it should be noted that in some cases the attribute cannot be left out without making the text grammatically incorrect. For instance, if we leave out the attributes *his* and *great* in the *of his great head*, we shall get the impossible expression *the effect of head.* Then, in some cases, though the omission of an attribute would not make the construction wrong, it would deprive it of any reasonable sense, as in the end of our example, which would then run like this: *...the moustache, which imparted a look to his face.*

Against this latter point it may be argued that this is a semantic consideration which should have no influence on syntactic analysis, so that the point seems to remain doubtful. The first point seems more compelling, because it is strictly grammatical: the sentence without the attribute in question proves to be syntactically impossible.

Speaking more generally, the very fact that an attribute often comes within a part of the sentence (whether a main or a secondary one), for example, between the article and the noun to which the article belongs, and that in a number of cases it cannot be "extracted" without damaging the grammatical structure of the sentence, speaks strongly in favour of the view that the attribute stands on a lower level than the usual parts of the sentence (including the secondary ones) and that it should be considered a part of a phrase, not of a sentence. This view also gives the structure of the sentence a deeper perspective, as it opens up a syntactical sphere beyond that of parts of the sentence.

However, this view of the attribute also entails difficulties. To illustrate these, we may turn to the sentence from Galsworthy's "Man of Property" which we have just been considering. The end of the sentence runs like this: *...which imparted a somewhat military look to his face.* If we agree that the attribute *military* is not a separate part of the sentence but makes part of the phrase object whose centre is the noun *look,* this has its consequences for the adverb *somewhat,* which modifies the adjective *military.* If *military* is not a separate part of the sentence, *somewhat* obviously cannot be one either, as it is syntactically subordinate to a word which itself is not a part of the sentence. This leads to the conclusion that *somewhat* also makes part of the phrase of which *look* is the centre, and has to be treated accordingly. On the other hand, *somewhat* would seem to perform in this sentence a function similar to that which it performs in a sentence like *His look was somewhat military,* where *military* is the predicative, and *somewhat* an adverbial modifier belonging to it, and in this much a secondary part of the sentence. The functions of the word *somewhat* in the two sentences, though similar as far as its relation to its head word *military* is concerned, are different, according as the word *military* itself is a predicative or an attribute. It would seem to follow from this that a kind of double syntactic analysis is necessary. This question is a very difficult one indeed and a satisfactory solution has not so far been found.

The apposition. The apposition has been often regarded as a special kind of attribute, and sometimes as a secondary part of a sentence distinct from an attribute.

By apposition we mean a word or phrase referring to a part of the sentence expressed by a noun, and giving some other designation to the person or thing named by that noun. If the noun denotes a person, the apposition will often be a word or phrase naming the title, or profession, or social position of the person, etc., as the word *Captain* in the sentence, *For a moment, Melanie thought how nice Captain Butler was.* Concerning the apposition the same question may arise as concerning the attribute, namely, whether it is not part of a phrase rather than of a sentence, and arguments similar to those applied to the attribute may be put forward here.

As to the relation between an apposition and an attribute, there seems to be no convincing reason for considering the apposition a special kind of attribute. An apposition appears to have distinctive features strong enough to establish it as a separate secondary part: it is always expressed either by a noun, or by a phrase centred around a noun, and characterizes the person or thing in a way different from that of an attribute. This will become clear if we compare the phrases *stone wall* and *President Roosevelt:* the relations between their components are entirely different.

The adverbial modifier. We must begin by stating that the term "adverbial modifier" cannot be said to be a very happy one, as it is apt to convey erroneous ideas about the essence of this secondary part. The word "adverbial" may give rise to two notions, both of them wrong. For one thing, we may suppose that an adverbial modifier is always expressed by an adverb, which of course is not true: an adverbial modifier may be expressed by different morphological means. Secondly, the term "adverbial" may give rise to the notion that an adverbial modifier always modifies a verb, which is also wrong: an adverbial modifier may modify a part of the sentence expressed by an adjective or by an adverb, as well as by a verb. As the

[60] The function of the adverb *somewhat* and of other words in a similar position requires special discussion. See below, p. 233.

term "adverbial modifier" is firmly established, it would be futile to try and substitute another term in its place. So we will keep the term, bearing in mind what has been said about its meaning.

There are several ways of classifying adverbial modifiers: (1) according to their meaning, (2) according to their morphological peculiarities, (3) according to the type of their head word.

Our observations show that adverbial modifiers, like any other parts of the sentence, can be expressed by :1) words; 2) phrases; 3) clauses

Of these, the classification according to meaning is not in itself a grammatical classification. For instance, the difference between an adverbial modifier of place and one of time is basically semantic and depends on the lexical meaning of the words functioning as adverbial modifiers. However, this classification may acquire some grammatical significance, especially when we analyze word order in a sentence and one semantic type of adverbial modifier proves to differ in this respect from another.

Therefore the classification of adverbial modifiers according to their meaning cannot be ignored by syntactic theory.

Classification according to morphological peculiarities, i. e. according to the parts of speech and to phrase patterns, is essential: it has also something to do with word order, and stands in a certain relation to the classification according to meaning.

Classification according to the element modified is the syntactic classification proper. It is of course connected in some ways with the classification according to meaning; for instance, an adverbial modifier can modify a part of the sentence expressed by a verb only if the type of meaning of the word (or phrase) acting as modifier is compatible with the meaning of a verb, etc.

A complete classification of adverbial modifiers according to their meaning, i. e. a list of all possible meanings they can have, is impossible to achieve, and it would serve no useful purpose. A certain number of meanings can be found quite easily, such as place, time, condition, manner of an action, degree of a property, etc., but whatever list we may compile along these lines, there are bound to be special cases which will not fit in. For instance, in the sentence *I saw him at the concert* it is hard to tell whether the adverbial modifier *at the concert* expresses place or time; and the dilemma appears to be futile. Since all this depends on the lexical meanings of words, possibilities here are practically boundless. We must therefore content ourselves with establishing some main categories and abstain from trying to squeeze every single adverbial modifier that may occur in a sentence into a "pigeonhole" prepared for it.

So pushing off from the meaning(semantics) of the adverbial modifiers we can classify them into the following types: adverbial modifier of : place, time, reason /cause, purpose, condition, concession, result, comparison, manner, degree and measure. All of these adverbial modifiers can be expressed by a: 1)word; 2) phrase; 3) clause. We will illustrate them one by one:

So adverbial modifier of :

1) *place is expressed by:*
2) *word: Jack lives there*
3) *phrase: Nick works at school*

a. *clause: Jill works where I live*

4) *time is expressed by:*
5) *word: They will come today.*
6) *phrase: She will work in the afternoon*
7) *clause: The teacher goes home when the classes are over*
8) *reason /cause is expressed by:*
9) *word: The boy went there deliberately*

i. *phrase : The mother could not come to the concert because of her overwork.*

10) *Clause: The girl came home late because she had overworked*
11) *purpose is expressed by:*
12) *word: The man came there hopefully.*
13) *phrase: The old man went there on purpose.*
14) *clause: We work very hard in order that we may earn enough money to buy a house.*
15) *condition is expressed by:*
16) *word: You have to do things unconditionally*
17) *phrase: We can do it on strict conditions*
18) *clause: If you come, we shal do it.*
19) *concession is expressed by: We must go there irrespectively (of the weather*

i. *(irrespectively, respectively)*

20) *He came to the party despite his illness*
21) *Though he was ill , he came to the party*
22) *result is expressed by: This box is too difficult to to carry*
23) *We shouted so loudly that everybody could hear us*
24) *comparison is expressed; They are getting alike*

a. He dances like father
25) They behave themselves *as their their parents do*
26) The boy looked at me as if he was wishing to go there with me
27) degree and measure is expressed by: He works very much
1. We know him very little
2. They helped us a bit ,
3. He spoke a lot
4. They talked a little
5. The more you learn , the more you know,

As to the classification according to morphological peculiarities, it can probably be made exhaustive, although some of the morphological types are met with very seldom indeed.

The most usual morphological type seems to be the adverb. This is testified, among other things, by the fact that the very term for this part of the sentence is derived (in English, and also, for instance, in German) from the term "adverb". In some grammar books the two notions are even mixed up. Occasionally an author speaks of adverbs, where he obviously means adverbial modifiers.[61]

Another very frequent morphological type of adverbial modifier is the phrase pattern "preposition + noun" (also the type "preposition + adjective + noun" and other variations of this kind). This type of adverbial modifier is one of those which are sometimes indistinguishable from objects, or rather where the distinction between object and adverbial modifier is neutralized.

A noun without a preposition can also in certain circumstances be an adverbial modifier. To distinguish it from an object, we take into account the meanings of the words, namely the meaning of the verb functioning as predicate, and that of the noun in question. It must be admitted, though, that even this criterion will not yield quite definite results, and this means that the decision will be arbitrary, that is, the distinction between the two secondary parts is neutralized here, too. Let us consider, for instance, the function of the noun *hour* in a sentence like *They appointed an hour* and in a sentence like *They waited an hour.* Since the noun is the same in both cases, the distinction, if any, can only be due to the meaning of the verb in its relation to that of the noun. In the first sentence we will take the noun *hour* as an object — on the analogy of many other nouns, which can also follow this particular verb (e. g. *appoint a director),* and which can all be made the subject of this verb in a passive construction (e. g. *A director has been appointed).* In the second sentence, things are different, as the verb *wait* can only be followed by a very few nouns without a preposition (e. g. *Wait a minute),* and a passive construction is impossible. This appears to constitute an essential difference between the two.

However, we should not overestimate the force of theser observations. In the first place, there are cases when a noun following the predicate verb is doubtless an object, and yet a corresponding passive construction does not exist.[62] In the second place, a passive construction proves to be possible in some cases when we should rather call the noun in the active construction an adverbial modifier. Something similar is found in the familiar example *The bed had not been slept in,* which corresponds to a sentence with the verb in the active voice, *Nobody had slept in the bed.* If we had been given only the latter sentence for analysis, we should probably have said that *in the bed* was an adverbial modifier of place; the possibility of the corresponding passive construction rather shows that it is an object. But the absence of a corresponding passive construction is hardly final proof of the secondary part being an adverbial modifier. Perhaps we will do best to say that the opposition between object and adverbial modifier tends to be neutralized here, too.

A very frequent morphological type of adverbial modifier is the infinitive or an infinitive phrase. This is especially true of the adverbial modifier of purpose, which may be expressed by the infinitive preceded by the particle *to* or the phrase *in order to.* However, we cannot say that every infinitive or infinitive phrase acting as a secondary part of the sentence must necessarily be an adverbial modifier of purpose, or indeed an adverbial modifier of any kind. Let us compare the following two sentences: *I wanted to read the advertisement,* and / *stopped to read the advertisement.* From a purely structural point of view there would seem to be no difference between the two sentences. It is the meanings of the verbs *want* and *stop* which lie at the bottom of the difference. Grammatically speaking, a transformation test is possible which will bring out the difference in function between the two infinitives. In the sentence *I stopped to read the advertisement* we can insert *in order* before the particle *to,* or, in other words, replace the particle *to* by the phrase *in order to:* in doing so, we get the sentence *I stopped in order to read the advertisement,* which is good English and does not differ in meaning from the original sentence. With'the sentence *I wanted to read the advertisement* such a change would not be possible. If we consider this experiment to be a grammatical proof we can say that the difference in the functions of the infinitive in the two sentences is grammatical. If we deny this the conclusion will be that the distinction between the two secondary parts is neutralized here too.

There are also cases when the infinitive is an adverbial modifier, but not one of purpose. This is the case, on the one hand, in such sentences as / *was glad to see him,* where the meaning of the adjective *glad* shows the semantic relations, and, on the other hand, in such sentences as the following: *Denis woke up the next morning to find the sun shining, the sky serene.* It is clear from the lexical meanings of the words *woke up* and *find* that the infinitive as adverbial modifier does not

[61] See, for example, H. Sweet, *A New English Grammar,* Part II, § 1833.
[62] Thus, for instance, the verb *resemble* can, and even must, have a direct object, but it cannot be used in the passive voice.

indicate the purpose of the action but the circumstances that followed it (Denis woke up and found the sun shining). The infinitive *to find* is indeed typical of such adverbial modifiers, as has been pointed out by E. Korneyeva.[63]

The same is seen in the following example: *She balanced perilously there for a few more minutes, then lurched and fell back to awake with a start and grab at the horse ...* (the horse mentioned here is a statue). It is evident from the lexical meanings of the verbs *fell* and *awake* that the infinitive does not express purpose but ensuing circumstances: it would be impossible for a person to fall in order to awake. So the lexical meanings of words are of first-rate importance for the status of the infinitive: the form of the infinitive does not in itself determine anything beyond that the phrase in question is a secondary part of the sentence. The following sentence is also a clear example of this kind of infinitive modifier:

A young man of twenty-two or so pushed open the wide, green doors of the aviary to be greeted by a gust of piercing whistles, trills, chirps and murmurings from the double row of cages that lined two walls of the long, low building.

The infinitive in question is here passive, but the grammatical category of voice does not in itself give sufficient material to judge of the type of modifier we have here: a passive action might after all be the purpose of an action. It is rather the lexical meanings of the words and "common- sense" that make everything clear: it could not be the man's purpose to be greeted by whistles, etc., of birds. Thus the modifier is clearly one of subsequent events.

A different kind of relation between an adverbial modifier and its head word is found when the head word is an adjective or adverb preceded by the adverb *too:*

But Magnus's spirit was too robust and buoyant to admit of difficulties for long. At first he had been too surprised to feel any definite emotion.

The actual meaning resulting from the pattern *"too* + adjective (adverb) -f- *to* -\- infinitive" of course is, that the action denoted by the infinitive does not take place.

Roughly speaking, in summing up the relations between the semantic and the morphological types of adverbial modifiers, we may say that some general statements on their relations can be made: for example, an adverbial modifier of place can never be expressed by an infinitive; an infinitive can express either an adverbial modifier of purpose, or one of subsequent events, etc. No straightforward law about correspondences between the two classifications is possible.

As to the parts of the sentence which an adverbial modifier may modify, they have been enumerated above. It follows from, this definition that an adverbial modifier cannot modify a part of the sentence expressed by a non-verbal noun; in other words, a secondary part modifying a part expressed by a noun cannot be an adverbial modifier. This may be taken as a guiding principle, though it is purely conventional, being the logical consequence of the definition adopted. But it must also be stated that from a scientific viewpoint it is irrelevant whether we call an adverb or phrase modifying a noun an attribute or an adverbial modifier.

There are certain parts of the sentence which are known as the loose parts of the sentence because they are really loose or detached parts of the sentence, separated from the other parts of the sentence usually by comma and seeming to be hanging in the sentence structure. Let's treat them one by one.

Loose Parts

The theory of loose parts of the sentence is another backward element of syntactic theory. Even the terminology in this field is far from certain. The term "loose" is used in English grammars chiefly with reference to the apposition: close apposition and loose apposition are two notions opposed to each other in grammatical theory. Another term which may be used is "detached": detached attributes, detached adverbial modifiers, and so forth. We will use the term "loose".

By loose parts of the sentence we mean such parts as are less intimately connected with the rest of the sentence and have some sort of independence, which finds its expression in the intonation and, in writing, in the punctuation.

The question now is, what parts of the sentence can be loose. The main parts, subject and predicate, apparently cannot be loose, as they form the backbone of the sentence from which other parts may be "detached". Objects cannot apparently be loose either. So the following parts remain: attributes, adverbial modifiers, appositions, and parentheses.

Loose Attributes . These may be expressed by the same kind of words and phrases as the usual attributes. Their peculiarity is, that they are separated from their head word by a pause, by an intonation of their own, and by a punctuation mark (usually a comma) in writing. In actual speech such loose attributes often acquire additional shades of meaning, for example, causal or concessive, which are not expressed by any specific means, lexical or grammatical, and entirely depend on the meanings of the words in the sentence. Loose attributes have a somewhat larger sphere of application than ordinary ones: whereas a personal pronoun can hardly ever be a head word for an ordinary attribute, it can be one for a loose attribute. For instance, in the sentence: *Unable to sit there any longer with his mind tormented by thoughts of Tessie, he got up and started walking slowly down the road towards the Fullbrights' big white house* the phrase *unable... Tessie* is a loose attribute to the subject, which is a personal pronoun. In this case the loose attribute acquires a distinctly causal shade of meaning, and this is due to the lexical meanings of the words (mainly, the words *unable to sit* and *got up).* Compare also: *Red in the face, he opened his mouth, but in his nervousness his voice emerged a high falsetto. Living or dead, she could not fail him, no matter what the cost.* The semantic connections between the loose attribute and the rest of the sentence are different in the two cases, but this depends entirely on the lexical meanings of the words involved. It is especially the

[63] Е. А. Корнеева, *О некоторых обстоятельственных функциях приглагольного инфинитива в английском языке.* Ученые записки ЛГПИ им. Герцена, т. 154, 1958

conjunction *or* in the second example that gives the connection a concessive tinge *(living or dead = whether he was living or dead, no matter whether he was living or dead).*

A rarer case is seen in the following sente^nce, where the loose attribute refers to the object *her: Well read in the art of concealing a treasure, the possibility of false linings to the drawers did not escape her, and she felt round each with anxious acuteness in vain.* It is clear from the position of the form *read* immediately after *well* at the opening of the sentence that it is the second participle, and that the whole phrase is a loose secondary member which must be attached to some nominal part in the main body of the sentence. From the lexical meaning of the -verb *read* it is evident that the word referring to the subject of this action must necessarily denote or point to a human being. Now, neither the subject *possibility* nor the nouns *linings* and *drawers* denote human beings, and the pronoun *her* is the first word to satisfy this condition. Accordingly, *well read* must refer to *her*, that is, to the object of the sentence. It must be noted, however, that this usage seems now obsolete.

Loose Adverbial Modifiers .Loose adverbial modifiers are perhaps more frequent even than loose attributes. This is especially true of those adverbial modifiers which do not modify any particular part of the sentence but refer to the sentence as a whole. They are often found at the beginning of the sentence and they point out the place, time, or the general conditions in which the action takes place. This is what we see, for example, in the following sentences:

The next day, Scarlett was standing in front of the mirror with a comb in her hand, and her mouth full of hairpins...

On the third "of July, a sudden silence fell on the wires from the north, a silence that lasted till midday of the fourth...

In Aunt Pitty's house, the three women looked into one another's eyes with fear they could not conceal.

Of course a loose adverbial modifier can also appear elsewhere in the sentence: *Their men might be dying, even now, on the sun-parched grass of the Pennsylvania hills.* From such loose adverbial modifiers, which tend to be rather separated from the rest of the sentence, we can, step by step, arrive at parentheses and insertions.

Loose Appositions. As we pointed out above, the term "loose" was first used in English grammatical theory with reference to appositions. It would seem that in this field the difference between loose and ordinary parts of the sentence was especially obvious to the authors of grammar books. And indeed, the difference between the type of apposition found in a sentence like *As for Uncle Peter, he took it for granted that Scarlett had come to stay* and that in a sentence like *These two ladies with a third, Mrs Whiting, were the pillars of Atlanta* is most evident. The ordinary apposition *[(Uncle)* makes a whole with its head word, it cannot be separated from it either in oral speech (that is, by a pause), or in a written text (that is, by some kind of punctuation mark), whereas a loose apposition *(Mrs Whiting)* is separated from its head word by these means. Loose appositions can contain various kinds of information about the person or thing denoted by the head word.

Loose Parentheses. Besides those parentheses which consist of one word or of a short phrase and are not separated from the main body of the sentence either in speech or in writing (e. g. *perhaps, probably, no doubt,* etc.), there are also parentheses consisting of a larger number of words and necessarily separated from the main body of the sentence. Their semantic relation to the sentence is basically the same as with parentheses of the first kind. A few examples will be enough to illustrate the point:

They know already, to be sure, and everybody knows of our disgrace. At all events, I've got as far as that. Extensive loose parentheses do not appear to be frequent in modern texts.

N. A. Kobrina, E. A. Korneyeva speak of the appended modifier (He was very young, Kraus`s age: George did what he very rarely did-bought a newspaper, etc).

The Appended Modifier (explanatory words or phrases).

Another way of sentence extension but based on syntactical parallelism or doubling is an appended modifier, which usually is parenthetic and follows the headword as an afterthought. It is a dependent part, which can refer to practically any part of the sentence and answer the same question, but in a fuller and more detailing way, narrowing or particularizing the notion, expressed by the headword. Therefore the headword is usually more general in meaning than the appended part; very often it is a pronoun, made explicit by the following nouns.

They were alike, ***his father and he*.**

Being a dependent part of the sentence, the appended part cannot be opposed either to the main, or to secondary parts of the sentence. Its dependence also accounts for the fact why the appended part cannot be considered as homogeneous with the headword. Besides they are very often morphologically inacceptable in the structure of the sentence:

Her face was very pale — *a greyish pallor*. His daily trips were really very easy — *about a mile and a half*. There was very little to do—*parading with the Company inspection, a little drill, orderly officers occasionally*.

Appended parts may be joined asyndetically and in this case they are marked off graphically by a comma or a dash. They may be also joined by some conjunctions with explanatory meaning *(and, or),* or else by explanatory words *(namely, that is, i. e. (= that is), to wit, for example, for instance);* also by intensifying particles *(almost, especially,* etc.).

Language makers, *that is ordinary speakers,* are not very accurate thinkers.

He had discovered that he had a talent for mathematics—*almost a genius for it.*

Another way of linking the appended modifier to its headword is the repetition of the same part with modifying words.

My object is secure happiness—*the happiness of both of us.*

There are three structural types of appended modifiers.

1, The most common case of an appended modifier is when a different word or even a different morphological form refers to the headword. Standing for identical notions, the appended part gives a fuller and more detailed nomination of the same concept. In some way appended modifiers of this type resemble appositions, only unlike appositions, they may refer to word of non-nominal nature (verbs, adverbs). Even referring to nouns, they never qualify words, but particularize the notion.

Yet it worried her, this queer intensity of Hughie's.(appended subject)

(I used to do as Jean Jacques did—lie down on my boat and get it glide whereas it would. (appended predicate)

Hughie wanted to be a star, a footballer in the big league.(appended predicative)

And we'll talk it over, every bit of it.(appended object)

2. Appended modifiers of the second type form a string of homogeneous parts referring to a headword with a general meaning *(thing, problem, question*, etc.). Here again the appended modifiers may refer to differ
ent parts of the sentence.

She kept up her music, she read an awful lot—*novels, poetry, all sorts of stuff.*

She was allowed to choose things from the shop; *jam, or paste, or biscuits, or the slab cake.*

3. Appended parts of the third type—with a repeated headword —usually have an emphatic force.

There was only one road; the main road, the road that struck due East (appended subject)

He had his pride of course, the natural pride of a liberal enlighted man.(appended object)

He had been a fool, a presumptuous fool.(appended predicative)

In silence they stood, in mortal silence. (appended adverbial modifier)

The emphatic force is often manifested by adverbs of degree, intensifying particles *(just, even, especially, particularly, at least, in particular),* or modal words (in *fact, indeed,* etc.).

The explanatory function is carried out by modifying words or attributive clauses.

In one place Winterbourne found ... a French-woman with two starved children living in a cottage with nothing but straw—literally nothing but straw...

They assured him that they were the only men —or almost the only men—left alive...

O. Curme, treating the parts of a sentence, distinguishes the following subordinate elements of a sentence called modifiers:

1) Attributive Adjective Modifiers

2) Objective Modifiers

3) Adverbial Modifiers

As is seen from the aforementioned the first two types of subordinate elements are modifiers of nominal parts of a sentence (subject, object, predicative, etc), whereas the third type modifies verbal, adjectival or adverbial parts of a sentence. (See: N. A. Kobrina et al, op cit. p. 13-158).

So we can conclude that there are three main types of parts of a simple extended sentence: the two well-known traditionally distinguished (principal and secondary) and one more: the tertiary parts of the sentence and here:

1) principal parts: subject and predicate;

2) secondary parts: object, attribute (one of its types is apposition), adverbial modifier (which might be of: time, place, purpose, cause (reason), condition, comparison, concession, result, manner, attendant circumstances);

The ”tertiary parts of the sentence.

3) tertiary parts may be : *introductory elements: introductory parts, introductory clauses, patrenthetical elements: parenthesis and direct address as in the cases:*

As you know, we are alien here.

To tell the truth, I am not a worker.

As we see, the tertiary parts of the sentence are new parts of the sentence which have not either been paid attention to or have been fully ignored for lack of reliable ways of their treatment(they being considered to have no structural and even semantical connections with the main part of the sentences they are built in till nowadays). And we treat them as the tertiary parts of the sentence with full and legitimate rights of a part of a sentence, they are constructed in, for they have both grammatical(as a parenthesis or a direct address) and semantic (as a part adding something new to the semantics of the sentence) ties with the rest part of the host sentence.

The Problem of the Tertiary Parts of the Sentence

There are such parts of the sentence which are known as direct address, parentheticals/introductory elements, words, phrases, clauses/, vocatives(oh, hey, hi , etc.). Traditionally they have been treated as the parts of the sentence, which do not, or can not or should not have the syntactical functions of their own in the sentence, for they are neither principal. nor the secondary parts of the sentence. They always being treated as some parts of the sentence standing outside the grammatical structure of the sentence. But we think that they are also grammatical parts of the sentence, functioning as the tertiary parts of the sentence.

Those many grammarians who don't consider them to be inseparable parts of the sentence, having their syntactical functions along with the principle and secondary parts of the sentence, can not accept that there might be the other parts of the sentence called "tertiary parts of the sentence, but they do exist and function as such.

In treating the above mentioned parts of the sentence, almost all the grammarians consider them to be the outsider parts of the sentence that have no syntactical function at all , but adding some subjective additional information only to the meaning (semantics) of the basic sentence.

The main reason why the majority of the grammarians could not and cannot treat the above mentioned parts of the sentence is that they(these parts of the sentence) do not fit into the traditional dichotomic classification of the parts of the sentence into the principle and secondary ones, they being called introductory or parenthetical elements of the sentence.

We consider them to be tertiary parts of the sentence, which have their both grammatical(syntactical) and semantic functions in the sentence structure like the principal and secondary parts do. The tertiary parts of the sentence then are the followings:

1) direct address(*Jack, Nick,* come on !) and the so called vocatives/ oh, hey, hi , etc./)
2) parentheticals/ introductory elements:
a) words: *sure, certainly, right, etc.;*
b) phrases: *of course, by all means, by the way, etc.;*
c) clauses: *as you know, we are not natives here, as is known, you know, etc.*)

Let's consider each of the tertiary parts in detail.

The Direct Address. There are some elements of the sentence which are neither its main parts, nor any of the usual secondary ones. These are the direct address and the parenthesis.

The direct address and the parenthesis are often said to be outside the sentence, in the sense that they are not an integral part of its structure but are, as it were, added to it "from the outside".[2] This view, however, seems hardly justified and it is based on a rather too narrow view of the structure of a sentence. If we were to take the term "outside the sentence" at its face value, we should have to omit these elements, for example, when asked to read a sentence aloud. This is never done, and should not be done. By "structure of the sentence" we should mean the whole of a sentence, with all the elements which it may contain, with their varying degrees of organic unity. In this sense, then, the direct address is no less a part of the sentence than any other word or phrase.

The direct address is a name or designation of the person or persons (or, occasionally, thing or things) to 'whom the speech or writing is addressed. We should not include in a definition of direct address the purpose of its use, as is done occasionally in grammars.[3] The purpose may be different in different circumstances, but this does not alter the fact that it is a direct address in all cases.

The direct address may consist of one word or of a phrase. If it is one word, this may be the person's name, or profession, or title, or it may denote a relationship between the person addressed and the speaker. If it is a phrase, this may again be any of the types just mentioned, or it may be some emotional address, whether friendly, as *my dear fellow,* or hostile, as *you swine, you old rascal,* etc. In the latter case, it is quite clear that the speaker's purpose in using a direct address is to express his attitude towards the person spoken to, whether it be friendly or otherwise. A few examples from modern fiction will do well to illustrate the various possibilities in the structure and function of the direct address: *Heathenish woman, how right they were to give you that outlandish name.* The adjective *heathenish* of course expresses very violent emotion on the part of the speaker towards the person addressed. Quite a different emotional note is struck in the following sentence: *"Jennie, darling, you're looking very pretty," he said.* (Idem) The name *Jennie* as such is neutral in tone, but the second part of the direct address, *darling,* of course expresses the speaker's emotional attitude toward the person addressed.

The emotional range of the words and phrases used in direct address can of course be very wide indeed, and this deserves close study from a lexical and stylistical viewpoint, but it does not affect the grammatical aspect of the matter.

Parentheses and insertions. Besides the direct address, there are other syntactical elements which are usually said to be outside the sentence. Until recently, they used to be all taken together under the name of parenthesis. This term would then cover a considerable variety of syntactical elements. To illustrate this, we will give two extreme examples from modern texts: (1) *Of course, Mrs Elsing was simply forced to it...* ,(2) *...he told Nelly that an old friend of his had visited him just as he was about to leave, and for politeness' sake — mere politeness, that frailty in human intercourse — he had brought her with him.* It will be readily seen that there is a great difference between the additional element in the two sentences: in (1) the phrase *of course* expresses the speaker's attitude towards the thought expressed in the sentence, whereas in (2) the additional element is of a different kind: it carries some extra information about something mentioned in the sentence.

The Academy's Grammar deviated from the usual view and introduced a new category, that of insertions, as distinct from parentheses. According to this grammar, a parenthesis should be defined as follows: words and phrases which have no syntactical ties with the sentence, and express the speaker's attitude towards what he says, a general assessment of the statement, or an indication of its sources, its connection with other statements, or with a wider context in speech.[64] J

[64] See *Грамматика русского языка,* т. II, я. 2, стр. 142.

In a vast majority of cases, a parenthesis refers to the sentence or clause as a whole. Sometimes, however, it refers only to a secondary part of the sentence. This may be seen, for example, in the following sentences: *I was deeply though doubtless not disinterestedly anxious for more news of the old lady.* Here the parenthesis *doubtless* refers only to the connection between *not disinterestedly* and *anxious. Miss Lavish he believed he understood, but Miss Bartlett might reveal unknown depths of strangeness, though not, perhaps, of meaning.*

The parenthesis *perhaps* refers only to the connection between *not of meaning* and *depths. She could only assure herself that Cecil had known Freddy some time, and that they had always got on pleasantly, except, perhaps, during the last few days, which was an accident, perhaps.*

The two parentheses *perhaps* refer to their special spheres in the sentence, without affecting the main predication expressed in it.

As to insertions, they are described as various additional statements inserted in the sentence. The main carcass of the sentence may be, as it were, interrupted by additional remarks, clarifications, corrections, extra information about something, or remarks containing comparison or contrasting something with what is expressed in the sentence, etc. [x]

In analyzing these definitions, we must first of all see what the difference between a parenthesis and an insertion is and what principle lies at the bottom of it.

It is obvious at once that the difference between the two types as stated here is, in the first place, semantic: it is a difference in the way the parenthesis or the insertion is connected with the main body of the sentence. The connection in the case of parentheses is much closer than in the case of insertions. This in itself is, however, hardly sufficient to describe the two as different grammatical types. We must therefore see what the syntactical aspect of the matter is like. This is not evident from the above definitions. Parentheses are described as having no syntactical connection with the sentence, and the insertions as statements inserted in the sentence, which of course amounts to the same thing. So the grammatical difference between the two types is not well brought out.

If the distinction between parentheses and insertions is to be upheld, a difference in their syntactic peculiarities must be found.

The difference would seem to be this. Parentheses are rather close to adverbial modifiers in their relation to the rest of the sentence. They are a part of the sentence and so they cannot be said to have no connection at all with it. Let us, for instance, compare the two following sentences, the first of which has an adverbial modifier at the beginning, while the second begins with a parenthesis: *Somehow it would come out all right when the war was over. Perhaps you know best about that, but I should say — … .*

There is a clear difference between the two, yet at the same time there is something they have in common.

An interjection, or a phrase equivalent to an interjection, can also be considered a kind of parenthesis (unless, of course, it is a sentence in itself). Thus, the interjection *oh* in the following sentence: *Oh, but she depended entirely on her voice!* can be called a parenthesis, and so can the phrase *oh dear* in the sentence *Oh dear, I hope I shall be a success!*

Now let us take a sentence with an insertion: *And the thought that, after all, he had not really killed her. No, no. Thank God for that. He had not. And yet (stepping up on the near-by bank and shaking the water from his clothes) had he?* Here things are quite different. The insertion contains some information about Clyde's movements as he was brooding in the way expressed by the main body of the sentence.

The very fact that an insertion can only come in the middle of a sentence, interrupting its course, while a parenthesis can also be at the beginning or at the end of a sentence, is an important point of grammatical difference between the two.

This is not to say that these distinctions are always equally clear. As in so many other spheres, borderline cases, which show no clear and unmistakable signs of a word or a phrase performing this or that syntactical function, are quite possible here.

Questions on the theme:

1. What is a “part of sentence?
2. What parts of a sentence do you know?
3. What principal (primary or main, notional) parts of a sentence do you know?
4. What secondary parts of a sentence do you know?
5. What is an object?
6. What is an attribute?
7. What is an apposition?
8. What is an adverbial modifier?
9. What is an adverbial modifier of place?
10. What is an adverbial modifier of time?
11. What is an adverbial modifier of reason/cause?
12. What is an adverbial modifier purpose?
13. What is an adverbial modifier of condition?
14. What is an adverbial modifier of concession?
15. What is an adverbial modifier result?
16. What is an adverbial modifier manner?

17. What is an adverbial modifier of comparison?
18. What is an adverbial modifier degree and measure?
19. What do you know about the appendid modifiers?
20. What is a loose part of the sentence?
21. What loose parts of the sentence do you know?
22. What tertiary parts of the sentence do you know?
23. What do you know about the direct address, parentheticals/introductory elements, words, phrases, clauses, vocatives(oh, hey, hi , etc.)?

LECTURE 10 (2 HOURS)

COMPOSITE(COMPOUND AND COMPLEX) SENTENCE THEORY. THE PROBLEM OF SYNDETIC AND ASYNDETIC TYPES OF COMPOSITE SENTENCE. THE DISPUTABLE TYPES OF COMPOSITE SENTENCES (WITH A PARENTHETICAL (INTRODUCTORY CLAUSE OR COMMENT, AND INSERTED) CLAUSE AND A CLAUSE OF PROPORTION "THE MORE…, THE MORE… TYPE)

Plan:

1. Composite sentence(CS) as a type and the problem of its definition(the roughing of the existing definitions by saying "CS consists of at least two clauses(but at the most what?);

a)"CS proper is a language unit consisting of two simple sentences either coordinated or subordinated– (HGM)".

b))"CS of a mixed type is a language unit consisting of three simple sentences with either 2 coordinated and one subordinated clauses or visa versa(HGM)".

2. Structural(traditional) types of composite sentences(compound, complex, mixed)

3. New structural sentence types are treated as such:

a)"As you know, we are weak", "As is known, it should be vital to work"(They are "CS with a parenthetical clause("Кириш гапли қўшма гаплар " –HGM); (B.A.Ilyish treats them as "complex sentences with a subordinate parenthetical clause")

b) "The man, I guess, is at home now", The problem, you know, (I believe) is how to find the child"(They are CS with "inserted clauses"(киритма гапли қўшма гаплар), traditionally known as comment clauses"-HGM)

c) "Jack(he is my friend) is a good man", "The woman(she is a mother) is wise"(They are CS with appendix clauses("Илова гапли қўшма гаплар"-HGM).

3. CS fall under the following structural types:

a)asyndetic("Jack is a student, his friend is a doctor", "I know he is not here"(the first and the foremost CS type in every language);

b) syndetic("Nick is a writer, but John is a poet"or " I think that you are lying"

3. Composite sentences may be:

a) compound;

b) complex;

c) mixed type

4)Certain Grammarians speak of verbid(or verbal) clauses(Bryant): participle clause,etc.

3.Ambiguous(homonymous) composite sentences and the problem of deciphering them(as in "that, so, so that, as, if, as if, lest, what, which, where-clauses, etc.).

I did it, so I could have a good name.

4. Semantic types of composite sentences(declarative, interrogative, imperative, exclamatory(emotive).

5. Taxemic treatment of Composite sentences.

1) Notion of a Complex Sentence with a parenthetical clause
2) Structural types of Complex Sentence with a parenthetical clause:
a) Complex Sentence with an introductory clause
b) Structural types of Complex Sentence with an introductory clause
c) Complex Sentences with an inserted clause
d) Structural types of Complex Sentence with an inserted clause
e) Complex Sentences with a comment clause and their structural types

6. Conclusion.

Key words*: c o -c l a u s e, s u b- c l a u s e, c o - c o m p l e x, composite sentence, composite sentence as a type, structural types of composite sentences,semantic types of composite sentences,trichotomic classification of sentences into simple, compound and the complex sentence, linked Independent Sentence, structural Patterns of the Complex Sentence,Complex Sentence with a Substantive Clause,Complex Sentence with a Subject Clause,Complex Sentence with a Predicative Clause, Complex Sentence with an Object Clause,Types of the Object Clauses, Complex Sentence with a Complement Clause, Complex Sentence with an Attribute Clause, Sentence with an Adverbial Clause(of time, place, cause, purpose, condition, concession, comparison, result, degree and measure, proportionality, etc.) metaterms for composite sentences, ultrataxeme, taxeme, polytaxeme, collotaxeme, parataxeme, hypotaxeme, hypertaxeme, architaxeme, d i s c o u r s e analysis - the study of continuous streches of language units longer than a single sentence, arguments, narratives, jokes, and speeches also called discourse linguistics.*

The course of lecture:

As has been pointed out in the introduction, the term composite sentence was used by H. Poutsma[65] as a common term for both the compound and the complex sentence and it may be accepted by those schools who adhere trichotomic classification of sentences into simple, compound and complex. This classification established in the English prescriptive grammar of the mid-19th century and accepted and developed by the authors of the classical scientific grammar remains the prevalent scheme of the structural classification of sentences in the grammars of all types in the modern period. A very important syntactic concept which developed along with this classification was the concept of the clause as a syntactic unit, containing a subject and a predicate.

From the very beginning the authors of prescriptive and scientific grammars have intuitively found out the weak link in this classification - the concept of the compound sentence, containing syntactically independent coordinated clauses or sentences. The compound sentence was not felt to be a sentence proper. There were at least three methods employed by the grammarians to find a way out of this difficulty: (1) to explain it away by pointing out the complete independence and the possibility of isolating each member of a compound sentence without any change of its meaning or intonation; (2) by employing new terms to express more exactly the grammatical peculiarity of this combination of sentences (cf. the terms "double" and "multiple" sentences); (3) by excluding this concept from the structural classification of sentences (cf. Kruisinga, who uses the traditional term to denote the complex sentence only).

Structural linguistics treats the problem of the compound sentence in different ways. Some of them retain the traditional trichotomy, though the terms employed are sometimes non-traditional (e.g. "duplication of the pattern" in Hook and Mathews' grammar)[1].

Fries substitutes for the traditional doctrine his theory of included sentences (suggested doubtless by L.Bloomfield's ideas concerning the included position of a grammatical form) and sequences of sentences (the latter concept was probably borrowed from H.Sweet). The author's attitude towards the traditional concept of the compound sentence is not very clear. Fries justly remarks in a footnote that the so-called "compound" sentence seems to be primarily a matter of the punctuation of written texts, as in his mechanical recordings of speech only few instances occurred with a clear 3-2-3 intonation[2] before the words listed as sequence signals, i.e. signals of an independent sentence[3]. But, contrary to this assertion, the author classifies all the so-called sequence signals and coordinating conjunctions together with subordinating conjunctions as function words of the group J, i.e. as signals of inclusion.

The attempts of the authors of the older scientific grammars to destroy the concept of the clause as it was understood by prescriptive grammar by introducing such notions as "half" clauses, "abridged" clauses, "infinitive", "gerund", "participle" clauses may be observed in the except from Bryant's grammar, treating verbid clauses. This tendency, which has found favour with some structural linguistics, may have far-reaching consequences in the theory of the complex sentence, as it leads to the demolition of the structural distinction between simple and complex sentences.

The extract from Gleason's work illustrates one of the few attempts of the modern schools of grammar to analyze complex sentences containing more than two clauses to the principle of IC analysis.

Transformational grammar derives complex and traditional compound sentences from two or more underlying strings or source sentences (double-base transformations), including them into matrix sentences (i.e. principal sentences) as inserts by means of embedding and conjoining transformations (see p. 195-196).

The except from R.Lakoff reveals a new tendency in the analysis of the compound sentence. She suggests that the logical notions of presupposition and deduction should be incorporated in grammar, in order to account for the differences of the syntactic structures of various types of compound sentences.

I. There are different approaches to composite sentences, for example, N.A.Kobrina, E.A.Korneyeva distinguish the following composite sentences types:

1. The Compound Sentences.
2. Linked Independent Sentences.
3. The Complex Sentence.
   1) The Complex Sentence with Substantive Clauses.
   2) The Complex Sentence with a Subject Clause.
   3) The Complex Sentence with a Predicative Clause.
   4) The Complex Sentence with an Object Clause(.The Complex Sentence with a Complement Clause).
   5) The Complex Sentence with an Attribute Clause.
   6) The Complex Sentence with an Adverbial Clause.
   7) Cases of Structural Arrangements Intermediate between Coordination and Subordination

When, if, as, because, though, as soon as

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[65] **Poutsma** H. A Grammar of Late Modern English. Part II. Gro-ningen, 1926 (5 vols., 1904—1929).

[1] J.H.Hook, E.G.Mathews, Modern American Grammar and Usage, New York, 1956, p.81.

[2] According to the phonetic notation used by Ch.Fries, 3 denotes the usual voice level and 2-one step above the usual.

[3] The view that the traditional compound sentence is not a syntactic unit, but a string of independent coordinate sentences, has been advanced, though with different arguments, in the articles: Л.Л.Иофик, Сушествует ли сложносочиненное предложение в английском языке? (Научные доклады высшей школы. Филологические науки, 1958, N 2) and D.J.Allerton, The Sentence as a Linguistic Unit (Lingua, V. 22, N 1, 1969). The latter author maintains that this analysis of coordinate sentences will have a profound effect on the grammar (op. cit., p.38).

When caravan passes, dog barks.

4.Inserted Clauses Modelled on the Pattern of Subordinate Clauses.

II. R.Quirk, S.Creendbaum, J.Svartvik distinguish the following c o m p l e x sentences types:

1. Coordinate clauses
2. Subordinate clauses.

As we see the authors treat the abovementioned sentences under the term "c o m p l e x s e n t e n c e " and not "c o m p o s i t e s e n t e n c e ".

H.Sweet. speaks of the Composite Sentence, that fall into the Compound and Complex Sentences. And he considers that simple sentences can be of two types[66]:

1. independent
2. dependent

For example: When I came back, I found no one at home. Here "When I came back", is dependent, "I found no one at home" – independent.

H.Sweet thinks that two or more sentences may be joined together to form a single complex sentence, or c o m p l e x, as it may be called for the sake of brevity. When simple sentences are joined together in this way they may be called "c l a u s e s"[67]. (pp.160-161).

In every complex there is one independent clause, called the p r i n c i p a l c l a u se, together with at least one dependent clause, which stands in the relation of adjunct to the principal clause. The dependent clause may be either coordinate or subordinate. We call a coordinate clause a c o -c l a u s e, a subordinate clause a s u b- c l a u s e. Thus in "You shall walk, and I will ride", the first clause is the principal clause, and the second is a c o - c l a u s e. In you are the man I want, the second clause - I want - is a sub - clause. So also in "you shall walk while I ride".

A complex in which the principal clause is modified by a co-clause is called, for the sake of brevity, a c o - c o m p l e x, and one in which it is modified by a subclause is called a sub-complex. Thus the first complex is a co-complex, the other two are sub-complexes. In a complex the clauses must be joined together by conjuctions, or else the adjunct-clauses must be dependent, as in "You are the man I want". When two or more independent sentences are associated together logically in the same way as in complex, the combination is called a s e q u e n c e. thus we have an adversative sequence in "am I right, am I wrong? which is logically equivalent to the comlex am I right, or am I wrong?" Such a sequence is therefore equivalent to a co-complex. Such a causal sequence as "I am sure of it": I saw it myself" if, on the other hand, equivalent to the sub-complex I am of it, because I saw it myself. In both of these examples the adjunct sentence is unprepared. We call such sequences u n p r e p a r e d s e q u e n c e s .

A word-group containing a verbal often differs only grammatically from the same group with the verbal made into a finite verb, that is, from a sentence. Hence such a simple sentence as "I heard of his coming home" can be expanded into complex. "I heard that he had come home". So also "I wish him to come back "may be expanded into" I wish he would come back". Such sentences as "I heard of his coming home", "I wish him to come back", which contain in themselves the germs of dependent sentences, are called e x t e n d e d s e n t e n c e s .

Another way in which complexes are shortened is by making sentence-connecting into word-connecting conjunctions, as when the complex "he is tall, but he is not strong" is made into a simple sentence with a group predicate - he is tall, but not strong. Such sentences may be regarded as a kind of extended sentences, but it is better to distinguish them from the extended sentences we have just been considering by calling them c o n t r a c t e d s e n t e n c e s .

In the chapter devoted to the Composite sentence we must speak of also sentences like "Spring that has been long awaited." "Spring that has been long awaited!", "Spring that has been long awaited?" which are really nominative(elliptical) declarative, exclamatory, interrogative complex sentences accordingly , because some parts of the sentence are missing here and the missing parts (that is the subject(It) and the link verb(is)) can be easily restored.

The composite sentences distinguished by Kobrina and Korneeva

In treating the composite sentences N.E.Kobrina and N.I. Korneeva classify them into the compound sentence and the complex sentence. The complex sentences in their turn fall into the following functional subtypes:

1) the complex sentence with nominal clauses(*subjective*, *predicative*, *objective* and *appositive*(content) clauses.

2) the complex sentences with adverbial clauses of *place*, *time*, *manner*, *comparison*, *condition*, *concession*, *purpose*, *cause*, *result.* (*consequence*)

3)pseudo-complex sentences:

a) emphatic (or cleft) sentences: It is John who did it.

b)appended clauses (уточняющие предложения):She is a clever girl, *is your friend.* He never told me anything, *did your brother*.

c)absolute (or emancipated) subordinate clauses (If only I knew his address! As though you didn't know!)

[66]See H.Sweet. A New English Grammar, Part I, p. 160-168

[67] See H.Sweet. A New English Grammar, Part I, p. 160-161.

d) parenthetical clauses (parentheses)often called *comment clauses:1)*There is, *as it were*, a transparent barrier between myself and strong emotions.

2) He waited *(which was his normal occupation)* and thought, like other citizens.

We think that the above mentioned " appended clauses" and "absolute (or emancipated) subordinate clauses" are of certain interest as new notions and terms that can be accepted, but in case of the aforementioned "absolute subclauses" we have elliptical complex sentences with ***partitioning***, in case of the clause"(which was his normal occupation)" we have a complex sentence with a relative clause, and not a parenthetical one, as the Leningrad scholars have treated them.

IV. In modern syntactical theory there's also a taxemic approach to the so called "composite sentences" offered by G.M.Hoshimov[68], who has accordingly worked out a string of universal metaterms and metanotions for the above mentioned syntactical phenomenon. So he offers the following:

Taxis-Syntaxis

taxeme – sentence in general

monotaxeme -It means "sentence" with one subject-predicate structure, homogeneous parts being excluded here(*We have some time; They read novels, etc/).*

polytaxeme - It is a composite sentence(*Jack is a student , and his friend is a worker; When David came home , nobody was in, etc.)*

collotaxeme - It is an asyndetic composite sentence(*I am a teacher, he is a doctor; I know he is working now, etc.);*

parataxeme - It is a syndetic compound sentence(*The people are friendly here, but it's different there);*

hypotaxeme - It is a syndetic complex sentence (*They are working hard although they are extremely tired, etc.)*

parentaxeme – It is a syndetic/asyndetic composite sentence(As you know, we are foreigners,

My friend(he is a student) is an American guy.

hypertaxeme - It is a mixed (compound and complex) *(When David came home , nobody was in, but the dog was barking, etc.)*

supertaxeme - composite sentence with 4 components(*It was a high snowy mountain and it dominated the valley, but it was so far away that it did not make a shadow (E. Hemingway. A Farewell to Arms, 254)*

architaxeme - It is a composite sentence with 5 components(*It was a daybreak, the wind was blowing, some people were coming out of their houses which looked so modern and beautiful that you would like to live here no matter how costly they might be(Newaspaper).*

ultrataxeme - It is a composite sentence with 6 or more components (*They would not let us go out together when I was off crutches because it was unseemly for a nurse to be seen unchaperoned with a patient who did not look as though he needed attendance, so we were not together much in the afternoon /E.Hemingway. A Farewell to Arms, 117/;*

The treatment of the composite sentences will not be complete, if we do not consider the problem of the d i s c o u r s e - the study of continuous stretches of language longer than a single sentence arguments, narratives, jokes, and speeches also called discourse linguistics. For example: *I met Nick in the park. He was so nervous, which was unseen with him.*

So the discourse is a connected speech(text in the traditional sense of the word) consisting of at least two independent sentences logically correlated through a full stop. The connections between them are seen in the correlates(like "*Nick and He"* in the given discourse) that is what makes up the cohesion of the latter.

As to the semantic types of composite sentences in English we are inclined to think that there are four generally accepted main types:

1. Composite declarative sentence.
2. Composite interrogative sentence.
3. Composite imperative sentence.
4. Composite exclamatory(exclamative) sentence.

We can illustrate them as follows:

1. He came when we were out.
2. Were you in when they came here ?
3. Go where you have come from.
4. Long live the students who are excelling in every respect!

The communicative semantic and pragmatic features of the composite sentences are object of special investigations, which should be studied in a special course on the former.

It is also important to point out the syncretic types of the composite sentences in which at least two types of semantics are blended as in the cases of clauses introduced by the conjunctions " lest, unless, in case, so, that, so that, etc.

For example:

[68] G.M. Hoshimov. Типология сложных предложений разносистемных языков. Т., «Фан», 1991, 38 стр.

The notion of "cleft sentences" of the type: "It is the other man that I want to see". "That is what we need". "It is good that he is here" is interesting. Such sentences are special types of composite sentences both structurally and semantically, for they illustrate such a syntactical phenomenon, which may be celled "blending of sentence structures".

The disputable types of composite sentences(with a parenthetical(introductory or comment and inserted clause,) clause and a clause of proportion "the more…, the more…) and

The course of the lecture:

There are many such constructions as "As you know, Jack is here".

"The man , I believe, is a foreigner" which are totally different from the ones traditionally treated as Composite sentences with coordinated or subordinated clauses. Let's consider the following composite sentences:

As you know, Jack is here(1).

The man , I believe, is a foreigner(2).

The boy is clever, I guess/ believe/ think(3).

They are, as is seen from the illustrations, the clauses in the Composite Sentences neither coordinated, nor subordinated, they are rather parenthesized, that is to say introduced(1), or inserted (2,3). So they do not express any coordinate or subordinate relations in the host/ matrix sentence, instead they express parenthetical relations between the host and hosted clauses through introduction and/ or insertion.

This way we can speak about the existence of the syntactical relations other than coordinate and subordinate ones and we can term those relations

" introduction and insertion" along with latter(coordinate and subordinate). And these syntactical relations in the Composite sentence can be expressed syndetically (by the help of such conjunctions as "as, if, and syndetic (subjectless) like "As is known….", "The specialist, if there is any, must know it ") and asyndetically("Nick is, I think, at home", "Y*ou know he is ill", "I believe*(*you see, I tell you, I suppose*),) the girl is pretty",etc . type.

Such composite sentences are termed in linguistics as the ones with: *comment clauses*, *parentheticals or parenthetical clauses, parenthesis,)*

In our treatment of parenthetical clauses, we will follow the lines set down for treatment of parentheses in a simple sentence by B.A.Ilyish: we will discriminate parenthetical clauses of the introductory type from inserted clauses and state that their function is the same as that of parentheses in simple sentence.

The relation between parenthetical and subordinate clauses gives rise to some discussion. The traditional view held by most grammarians was that parentheses are not parts of a simple sentence but are outside it, and in a similar way parenthetical clauses were held not to be an organic part of a complex sentence and, consequently, not to be subordinate clauses but to be outside the structure of the sentence. In the same way that we have abandoned this view with reference to parentheses in a simple sentence, and recognized them as parts of the sentence, we will abandon the traditional view with regard to parenthetical clauses, and we will treat them *as subordinate clauses of a special kind.* This view is confirmed by the fact that the same conjunction *as* which we found introducing attributive, temporal, causal, and other types of clauses, can also introduce a parenthetical clause of a very familiar type exemplified by the following sentence: *Catherine endeavoured to persuade her, as she was herself persuaded, that her father and mother would never oppose their son's wishes.*

The clause introduced by the conjunction *that* is here subordinated to the main clause, and at the same time it is also subordinated to the as-clause, which is apparently a kind of parenthetical clause (having also a shade of meaning of comparison). In this way it is at the same time a first-degree subordinate clause from one viewpoint, and a second-degree clause from another.

The following example is also instructive: *Hope, if it was Hope, had not heard him, and the chances of their ever meeting again were as slight as they were unimportant to him.* Let us consider what will be changed if the *if-clause* is dropped. What will be actually lost is the information that he was not quite certain whether it was Hope after all. If it was not she, he could not assert that she had not heard him. So this if-clause curiously vacillates between a conditional and a parenthetical clause, and of course no choice between the two is here possible on grammatical, or, indeed, on any other grounds.

As to B.A.Ilyish, there appears to be no reason to deny that a parenthetical clause of this kind is a subordinate clause. If this view is endorsed there is every reason to suppose that a sentence consisting of a main and a parenthetical clause is a usual kind of complex sentence[69].

Parenthetical clauses introduced without any conjunction do not belong here and they will be considered in the chapter on asyndetic composite sentences.

In some grammar manuals[70] the parenthetical clause is also called a comment clause which may be of a syndetic or asyndetic structure. The most frequent type of such a comment clause consists of a subject and a transitive verb which would in a main clause usually have a nominal *that*-clause as its object but does not in a comment clause. They are included as adverbial clauses because although they have no subordinators they are, unlike main clauses, not syntactically complete.

[69] B.A. Ilyish. The Structure of Modern English, L.,1965,318

[70] D.Biber, S. Johansson, J.Leech, et al. Grammar of Spoken and Written English. Longman , 2007, p, *596*

Stereotyped forms include *you know* and *I believe*. A speaker may use such stereotyped forms to express tentativeness (*I suppose*), certainty (*I tell you*) , an emotional attitude towards the content of the main clause (such as *I hope*) or to claim the attention of the hearer (*you see*) and at the same time convey "informality and warmth towards the hearer".

I tell you, I must have swallowed what would knock out a tiger"

It's a crawling distance from my house, you see ... "

Kanini, I suppose, had heard it all in the womb .

It is suggested that reporting clauses following direct speech may also be seen as comment clauses of this kind but then only expressing tentativeness or certainty.

Tag questions also express the former and may be seen as comment clauses or as paratactic to the main clause. On the other hand all comment clauses could perhaps be classified as such. In this analysis neither reporting clauses nor tag questions are categorized as clauses of comment. "I'm fine, although I don't feel that well," she said.

Another type of comment clause occurs with *as*. In some cases *as* functions as a relative pronoun, in others a subordinator. Relative *as* introduces a sentential clause but is more like an adverbial because it can occur before the main clause or be inserted in it, as in "*Yes I was inspired as I said earlier by the fact ... What made me change the language is okay number one as I've told you this writing of Kikuyu was wanting to write kind of biography".*

The subordinator *as* introduces an adverbial clause with the pronoun it for the sentential antecedent (in subject or object position), *as in" Apparently, distance, as we understand it, has nothing to do with these tele-economics "* Sometimes the pronoun *it* may be optional in extended *as* comment clauses "*As [it] is often said, once bitten, twice shy".*

The comment clauses described above are content disjuncts that "express the speakers' comments on the content of the matrix clause". Style disjuncts such as given below are also comment clauses, but they "convey the speakers' views on the way they are speaking".

If I may digress a little, this is a matter of a simple discussion.

Put another way, violence ... has also become part and parcel of the the road to the total eradication of this racist ideology.

To be shortened and included

These are the terms offered by the asuthors of the Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English:existential clause, adverbial clause; comment clause;comparative clause; conditional clause;declarative clause; dependent clause; coordinated clause, subordinated clause, exclamative clause; finite clause; imperative clause; independent clause; infinitive clause; interrogative clause; nominal clause; non-finite clause;verbless clause, relative clause; cleft clause, embedded clause, comment clause, reporting clause; supplementive clause, inserted clause(HGM) etc.Let's consider some of them below.

Reporting clauses

A reporting clause accompanies direct reports of somebody's speech or thought. It specifies the speaker/thinker, the addressee (sometimes), the type of act *(ask, say, think,* etc.), and frequently also the mode of the act *(abruptly, apologetically, bitterly,* etc.). The reporting clause may be placed in initial, medial, or final position:

They said, "Yes, sir," and saluted, **(FICT)**

"Yes," thought Fleury, "she's going at it hammer and tongs for his benefit." **(FICT**)

"Please come too," she begged. - "I'll be back when I feel like it," he said

(to her) without emotion. - "I'm sorry," she whimpered, **(FICTJ)**

Can we do some singing? he asks, **(FICT)**

"Of course, dear. Please do come over," she invited, **(FICTJ)**

Madonna, forgive me, he prayed, forgive me for doubting the Holy Father. **(FICT)**

Note that the choice of verb varies from straightforward verbs of saying to verbs describing the form or function of the speech act. As shown in the first of these examples, the reporting clause may be coordinated with narrative text.

As there is no link specifying the type of connection, the syntactic role of the reporting clause is indeterminate. The clause containing the reporting verb is often described as the main clause, with the direct speech in object position. This analysis is obviously excluded where the verb in the reporting clause does not normally take a direct object (verbs such as *whimper, exult, smile).* Note also the clear difference between indirect and direct speech:

1 *And she said that everything was mouldy,* (CONV)

2 *She said, "Everything is mouldy." I "Everything," she said, "is mouldy" I "Everything is mouldy," she said.*

In 1 there is indirect speech, with a subordinator introducing a regular nominal clause; the connection between the two clauses is close. In 2, this structure is paraphrased using direct speech. Note that the connection is much looser, as shown by the comma and the mobility of the reporting clause. The order of the subject and the verb phrase of reporting clauses may vary depending upon its position and internal structure .

Comment clauses

Comment clauses are similar in structure to reporting clauses: they are loosely connected to the main clause, they normally lack an explicit link, and they are usually short and can appear in a variety of positions. They differ from reporting clauses by being more formulaic, and in the frequency counts later in the book we therefore choose to regard some of them (notably *you know* and *I mean)* as inserts. They are also usually in the present rather than past tense, first or second rather than third person, and comment on a thought rather than the delivery of a wording:

It's a good tip you know, isn't it? **(CONV)**

It's a nice approach I think, **(CONV)**
You know it makes you wonder, you know, you see all this unemployment.
(CONV)
I mean it's, it's general I suppose I mean if it would be better to switch it on and off which you can do and er, you know, I mean we can't sit here
continually talking, **(CONV)**
Mind you, he was probably still as sound as a bell, **(FICT)**
The following exchange was overheard (I swear), by a reader from Quainton, Bucks, in his local pub. **(NEWS)**
The conclusion, it seems, is intolerable, **(ACAD)**

Many comment clauses directly express the speaker's or writer's attitude to the message and can therefore be grouped among stance adverbials.

The syntactic role of comment clauses is indeterminate in much the same way as with reporting clauses. In medial and final position they are best described as peripheral elements. In initial position they may look superficially like main clauses with an embedded nominal clause. Compare:

You know, there's no money to be made out of ri-recycling, (CONV.) You know (that) there's no money to be made out of recycling.

In the first example, the speaker tells the addressee something the latter perhaps does not know; the function of you know is to underline the truth of the statement. This is clearly a comment clause. The second example is ambiguous: it either means 'y°[u] are aware that ...' or it is identical in meaning to the first example. The first interpretation corresponds to a structure with an embedded nominal clause (that can be inserted), the second to a structure with a comment clause (that cannot be used). Comment clauses are very characteristic of speech.

Other peripheral clauses

In addition to reporting clauses and comment clauses, we find two further types of loosely attached dependent clauses. They are typical of conversation, and take their name from their position in relation to the main clause: question tags and declarative tags.

(see also adverbial clause; comment clause; comparative clause; conditional clause; declarative clause; dependent clause; exclamative clause; finite clause; imperative clause; independent clause; infinitive clause; interrogative clause; nominal clause; non-finite clause; relative clause; reporting clause; supplementive clause *see also* discourse marker; ellipsis; parentheticals).

Non-finite clauses are regularly dependent. They are more compact and less explicit than finite clauses: they are not marked for tense and modality, and they frequently lack an explicit subject and subordinator. ^Compare the following examples to paraphrases using finite clauses:

la *I don't know what to write about,* **(CONV)**
lb *I don't know what I should write about.*

2a *Crossing, he lifted the rolled umbrella high and pointed to show cars, buses, speeding trucks, and cabs,* **(FICTJ)**
2b *As he was crossing, he lifted the rolled umbrella high and pointed to show cars, buses, speeding trucks, and cabs.* 3a *Style being a relational concept, the aim of literary stylistics is to be relational in a more interesting sense than that already mentioned.* **(ACADJ)** 3b *Since style is a relational concept, the aim of literary stylistics is to be relational in a more interesting sense than that which has already been mentioned.* To interpret a non-finite clause, it is necessary to use clues from the main clause and often also from the wider context.

There are three main types of non-finite clause, each containing a different type of verb phrase: infinitive clauses, ing-clauses, and *ed*-clauses (3.12.3). The three types differ considerably with respect to the grammatical roles they can play. Infinitive clauses and mg-clauses are the most versatile grammatically. Non-finite clauses are often loosely integrated into the main clause (3.12.4) and may even lack a verb altogether .

Infinitive clauses

Infinitive clauses can have a range of syntactic roles:

A) Subject
Artificial pearls before real swine were cast by these jet-set preachers. To have thought this made him more cheerful, (FICT)
"I believe that homosexuality is a gift from God. To deny that gift is to deny God's will, saying His way isn't good enough." (NEWS)
B) Extraposed subject
It's difficult to maintain a friendship, (CONVJ)
It is a mistake to take sides, (NEWS)
C)Subject predicative
"My goal now is to look to the future." (NEWS)
The only way out of the dilemma is to suppose that sometimes the photon
gets through and sometimes it does not. (ACAD)
D)Direct object •
Do you want me to send them today? (CONV)

He upset you very much, and I hate to see that, (FICT)
E) Object predicative
Some of these issues dropped out of Marx's later works because he considered them to have been satisfactorily dealt with, (ACADJ)
Feare (1970a) thought it to be at least 90% during the first winter, (ACAD)
F) Adverbial
A little group of people had gathered by Mrs. Millings to watch the police activities on the foreshore, (FICT)
To succeed again they will have to improve their fitness and concentration. (NEWSf)
G) Part of noun phrase
He is the third man to be murdered on the corner of the Donegal Road and the Falls Road in the past two years, (NEWS)
They say that failure to take precautions against injuring others is negligent, (ACAD) In the first example, the infinitive clause is a postmodifier comparable with a relative clause, in the second a noun complement.
H) Part of adjective phrase
They're too big to fight, that's the trouble isn't it? (CONV)
/ think the old man's a bit afraid to go into hospital. (coNvf)
In all these roles except A and F (and the first type illustrated in G), to-infinitive clauses act as complement clauses (9.4).
-Ing-clauses
Ing-clauses can have a range of syntactic roles:
A) Subject
Having a fever is pleasant, vacant, (FICT)
Understanding how a planet generates and gets rid of its heat is essential if we are to understand how that planet works, (ACAD)
B) Extraposed subject
Anyway I says to Alice it's not fair getting in somebody's car feeling the way I feel I says - and puking in car. (CONV)
"There is only around five tonnes of newsprint left and it's very difficult getting supplies into Sarajevo." (NEWS)
C) Subject predicative
Erm what I'm thinking of is disconnecting the pipe there, and running it through - that way. (CONV)
The real problem is getting something done about the cheap imports. (NEWS)
D) Direct object
I *started thinking about Christmas.* (coNvf)
"It's as if the guy never stops thinking about the issue." (NEWS)
E) Prepositional object
No-one could rely on his going to bed early last night, (picrf)
F) Adverbial
I *didn't come out of it looking particularly well, I know,* (nci) *Having established the direction of the line, we now wish to find some point on the line,* (ACAD)
G) Fart of noun phrase
I *think he smashed two cars coming down the road,* (CONV)
The man making the bogus collections was described as middle aged. (NEWS)
H) Part of adjective phrase
It might he worth giving him a bell to let him know what's happening. (CONV)
The town is busy taking advantage of its first City Challenge victory by implementing plans aimed at revitalising East Middlesbrough, (NEWS)
I)Complement of preposition
Jordan said he would get tough with the homeless by running identification checks on them, (NEWS j)
The art of expanding limited recall by asking leading, open-ended questions is a subtle one. (ACAD)

Supplementive clauses

In the examples given above, the non-finite clauses have been clearly integrated within the main clause as clause elements or parts of phrases. Loosely integrated clauses, marked off by a comma in writing, are found in initial, medial, or final position:

Directed by Benjamin Twist, who, incidentally, is one of the names being mentioned as a possible successor to Nowozielski, the production is a delightfully theatrical retelling of Dickens <sic> famous novel, (NEWS) *The celebrated*

bust, looking like two dunces' caps applied to her chest, was encased in a puce halter-necked sweater which left all but essentials bare. (FICT)
He walked with a lilting gait, his left Achilles tendon apparently shortened, pulling his left heel up. (FICT)

She gazed down at the floor, biting her lip, face clouded, (FICT) The relationship between the non-finite clause and the main clause is very loose in these examples, both syntactically and semantically and the account of detached predicatives in 3.4.1). By using a supplementive clause, the speaker marks the information given in the clause as subordinate: as background (initial position), parenthetical (medial position), or supplementary (final position)..

Verbless clauses

Among non-finite clauses we may also include verbless clauses such as:
1 *She had also been taught, when in difficulty, to think of a good life to imitate,* (FICT)
2 *Although not a classic, this 90-minute video is worth watching,* (NEWS I)
3 *He does not believe celibacy should be demanded of priests whether gay or straight,* (NEWS)
4 *Every day, if possible, allot time at your desk to sorting and filing everything you have collected since the previous day by way of either elicited or spontaneous data,* (ACAD)

Such clauses can usually be related to finite clauses with the verb *be* and, apart from formulaic expressions such as *if possible* (in 4), *if so* and *if necessary,* have the same subject as the main clause. Compare with 1 *when she was in difficulty* and with 2 *Although it is not a classic.* Although there is no overt verb phrase, these clauses can be analysed in terms of clause elements: subordinator + A_c or P_s. Sometimes they can be closely paraphrased by a detached predicative structure (3.4.1) simply by omitting the subordinator: compare with 2 *Not a classic, this 90-minute video is worth watching.* As with supplementive clauses, their role is usually adverbial.

Verbless clauses in the written registers typically mark information as communicatively less important, while in conversation they are usually limited to the formulaic expressions. See also 10.1.2 and 10.2.8.4.

Composite sentences with a comment clause

(We must critisize Ilyish and others for calling them inserted clauses. h.g.m.)

(My friend(and he is a driver) is an honest man.
Comment cl.
Jack - he is a policeman- lives in the city.
Comment cl.
Complex Sentence with an Inserted Clause(Inserteme –G.M.H)

By an inserted clause we mean a clause appearing within another clause and interrupting its structure. A clause of this kind may either be asyndetic, or it may be introduced by a conjunction, most usually perhaps by the conjunction *for(as well as by "and", etc.H.G.M.)*

An inserted clause can be called "*inserteme"(term due to us –H.G.M.)* and it usually contains some information serving to elucidate what is said in the main body of the sentence, or it may be a casual interruption due to the speaker suddenly thinking of something vaguely connected with what he is talking about, etc. For example:

Before he went down — patent leather was his final choice — he looked at himself critically in the glass.
In the Times, *therefore — he had a distrust of other papers — he read the announcement for the evening.*

According to B.A.Ilyish, *there is certainly no reason to term an inserted clause subordinate,* since no signs of subordination are to be found. Neither is there any valid reason for saying it is co-ordinate in the sense that clauses are co-ordinate within a compound sentence. Indeed there are no clear signs which would prove that a sentence with an inserted clause is a composite sentence at all — though this of course depends on the exact interpretation we give of the notion of "composite sentence".

We think that inserted clauses are seemingly closer to complex sentences than the parenthetical ones, because they add something to the semantics and the structure of the matrix sentence.

As to the aforementioned scholar(B.A.Ilyish), the question whether a sentence with an inserted clause should or should not be considered a composite sentence is, after all, of little theoretical interest, and he here contents himself with stating that *he will not take it as composite.* Further he treats the sentence with the inserted clause taken out of it as a simple sentence (unless of course it contains co-ordinate or subordinate clauses) and with the inserted clause it may be reckoned as a special type — a simple sentence with an inserted clause.

As far as the above mentioned sentences are concerned, we think that they are nothing else but composite sentences, because they are constructed as to the functioning models of a composite sentence in English. Hence we suggest that they be termed *composite sentences with an inserted clause.*

Now let us consider a few examples of a composite sentence with an inserted clause. In our first example the clause coming between the predicate and the subject of the main clause contains information about the author of the statement, and in this respect it is somewhat akin to parenthetical clauses. *The bird-fancier could tell him little, but there was, he had declared(comment clause –H.G.M.), no doubt a great deal of information on the subject somewhere in his notes and as soon as they were properly indexed he would exhume it.* (for us " *he had declared" is an asyndetic comment clause –H.G.M.)*

In the two following examples, as to B.A.Ilyish, the inserted clause has nothing of a parenthesis about it: *Before he went down — patent leather was his final choice — he looked at himself critically in the glass. In the* Times, *therefore — he had a distrust of other papers — he read the announcement for the evening.* The inserted clause *he had a distrust of other papers(for us it is a comment clause – H.G.M.)* explains why he (old Jolyon Forsyte) took up the "Times", and at the same time it adds a certain characteristic feature to the portrait of the man. If the clause were introduced by the conjunction *for*, which would not involve any essential change of meaning but would only make it somewhat more explicit, the clause would still be an inserted clause.

Our next example is somewhat different: *There was a great deal more pleasure than formerly, pleasure was practically continuous—(comment clause – H.G.M.) dancing at the Country Club every Saturday night in summer and quite often in winter, lunch with cards or golf and dinner parties — Wilson and she had at least four or -five invitations every week —(comment clause – H.G.M.) and short and long trips by automobile.*

The inserted clause *Wilson and she had at least four or five invitations every week* comes in and interrupts a sequence of appositions to the subject *pleasure*, namely, *dancing... lunch... parties... trips.* It comes after *parties* and makes it clear how frequent the parties were. It would hardly be possible here to add the conjunction *for* in front of the inserted clause: that would make the statement too exact and introduce an element of superfluous accuracy which is out of place here.

Accoding to B.A.Ilyish, it must be stressed, however, that the boundary line between inserted clauses remaining, as it were, outside the structure of the sentence proper, and clauses making part of that structure, is not always easy to draw; in certain cases it may depend on the grammarian's view, that is, it may be to some extent arbitrary. We may, then, either leave the question open, or decide in advance that doubtful cases of this kind will be judged in a definite way, for instance, that we will consider such doubtful sentences to be inserted.

Questions on the theme:

1) What is a Complex Sentence with a parenthetical clause?
2) What are the Structural types of Complex Sentence with a parenthetical clause?
a) What is a Complex Sentence with an introductory clause?
b) What Structural types of Complex Sentence with an introductory clause do you know?
c) What is a Complex Sentence with an inserted clause?
d) What structural types of Complex Sentence with an inserted clause do you know?
e) What is s Complex Sentence with a comment clause?
f) What Structural types of Complex Sentence with a comment clause do you know?

Lecture 11 (2 hours).
Compound Sentence theory and its structural and semantic types.
Part I
Plan:

1. Notion of a Compound sentence as a subtype of a composite sentence
2. Structural (syndetic/asyndetic) types and subtypes of Compound sentence:
1) Compound sentence with copulative coordination
2) Compound sentence with disjunctive coordination
3) Compound sentence with adversative coordination
4) Compound sentence with causative–consecutive coordination
3. Semantic types of Compound sentence;
a) Declarative Compound sentence
b) Interrogative Compound sentence
c) Imperative Compound sentence
d) Exclamatory (exclamative) Compound sentence
4. Conclusion.

Key words: *compound sentence, structural types of compound sentence, copulative coordination , causative – consecutive coordination, adversative coordination, disjunctive coordination , semantic types of compound sentence, declarative compound sentence, interrogative compound sentence, imperative compound Sentence, Exclamatory (exclamative) compound sentence,.*

The course of the lecture:

At the beginning of the lecture we commented briefly on the problem of classifying composite sentences. We will adopt as a first principle of classification the way in which the parts of a composite sentence (its clauses) are joined together. This may be achieved either by means of special words designed for this function, or without the help of such words. In the first case, the method of joining the clauses is syndetic, and the composite sentence itself may be called syndetic. In the second case the method of joining the clauses is asyndetic, and so is the composite sentence itself(asyndetic).

We should distinguish between two variants of syndetic joining of sentences, the difference depending on the character and syntactic function of the word used to join them.

This joining word (let us call it this for the time being) may either be a conjunction, a pronoun or an adverb. If it is a conjunction, it has no other function in the sentence but that of joining the clauses together.

If it is a pronoun or an adverb (i. e. a relative pronoun or a relative adverb), its function in the sentence is twofold: on the one hand, it is a part of one of the two clauses which are joined (a subject, object, adverbial modifier, etc.), and on the other hand, it serves to join the two sentences together, that is, it has a connecting function as well.

It is to syndetic composite sentences that the usual classification into compound and complex sentences should be applied in the first place. These are the lines indicated for the Russian language by Prof. N. Pospelov in 1950.[71]

The question of classifying asyndetic composite sentences will have to be considered separately.

We start, then, from a distinction of compound sentences and complex sentences. The basic difference between the two types would appear to be clear enough: in compound sentences, the clauses of which they consist have as it were equal rights, that is, none of them is below the other in rank, they are co-ordinated.

In complex sentences, on the other hand, the clauses are not on an equal footing. In the simplest case, that of a complex sentence consisting of two clauses only, one of these is the main clause, and the other a subordinate clause, that is, it stands beneath the main clause in rank. Of course, there may be more than one main clause and more than one subordinate clause in a complex sentence.

So far the classification of syndetic composite sentences looks simple enough. But as we come to the problem of the external signs showing whether a clause is co-ordinated with another or subordinated to it, we often run into difficulties. As often as not a clear and unmistakable sign pointing this way or that is wanting. In such cases we have to choose between two possible ways of dealing with the problem. Either we shall have to answer the question in an arbitrary way, relying, that is, on signs that are not binding and may be denied; or else we shall have to establish a third, or intermediate, group, which cannot be termed either clear co-ordination or clear subordination, but is something between the two, or something indefinite from this point of view. It is also evident that the problem is connected with that of co-ordinating and subordinating conjunctions.

When discussing simple sentences we had to deal with communication types: declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory sentences.

With compound sentences this problem requires special treatment. If both (or all) clauses making up a compound sentence belong to the same communication type it is clear that the compound sentence belongs to this type, too. But there are also compound sentences consisting of clauses belonging to different communication types. In that case it is impossible to state to what type the compound sentence as a whole belongs. Let us consider a few instances of this kind.

There are sentences in which one clause is- declarative, and the other exclamatory, as in the following example: *After all, she concluded, a monkey is a ridiculous animal, and how clever of Tristram to recognize the need for just such a ridiculousness among all his dinner parties...* **(BUECHNER)** Such examples, however, appear to be rare. The following sentence had best be considered a compound sentence, with the first clause declarative, and the second elliptical and interrogative: *These came nearer than most to meaning something to her, but what?* **(BUECHNER)** The second clause, if completed, would apparently run something like this: *...but what did they mean?* or, *what could they mean?*

This absence of a unified communication type in some compound-sentences has given rise to doubts whether what we call a compound sentence can be called a sentence at all. The solution of the problem will of course depend on what we consider to be the necessary features of a sentence. If we accept unity of communication type as one of them, formations lacking this feature will have to be excluded. This view would then make it necessary to develop a theory of units other than a sentence stretching between a full stop and another full stop, or a question mark, or an exclamation mark. We will not pursue this analysis any further but we will take the view that unity of communication type is not an indispensable feature, and go on recognizing compound sentences as a special sentence type.

Compound sentences consist of clauses joined together by coordinating conjunctions. These are very few: *and, but, or, for, yet, so.* Concerning some of them there may be doubts whether they are conjunctions (thus, *yet* may also be supposed to be an adverb), and concerning the word *for* it may be doubtful whether it is co-ordinating or subordinating. The meanings of the conjunctions themselves are of course a question of lexicology. What concerns us here is the type of connection between the clauses in a compound sentence.

There has been some discussion about the degree of independence of the clauses making up a compound sentence. The older view was that they were completely independent of each other. It was supposed that these clauses were nothing but independent sentences with a co-ordinating conjunction between them indicating their semantic relations.

Lately, however, the opinion has been expressed that the independence of the clauses, and especially of the second clause (and those which follow it, if any) is not complete, and that the structure of the second and following clauses is to some extent predetermined by the first. This view was put forward in the Academy's Grammar of the Russian language. It is pointed out here that the word order of the second clause may be influenced by the connection it has with the first, and that the verb forms of the predicates in co-ordinated clauses are frequently mutually dependent.[72] Part of this is more

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[71] [1] See Н. С. Поспелов, *О грамматической природе и' принципах классификации бессоюзных сложных предложений.* Вопросы синтаксиса современного русского языка, 1950, стр. 338—354.

[1] See H. Poutsma, *A Grammar of Late Modern English,* Part I, 2nd half, p. 751

[72] See *Грамматика русского языка,* т. II, ч. 2, стр. 177—178.

significant for the Russian language with its freer word order than for the English, but a certain degree of interdependence between the clauses is found in English, too.

We will now consider some questions of the grammatical structure of compound sentences in English.

The semantic relations between the clauses making up the compound sentence depend partly on the lexical meaning of the conjunction uniting them, and partly on the meanings of the words making up the clauses themselves. It should be noted that the co-ordinating conjunctions differ from each other in definiteness of meaning: the conjunction *but* has an adversative meaning which is so clear and definite that there can hardly be anything in the sentence to materially alter the meaning conveyed by this conjunction.

The meaning of the conjunction *and*, on the other hand, which is one of "addition", is wide enough to admit of shades being added to it by the meanings of other words in the sentence. This will be quite clear if we compare the following two compound sentences with clauses joined by this conjunction: *The old lady had recognized Ellen's handwriting and her fat little mouth was pursed in a frightened way, like a baby who fears a scolding and hopes to ward, it off by tears.* **(M. MITCHELL)** *The bazaar had taken place Monday night and today was only Thursday.* (Idem)

The first sentence has a shade of meaning of cause — result, and this is obviously due to the meanings of the words *recognized* and *frightened.* In the second sentence there is something like an adversative shade of meaning, and this is due to the relation in meaning between the word *Monday* in the first clause and that of the words *only Thursday* in the second. In a similar way other shades of meaning may arise from other semantic relations between words in two co-ordinate clauses.

Compound sentences with clauses joined by the conjunction *or*(or by the double conjunction *either — or)* seem to be very rare. Here are a few examples:

The light fell either upon the smooth grey black of a pebble, or the shell of a snail, or, falling into a raindrop, it expanded with such intensity of red, blue, and yellow the thin walls of water….

I think I see them now with sparkling looks; or have they vanished while I have been writing this description of them?

Are you afraid of their biting, or is it a metaphysical antipathy?

As to the use of tenses in clauses making up a compound sentence, we should note that there is no general rule of their interdependence. However, in a number of cases we do find interdependence of coordinate clauses from this point of view. For instance, in the following compound sentence the tense of the first predicate verb is past perfect and that of the second past indefinite:

She had come to meet the Marquise de Trayas, but she was half an hour too early. (**R. WEST)**

The number of clauses in a compound sentence may of course be greater than two, and in that case the conjunctions uniting the clauses may be different; thus, the second clause may be joined to the first by one conjunction, while the third is joined to the second by another, and so forth. We will only give one example:

Gerald was disappointed, for he had wanted a son, but he nevertheless was pleased enough over his small black-haired daughter...

A typical example of a compound sentence with the conjunction *so* is the following:

The band has struck, so we did our best without it. **(FITCH)**

Besides the conjunctions so far considered, there are a few more, which are generally classed as subordinating, but which in certain conditions tend to become co-ordinating, so that the sentences in which they occur may be considered to be compound rather than complex, or perhaps we might put it differently: the distinction between co-ordination and subordination, and consequently that between compound and complex sentences, is in such cases neutralized. This concerns mainly the conjunction *while* and the adverbial clauses of time introduced by it, and the conjunction *though* and the adverbial clauses of concession introduced by it. We will discuss these cases when we come to the respective types of adverbial subordinate clauses.

Questions on the theme:

1. What is a compound sentence?
2. What are the structural types of compound sentence?
3. What is a compound sentence with a copulative coordination?
4. What is a compound sentence with a causative –consecutive coordination?
5. What is a compound sentence with a adversative coordination?
6. What is a compound sentence with a disjunctive coordination?
7. What semantic types of compound sentence do you know?
8. What is a declarative compound sentence?
9. What is an interrogative compound sentence?
10. What is an imperative compound sentence?
11. What is ane exclamatory (exclamative) compound sentence?

0Part II

Complex sentence theory and its structural and semantic types.Complex sentences with subject, object and predicative and attributive appositive clauses

Plan:

1. Notion of a Complex sentence as a subtype of a composite sentence
2. Structural (syndetic/ asyndetic) types and subtypes of Complex sentence:
1) with nominal clauses (subject, predicative, object, attributive and appositive):
2) with adverbial clauses
3) with mutually subordinated clauses
3. Complex sentences with nominal clauses:
a) Complex sentences with a subject clause
b) Complex sentences with a predicative clause
c) Complex sentences with an object clause
d) Complex sentences with an attributive clause
e) Complex sentences with an appositive clause

Key words: *complex sentence as a subtype of a composite sentence, structural (syndetic/ asyndetic) types and subtypes of complex sentence, complex sentence with mutually subordinated clauses, complex sentences with nominal clauses, complex sentences with subject clause, complex sentences with predicative clause, complex sentences with object clause, complex sentences with attributive clause, complex sentences with adverbial clauses, syntactical functions, disputable problems of parsing them, complex sentences with an adverbial clause of place, synonymy and homonymy complex sentences.*

The course of the lecture:

There is much more to be said about the complex sentence than about the compound. This is due to several causes, which are, however, connected with one another.

For one thing, the semantic relations which can be expressed by subordination are much more numerous and more varied than with co-ordination: all such relations as time, place, concession, purpose, etc. are expressly stated in complex sentences only.

Then again, the means of expressing subordination are much more numerous. There is here a great variety of conjunctions: *when, after, before, while, till, until, though, although, albeit, that, as, because, since;* a number of phrases performing the same function: *as soon as, as long*as, so long as, notwithstanding that, in order that, according as*, etc. Besides, a certain number of conjunctive words are used: the relative pronouns *who, which, that, whoever, whatever, whicheyer*, and the relative adverbs *where, how, whenever, wherever, however, why*, etc.

We may note that the boundary line between conjunctions and relative adverbs is not quite clearly drawn. We shall also see this when we come to the adverbial clauses introduced by the word *when* and those introduced by the word *where.*

Historically speaking, conjunctions develop from adverbs, and one word or another may prove to be in an intermediate stage, when there are no sufficient objective criteria to define its status.

The notions of declarative, interrogative, and imperative sentence, and also that of exclamatory sentence appear to be applicable to some types of complex sentences as well. For instance, if the main clause of a complex sentence is interrogative or imperative, this implies that the complex sentence as a whole is also interrogative or imperative respectively. A few examples will suffice to illustrate our point. *Why couldn't she sense now that he was outside and come out?* The main clause *Why couldn't she sense now ... and come out?* is clearly interrogative, and this is enough to make the whole complex sentence . interrogative, though the subordinate clause *that he was outside* (an object clause) is certainly not interrogative, and should, if anything, be termed declarative. This, it may be noted in passing, is an additional proof that the clause *that he was outside* is a subordinate clause: its type of communication is irrelevant for the type of communication to which the sentence as a whole belongs, while the type of the clause *Why couldn't she sense ... and come out?* is decisive for it.

The same will be found to be the case in the following example:

But who is to guarantee that I get the other sixty-five, and when?

This is a slightly more complicated case. The main clause of course is *who is to guarantee,* and it is interrogative. The subordinate clause is *that I get the other sixty-five,* and it is followed by the words *and when,* which will probably be best described as an elliptical second subordinate clause, whose full text would run, *and when I shall get it* (which is an indirect question). It might also be described as a detached adverbial modifier added on to the subordinate clause *that I shall get the other sixty-five.* Be that as it may, the fact remains that the interrogative main clause *But who is to guarantee...?* is enough to make the entire sentence interrogative, no matter to what type the subordinate clause or clauses belong.

Now let us take a complex sentence with an imperative main clause: *Never you mind how old she is.* The main clause *never you mind* is imperative and that is enough to make the whole sentence imperative as well.

The same may be said about a number of other sentences. Above we defined a complex sentence as a sentence containing at least one subordinate clause. Any classification of complex sentences is therefore bound to be based on a classification of subordinate clauses. This will accordingly be our next task.

The problem of classifying subordinate clauses is one of the vexed questions of syntactic theory. Several systems have been tried out at various times, and practically each of them has been shown to suffer, from some drawback or other. Some of the classifications so far proposed have been inconsistent, that is to say, they were not based on any one firm principle of division equally applied to all clauses under consideration.

Classification of complex sentences . We will first of all point out what principles of classification are possible and then see how they work when applied to Modern English. It is quite conceivable that a sort of combined principle will have to be evolved, that is, one principle might be taken as the ruling one, and the main types established in accordance with it, and another principle, or perhaps other principles, taken as secondary ones and applied for a further subdivision of clauses obtained according to the first principle.

It might also prove expedient to have two different classifications independent of each other and based on different principles.

As we proceed to point out the various principles which may be taken as a base for classification, we shall see that even that is a matter of some difficulty, and liable to lead to discussion and controversy.

The first opposition in the sphere of principles would seem to be that, between meaning, or contents, and syntactical function. But this opposition is not in itself sufficient to determine the possible variants of classification. For instance, under the head of "meaning" we may bring either such notions as "declarative" (or "statement") and "interrogative" (or "question"), and, on the other hand, a notion like "explanatory". Under the head of "function" we may bring either the position of a clause within a complex sentence, defined on the same principles as the position of a sentence part within a simple'sentence, or (as is spmetimes done) on the analogy between a clause and a part of speech performing the same function within a simple sentence. Besides, for certain types of clauses there may be ways of characterizing them in accordance with their peculiarities, which find no parallel in other clauses. For instance, clauses introduced by a relative pronoun or relative adverb may be termed "relative clauses", which, however, is not a point of classification.

In order to obtain a clearer idea of how these various principles would work out in practice, let us take a complex sentence and define its subordinate clauses in accordance with each of these principles. Let the sentence be this:

It was unreal, grotesquely unreal, that morning skies which dawned so tenderly blue could be profaned with cannon smoke that hung over the town like low thunder clouds, that warm noontides filled with the piercing sweetness of massed honeysuckle and climbing roses could be so fearful, as shells screamed into the streets, bursting like the crack of doom, throwing iron splinters hundreds of yards, blowing people and animals to bits.

Let us first look at the two subordinate clauses introduced by the conjunction *that:* (1) *that morning skies... could be profaned with cannon smoke,* (2) *that warm noontides... could be so fearful.* From the point of view of meaning they may be called declarative clauses, or subordinate statements,[73] as they contain statements which are expressed in subordinate clauses. From the point of view of function they may be termed, if we consider them as something parallel to parts of a simple sentence, either appositions to the impersonal *it* which opens the sentence, or subject clauses, if we take the view that the *it* is merely ^n introductory subject, or a "sham" subject, as it is sometimes called. If, last not least, we wish to compare the clauses to the part of speech which might perform the corresponding function in a simple sentence, we may call them noun clauses, or substantive clauses, which is a very usual way of treating them in English school grammars.

Now let us turn to the clause coming after the noun *skies* of the first subordinate clause: *which dawned so tenderly blue.* From the viewpoint of meaning this clause can also be said to be declarative, or a subordinate statement. It may also be termed a relative clause, because it is introduced by a relative pronoun and has a relative connection with the noun *skies* (or the phrase *morning skies).* From the functional point of view it may be called an attributive clause, and if we compare it to the part of speech which might perform the corresponding function in a simple sentence, we may call it an adjective clause, which is also common in English school grammars. The same considerations also apply to the clause *that hung over the town like low thunder clouds;* it is evident from the context that the word *that* which opens the clause is a relative pronoun (without it the clause would have no subject). Now we take the last subordinate clause: *as shells screamed into the streets, bursting like the crack of doom, throwing iron splinters hundreds of yards, blowing people and animals to bits.* This again would be a declarative clause or a subordinate statement, and from the viewpoint of function it may be termed an adverbial clause, as it corresponds to an adverbial modifier in a simple sentence. More exactly, it might be termed an adverbial clause of time. Now, for the last item, if we compare it to the part of speech performing the corresponding function in a simple sentence, we might term it an adverb clause, which, however, is too close to the term "adverbial clause" to be of much use in distinguishing the two notions.

To sum up these various possibilities, we have, for the first two clauses, the following terms: declarative clause, or subordinate statement; apposition clause, or subject clause; noun clause. For the second two clauses: declarative clause, or subordinate statement; attributive clause; adjective clause. For the clause coming last: declarative, or subordinate statement; adverbial clause of time; adverb clause.

The next question is, what are we to make of all this variety of possible treatments, and what classification, or what classifications of subordinate clauses should be accepted as the most rational?

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[73] The latter term is used by H. Poutsma (see *A Grammar of Late Modern English,* Part I, 2nd half, p. 607 if.).

It is perhaps best to start with the last of the enumerated views, viz. that which draws a parallel between subordinate clauses and parts of speech. There is little to be said in favour of this view. The strongest argument here is probably the fact that in Modern English a clause may sometimes be treated like a noun, namely when it is introduced by a preposition, as, for instance, in the following sentence: *But after the initial dismay he had no doubt as to what he must do.*

This seems practically the only feature which shows some likeness between clauses of the given kind and nouns as such. As for the rest, the analogy is merely one of function: clauses and parts of speech resemble each other only in so far as both of them can perform certain functions in the sentence, viz. that of subject, object, or attribute. This kind of similarity can hardly be said to be a sufficient ground, for classifying clauses according to parts of speech. The term "noun clause", for example, can only mean "a clause which performs in a complex sentence one of the functions which a noun can perform in a simple sentence". In a similar way, the term "adjective clause" would mean "a clause which performs in a complex sentence one of the functions that an adjective can perform in a simple sentence". This treatment of clauses does not appear to have any serious foundation, and the only consideration in favour of it, that of clauses sometimes being introduced by prepositions (as if they were nouns), is not strong enough to prove the case. We will therefore not adopt the classification of subordinate clauses based on comparing them with parts of speech.

Now let us consider the principle according to which declarative and interrogative clauses (or subordinate statements and subordinate questions) are given as types. This principle has certainly something to say for itself. The difference between the subordinate clauses in the following two sentences viewed from this angle is clear enough: *However, she felt that something was wrong.* (M. MITCHELL) *Thereafter, when they talked it over, they always wondered why they had failed to notice Scarlett's charms before.* (Idem) It may accordingly be adopted as a criterion for the classification of subordinate clauses. It has a weak point, however, and this is that not every clause will fit into either of these categories. For instance, the subordinate clause in the following sentence cannot naturally be termed either a declarative or an interrogative clause:

If *he had been destitute and she had had money she would have given him all he wanted.* The clause *if... money* expresses condition, it neither asserts anything nor does it ask any question. There are, of course, a number of clauses of a similar kind. It would appear, therefore, that the distinction between declarative and interrogative clauses (subordinate statements and subordinate questions) applies to certain types of clauses only and cannot be made a general principle of classification.

The term "relative clause" may very well be applied to any clause introduced by a relative pronoun or relative adverb.

0. Jespersen devotes several chapters of his book "A Modern English Grammar" to relative clauses. In accordance with his general view that elements of language may be divided into primaries, adjuncts, and subjuncts, he treats the syntactical functions of subordinate clauses as falling under these heads: "relative clauses as primaries" and "relative clause adjuncts".[74]

From the viewpoint of function the subordinate clauses of these types are of course quite different, yet they may be all termed "relative clauses". This makes it evident that the notion "relative clause" is not a notion of syntactic function, since it cuts right across syntactical divisions.

It is also evident that the term "relative clause" cannot be an element of any system: the clauses which are not relative do not make any kind of syntactical type which might be put on the same level as relative clauses: what unites them all is merely the fact that they are -non-relative.

Thus the notion of "relative clauses", which is doubtless useful in its limited sphere, as a description of a certain type of subordinate clauses characterized by a peculiarity they all share, is useless as an element of a general classification of clauses, fn that respect it is no better than "declarative" or "interrogative" clauses.

There remains now the classification of subordinate clauses based on the similarity of their functions with those of parts of the sentence, namely the classification of clauses into subject, predicative, object, attributive, adverbial, appositional, and parenthetical clauses. In this way the general parallelism between parts of a simple sentence and subordinate clauses within a complex sentence will be kept up; however, there is no sufficient ground for believing that there will be complete parallelism in all respects and all details: on the contrary, it is most likely that differences between the two will emerge (especially in the sphere of adverbial modifiers and adverbial clauses). Subordinate clauses may well be expected to have some peculiarities distinguishing them from parts of a simple sentence.[75]

In studying the several types of subordinate clauses, we will compare them with the corresponding parts of a simple sentence, and point out their peculiarities, and the meanings which are better rendered by a subordinate clause than by a part of a simple sentence. With this proviso we proceed to examine the various types of clauses.

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[74] 0. Jespersen, *A Modern English Grammar*, Part III, p. 52 if., 77 ff.

[75] [1] Compare Academician V. Vinogradov's remark: „Традиционная аналогия между так называемыми „придаточными" предложениями, проводимая в школьных учебниках с неуклонной и односторонней прямолинейностью, на самом деле может иметь лишь очень ограниченное и условное значение". (В. В. Виноградов, *Русский язык,* стр. 706.)

Complex Sentence With A Subject Clause

The notion of a subject clause is not quite clearly defined. The idea at the bottom of the category is this: a clause which performs within a complex sentence the same function that the subject performs within a simple sentence. But in some cases this definition does not appear to be sufficient. To make the essence of what a subject clause is quite clear let us first take some examples in which no other interpretation appears to be possible.

Clauses of this kind are introduced either by the conjunctions of the type *that, if, whether, because, the way);* correlatives *(either... or, whether... or)* if there is more 'than one subject clause, or connectives. The latter may be either conjunctive pronouns *(who, whoever, what, whatever, which)* or conjunctive adverbs *(wfiere, wherever, when, whenever, how, why)*..

We give some examples of each variety.

It seemed unfair to him *that he should suffer more than his wife.*

It is understood *that modern science allows such experiments.*

What you say is a good piece of advice.

What I need is a piece of good advice.

Whether I talked or not made little difference.

Because I ask too many questions does not mean I am curious.

How the book will sell depends on its plot and the author.

That he is a madman in an advanced stage of mania goes without saying.

Whoever moved in next would need it more than I.

How wonderful *that they should meet at last!* (How wonderful Я is...)

It seemed unfair to him *that he should suffer more than his wife.* It is understood *that modern science allows such experiments.*

What you say is a good piece of advice.

What had fiappened was that I had spent too much time in the French Quarter, mostly in jazz bars along Bourbon Street, but I planned to make up for it by getting my order book filled in Baton Rouge and Shreveport and thereby make a good showing at the sales conference in Dallas. (E Caldwell) *What she considered his monkey's, Simon's, value, for instance, was not lost upon her.*

In the following sentence there is one subject clause and two predicative clauses to it: *What they learn from me is that they're never going to have it so good again; that the great ones, the ones they read, saw it all as pretty black.*

The following two examples are from A. Trollope:

That she must fear the result of the trial, he thought, was certain, but he could not bring himself to have any such fear.

The clause *he thought* is an inserted clause, so the clause *that she must fear the result of the trial* can only be the subject clause to the first half of the composite sentence, the predicate being *was certain.* Indeed, if the clause *that she must fear the result of the trial* is dropped, the predicate *was certain* has nothing to be attached to. A similar situation is found in the following sentence:

That this should be so cut Mr.Mason of Groby to the very soul.

If the clause *that this should be so* is dropped the predicate of the main clause *cut* has no subject to to perform the action of" cutting". *How they could get through it all, had often amazed Mrs Allen; and, when Catherine saw what was necessary here, she began to be amazed herself.* (J. Austen).

If the subordinate clause is dropped, and the sentence is allowed to begin with the words *had often amazed,* there is no subject in it; and that is sufficient reason for terming the subordinate clause a subject clause.

That the General, having erected such a monument, should be able to face it, was not perhaps very strange; and yet that he could sit so boldly collected within its view, maintain so elevated an air, look so fearlessly around, nay, that he should even enter the church, seemed wonderful to Catherine.

Each of the two complex sentences making up this passage has a subject clause, and indeed the second one has two of them. It is characteristic of this type that the subject clauses have (two out of the three) the group *"should* -f-infinitive" as their predicate, and that the predicates of the two main clauses contain adjectives expressing assessment *(strange* and *wonderful).*

The reason for calling these clauses subject clauses would seem to be clear: if the clause is dropped, the subject is missing. Since in the sentences as they are the position which might be occupied by a noun-subject is occupied by a subordinate clause, this seems to be sufficient reason for terming the clause a subject clause.

Things are somewhat more difficult and controversial in sentences like the following: *It had seemed certain that their meeting was fortunate.*

Here the main clause has the pronoun *it* (in its impersonal use) occupying the position assigned to the subject of the sentence, and after the main clause comes a subordinate clause whose syntactical function we are to consider now. Two views appear to be possible here. One of them is that the pronoun *it* at the beginning of the main clause is only a "formal subject", or, as it is sometimes termed, a "sham subject", whereas the subordinate clause coming after the main one is the real subject. The other view is, that the position of the subject is occupied by the pronoun *it,* and, whether "formal" or not, it

is the subject of the sentence, so that no room is left for any other subject. If this view is accepted, the clause will have to be some other kind of clause, not a subject clause. The best way of treating it in that case would be to take it as a kind of appositional clause referring to the subject of the main clause, namely the pronoun *it.*

The choice of either alternative must necessarily remain a matter of subjective decision, as no objective proof in favour of the one or the other view seems possible. The situation so far is the same as with some types of simple sentences, where the choice was between taking a certain part as a "real" subject as distinct from the "formal" one, or as an apposition to it. We would definitely prefer the second view and we will therefore discuss this type of subordinate clauses when we come to appositional clauses.

Complex sentence with a predicative clause

A predicative clause is a clause that functions as a predicative in a compound nominal predicate of the principle clause.

A predicative clause may be introduced by conjunctions *(that, whether, as, as if, as though, because, test, the way),* correlatives *(either... or, whether... or),* or connectives. The latter may be conjunctive pronouns *(who, whoever, what, whatever, which)* or conjunctive adverbs *(where, wherever, when, whenever, how, why).*

The fact was *thai he fiad forgotten about it.*

The only reason for my coming is *because I hoped to see you again.*

Our fear was *lest we should miss him in the crowd.*

That's *what he wants you to think.*

Our proposal is *that you should join in.*

Their suggestion was *thai no one sliould interfere.*

It was as *though our last meeting was forgotten.* Everything remained *as it used to be in this room.* She looks as *if she were III.*

Mrs Abinger hated to be talked to as *if she were a child.*

Thp Frenchman nodded vigorously, *as though it were (he most reasonable statement in the world.*

The result was, *his master raised his wages a hundred a month.*

The trouble was *whether we could manage it ourselves or not.* The problem is not *who will go, but who will slay.*

It appears *he hasn't been there.*

It sounded *as if even the spring began by act of Parliament.*

By predicative clauses we mean also clauses like those in the following sentences.

This was exactly what she had expected him to say.... (E. CALDWELL) *"The only comforting feature of the whole business is that we didn't pay for our dinner."*

The following example is instructive: *It seemed as if a good view were no longer to be taken from the top of a high hill, and that a clear blue sky was no longer a proof of a fine day.*

The conjunction *and,* which joins the two subordinate clauses, must be taken as a sign of their being syntactically parallel, though they are introduced by different means *(as if* and *that* respectively). Their parallelism is further shown by the use of the modifier *no longer* in each of them.

Apparently, both clauses are predicative ones (coming as they do after the link verb *seemed),* and the difference in the use of conjunctions may be due to the fact that the conjunctional phrase *as if,* which has a more definite meaning,- implying unreality, is not repeated at the opening of the second subordinate clause because *the more neutral and colourless conjunction that* may well be taken as a kind of substitute for it.

We must also consider under the heading of predicative clauses the following type: *"It's because he's weak that he needs me," she added.*

Here the subordinate clause in question is included within the construction *it is ... that* and thus singled out as the rheme of the complex sentence. This clause would occupy a different position in the sentence if it were not singled out; for instance, the sentence just mentioned would run like this: *He needs me because he's weak* and the clause would be a clause of cause. As the sentence stands, however, the clause is treated as a predicative one.

It was whether one loved at all, and how much that love cost, and what was its reception then, that mattered. (BUECHNER) It may be interesting to note that it would probably have been impossible to have these three clauses as subject clauses, with the predicate *mattered,* and without the *it is ...that* construction.

Not infrequently there is both a subject clause and a predicative clause in a complex sentence. The only element outside these clauses is then the link verb. In such cases there is nothing in the sentence that might be termed a main clause. *What I am positive about is that he never expected a wife who would please the family.*

Another example of this type of sentence is taken from another modern novel: *What she did not know was that in addition to liking things nice she infallibly, by her presence alone, tended to make them so.*

The following example is of a somewhat different kind. *What I think is, you're supposed to leave somebody alone if he's at least being interesting and he's getting all excited about something.*

Complex sentence with an object clause(syndetic/asyndetic)

Object clauses are less easily defined and less easily recognizable than either subject or predicative clauses. It is not to be wondered at, therefore, that views differ as to what the limits of the notion "object clause" should be. We may try to apply the same criterion that worked well in the case of subject and predicative clauses, viz. omit the subordinate clause

and see what part of the sentence is missing and by what part of a simple sentence the vacant position might be occupied. But we shall not always arrive at a clear decision.

In modern English an object clause may be introduced by conjunctions *(that, if, whether, lest),* correlatives *(either... or, whether... or),* or connectives. The latter may be conjunctive pronouns *(who, whoever, what, whatever, which),* or conjunctive adverbs *(wliere, wherever, when, whenever, why, how).*

An object clause may refer to any verbal form, either finite or non-finite.

Jon followed, wondering // *he had offended her.*

I don4 know *why I like you so much.*

I left her to do *whatever she thought fit.*

She often reproached herself *for not speaking up about what she has seen.*

He was terrified *that she would forget about it soon.*

Puzzled *as to how it became known to all of them,* Andrew kept silent.

What she thinks *it would be impossible to say.* Swithin said *lie would go back to lunch at Timothy's.*

Certain *that Hugh was really following the girl,* he had but to lteep him in sight and remain unseen.

I'm very sorry / *disturbed you.* He was anxious *lest somebody should guess his secret.* He was glad *that no one was at home.* Note. After some adjectives denoting a state *(glad, sorry, happy,* etc.

The easiest cases are those in which the subordinate clause can be replaced by a noun which would then be an object in a simple sentence. This applies, for instance, to sentences of the type *He bought what he wanted.* If we drop the subordinate clause *what he wanted* we get the unfinished sentence *He bought ...,* which has no definite meaning until we add some word that will function as an object. This may of course be any noun denoting a thing that can be bought, for instance, *He bought a briefcase.* The similarity in syntactical position between *a briefcase* and the subordinate clause *what he wanted* appears to be sufficient reason for saying that *what he wanted* is an object clause. .Compare the following example: *Owen had grown larger to her: he would do, like a man, whatever he should have to do.* (H. JAMES)

The same may be said about the sentence *Tom may marry whom he likes.*[76] Here the clause *whom he likes* may be replaced by any noun that will fit into the context, for instance, by any feminine name: *Tom may marry Jane,* where *Jane* will be an object. This, again, seems sufficient reason for stating that the clause *whom he likes* is an object clause: its syntactical function is the same as that of the noun *Jane* which we put in its place. This sentence differs from the preceding in one respect: the subordinate clause may be eliminated without the sentence becoming impossible or incomplete: *Tom may marry.* This of course depends on the meaning of the verb *marry,* which in the sense 'enter upon a married state' does not necessarily require a noun or pronoun to make the meaning of the sentence complete.

Here are some more examples: *And Cecil was welcome to bring whom he would into the neighbourhood., But Steitler, no more than six or seven years the older as Motley correctly guessed, had made use of his seniority by developing what Motley was quick to recognize as a definite way with him, a generally constant manner under cover — or in easy despite — of which he met the world, was recognized always as quite uniquely himself.*

The object clause coming after *developing* seems to go on as far as the noun *manner,* where a subordinate clause of the second degree begins, namely, an attributive one to this noun. Object clauses of this type are very characteristically English, and in translating such sentences into another language, for example, into Russian, the turn of the sentence has usually to be changed altogether. Compare also:

Yes, my father can seldom be prevailed on to give the waters what I think a fair trial. Give somebody (something) a fair trial is a phraseological unit, with both nominal elements in it necessary for its existence. This has not prevented, in the last example, the substitution of an object clause *(what I call a fair trial)* for the phrase *a fair trial.* This plainly shows that the subordinate clause is here exactly similar in function to the object in a simple sentence, and that the term "object clause" is therefore fully justified.

There is also another type of object clause. This is found in sentences having in the main clause a predicate verb which combines almost exclusively with object clauses and only with a very few possible objects (within a simple sentence). A typical verb of this kind is the verb *say.* Let us, for example, take this sentence: *She could not say what it was.* If we drop the subordinate clause we get the unfinished sentence *She could not say...* The words that can come after the verb *say* and perform the function of object in a simple sentence are very few indeed: these are chiefly the pronouns *this, that, anything, everything,* and the noun *the truth.*

On the whole it may be said that subordinate clauses are much more characteristic of the verb *say* than an object in a simple sentence. Therefore the arguments in favour of the clause being an object clause are much weaker with reference to this verb than to those considered above.

The same may be said about the verb *ask.* If we take the sentence *She asked whether this was true,* and drop the subordinate clause, we shall get the unfinished sentence *She asked...*

The possibilities of completing this sentence by means of an object within the framework of a simple sentence are again very limited: there may be the pronouns *this, that, something, nothing,* and the noun *a question.* In this

[76] 0. Jespersen, *A Modern English Grammar,* Part III, p. 62.

case, too, a subordinate clause is much more characteristic of the verb than an object in a simple sentence. Compare also the following example: *He merely suggested that Motley's peculiar gifts tended to make him animate and inflate whatever might seem to him the most appealing among the host of potentialities attending any unextraordinary human situation; that if, as certainly might be the case, there were validity in his suspicions, he, Tristram, could be no more than very interested to hear of it.* The object clause, *whatever might seem to him the most appealing among the host of potentialities attending any unextraordinary human situation,* is rather long; yet it does not produce any difficulty for the reader to identify the *that* which comes immediately after it as a conjunction parallel to the first *that* (the one coming after *suggested)* and, consequently, to range the clause introduced by the second *that* as standing on the same level as the first *that-clause (that Motley's peculiar gifts,..).*

The idea will naturally suggest itself of treating the subordinate clause as the typical element following the verb *say* or *ask,* rather than as something to be defined by comparing it to an object in a simple sentence.

Now let us pass on to the verbs with which a subordinate clause is the only formation that can follow them to express the contents of the action expressed by the verb. These are the "verba sentiendi et declarandi", as Latin terminology will have it.

The verb *exclaim* is a case in point. Completing it by a word functioning as an object in a simple sentence is impossible: none of the words suggested for the verbs *say* and *ask* will do here. Neither the pronouns *this, that, something, everything,* nor any noun could come after the verb *exclaim.* So if we apply the criterion which served for the preceding verbs, we cannot find an object of this kind in a simple sentence with this verb and argue that, since the subordinate clause is identical in function to that object, it is bound to be an object clause. The argument in favour of the view that it is an object clause would then have to be more far-fetched and it would have to be something like this: the subordinate clause after the verb *exclaim* is an object clause because its syntactical function is similar to that of the subordinate clause after the verb *say* or *ask,* and that clause is to be recognized as an object clause because its function is the same as that of a few pronouns and nouns which can come after the verb *say* or *ask* in a simple sentence.

Now this'argument may or may not be found convincing. If it is, all clauses of this kind after the verbs *exclaim, wonder,* and a number of other "verba sentiendi et declarandi" will have to be accepted as object clauses (which of course is the traditional view). If it is not found convincing the subordinate clauses after such verbs will have to be taken as a special type of clauses, which in this case will not fit into the system of subordinate clause parallel to parts of a simple sentence but will have to be organized on some other principle. They might be termed "subordinate clauses of indirect speech". This is a possible view but it entails some inconvenience. In the first place, this type of clause would remain outside the system which is based on analogy with parts of a simple sentence; secondly, if we recognize clauses of indirect speech as a separate type, we shall obviously have to include in it the clauses following the verbs *say, ask,* etc. as well, though with these verbs a few pronouns and nouns are possible as objects in a simple sentence.

In this case, as in so many others, no binding decision is possible: the solution a scholar arrives at will largely depend on his own opinion of the relative value of the arguments brought forward in favour of this or that view. On the whole, it is perhaps preferable to retain the traditional view, according to which subordinate clauses of this kind are to be taken as object clauses.

Occasionally an object clause may come before the main clause: *...whatever courtesy I have shown to Mrs Hurtle in England I have been constrained to show her.* In this example the object clause, which of course depends on the predicate *have been constrained to show* of the head clause, comes first. This is a clear indication that the object clause represents the theme of the sentence, whereas the rheme is represented by the head clause, and the most important element in this rheme is of course the word *constrained.* In factvthe essential meaning of the sentence might have been put briefly in these words: *My courtesy to Mrs Hurtle was constrained.* In that case the theme would be represented by the subject group, and the rheme by the predicate.

In speaking of object clauses, special attention must be paid to clauses introduced by prepositions. These clauses may be termed prepositional object clauses, on the analogy of prepositional objects in a simple sentence.

We must note that a prepositional object in a simple sentence does not always correspond to a prepositional object clause: for instance, the verb *insist,* which always combines with the preposition *on* (or *upon)* in a simple sentence, never has this preposition when followed by an object clause.

Most verbs, however, which combine with a preposition in a simple sentence, do so in a complex sentence as well: a case in point is the verb *depend,* which always combines with the preposition *on* (or *upon),* no matter what follows: compare *It depends on what you will say, It depends on whether you will come.* Here are some examples: *The conversation was as brief and uncomplicated as that, freed from whatever implication the memory of their earlier encounter might have added to it.* This is a peculiarly English way of putting it, and it appears to be more idiomatic than the other way, which, however, is also possible, namely, *The conversation was as brief and uncomplicated as that, freed from any implication that the memory of their earlier encounter might have added to it.*

The following example is very illuminating since a prepositional clause going with the verb *think* is then followed by prepositional objects within the main clause: *He thought for a few minutes of what she had said — of Arthur[1] s rottenness — socially and personally — and of all that they stood for — individually alive, socially progressive.* As the prepositional clause *of what she had said* stands on the same syntactic level as the prepositional phrases *of Arthur's*

rottenness and *of all that they stood for* (the latter including an attributive subordinate clause), it is quite clear that their functions are identical, that is, the clause is an object clause.

A prepositional clause is also found in this sentence from a novel by A. Trollope:. *After what had passed, young Round should have been anxious to grind Lucius Mason into powder, and make money of his very bones! After what had passed* clearly performs the same function in the sentence that would be performed, say, by the prepositional phrase *after these events* in a simple sentence. Since that prepositional phrase would have been an adverbial modifier of time (and this is seen from the lexical meanings of the words making it up), the same function must be ascribed to the prepositional clause that we have here.

Compare also the following example: *He questioned me on what Caroline had said.* By substituting a phrase for the clause introduced by the preposition *on*, we get a simple sentence with a prepositional object, e. g. *He questioned me on Caroline's opinion.* So the prepositional clause is clearly shown to be the equivalent, in a complex sentence, of a prepositional object in a simple one. Compare also the following example: *How far back did you burrow, Julia? To when our hearts were young and gay at Wellesley?*

An example of the syntactical equivalence of a word (or phrase) and a clause is also seen in the following sentence, where a noun and a subordinate clause are homogeneous secondary parts of the sentence, united by the conjunction *or: Vitiate the minds or what pass for the minds of the people with education, teach them to read and write, feed their imaginations with sexual and criminal fantasies known as films, and then starve them in order to pay for these delightful erotic celluloids.* (A. WILSON) *What pass for the minds* stands obviously in the same relation as *the minds*, on the one hand to the words *of the people with education*, and on the other to the verb *vitiate*, to which both of them are objects. The syntactic equivalence of the noun *the minds* and the clause *what pass for the minds* is made especially clear by this syntactical tie in two directions.

Such examples as these are the strongest argument in favour of classifying subordinate clauses on the same principle as parts of a simple sentence. V

In our next example there are no homogeneous parts of this kind, but otherwise the function of the subordinate clause is seen very clearly: / *could not write what is known as the popular historical biography*. (A. WILSON) The corresponding simple sentence would be, / *could not write a popular historical biography*. So, if we term the noun *a biography* the direct object in the latter sentence, there seems to be no reason whatever to deny that the subordinate clause in the former sentence is an object clause. Compare also: *I've no doubt about that he is an estimable young man, but I knew nothing about him except what you have told me.* (LINKLATER)

Such sentences may be cited as an argument for recognizing "noun clauses" in Modern English (see above, p. 283 ff.). It is clear that constructions of this kind are only possible if prepositions in a language do not require any special case and may be followed by practically any kind of word, including a conjunction.

The specific qualities of an object clause as distinct from an object in a simple sentence are not difficult to state.

An object clause (clauses of indirect speech included) is necessary when the notion to be expressed cannot conveniently be summed up in a noun, or a phrase with a noun as its head word, or a gerund and a gerundial phrase, but requires an explicit predicative unit, that is, a subject and a predicate of its own. Or, to put it in a different way: an object clause is necessary when what is to be added to the predicate verb is the description of a situation, rather than a mere name of a thing.

In some cases, though, an object in a simple sentence may have a synonymous object clause, as in the following cases: / *heard of his arrival* — / *heard that he had arrived*, etc. The meaning of the two sentences in each case is exactly the same, but there is a certain stylistic difference: the simple sentence with the prepositional object sounds rather more literary or even bookish than the complex sentence with the object clause, which is fit for any sort of style. •A peculiar case of a prepositional object clause is seen in this sentence: *George had drunk a cup of coffee with himself and Simon that morning, had -told them of a play he planned to write, then on to the subject of his weekend, all that he had seen, a good amount of what he had thought or wanted people to think that he had thought, and to the description of a young man named Steitler.* The noun *amount* is head word to a prepositional clause, with two homogeneous predicates, *had thought*, and *wanted;* with the second of these predicates there is the-complex object *people to think*, and the infinitive *to think* is head word to an object clause, *that he had thought.* Now this *had thought* in the object clause is understood to have as its object the pronoun *what* which immediately follows the words *amount of.* Thus, the word *what*, while being part of the first-degree subordinate clause, is object to the predicate of the second-degree clause.

Complex sentence with an attributive clause.

In Modern English an attributive clause may be introduced by connectives — relative pronouns *(who, whose, whom, what, which, that, as)*, or relative adverbs *(when, where, whence, wherein).* The choice of relative word depends on the categorical meaning of the antecedent.

a) If the antecedent denotes a living being, the relative word *who, whom, whose*, or *that* is used.

A man *whose voice seemed familiar to me* gave commands. Those of Big Lanny's friends *who saw him for the first time* had to be told that he couldn't see.

At this remark, *to which he did not reply*, Gerald's ears grew hot.

He went to the next house, *which stood in a small garden.*
There was something in his low, languid voice *that was absolutely fascinating.*
Clyde bowed and then took the cool hand *that Myra extended to*
All that remained was to enter his name and send off the high entrance fees for the examination.
There was *nothing* in his face *that spoke of his character. Everything thai you may want* is in the wardrobe.
The *only* object *that gave her satisfaction during thosedays* was the white monkey. This is the *only* chance *that we have.*
She was playing the piano with *such* feeling *as couldn't be expected from a girl of her age.*
It is the hour *when we sleep.*
He turned to that huge globe *whereon were marked all discoveries of the moment concerning the origin of modem Man...*
They see no reason *why tliey should not do so.*
That is the place *where we always meet,* (a relative adverb) That is *where we always meet,* (a conjunctive adverb) I know *where you always meet,* (a conjunctive adverb)

A subordinate clause is said to be attributive if its function in the complex sentence is analogous to that of an attribute in a simple sentence. It differs from an attribute in so far as it characterizes the thing denoted by its head word through some other action or situation in which that thing is involved. This could not, in many cases at least, be achieved within the limits of a simple sentence. Compare, for example, the sentence *By October Isabelle was settled in the house where, she intended, she would live until she died.* The clause *where ... she would live* with the dependent clause *until she died* contains information which could not be compressed into an attributive phrase within a simple sentence.

It is common knowledge that attributive clauses can be defining (or restrictive, or limiting) and non-defining (or non-restrictive, or descriptive). The non-defining ones do not single out a thing but contain some additional information about the thing or things denoted by the head word, e. g. *Magnus, who was writing an article for MeikleJohn's newspaper, looked up and said, "That's an interesting little essay, isn't it?"* (Linklater) Non-defining attributive clauses pose the question of boundary line between subordination and co-ordination, which in this case becomes somewhat blurred. This is especially evident in the so-called continuative clauses, which are used to carry the narrative a step further, namely in sentences like the following: *But in the morning he went to see Meikle-John, whose enthusiasm on hearing the news was very comforting. We shall have the governess in a day or two, which will be a great satisfaction.* Sentences of this kind may be taken as specimens of subordination weakened and a subordinate clause passing on to something like a co-ordinate position in the sentence. We shall see other varieties of this development in our next chapter.

The question about the place of an attributive clause deserves a few remarks. Most usually, of course, an attributive clause comes immediately after its head word. This is too common to need illustration. But that is by no means an absolute rule. Sometimes an attributive clause will come, not immediately after its head word, but after some other word or phrase, not containing a noun. This is the case, for instance, in the following sentence: *He wanted Ann to die, whom his son passionately loved, whom he had himself once come near to loving.* The intervening infinitive *to die,* coming between the attributive clauses and their head word *Ann,* does not in any way impede the connection between them.

A different kind of separation is found in the following sentence: *Jeremy saw the scene breaking upon him that he had dreaded all day and he felt no energy to withstand it.* The subordinate clause *that he had dreaded all day* has the noun *scene* as its head word. Now this noun forms part of the complex object *the scene breaking upon him.* No ambiguity is created by the separation, as the subordinate clause cannot possibly refer to the pronoun *him,* and there is no noun between *scene* and the subordinate clause. That the word *that* is the relative pronoun and not the conjunction, is seen from the fact that *dreaded,* being a transitive verb, has no object coming after it; that the phrase *all day* is not an object is obvious because if the thing denoted by it were thought of as the object of the action the phrase must have been *all the day.*

Complex sentences with an appositional (appositive) clause.

Speaking of the simple sentence and its parts, we recognized the apposition as a special part of the sentence, not as a variety of an attribute. In a similar way, we will treat appositional clauses as a special type of subordinate clauses, not as a variety of attributive clauses, though they have some features in common with these.

Appositional clauses always modify a noun, usually an abstract noun, such as *fact, thought, idea, question, suggestion,* and the like.

In Modern English an appositional clause may be introduced to the principal clause by conjunctions *(that, if, whether, as if, as though),* conjunctive pronouns and adverbs *(what, how).* They are not separated by a comma and cannot be joined asyndetically.

Unlike an apposition in a simple sentence, which usually gives another name to the person or thing designated by the antecedent, an appositional clause discloses the meaning of a noun (which is also called the antecedent) with a very general meaning, such as: *thing, reason, point, moral, comment, remark, probability, idea, fact, consequence, feature,* etc. The following sentences can be given as examples:

The question *whether it was he or his enemy was hotly discussed.*
She had a strange sensation *as if something had happened.* Andrew had a warm desire *that the conversation might continue.* The question *how and why those people got the information* still worried him.

Cecilia at once noted what Stephen in his preoccupation had not — *that Hilary had come to tell them something.* She said it had only convinced her of what she had known from the first, *that the creature had low taste.*

It is important to note that an appositional clause is introduced by the conjunction *that* and never by the pronoun *that* which are homonymous, by the conjunction *whether*, and its meaning is to show what idea, thought, or question, etc., is spoken of. Here is a typical example: *"One suffers so much," Denis went on, "from the fact that beautiful words don't always mean what they ought to mean."* (Huxley)

In this sentence it is the grammatical context that shows that the word *that* introducing the subordinate clause is a conjunction, not a relative pronoun. It cannot be a relative pronoun, because it cannot be the subject of the clause since there is a subject *(the beautiful words)*, and it cannot be the object either, since there is an object clause to the predicate *don't mean.* So it cannot be a part of the clause and it can only be a conjunction introducing the clause. Compare also this sentence: / *had little hope that my reproof would get through so easily; and it did not.*

An appositional clause may be separated from its head word, as in the following example: *But he did announce his opinion to his daughter-in-law that the ends of justice would so be best promoted, and that if the matter were driven to a trial it would not be for the honour of the court that a false verdict should be given.* The two appositional clauses, *that the ends of justice would so be best promoted*, and *that ... it would not be for the honour of the court*, with the two subordinate clauses of the second degree of subordination attached to it, obviously have the noun *opinion* as their head word.

However, the first of the appositional clauses is separated from its head word by the phrase *to his daughter-in-law.* No ambiguity can arise here, as the lexical meanings of the words contained in the appositional clauses show that the clauses cannot possibly have *daughter-in-law* as their head word: that combination would make no sense. So here again, as in the other examples we have considered, separation of the subordinate clause from its head word is permissible where the lexical meanings of the words prevent any ambiguity or misunderstanding.

In the following example the appositional clause is separated from its head word by a verb: *But before Scarlett could start the two on their homeward journey, news came that the Yankees had swung to the south and were skirmishing along the railroad between Atlanta and Jonesboro.* The subordinate clause, *that the Yankees ... Jonesboro*, of course has the noun *news* as its head word, and the predicate verb *came* cannot obscure the relation.

The same is found in the following sentence, where the appositional clause introduced by the conjunction *whether* is separated from the noun *word*, to which it belongs, by the adverbial modifier *now: They're waiting for Sir Robert's word now whether old Smokey's got to go.*

Questions on the theme:

1. What is a complex sentence?
2. What structural types of complex sentences do you know?
3. What is a complex sentence with a nominal clause?
4. What structural types of a complex sentence with a nominal clause do you know?
5. What is a complex sentence with a subject clause?
6. What structural types of a complex sentence with a subject clause do you know?
7. What is a complex sentence with a predicative clause?
8. What structural types of a complex sentence with a predicative clause do you know?
9. What is a complex sentence with an object clause?
10. What structural types of a complex sentence with a object clause do you know?
11. What is a complex sentence with an attributive clause?
12. What structural types of a complex sentence with an attributive clause do you know?
13. What is a complex sentence with an appositive clause?
14. What structural types of a complex sentence with an appositive clause do you know?

Lecture 12 (2 hours).

Complex sentences with adverbial clauses of time, place, reason(cause), purpose, condition, concession, manner, comparison, result, degree and measure. Cleft sentences.

Plan:

1. Complex sentences with adverbial clauses of time
2. Complex sentences with adverbial clauses of place
3. Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of reason/cause
4. Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of purpose
5. Problem of synonymy of Complex sentences with adverbial clause of reason/cause, purpose and other clauses
6. Problem of homonymy of Complex sentence with adverbial clauses of reason/cause, purpose and other clauses
7. Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of condition
8. Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of concession,
9. Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of manner,
10. Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of comparison
11. Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of result,
12. Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of degree and measure.

13. Cleft Complex sentences:
a) Structural types of cleft complex sentences
b) Cleft Complex sentences of active structure
c) Cleft Complex sentences of passive structure
14. Conclusion.

Key words: *Complex sentences with an adverbial clauses, adverbial clauses of place, time, reason(cause), condition, concession, manner, comparison.Complex sentence with a clause of result(, so that-clauses, such –that clauses, that-clauses), degree and measure, function of an adverbial clauses, embedding as a process, clefting as process, cleft composite sentence, When- cleft, Who-cleft, It-cleft,That –cleft, What –clef, Whom-cleft,Whose-cleft,Where-cleft, how-cleft, because-cleft, why-cleft, which–cleft, zero-cleft, cleft sentences of the active structure, cleft sentences of the passive structure, synonymous cleft structures, semantics of the composite(complex) cleft sentences***.**

The course of the lecture:

Complex Sentences with adverbial clauses.

We must start the discussion of adverbial clauses by pointing out that the term "adverbial" should not be taken as an adjective derived from the noun "adverb" (which would make it a morphological term), but as a syntactical term, in the same way that it is used in the phrase "adverbial modifier" denoting a secondary part of the sentence.

With reference to adverbial clauses a question arises that is not always easy to answer, namely: whether they modify some part of the main clause or the main clause as a whole. The answer may prove to be different for different types of adverbial clauses and the question will have to be considered for each type separately. The criteria to be applied in settling this question have, however (at least partly), to be stated in advance.

We will first try out a method that has proved valid, on the whole, for determining whether a clause is an object clause or not. It will serve both for finding whether a clause is an adverbial clause or not, and if it is one, what it modifies. The method consists in dropping the clause in question and finding out what has been lost by dropping it and what part of the main clause has been affected by the omission (it may be the whole of the main clause). If this method does not yield satisfactory results in some particular case we will think of possible other ways of ascertaining the function of the subordinate clause.

The conjunctions introducing adverbial subordinate clauses are numerous and differ from each other in the degree of definiteness of meaning. While some of them have a narrow meaning, so that, seeing the conjunction, we may be certain that the adverbial clause belongs to a certain type (for example, if the conjunction is *because*, there is no doubt that the adverbial clause is a clause of cause), other conjunctions have so wide a meaning that we cannot determine the type of adverbial clause by having a look at the conjunction alone: thus, the conjunction *as* may introduce different types of clauses, and so can the conjunction *while*. With these conjunctions, other words in the sentence prove decisive in determining the type of adverbial clause introduced by the conjunction.[77]

There are many types of adverbial clauses.Some adverbial clauses can be easily grouped under types more or less corresponding to the types of adverbial modifiers in a simple sentence, which have been considered above. Others are more specific for the complex sentence and do not fit into "pigeonholes" arranged in accordance with the analysis of the simple sentence. Among those that will easily fit into such "pigeonholes" are clauses denoting place, those denoting time (or temporal clauses), clauses of cause, purpose, and concession, and also those of result. There are also clauses of comparison and of degree.

We may mention briefly the types of clauses which do not give much occasion for theoretical discussion, and turn our chief attention to those which do, and also to comparing subordinate clauses to the corresponding adverbial modifiers in a simple sentence, as stated above.

Complex Sentences with an adverbial clause of Place.

In Modern English an adverbial clause of place defines the place or the direction of the action expressed in the principal clause and like in simple sentences with an adverbial modifier of place, it functions as an adverbial modifier of place concretizing the predicate or verb(group) in a matrix or principle clause. It may be introduced by one of the following conjunctions (*they are not conjunctions but connectives – H.G.M.)*: *where, whence, wherever, everywhere (that).* Clause introduced by *wherever* can express direction as well as position.

He was standing *where he always had stood,* on the rug before the
living-room fire.

As we see there appears to be only one prevailing way of introducing such clauses, and this is by means of the relative adverb *where,(* and in a very few cases by the phrase *from where)* or by its *derivatives(wherever)* or even *whence.* For instance, *...Miss Dolly insisted on looking into all the cupboards and behind the curtains to see, as she said, "if there were any eyes or ears where they were not wanted."* This way of indicating the whereabouts of "eyes or ears" serves to

[77] A word of caution is necessary here. A subordinate clause introduced by the conjunction *because,* or *when,* etc., need not necessarily be an adverbial clause at all. It may, for instance, be a predicative clause, as in the sentence *This was because he had just arrived.* Since the subordinate clause comes immediately after the link verb *be* it cannot possibly be an adverbial clause but must be a predicative one.

characterize it by referring to a situation expressed by the subordinate clause, rather than to indicate the precise places meant. *Then go where you usually sleep at night.* Here the room where, the person addressed is asked to go is characterized by what takes place there.

Here is an example of a prepositional *where-clause* denoting place in the literal sense of the term: *From where he stood, leaning in an attitude of despair against the parapet of the terrace, Denis had seen them...* The clause *from ... the terrace* denotes the place from which the action of the main clause *(Denis had seen)* was performed.

Occasions for this particular way of denoting the place of an action appear to be rather rare. Here, however, is another example: *I gathered up my damp briefcase and ancient mackintosh and made my way down to where a thin penetrating drizzle swept the streets from the direction of the sea.*

Here are some more examples: *But Magnus stayed where he was... But Meiklejohn lay where he had fallen. This time she did not wave gaily, but went.*

Occasionally a *where-clause* can be used together with an adverb indicating place, as in the sentence *"Come on here where I am, honey," Lujean called, at the same time beckoning urgently to her* The adverbial modifier *here* would seem to indicate clearly enough where the speaker wants her friend to come, so the clause *where I am* serves to state the point more emphatically, rather than give any essentially new information.

There has been some discussion whether the word *where* introducing a subordinate clause of place is an adverb or a conjunction. The latter view was suggested by a certain analogy with the conjunction *when* introducing clauses of time. However, the possibility of the word *where* being preceded by the preposition *from,* as in some of the above examples, is a definite argument against its being a conjunction.

The number of sentences with an adverbial clause of place is negligible as compared with those containing an adverbial clause of time. The cause of this is plain enough. It is only in exceptional cases that the speaker or writer deems it necessary to denote the place of an action by referring to another action which occurred at the same place. In the vast majority of cases he will rather indicate the place by directly naming it *(at home, in London, at the nearest shop,* and so forth). Sentences with adverbial clauses of place are therefore used only in cases where the speaker or writer avoids naming the place of the action, or in sentences of a generalizing character, or again in sentences where the place is perhaps hard to define and the mime is unimportant.

Clauses of place can also be used in a metaphorical sense, that is, the "place" indicated may not be a place at all in the literal meaning, of the word but a certain generalized condition or sphere of action. This of course is made clear by the context, that is, by the lexical meanings of the other words in the sentence. Compare the following sentences. *Where people wish to attach, they should always be ignorant.* It is of course the lexical meanings of the words in both clauses which show the metaphorical use of the wuere-clause here. *Wherever the choice has had to be made between the man of reason and the madman, the world has unhesitatingly fo-lowed the madman.* Both the adverb *wherever* and the meaning of the sentence as a whole show that not a concrete place but a general review of conditions is meant.

Two very well known sentences are also cases in point: the proverb *Where, there is a will there is a way* and the famous line from Thomas Gray's poem "On a Distant Prospect of Eton College": *Whete ignorance is bliss, 'tis folly to be wise.*

It is of no special importance whether we shall term such clauses of metaphorical meaning clauses of place or invent a new term to denote them. Anyway, there would seem to be no basic objection to give them that name, provided we keep in mind that spatial notions are apt to be interpreted metaphorically.

Complex Sentences with an adverbial clause of Time (Temporal Clauses)

An adverbial clause of time characterizes the action expressed in the clause from the temporal point of view. The action may be expressed by a finite or non-finite form of the verb.

In Modern English an adverbial clause of time may be introduced by conjunctions: *as, as soon as, as long as, when, whenever, while, now that, till, until, after, before, since,* recently formed conjunctions and phrasal conjunctions: *the time (that), the day (that), the moment, the instant, next time, every (each) time, directly, immediately, instantly, once"* and like in simple sentences with an adverbial modifier of time, it functions as an adverbial modifier of time concretizing the predicate or verb(group) in a matrix or principle clause.

The number of conjunctions used to introduce temporal clauses is very considerable, and it seems to be growing still at the expense of nouns denoting time units, with the definite article, such as *the moment, the instant,* etc. Temporal clauses are used much more frequently than clauses of space. All this requires some words of explanation.

On the one hand, time relations are much more varied than space relations. If we want to indicate the time when an action occurred by referring it to another action, the time relations between the two may be various. The one action may be taking place at the very time when the other action was being carried out; or it may have begun a short while after the other action was finished, or it may have ended just as the other action was about to begin, etc., etc.

On the other hand, it is a very common occurrence to indicate the time of an action by referring it to the time of another action, with which it happens to be connected either by some causal link or by a fortuitous coincidence in time. The speaker or writer may in many cases use this way of indicating the time of an action, rather than an adverbial modifier of time in a simple sentence (such as, *at five o'clock,* etc.), because the exact time may be either unknown (this especially refers to actions in the future), or irrelevant. The time relation between the action of the main clause and that of the subordinate

clause may be expressed with a very great degree of exactness: the two actions may be simultaneous, or the one may precede the other, or follow it, or it may last until the other has begun, etc.

There is one more point to be noted here. The action of the head clause may be connected with that of the temporal clause by some causal tie, that is, if the action of the temporal clause did not take place, that of the main clause would not take place either; or the connection may be purely temporal, with no causal relation implied. This is especially characteristic of temporal clauses indicating natural phenomena, such as sunrise, sunset, etc., which are not the cause of anything happening in human relations but merely an external method of reckoning time as it passes. The cases of the first kind (with causal relation implied) are to be seen in the following examples: *She made a little curtsy as he bowed ... So, between sport and pedantry, she was busy enough, and on most nights her eyes closed the minute her head touched the pillow.* A case of the second kind (with no causal relation implied) is seen in an example of a different character: *As she stood hanging to the sill, a deafening explosion burst on her ears, louder than any cannon she had ever heard.* Of course this difference depends entirely on the lexical meanings of the words making up the main and the subordinate clause, and has no grammatical significance whatever.

Occasionally a wum-clause indicates an action opposed to that of the main clause, rather than the time when that main action occurred: *Where on earth was the double game, when you've behaved like such a saint?* Here, too, it is the lexical meanings of the words which make the relation clear. Of course a wAm-clause of this kind can only come after its head clause.

There are two more points to be mentioned in connection with temporal clauses, and they both bear on the temporal clause losing its subordinate character and tending to become independent of the clause with which it is connected.

One of these is the type of sentence which consists of a clause narrating some situation and followed by a *when-clause* telling of an event which burst into the situation and which is the central point of the whole sentence-. Such a *when-clause* always comes after the main clause and this may be considered its grammatical peculiarity. A clear example of this type may be seen in the following sentence: *Judith had just gone into her room and closed the door when she heard a man's voice in the parlour, and in a few minutes she heard the closing of Eve's bedroom door.* It is quite clear here that the *when-cl&use* does not indicate the time when the action of the first clause took place but contains the statement which is the centre of the whole composite sentence. It is also evident that a *when-clause* of this kind must necessarily come after the head clause within the composite sentence. Compare also the following passages: *It was the middle of the August afternoon when Harry Emory got back to his office at the canning factory after lunch and he felt drowsy and sluggish and downright lazy in the summer heat.* Once more, we see from the lexical meanings of the words that the u^ew-clause does not indicate the time when the action of the other clause took place. It might indeed be argued that it is the other way round: the first clause indicates the time when the action of the *when-clause* took place. This way of constructing the sentence seems to be designed to lay the main stress on the time indication, that is, to mark it out as the rheme of the whole sentence.

In the meanwhile, they proceeded on their journey without any mischance; and were within view of the town of Keynsham, when a halloo from Morland, who was behind them, made his friend pull up, to know what was the matter.

That the when-clause does not indicate the time of the action of the main clause but contains the most important information of the sentence is clear from the character of the predicate *were within view,* which denotes something static, and of the predicate group *made his friend pull up* (the subject being *a halloo),* which indicates a sudden momentary action. Compare also:

The next Friday afternoon Fern was walking slowly along the street in front of the court-house when Judge Price crossed the lawn.

In such a sentence the reasons for calling the *when-clause* a subordinate one are very much weakened. It most certainly does not indicate the time when the action of the first clause took place, nor does it in any way correspond to an adverbial modifier of time in a simple sentence. This appears to be sufficient proof that the *when-clause* is not a subordinate clause, and the sentence which contains it is not a complex sentence. This might be termed "emancipation" of a subordinate clause.

B.A.Ilyish points out that another phenomenon of "emancipation" affects clauses introduced by the conjunction *while* and following the main clause. The conjunction *while,* as is well known, expresses simultaneity of an action with another action. However, this meaning of simultaneity can, under certain conditions, change into a different meaning altogether. If, say, two people simultaneously perform quite different actions, possibly opposed to one another in character, this state of things may serve to characterize the two people as opposed to each other. This may be the meaning of a sentence like the following: *Magnus briefly outlined the case for the independent sovereignty of Scotland, while Frieda listened without any remarkable interest.* It is clear that the *while-clause* doesnot here express the time when the action of the first clause took place: it rather expresses an action opposed in its character to the first action, and *in this much it serves* to characterize the doer of the action. We might here put the conjunction *and* instead of *while* and the actual meaning would be the same, though the sentence would now be a compound one. Since, therefore, the function of the second clause is quite different from the usual function of a subordinate adverbial temporal clause, and since no purely grammatical peculiarities make it necessary to term the second clause a subordinate one, we may say that it is not subordinate and the sentence not complex.

We think that even here we have nothing else but a complex sentence with a temporal *while- clause,* for the meaning of temporality is clearly felt in it, and ascribing something subjective to almost any clause of such kind is always

possible because in the early phases of the language development there was a tendency to collocate two or more simple sentences into a composite one asyndetically and the insertion of any conjunction into the structure of any of such an asyndetic composite sentence tended (and even now tends) to be possible just because of the neutralization of the microcontext here (compare: *The man was there, he was working*), we can put in between these two simple sentences any of the following conjunctions(*The man was there/ when, where, if , so, so that, as, as if , as though, though, all though, despite, in case, because, etc./ he was working)*. In such cases one's intuition, supposition or even presupposition based on the already gained knowledge of the phenomenon under study plays a decisive role in treating the very composite sentence type.

A subordinate clause introduced by the conjunction *while* may sometimes express contrast, rather than time relation, even when it occupies front position, that is, when it precedes the main clause. Here is an example containing three *while-clauses* of this kind: *Thus, while I have a certain amount of intelligence, I have no aesthetic sense; while I possess the mathematical faculty, I am wholly without the religious emotions; while I am naturally addicted to venery, I have little ambition and am not at all avaricious.* The lexical meanings of the words, both in the main and in the subordinate clauses, show beyond doubt that the connection between each of the *while-clauses* and the main clause following it is based not on time but on contrast. The sentence gives a characteristic of the man, and not a description of what he is doing at one time or another. Such examples, though they may not be numerous, go far to show that a *while-clause* may express contrast even though it precedes its head clause.

We shall meet with another case of "emancipation" when we come to clauses of concession.

There is some affinity between temporal and causal clauses, and also between temporal and conditional ones.

Complex Sentences with an adverbial clause of reason (or cause, causal clause)

Adverbial clauses of cause (or "causative clauses" as it is termed by N.A.Kobrina and N.E.Korneeva[78]) express the reason, cause, or motivation of the action expressed in the main clause or of its content as a whole and like in simple sentences with an adverbial modifier of cause or reason, it functions as an adverbial modifier of cause or reason concretizing the predicate or verb(group) in a matrix or principle clause.

Adverbial clauses may be introduced by the conjunctions *as, because, since, so, that, lest, seeing (that), considering;* or by the conjunctive phrases *for the reason that, in view of the fact that, in so far as (insofar as), by reason of.*

Since there is no help, let us try and bear it as best we can. They went down arm-in-arm — James with Imogen, *because his pretty grandchild cheered him. In so far as it is difficult to assign an external cause to certain happenings,* they are written off as uncaused or spontaneous.

The affinity between temporal and causal clauses is manifested by the fact that both kinds of clauses can be introduced by the conjunction *as,* and nothing but the context, i. e. the lexical meanings of the words involved, will enable us to tell whether the clause is temporal or causal.

Thus the difference between the two kinds is not grammatical in these cases'. Let us consider the following two examples: *The rain neither enticed nor repelled, but only trickled down his big umbrella off onto the upturned collar of his old army-officer jacket as he walked down the path.* There obviously cannot be a causal tie between the fact stated in the main clause and that stated in the as-clause. *As they* (Beaumont and Fletcher) *are indissolubly associated in the history of English literature, it is convenient to treat of them in one place.* Here the causal connection between the clauses is obvious.

Compare also two since-clauses: *For ever since he had fled from Kansas City, and by one humble device and another forced to make his way, he had been coming to the conclusion that on himself alone depended his future* with a clearly temporal meaning, and *"So," said Helen, "since you obviously don't know how to behave in Great Britain, I shall take you back to France directly you are well enough to travel",* where the connection is causal.

There would be no necessity to analyze the meanings of the words, etc., if the subordinate clause were introduced by a conjunction which can have one meaning only, for instance, the conjunction *because.* No clause introduced by this conjunction could ever be a temporal clause.

A special problem, which has received much attention, attaches to clauses introduced by the conjunction *for.* In many ways they are parallel to clauses with *because,* and we may wonder whether there is any valid reason for saying that oecawse-clauses are subordinate and *for-clauses* co-ordinate. Indeed the following two examples seem to prove the parallelism: *It was Richie who played, for Lucien had discouraging business paper to read. On earth there may be some truth in this, because the people are uneducated...*

But at the same time there is a basic difference between the two types. 5e«mse-clauses indicate the cause of the action expressed in the main clause. They can be used separately as an answer to the question *why...?,* as in the following bit of dialogue: "I must *have come." "Why?" "Because I must. Because there would have been no other way."* A *for-clause* could not possibly be used in this way. The reason is that a *for-clause* expresses an additional thought, that is, it is added on to a finished part of the sentence, as in the following extract: *"What game are they all playing?" poor Fleda could only ask; for she had an intimate conviction that Owen was now under the roof of his betrothed.*

[78] N. A. Kobrina, E. A. Korneyeva, M. I. Ossovskaya, K. A. Guzeyeva . An English Grammar. Syntax. Moskow "Prosvesheniye" 1986, p. 137

It would also be impossible to replace *because by for* in the following sentence: *But either because the rains had given a freshness, or because the sun was shedding a most glorious heat, or because two of the gentlemen were young in years and the third young in the spirit — for some reason or other a change came over them.*

This peculiarity of *for-clauses* as distinct from *because-clauses* is in full harmony with the fact that *for-clauses* can also come after a full stop, thus functioning as separate sentences, much as sentences introduced by the conjunction *but* do, as in the following extract: *This thought, together with one other — that once more after dinner he was to see Roberta and in her room as early as eleven o'clock or even earlier — cheered him and caused him to step along most briskly and gaily. For, since having indulged in this secret adventure so many times, both were unconsciously becoming bolder.*

The following solutions appear to be plausible: (1) for-clauses are always co-ordinate, never subordinate ones, (2) for-clauses are subordinate ones in all cases, and no objective difference is to be found between them and oecaase-clauses, (3) for-clauses occupy an intermediate position, the difference between co-ordination and subordination being here neutralized, and tend sometimes toward the one, sometimes toward the other extreme. Possibly the last solution is the most acceptable.

Complex Sentenses with a Clause of Purpose

Clauses of purpose generally contain a contemplated or planned action, which is to be achieved by the action expressed by the predicate or any verbal part in the main clause. The predicate in the subordinate clause is in the subjunctive mood. Adverbial clauses of purpose are introduced by conjunctions *that, so that, lest, so as, so, in order that, for fear that,, in case, for the purpose that, with the purpose(wish, desire, intention, hope) that, on purpose that,* and like in simple sentences with an adverbial modifier of purpose, it functions as an adverbial modifier of purpose concretizing the predicate or verb(group) in a matrix or principle clause.

I trode on an edging of turf *that the crackle of the pebbly gravel might not betray me*.

I tell you all this *so that you may understand me perfectly*.

The conjunctions *lest* and *for fear that* introduce clauses stating what is to be prevented, as both the conjunctions have a negative meaning *Lest* is now archaic or extremely formal and after this conjunction tht subjunctive mood usually with *should* is generally used.

He was like a man who is afraid to look behind him *lest he shoulc see something there which ought not to be there.* "It's a bit lighter in the park," he said, "but take it (an electrk torch) *for fear you get off the path"*

In some cases the meaning oi purpose in clauses introduced by *lest* and *forfea, that* is weakened so that the clause expresses rather general motivation thai purpose, or else an outcome of the action in the main clause, as in:

Lest the wall should collapse, they evacuated the building. (They did nc evacuate the building with the purpose of causing the wall to collapse. Better chain up the dog *for fear he bites.*

The conjunctions *that, so that, lest, so* are used not only to introduce the clauses of purpose, but other clauses too, for example, *that* may introduce subject clauses, predicative clauses, and object clauses; *that* may introduce clauses of result, *lest* — clauses of cause, subject clauses, predicative clauses and object clauses; *so* — clauses of result and of cause.

Clauses expressing purpose may, as is well known, be introduced either by the conjunction *that* or by the phrase *in order that.* There is a basic difference between the two variants. A clause introduced by *in order that* is sufficiently characterized as a clause of purpose, and nothing else is needed to identify it as such. A clause introduced by *that,* on the other hand, need not necessarily be a clause of purpose: it can also belong to one of several other types (see p. 321 ff.). To identify it as a clause of purpose other indications are needed, and the most usual of these is the verb *may (might)* or *should* as part of its predicate.

A clause of purpose can also be introduced by the phrase *so that,* and some special signs are needed to distinguish it from a clause of result.

Let us take as an example the following sentence with two clauses introduced by the phrase *so that. Although slightly nearsighted, Elizabeth, so that nothing might damage the charm of her dark brown eyes, tragic and wide apart under straight brows, wore no glasses but carried instead a miniature lorgnette, for which she now searched in her purse, unobtrusively and on her lap so that Steitler, who was speaking to her son, would not notice.* Both clauses here are clauses of purpose, not result, and this is seen from the following facts: as to the first clause, its position between the subject of the main clause *(Elizabeth),* and its predicate *(wore),* shows beyond doubt that it cannot express result: the result could not possibly be mentioned before the action bringing it about was stated. Another point speaking in favour of the clause being one of purpose is its predicate *(might damage).* As to the second clause introduced by *so that,* its position at the end of the sentence does not tell anything about its being a clause of purpose or of result. That it is a clause of purpose is seen from the predicate *(would not notice),* which would have no reasonable sense in a clause of result. If we make a slight change and replace the predicate *would not notice* by *did not notice,* the clause will decidedly be a clause of result. So the meaning of the clause appears to depend entirely on the verb *would.*

Compare also the following sentence: *Mrs Cox did not object to this so long as they talked English, so that she could keep a line on the conversation; if it was French, she did not know what they were up to.* Here the words *talked English* and *could keep a line* point to the meaning of purpose, rather than result.

Complex sentences with a Clause of Condition(conditional clause)

Complex sentences with adverbial clauses of condition contain some condition (either real or unreal) which makes the action in the main clause possible.

Adverbial clauses of condition may be introduced by conjunctions: *if(the most general one), unless, once, in case.* There are also several conjunctions derived from verbal forms and ending with optional *that: provided (that), providing (that), suppose (that), supposing (that), considering (that), given (that), granted (that), granting (that), admitting (that), presuming (that), seeing (that),* and like in simple sentences with an adverbial modifier of condition, it functions as an adverbial modifier of condition concretizing the predicate or verb(group) in a matrix or principle clause.

Conditional clauses introduced by *If* and other conjunctions (with the exception of *unless), as to B.A.Ilyish,* imply uncertainty. But we do think that even with *unless* there is a sort of uncertanty here, therefore they often contain non-assertive forms of pronouns and pronominal adverbs, such as *any, anybody, anything, anywhere.*

If anything troubles you, you'd better tell me. If *anyone asks for me,* tell him to wait. *If you don't come,* they will be pleased.

Clauses beginning with *unless* express the only possible condition which will make possible the action in the main clause. Therefore they usually contain assertive forms like *something, somebody.*

Unless somebody interferes, there may be a disaster.

Conditional clauses may be introduced by several conjunctions such as if (the most general one), unless, provided, supposing (with more specialized meanings), and the phrase in case.

An essential peculiarity of conditional clauses, or, we should rather say, of conditional sentences (including both the main and the subordinate clause), is the use of verbal forms. Here the actual meaning of a verbal form depends entirely on the syntactical context: it may acquire a meaning which it would never have outside this context.

The classification of conditional sentences is familiar enough. The main types are three: (1) // *we can get to the bicycles, we shall beat him.* (2) // *they could derive advantage from betraying you, betray you they would ...* (3) // *you had been arguing about a football match I should have been ready to take a more lenient view of the case...*

There may, however, also be other types, with the action of the subordinate clause belonging to the past and its consequence to the present, e. g. *Anyhow, if you hadn't been ill, we shouldn't have you here,* etc.

As we have previously discussed the possible interpretations of forms like *knew, had known, should know, should have known,* we need not go into that question here.

Subordinate conditional clauses can also, like some types of clauses considered above, get emancipated and become independent sentences expressing wish. From a sentence like *If I had known this in advance I should have done everything to help,* etc., the conditional clause may be separated and become an independent exclamatory sentence: *If I had known this in advance !* The conjunction *if* in such a case apparently ceases to be a conjunction, since there is no other clause here. The conjunction then becomes a particle typical of this kind of exclamatory sentence.[79] The following examples will illustrate this point: *If only she might play the question loud enough to reach the ears of this Paul Steitler.* Compare the following sentence: *If you will just send that back to him, — without a word.*

In the first example it is quite evident that the word *if* does not connect anything with anything else and can therefore hardly be termed a conjunction at all: it rather approaches the status of a particle used to introduce an exclamatory sentence. As to our second example, things are less clear. It might be possible -.to assume that this is a subordinate conditional clause, with a main clause, something like *it will be all right,* or, perhaps, something like I *shall be grateful,* but this of course could never be proved to be the case. If that view is rejected, nothing seems to remain but to assume that we have here an independent sentence, which is to all intents and purposes imperative (as it amounts to a request), and that here, too, the conjunction *if* has practically become a particle used to introduce that sort of sentence. Transition cases of this kind are most valuable for understanding the mechanism, as it were, of grammatical development.

The same is found in the third clause of the following compound sentence: *It's really rather ghastly and one oughtn't to laugh, but if you could* see *them, my dear.* One might say that this clause is subordinate and that a head clause is "omitted" after it, e. g. *you would understand me.* But it seems simpler to take the *if-* clause as an independent clause expressing something like wish and co-ordinated with the two preceding clauses.

Complex sentences with a Clause of Concession

In complex sentences with a concessive clause there is a contrast between the content of the main clause and that of the subordinate one: the action or fact described in the main clause is carried out or takes place despite the fact or action expressed in the subordinate clause.

The clause of concession is introduced by conjunctions: *although, though, if, whether... or;* group conjunctions: *even if, even though, even when;* correlated conjunctions: *though... yet;* conjunctive pronouns or adverbs: *whoever, whatever, whichever, whenever, wherever* (which may stand for almost any part of the sentence), *as;* or conjunctive phrases: *no matter how, no matter what, for all that, despite that, in spite of the fact, despite the fact,* and like in simple sentences with an adverbial

[79] There are similar developments in other languages, such as Russian, French, and German

modifier of concession, it functions as an adverbial modifier of concession concretizing the predicate or verb(group) in a matrix or principle clause.

The abundance of means for expressing concessive relations is determined not only by the necessity to differentiate various shades of meaning, but also by the fact that different parts like "*however"(and here it is a conjunction - H.G.M.),* or even word order may form the focus of the concessive meaning:

However cynical he was, — (The focus is predicative.)
Сколь бы циничен он ни был..., У қанчалик умидсизликка тушмасин …
Late as it was — »
Хотя было поздно, как бы ни было поздно. .. Гарчи кеч булсада….
Try as he might— (The focus is the notional part of the predicate.)
Хотя он и старался работать... У гарчи ишлашга харакат килсада.....
Whoever may come— (The focus is subject.)
Кто бы ни пришел... Ким келмасин.....

Compound conjunctive pronouns and adverbs *(whoever, whenever,* etc.) impart universal or indefinite meaning to the clause they introduce. Contrast the following sentences:

a) *Whenever you come* send me a note (any time when...).
b) *When you come* send me a note (the definite time when...).

Care should be taken to distinguish compound conjunctive pronouns from free combinations with the intensifying particle *ever (what ever, who ever*, etch spelled usually as two words, dontrast the following sentences:

a) I asked him *what ever he was up to* (what on earth he was up to).
b) *Whatever she touched* she was almost certain to smash it to atoms.

These clauses express some circumstance despite which the action of the main clause is performed. They are of several types. One type comprises clauses introduced by the conjunctions *though, although,* and (in a somewhat high-flown style) *albeit,* which can have no other meaning but the concessive. Another type is represented by clauses of the pattern "predicative (noun or adjective) + *as* + subject + link verb", in which the concessive meaning is not directly expressed by the conjunction *as* or, indeed, by any other single word, but arises out of the combined lexical meanings of different words in the sentence.

The first type may be illustrated by such sentences as: *Resolutely she smiled, though she was trembling.* It does not call for any special comment for the time being. The second type may be seen, for example, in the sentence *Clever as he was, he failed to grasp the idea,* where the concessive meaning arises from the contrast in meaning between the word *clever,* on the one hand, and the phrase *failed to grasp,* on the other. If this needs any proof, it can be provided by the simple expedient of introducing a change into the head clause, namely, replacing the phrase *failed to grasp* by the word *grasped: Clever as he was, he grasped the idea* — here the meaning is causal, rather than concessive, and this of course depends only on the combination of lexical meanings of the words *clever* and *grasped.* The pattern of the sentence, with the conjunction as a part of it, merely expresses some kind of connection between what is expressed in the subordinatexlause and what is said in the head clause. Adverbial modifiers of concession are occasionally found in a simple sentence, and the preposition *despite* or the phrase *in spite of* is the usual way of introducing them. When the obstacle opposing the performance of the action is some other action, especially when it is performed by another agent, the more usual way of expressing it is by a subordinate clause.

Clauses introduced by the conjunction *though* can also, in certain circumstances, go beyond their essential concessive meaning; that is, in these circumstances they do not denote an action or situation in spite of which the action of the other clause takes place. Such clauses may be emancipated, that is, they may acquire an independent standing, and even become a separate sentence, as in the following example: / *suppose that I am ticketed as a Red there now for good and will be on the general blacklist. Though you never know. You never can tell.* The sentence *Though you never know* does not express an obstacle to the statement contained in the 'preceding sentence, but a new idea, or an afterthought limiting what had been said before.

The second type of concessive clause is seen in the following sentences: *... and great as was Catherine's curiosity, her courage was not equal to a wish of exploring them* (the mysterious apartments.*) after dinner.* It is the combination of lexical meanings *great ... curiosity, courage ... not equal* that shows the meaning to be concessive. *But deplorable as it might be, and undoubtedly was, there was another aspect of the case that more vitally concerned himself.* It is the words *another* and *more vitally* that point to the concessive meaning. Compare also: *And yet somewhere through all this gentleness ran a steel cord, for his staff was perpetually surprised to find out that, inattentive as he appeared to be, there was no detail of the business which he did not know; while hardly a transaction he made did not turn out to be based on a stroke of judgement.* Another type again may be seen in a sentence like this: *Coinciding with his holiday inclinations this request might have been successful in whatever words it had been couched.* Here it seems to be the meaning of the pronoun *whatever* which lies at the bottom of the concessive meaning of the clause.

Complex sentences with Clauses of Comparison

Complex sentences with adverbial clauses of comparison characterize the action expressed by the predicate in the main clause by comparing it with some real or hypothetical circumstance or action.

Clauses of comparison may be introduced to the principle clause by conjunctions *as, like, as if, as though, than* and conjunctions with the correlatives as... *as, so... as, as... as if,* and like in simple sentences with an adverbial modifier of comparison, it functions as an adverbial modifier of comparison concretizing the predicate or verb(group) in a matrix or principle clause.

Swithin's pale eyes bulged *as though he might suddenly have been afflicted with insight.*

Complex sentences with Clause of manner

Adverbial clauses of manner may refer to the verbal predicate or any verbal part as the only modifier of the action expressed, to a detached attribute or to an adverbial modifier. They may be introduced by the conjunctions *as, the way.*

There are different types of adverbial clauses of manner.

I. Clauses of manner of the first type modify the predicate of the main clause by attributing some quality to it.

I'm sorry I talked *the way I did at lunch.*

She cooks the turkey exactly *as my mother did.*

He could do it *as no one else could have done.*

II. Clauses of manner of the second type refer to attributes or predicatives characterizing a state or quality of a person or non-person.

Astonished, *as one could be in such circumstances,* he didn't give a sign of it.

He was puzzled by the situation, *as one could easily be in his place.*

III. Clauses of manner of the third type refer to an adverbial modifier, giving additional information or explanation concerning it. The connection between the clauses is rather loose, and the subordinate clause is generally set off by commas.

He said it with contempt, *as a grown-up serious man should treat such views.*

These two kinds of adverbial clauses are not easily kept apart. Sometimes the clause is clearly one of manner, and does not contain or imply any comparison, as in the following sentences: *You must explain Barbary to him as best you can.* Sometimes, on the other hand, the clause is clearly one of comparison, and does not contain or imply an indication of manner, as in the following sentence: *His wife must be a lady and a lady of blood, with as many airs and graces as Mrs Wilkes and the ability to manage Tara as well as Mrs Wilkes ordered her own domain.*

But there are also sentences where it may be argued, either that the comparison is merely a way of indicating the manner of an action, or that the comparison is the essential point, and the indication of manner merely an accompanying feature[80].

According to B.A.Ilyish, since the problem of which view is the correct one, that is, whether the comparison or the indication of manner is the essential point, cannot be solved by objective methods, it is best to say that in such cases the distinction between the two types is neutralized, and that is what makes us treat the two types under a common heading, "clauses of manner and comparison".

The most typical conjunction in such clauses is the conjunction *as.* and indeed, historically speaking, this is its earliest application in the language. The conjunction as is of course also used to introduce clauses of time and of cause, and it is only the context, that is, the lexical meanings of the words, that makes it clear what the function of the clause is. For instance, in the following example it is the meaning of the words *make money,* repeated as they are, that shows the clause to be a clause of comparison and not a clause of time or cause: *With the idea that she was as capable as a man came a sudden rush of pride and a violent longing to prove it, to make money for herself as men made money!* It is typical of as-clauses of comparison that the conjunction may have a correlative element in the head clause, which is usually another *as.* This may be seen in the following example, which is somewhat peculiar: *Do you find Bath as agreeable as when I had the honour of making the enquiry before?* The *when-clause* as such is a temporal clause: it indicates the time when an action ("his earlier enquiry") took place. However, being introduced by the conjunction *as,* which has its correlative, another *as,* in the main clause, it is at the same time a clause of comparison. It would seem that these two characteristics do not contradict each other but are, as it were, on different levels: the temporal clause occupies a position which might also be occupied by an adverbial modifier of time within a simple sentence, if, for instance, the sentence ran like this: *Do you find Bath as agreeable as last year?* In that case the phrase *as last year* would have been a subordinate part expressing comparison, while *last year* as such would have been an adverbial modifier of time. Such different levels of syntactical analysis do not appear to have received sufficient attention so far.

There may be some argument about the exact status of the *as* in the head clause. It may be said either that it is an adverb modifying the adjective or adverb which follows it, or that it makes part of a double conjunction *as ... as,* whose first element is within the head clause, while the second element introduces the subordinate clause. The first view is distinctly preferable, as the idea of an element of a subordinating conjunction coming within the head clause and tending to modify one of its parts is theoretically very doubtful.

[80] The possibility of a twofold interpretation of such clauses appears to be based on the primary meaning of comparison inherent in the conjunction *as.*

Another variant including the conjunction *as* is the phrase *in the same way as (in the same manner as),* whose composition and function may be a matter of discussion. It may. be taken as a phrase equivalent in function to a conjunction, and thus belonging in its entirety to the subordinate clause. Or else the phrase *in the same way as* may be viewed as divided between the head clause and the subordinate clause, only *as* belonging to the subordinate, and *in the same way* making part of the head clause as an adverbial modifier of manner. There seems to be no valid objective method of settling this question and it remains largely a matter of individual opinion. It may perhaps be argued that some sentences rather incline toward one interpretation, and others toward the other.

Another conjunction used to introduce clauses of comparison is *than.* It is naturally always associated with the comparative degree of an adjective or adverb in the head clause, as in the sentence: *Nobody can appreciate it more than I do.* T*han-clauses* do not seem to offer occasion for any special comment.

Let us now turn to the question of clauses of manner and comparison and adverbial modifiers in a simple sentence.

It is quite clear from the outset that a clause of comparison or manner is used when an action described in the head clause is to be characterized by comparing it to some other action. Adverbial modifiers in a simple sentence give only limited possibilities for this. They can be used to express that sort of idea if the comparison is not, strictly speaking, between the actions themselves but between different subjects performing the same action. This particular kind of comparison may indeed be expressed with the help .of the conjunction *like,* as in the following example: *I never see a young woman in any station conduct herself like you have conducted yourself.* This usage belongs to low colloquial style.

A similar kind of idea can also be expressed by means of a dependent appendix introduced by the conjunction *as.* In fact in some cases the difference between a simple sentence with a dependent appendix of this type (see above, p. 265) and a complex sentence with a subordinate clause of comparison appears to be very slight: one may be changed into the other by merely adding or dropping the corresponding form of the verb *do* or *be: He works as efficiently as you (do), He was as excited as she (was),* etc. It is therefore natural that sentences without the form of *do* or *be* should have been considered as elliptical, with the verb "understood". However, as we have adopted the principle of not admitting ellipsis unless this, is strictly necessary, we have chosen to treat those sentences (without *do* or *be)* as simple ones with a dependent appendix. So, accordingly,' comparing them now with the complex sentences, we may state that the difference in such cases appears to be stylistic rather than anything else. The complex sentences are somewhat more literary in style than the simple ones with the dependent appendix introduced by the conjunction *as.*

The same considerations apply to the subordinate clauses with the conjunction *that* and simple sentences with a dependent appendix introduced by the same conjunction: compare *I am taller than he (is), He works better than they (do),* etc.

The difference between the clauses of comparison and manner.

In our opinion the main difference between the clauses of comparison and manner lies in the fact that if the predicate in a subordinate clause expresses an action, then the clause is that of manner, but if it expresses non–action(process, state, quality, quantity, degree, etc. then it is a clause of comparison: ***He is taller than I am***(never manner, but comparison).in other cases we can consider the clause syncretic, expressing both comparison and manner(for example: I can do it much better than you do).

Complex sentence an adverbial clause of result

In a complex sentence, an adverbial clause of result denotes some consequence or result of the action expressed in the main clause. It may be introduced by the conjunction *so that,* or simply *that* and like in simple sentences with an adverbial modifier of result, it functions as an adverbial modifier of result concretizing the predicate or verb(group) in a matrix or principle clause..

Light fell on her there, *so that Soames could see her face, eyes, hair, strangely as he remembered them, strangely beautiful.*

Clauses with the correlatives *so* and *such (so... that, such... that)* express manner (though with a shade of resultative meaning) and are treated as such.

One could bear in mind that the line of demarcation between cases of *so. that* and *so that* is rather difficult to draw when the two words follow one another. Note 2. The conjunction *so that* may also introduce clauses of purpose. This function i; easily distinguished, as a clause of purpose may be transformed into an adverbial modifier of purpose, whereas an adverbial clause of result cannot. I tell you this *so that you may understand me properly* (for you to understand me properly).

This transformation is impossible with clauses of result. I *was tired that I could hardly speak.*

Clauses of result give rise to some discussion, since the distinction between them and some other types of subordinate clauses is in some cases doubtful and to a certain extent arbitrary.

It should first of all be noted that the term "clauses of result" must not be taken to imply that the result was necessarily planned in advance, or that it was consciously aimed at. The result may have been brought about without anybody's intention. So these clauses might be termed "clauses of consequence", but since that term is also liable to different interpretations, we may as well stick to the usual term "clauses of result".

Clauses of result may be connected with the head clause in either of two ways: (1) the clause is introduced by the conjunction *that*, while in the head clause there is the pronoun *such* or the adverb *so*, which is correlative with the conjunction; (2) the subordinate clause is introduced by the phrase *so that.*

The latter variety does not give rise to any special discussion. Let us, for instance, take the sentence: *In the centre of the chamber candlesticks were set, also brass, but polished, so that they shone like gold..*

The head clause describes a situation, and the subordinate clause says what the result (or consequence) of that action was.[81]

Things are somewhat less clear with clauses of the first variety (those introduced by the conjunction *that*, with a correlative *such* or *so* in the head clause). Here two possible ways of interpreting the facts appear. Let us take a sentence with the adverb *so* in the head clause correlative with the conjunction *that* introducing the subordinate clause: *She was so far under his influence that she was now inclined to believe him.*

One way to look at this sentence is this: the head clause tells of some state of things, and the subordinate clause of another state of things which came as a result or consequence of the first. Taken in this way, the clause appears as a clause of result.

However, that is not the only possible way of taking it. The other way would be this: the subordinate clause specifies the degree of the state of things expressed in the head clause by illustrating the effect it had. If the sentence is taken in isolation, it is absolutely impossible to tell which of the two views gets closer to the mark. The question might be settled by finding (or adding) a sequel to this sentence, which would make the situation quite clear: one possible sequel would show that the state of things described in the subordinate clause had some interest in itself, so that it was not mentioned merely to illustrate the intensity of the state described in the head clause and in that case the subordinate clause would have to be taken as an adverbial clause of result."

With another sequel, it would be obvious that the state of things described in the second clause had no interest as such, but was mentioned exclusively in order to illustrate the degree of the state of things described in the head clause. In that case the clause may be taken as an adverbial clause of degree.

Now reasonings of this sort are quite obviously non-grammatical. They are founded on an examination of a context outside the sentence, and a lexical, not a grammatical context at that. So from the grammatical viewpoint all this is irrelevant. The choice between the two interpretations appears to be arbitrary: neither of the two can be proved to be the only correct one.

It remains now for us to consider the mutual relations between an adverbial clause of result and an adverbial modifier of result in a simple sentence.

Adverbial modifiers of result in a simple sentence are extremely rare. Here is a case in point: *She was shaken almost to tears by her anger.*

Taking into account the lexical meanings of the words involved, we may perhaps term the phrase *almost to tears* an adverbial modifier of result.

In the vast majority of cases the result is an action or a situation which cannot be adequately expressed without a subordinate clause.

Complex sentence an adverbial clause of degree and measure(or of proportion)

There are many composite sentences which have unusual structure and specific punctuation features in Modern English, for one must always use comma after the first compomnent. Let's consider some of them:

"The more you learn, the more you know"
"The farther you go, the worse becomes the climate".
"The more you walk, the better you feel".
"The sooner you will do it, the better you will become".

In complex sentences of this type it is impossible to differentiate which of the clauses is the main one and which is subordinate. That's why they are also called "the complex sentences with mutually subordinated clauses". There should be considered at least the two patterns of such sentences.

As to B.A.Ilyish, they are the clauses of proportionate agreement (or comparison), because they express a proportional relationship — proportionality or equivalence; the more intensive is the action or quality described in one clause, the more intensive becomes the other, described in the following clause. Although sentences containing such clauses are undoubtedly complex, it is nevertheless impossible to state which of the clauses is the main one and which is subordinate, since they are of the same pattern — two twin clauses, looking like one another.

The above mentioned grammarian B.A.Ilyish states that clauses of proportionate agreement are joined by the conjunction *as* (correlated with the adverb of degree *so* in the other clause); or by means of the correlative adverbs(*rather correlative conjunctive adverbs(the term is ours – H.G.M.*) *so... so* in both clauses. Proportionate agreement between the

[81] However, the phrase *so that* can also introduce clauses of purpose (see: chapter above)

clauses may also be expressed by the correlative particles (*rather correlative conjunctive articles(the term is ours – H.G.M.*) *the... the*[82],followed by the comparative degree of adverbs (or adjectives).

So fast as depression sets in upon me, so surely did the dog's little ears drop down, his head hang lower, and his tail fall limp. *As time* went on, *so* their hopes began tcypne. *The more* he reflected on the idea, *the more he* liked it. *The further* I penetrated into London, *the profounder* grew the stillness.

Note. Proportionate agreement occurs in such aphoristic sentences as *the more, …… the better, the sooner….. the better,* which may refer to various situations.

The second pattern of mutually subordinated clauses expresses temporal relations — a quick succession of actions or events, often overlapping with one another for a short period of time. These clauses form an indivisible whole owing to correlative elements and sometimes partial inversion in the first clause. The order in which the elements follow one

There will always be subordinate clauses that will not fit into any of the types and subtypes we have considered above. Since it would be unsound to try and squeeze them into one of the classes so far established, two ways are open to us in this respect: either we shall try to establish some new classes, based on the characteristic features of these clauses, or we shall leave them outside all classes, contenting ourselves with the statement that they are subordinate clauses.

One of these types has been extensively treated in Poutsma's grammar.[1] It is the type represented by the sentences: *The more narrowly I look the agreeable project in the face, the more I like it. The more she thought about it, the more suspicious and upset she became, and she made up her mind to find out where he went and what he did every Friday night for week after week and month after month.*

According to B.A.Ilyish , the characteristic features of this type are, the particle *the* with a comparative degree of an adjective or adverb at the beginning of each clause, and the meaning that two actions develop in a parallel way: as the one develops, so does the other. Another variety of the same semantic type may be seen in the sentence, *As I grew richer, I grew more ambitious*

B.A.Ilyish is of the opinion that here it is once again the conjunction *as* introducing the main clause, and only, the meanings of the words make it clear that it belongs to this particular type.

Poutsma calls such clauses "clauses of proportionate agreement". This is a plausible view, and those who would like to have a complete system, where, as far as possible, every single type of clauses should be foreseen and assigned its proper place, will agree with Poutsma in this question.

But our treatment of the sentences like "*As I grew richer, I grew more ambitious"*and *" So fast as depression sets in upon me, so surely did the dog's little ears drop down, his head hang lower, and his tail fall limp*" is totally different. We consider them to be certain subtypes of composite sentences with the subordinate clause of reason /cause, or even result, because they can be transformed into the following composite sentence with a causal or a result clause:

*I grew more ambitious, because I grew richer "(*causal)

or "I grew richer, that is why I grew more ambitious"(causal)

Such composite sentences may be treated even as composite sentences with a clause of result, compare:

"I grew richer, accordingly I grew more ambitious" (result)

or "I grew richer, so I grew more ambitious" (result)

Another type of subordinate clause, which Poutsma proposes to term "clauses of alternative agreement", may be seen in the following examples, taken from Poutsma's Grammar: *He is said to have worn a coat blue on one side and white on the other, according as the Spanish or French party happened to be dominant. The day had been one long struggle between mist and sun, a continual lightening and darkening, big with momentary elations, and more tenacious disappointments, according as to which of the two antagonists got the upper hand.*

B.A.Ilyish thinks that ,as to these clauses, they are probably too rare to require a special category or "pigeonhole" to be arranged for them.

The same may be said about another type of subordinate clause found in Poutsma's Grammar, one which he terms "clauses of exception", and which he illustrates, among others, by the following examples:

The Somersetshire peasants behaved themselves as if they had been veteran soldiers, save only that they levelled their pieces too high.

Miss Blimber presented exactly the same appearance she had presented yesterday, except that she wore a shawl.

We think that these sentences can be called *composite sentences with clauses of exception or exceptional clauses* (H.G.M.)

As to B.A.Ilyish sentences of the type *It is the emotion that matters* have also to be considered here and there are two ways of looking at a sentence of this type. Either one can take it as a simple sentence with the construction *it is ... that*

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[82] Compare: the authors of the Longman Grammar of Spoken and written English call "the…., the …" conjunctions. We would rather treat them as conjunctive articles and not as conjunctions. See: D.Biber, S. Johansson, J.Leech, et al. Grammar of Spoken and Written English. Longman , 2007, p, *596*

used to emphasize the word or words included in it, or one can take it as a complex sentence with a subordinate clause beginning with the conjunction *that* (or, in other cases, with one of the relative pronouns *who, which,* or *that).*

If the latter alternative is preferred (and it seems to be preferable, on the whole), there arises the question, what kind of subordinate clause it is here, and this is indeed difficult to decide. Such clauses bear some resemblance to attributive clauses, but they will not easily fit into the definition of such clauses. Perhaps they had better be considered a special type of subordinate clauses, peculiar to such constructions.

We think that such sentences may be termed as" attributive clauses" or even "subject clauses": *Compare: "It is the emotion which matters" or "That matters is the emotion"– H.G.M.)*

In a similar way other types of subordinate clauses might be found, and an exhaustive system would hardly be possible. Besides, there is another consideration that one must take into account. In analysing a simple sentence one can't not call the phrase *"except* + noun" an *adverbial modifier of exception*; because as to B.A.Ilyish, there would seem to be no sufficient reason, therefore, to term the sentence given above from Dickens's "Dombey and Son", and other sentences of the same kind, subordinate clauses of exception.

In conclusion B.A.Ilyish points out that it seems better, therefore, to leave such clauses and others which may occur outside the exact classification, characterizing them as adverbial subordinate clauses only, which, we think, is not fair, because we should call spade a spade and treat them as we have done above.

Composite Sentence with a cleft (emphatic) clause
(syndetic or asyndetic types)

1) Clefting as a syntactic process in sentences
2) Cleft(emphatic) composite sentence types
3) Structural types of cleft sentences
4) Cleft sentences of the active structure
5) Cleft sentences of the passive structure
6) Synonymous cleft structures
7) Semantics of the composite(complex) cleft sentences

There are certain composite sentences with a cleft clause traditionally called cleft sentences (расщепленные, разложенные предложения). The composite sentence with a cleft clause is a construction where a single clause has been divided ('cleft') into two separate sections, each with its own predicate verb. For example, *Janet is looking at John* can be 'cleft' into *Jt is Janet who is looking at John* which is then a composite sentence with a cleft clause. Or *It is John that is being looked at by Janet.*

Clefting (like embedding, inserting, commenting, reporting, fronting, postponing, highliting, separating, introducing,ellipting(ellipsis), sillepting(sillepsis), partitioning, integration, synonymization, homonymization, , antonymization, *syncretization, hyponymization, hypernymization*, etc. see for processes – G.M.H.) is then one of the syntactic processes that takes place in a sentence structure as a result of which monosubject –predicate structure becomes bisubject-predicate structure.

So a cleft sentence is a sentence in which an element is emphasized by being put in a separate clause with the use of an empty introductory word such as "it" or"that" who, whom, whose, when, what, which, , e.g.:

It's money we want; it was today that I saw him;
That was the King you were talking to.

A composite sentence with a cleft clause(rather we call them a composite sentence with a " cleft clause" and "cleaving clause") has at least two clauses one of which is called by us a "cleft"clause(it is the main or matrix clause) and the second one is called a "cleaving clause"(it is a subordinate clause) that is a "dividing clause" as in :

It was John who came there early
(*cleft clause*) *(cleaving clause)*

The above sentence is derived from the following sentence:
"John came there early"

Depending on by what means the sentence is made cleft Composite sentences with a cleft clause may be of various types:

1) It-cleft: It's a man I want. Just a man.
2) That –cleft: All that I want is a man. cf. I want a man.
3) What -cleft: This is what we found there.What I want is something to eat, now!
   What he is is a genius.
4) When- cleft: It was winter when he first visited us.
5) Who-cleft: That is the man who knows the address.
6) Whom-cleft: This is the man whom you saw at night.
7) Whose-cleft: It is the man whose car was repaired.
8) Where-cleft: This is where she lives.
9) How-cleft: This is how you should work here.
10) Because-cleft: *It was because they were frightened, he thought, [that they had grown].*

11) Why-cleft: That is why he is here.

12) Which – cleft: *It is these which enable the discontented clerk to earn more than eighty pounds a year*

13) Zero-cleft: It is a man I want. *All I did was waiting for him for two hours. All it takes is thirty minites(ride) on a bicycle from here.*

Cleft sentences are transformable into various forms and meanings.

They have synonymous and homonymous (It-construction and it-cleft) constructions that make up their rows accordingly. Let's take the following example: *John invited Jack to the wedding. This simple sentence may be turned into two clauses with their predicate verb each.*

It was Jack that John invited to the wedding.
It was Jack whom John invited to the wedding.
It was Jack that was invited to the wedding by John.
It was Jack who was invited to the wedding by John
It wasd to the wedding that John invited Jack to.
It was to the wedding that Jack was invited by John.
It was John who unvited Jack to the wedding,
The man whom John invited to the wedding was Jack.
That was Jack whom John invited to the wedding
That was Jack who was invited to the wedding by John,etc..
He is a genius.What he is is a genius.
{but not: *It s a genius that he is.

The *wh-type* can focus on the verb, by using the substitute verb *do:*

What he's done is spoil the whole thing.
He's spoilt the whole thing.
but *not:* *It's spoil the whole thing that he's done.

Notice that the complement of the *wh-type* sentence here takes the form of a non-finite clause *(spoil the whole thing).* The non-finite verb may be a) a bare infinitive, *b)* a to-infinitive, *c)* an *-ed* participle, *d)* an *-ing* participle:

What he'll do is	spoil the whole thing.	*a*
	to spoil the whole thing.	*b*
	spoilt the whole thing,	*c*
	spoiling the whole thing.	*d*
What he's doing is	spoiling the whole thing.	*e*

The bare infinitive is the most usual construction, except after *done* (where the *-ed* participle is just as acceptable), and after *doing,* where the *-ing* participle has to be used.

Sentences with that-clauses and demonstratives

A common type of sentence in informal English is one in which a "th+clause" linked by the verb *be* to a demonstrative pronoun *(this* or *that).* These sentences are similar to wh-cleft sentences both in structure and in their focusing effect:

This is where I first met my wife.
This is how you start the engine.

(A) (He was psycho-analysed by a pupil of Freud's.)
(B) So that's why he's always talking about his mother fixation!

(I had difficulty in starting the car today.) That's what always happens when I leave it out in cold weather.

The cleft sentence construction with introductory it is useful for fronting an element as topic, and also for putting focus (usually for contrast) on the topic element. It does this by splitting the sentence into two halves, 'highlighting' the topic by making it the complement of *it+be:*

(A) (Would you like to borrow this book?)
(B) (No, | it's the other book | that I want to read.(1)(TOPIC=OBJECT ; *cfl* want to read the other book.)
(C) (For centuries London had been growing as a commercial port of world importance.) But it was *in the north of England* that industrial power brought new prosperity to the country. [2] (TOPIC « ADVERBIAL) The constrastive meaning of the topic can be seen if we make clear the implied negative in [1] and [2]:

It's the other book, *not that book,* that I want to read. But it was in the north of England, *not in London,* that ... The cleft sentence is particularly useful in (written) English, where we cannot mark contrastive emphasis by intonation.

Cleft Sentence (It-Type)

A nominal relative clause *{see* 645-6)* like an //-cleft sentence, can be used to highlight one element for contrast. It can be either subject or complement of the verb *be* (the subject position is more common):

Normal pattern	Cleft sentence
It's more time that we 'need.	More time I is what we need. ,
What we need is more time, .	

It was by train that we reached Istanbul.
It was in 1950 that he first achieved fame as a writer.
It was on this very spot that I first met my wife.
On this very spot is where I first met my wife.
\Autumn is (the time) when the countryside is most beautiful.
wh-type sentence with a final *when-* or *where-cla.use:*
It was at Waterloo that Napoleon was finally defeated.
Waterloo was (the place) where Napoleon was finally defeated.
c A *wh-type* sentence using the wh-words *who, whom,* or *whose* is usually awkward or impossible:
It was the ambassador that met us.
We can, however, say:
The one/person who met us was the ambassador.
What he is is a genius.
What he's done is spoil the|whole thing.
What he'll do is spoil the whole thing.
What he's doing is spoiling the whole thing.
This is where I first met my wife.
This is how you start the engine.
That's what always happens when I leave it out in cold weather.
It is said that she slipped arsenic in his tea.
It is" likely that they will hold an election.
It's a man I want. Just a man. That's all.
What I want is something to eat, now!
It was his voice [that held me],
It was only for the carrot [that they put up with his abominable partie).
It was John who bought an old car last week.
|It was an old car (that John bought last week).
|It was last week (that John bought an old car.}
(ADVERBIAL IS FOCUS) [1c]
{OBJECT rs FOCUS) [lb]
What John bought last week was an old car.

Postponement(It was John who came here) & Fronting(That John is alone is doubtful) as syntactic processes.

The introductory-"It –construction" (not to be confused with the *it-type* cleft sentence) is a means of postponing a subject clause to a later position in the sentence, either for end-weight or for end-focus:

That income tax will be reduced is unlikely.
It is unlikely *that income tax will be reduced.*

The *it-cleft* construction is, in fact, more usual than the construction without postponement. If you keep the clause in front position, this is exceptional, and suggests that you want to put special contrastive emphasis on the rest of the main clause:

That income tax will be reduced | is unlikely; | that it will be abolished | is out of the question. |
In some instances, such as the passive construction, it is impossible to keep the clause in subject position:
It is said that she slipped arsenic in his tea.
Main focus often occurs in the postponed clause:
It is" likely that they will hold an election.
It's a man I want. Just a man. That's all.
What I want is something to eat, now!
It was his voice [that held me],
It was only for the carrot [that they put up with his abominable parties].
It was John who bought an old car last week.
It was an old car that John bought last week.
It was last week (that John bought an old car.
(ADVERBIAL IS FOCUS) [1c]
What John bought last week was an old car.
{OBJECT rs FOCUS) [lb]
It was John who bought an old car last week. [la]
{SUBJECT rs FOCUS)
It was an old car that John bought last weekes
{OBJECT rs FOCUS) [lb]

It was last week (that John bought an old car.}
(ADVERBIAL IS FOCUS) [1c]
all I did was ..., all it takes is ..., etc.
I'm the one who ..., they're the ones who ..., etc.
that was the reason why ..., here is where, etc

Complex Sentences with an embedded clause(and a hypotactic clause)

Embedding in generative grammar, according to D.Crystal, is the process or result of including one sentence within another. The sentence I *went to the shop* can be embedded within the sentence *The shop was open* by turning it into a relative clause within the noun phrase: *The shop which I went to was open.*

Functional Grammar, as presented in Halliday (1994), divides subordinate clauses in embedded and hypotactic clauses. Hypotaxis(the subordination of one clause to another) is characterized as being more like parataxis (the placing of clauses or phrases one after another, without words to indicate coordination or subordination, as in *Tell me, how are you?)* than like embedding[83].

So, hypotaxis is characterized as a relationship between clauses, an interdependency relationship in which neither of the clauses is a constituent part of another, whereas embedding is a nominalizing device, a mechanism of rankshift in which a clause comes to function as a constituent part of another (Halliday 1987: 73, 1994: 242). For example, the subordinate clauses in the sentences *I couldn't come because I was sick* and *John thought that Alice wouldn't come* are in a hypotactic relation to the main clause; they are dependent on it but not constituents of it.(Halliday 1987: 73, 1994: 242).

Embedded clauses, on the other hand, have undergone a shift in rank from
clause level to group level; they function as groups or parts of groups,3 in the following functions only (Halliday 1994: 242):

- head of a nominal group (e.g. *It is obvious that Jeff wrecked the car*)
- post-modifier in a nominal group (*I saw the car that Jeff wrecked*)
- post-modifier in an adverbial group (*He came earlier than we had expected*)

In less theoretical parts of his scholarly writings, Halliday makes two rather strong claims about the characteristics of hypotaxis and embedding. Halliday (1987: 74) asserts that "Hypotaxis is more like parataxis than it is like embedding; and both are characteristic of spoken rather than written language" whereas Halliday (1985: 84) states that "In mathematical terms, the hypotactic relation is one of iteration, whereas embedding is one of recursion." These characterizations are not central to the distinction between the clause types. However, they provide us with interesting viewpoints which are not found in Halliday (1994) but which are well worth commenting. In the following, it is shown that complex clauses in written Finnish provide evidence against Halliday's claims. It is to be admitted that the data is limited in scope, especially since it does not contain material from spoken language, but it is believed that the data show clearly enough that hypotactic clauses are not as different from embedded clauses as Halliday claims resulting in two opposing camps: "Sydney Grammar" holds on to the distinction whereas Cardiff Grammar rejects it altogether (e.g. Butler 1993: 259–292).

In Systemic Functional Grammar group is a technical term for a clausal element which is similar but slightly different from that of *phrase* in Constituent Grammar.

Questions on the theme:

1. What is a Complex Sentence with an adverbial clause?.
2. What structural and semantic types of Complex sentences with an adverbial clause do you know?
3. What is a Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of time?
4. What structural types of a Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of time?
5. What is a Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of place?
6. What structural types of a Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of place do you know?
7. What is a Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of reason(cause)?
8. What structural types of a Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of reason/cause do you know?
9. What is a Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of purpose?
10. What structural types of a Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of purpose do you know?
11. What is a Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of purpose?
12. What structural types of a Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of purpose do you know?
13. What is a Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of condition?
14. What structural types of a Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of condition do you know?
15. What is a Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of concession?
16. What structural types of a Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of concession do you know?
17. What is a Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of result?

[83] Halliday, M.A.K. [83] Halliday M.A.K *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. 2nd edition. London, , Edward Arnold, 1994

18. What structural types of a Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of result do you know?
19. What is a Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of comparison?
20. What structural types of a Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of comparison do you know?
21. What is a Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of manner and degree?
22. What structural types of a Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of degree and manner do you know?
23. What homonymous complex sentences with subordinate adverbial clauses do you know?
24. What synonymous complex sentences with subordinate adverbial clauses do you know?
25. What is a Cleft sentence?
26. What structural types of a Cleft sentence do you know?
27. What is an embedded sentence?
28. What structural types of an embedded sentence do you know?
29. Are cleft and embedded sentences found in hypotactic constructions?

Lecture 13 (2 hours).

Taxemic and other approaches to the Composite sentences: collotaxeme, parataxeme, hypotaxeme, hypertaxeme (supertaxeme, architaxeme, ultrataxeme, binome, polynome, discourseme, cumuleme and occurseme)

Plan:

1. Different approaches to Composite sentences.
2. M.Y.Blokh's the simple sentence (monopredicative unit) and the composite sentence (polypredicative):.compound, complex, "semi- compound" and "semi-complex sentences", including composite sentences with more than two clauses.
3. M.Y.Blokh's sentence ("proposeme), *dicteme(*an elementary topical segmental unit of the continual text)., *occurseme(* the supra-sentential construction based on occursive connection: the *occurseme* can be constructed by two or more cumulemes), *cumuleme(*the supra-sentential construction of one-direction communicative type)
4. L.L.Iofik's classification of composite sentences: 1) composite sentence with coordinative connection; 2) composite sentence with relatively conjunctive connection; 3) composite sentence with subordinative connection; 4) composite sentence with correlative (introductory) connection
5. A.M.Mukhin's classification of composite sentences: 1) Composite sentence with a coordinative connection; 2) Composite sentence with a subordinative connection; 3) Composite sentence with an introductory connection
6. B.A.Ilyish's traditional classification of composite sentences, B.S.Khaimovich and B.I.Rogovskaya traditional classification of composite sentences and new type: "complex sentences with an extension clause"(*eg:a) it is indeed doubtful how he had become aware that Rodger was being buried that day)*
7. M.I.Cheremisina's terms " binome" and "polinome";

G.M.Hoshimov's metalanguage(notions and terms) of the sentences of different length and size: monotaxeme, polytaxeme, parataxeme, collotaxeme, hypotaxeme, parentaxeme, hypertaxeme, ultrataxeme, architaxeme) and the units larger than the latter.

8. Conclusion.

Key words: *M.Y.Blokh's the simple sentence (monopredicative unit) and the composite sentence (polypredicative):.compound, complex, "semi- compound" and "semi-complex sentences", including composite sentences with more than two clauses, M.Y.Blokh's "proposeme, cumuleme,occurseme,dicteme, L.L.Iofik's classification of composite sentences: 1) composite sentence with coordinative connection; 2) composite sentence with relatively conjunctive connection; 3) composite sentence with subordinative connection; 4) composite sentence with correlative (introductory) connection, A.M.Mukhin's classification of composite sentences: 1) Composite sentence with a coordinative connection; 2) Composite sentence with a subordinative connection; 3) Composite sentence with an introductory connection, B.A.Ilyish's traditional classification of composite sentences, but a composite (complex) sentence called by him "complex sentence with a parenthetical clause", B.S.Khaimovich and B.I.Rogovskaya distinguish traditionally accepted types of composite sentences (compound, complex) the following, as they think, new types: "complex sentences with an extension clause"(eg:a) it is indeed doubtful how he had become aware that Rodger was being buried that day), G.M.Hoshimov's taxemic approach to Composite sentences(monotaxeme, polytaxeme, parataxeme, collotaxeme, hypotaxeme, parentaxeme, hypertaxeme, ultrataxeme, architaxeme) and the units larger than the latter.*

The course of the lecture:

There are many new tendencies in Modern Syntactic Theory. They are structural-semantic, functional, communicative –pragmatic, cognitive, etc.

In the treatment of composite sentences and of the language units higher than them there is an original approach by M.Y.Blokh, who distinguishes two levels of syntactic hierarchy: proposemic(sentential)and supra-proposemic(sentential) levels, and accordingly the author distinguishes the following units as their elementary topical segmental units : "proposeme", "dicteme" and "cumuleme"and" occurseme"(*see* Blokh 2000, 16, 354-359) .

As M.Y.Blokh points out, "the peculiar character of the sentence ("proposeme") as a signemic unit of language consists in the fact that naming a certain situation, or situational event, it expresses predication, i.e. shows the relation of the denoted event to reality. Namely, it shows whether this event is real or unreal, desirable or

obligatory, stated as a truth or asked about, etc. In this sense, as different from the word and the phrase, the sentence is a predicative unit. C/.: to receive - to receive a letter - Early in June I received a letter from Peter Melrose. The sentence is produced by the speaker in the process of speech as a concrete, situationally bound utterance. At the same time it enters the system of language by its syntactic pattern which, as all the other lingual unit-types, has both syntagmatic and paradigmatic characteristics"(*see* Blokh 2000, 16- 17).

But for M.Y.Blokh, "the sentence is not the highest unit of language in the hierarchy of levels. Above the proposemic level there is still another one whose units are formed by separate sentences united into topical £S. These sentence-groups each distinguished by its micro-topic part of a continual text are tentatively called "super-sentential constructions". For the sake of unified terminology, the level at which they are identified can be called "supra-proposemic"(see: Blokh 2000, 16-18)

Thus, as to M.Y.Blokh, from the point of view of its constitutive units, the supra-sentential level may be called the *dictemic level,* the *dicteme* being defined as an elementary topical segmental unit of the continual text.

Next syntactic unit to be disclosed is a "cumuleme" and this is how M.Y.Blokh treats it: "the direction of communication should be looked upon as a deeper characteristic of the sentence-sequence than its outer, purely formal presentation as either a monologue (one man's speech) or a dialogue (a conversation between two parties, or even polylogue – a conversation realized by more than two interlocutors – G.H.) in order to underline these deep distinguishing features of the two types of sequences, we propose to name them by the types of sentence connection used. The formation of a one-direction sequence is based on syntactic cumulation of sentences, as different from syntactic composition of sentences making them into one composite sentence. Hence, the supra-sentential construction of one-direction communicative type can be called a cumulative sequence, or a "cumuleme"(see: Blokh , 2000, 354-355).

Commenting on the peculiarities of the "occurseme"M.Y.Blokh points out that "the formation of a two-direction sequence is based on its sentences being positioned to meet one another. Hence, we propose to call this type of sentence connection by the term "occursive", and the supra-sentential construction based on occursive connection, by the term "occurseme".

When discriminating the cumuleme and occurseme as topical units of the text M.Y.Blokh furthermore stresses that "it is not difficult to see that from the hierarchical point of view the occurseme as an element of the system occupies a place above the cumuleme. Indeed, if the *cumuleme* is constructed by two or more sentences joined by cumulation, the *occurseme* can be constructed by two or more cumulemes, since the utterances of the interlocutors can be formed not only by separate sentences, but by cumulative sequences as well"(see: Blokh 2000, 354-359) and illustrates the case as follows:

. E.g.:"Damn you, stop talking about my wife. If you mention her name again I swear I'll knock you down."-"Oh no, you won't. You're too great a gentleman to hit a feller smaller than yourself" (S. Maugham).

As M.Y. Blokh rightly considers, "a fundamental difference between the two units in question should be carefully noted lying beyond the hierarchy relation, since the occurseme, as different from the cumuleme, forms part of a conversation, i.e. is essentially produced not by one, but by two or speakers, or, linguistically, not by one, but by two or several individual sub-lingual systems working in an intercourse contact.

On the proposemic level M.Y.Blokh discriminates the two types of syntactical units: the simple sentence and the composite sentence. The difference between them lies in the fact that the simple is a monopredicative sentence and the composite sentence is a polypredicative one. Disclosing the syntactic nature of composite sentences M.Y.Blokh justly treats them as follows: "Each predicative unit in a composite sentence makes up a clause in it, so that a clause as part of a composite sentence corresponds to a separate sentence as part of a contextual sequence. *E.g.;When 1 sat down to dinner I looked for an opportunity to slip in casually the information that I had by accident run across the Driffields; but news travelled fast in Blackstable (S. Maugham)*(see: (Blokh,2000, 289).

The classification of composite sentences of syndetic or asyndetic structue as polypredicative constructions into compound, complex, "semi- compound" and "semi-complex sentences", including composite sentences with more than two clauses by M.Y. Blokh also deserves special mention(see:Blokh , 2000, 288-375). By semi-composite and semi-complex sentences here the author means the composite sentences with one of the clauses demonstrating either the coordinative or subordinative fusion(ellipsis oif either the subject or predicate or other parts as to the communicative need and intention of the speaker.So such semicomposite sentences are characterized by the fact that in them one can find one full clause and another one fused on the principles of either coordination or subordination: E.g.:
Semi-compound sentences:

"The entrance door stood open, and also *the door of the livin-room"* Which means that "The entrance door stood open. + The door of theliving-room stood also open.

Semi-complex composite sentence:

We found dry ground at the base of a tree *looking toward the sun,* -» which means "; found dry ground at the base of a tree *that looked toward the sun"*-

We can not accept this kind of classification(especially in the cases of semi-composite sentences) for the principles of distinguishing the composite sentences are being roughly violated, moreover any simple

extended sentence with nominal , predicative, attributive, object , complement or adverbial extensions of the given sentence structure can be easily transformed into the needed composite sentence structure or visa versa.

In her syntactic research L.L.Iofik, pushing off from the character of the syntactic connections between the components – clauses, discovered the composite sentences of the following four types: 1) composite sentence with coordinative connection; 2) composite sentence with relatively conjunctive connection; 3) composite sentence with subordinative connection; 4) composite sentence with correlative (introductory) connection(see: Иофик, 1965, 20-27).

There is also an original approach to the Composite sentences offered by A.M.Mukhin who discriminated three main types of composite sentences as to the syntactic connections found between their components – clauses: 1) Composite sentence with a coordinative connection; 2) Composite sentence with a subordinative connection; 3) Composite sentence with an introductory connection (see: Мухин, 1968, 76-87/.

In the chain of the scientific investigations devoted to the elaboration of the general theory of the composite sentences, the doctoral dissertation by Y.G.Birenbaum was focused on the theory of the bicomponential composite sentences, in which he worked out the following classification of composite sentences as to the type of a subordinate clause: 1) positionally nominal; 2) positionally objective; 3) relatively adjective; 4) neutrally adverbial. In such sentences their constituent clauses are joined by linking elements called by him "connectors" (see: Биренбаум, 1980, 115).

The fundamental research " Problems of Functional Syntax of Modern English"
by N.A.Slusareva is devoted to the cardinal problems of syntax, in which the author
could succeed in revealing and describing communicative and cognitive functions of such language units as phrase, simple , composite sentences and other syntactic units closely related to them, in that way the polyfunctionality of the syntactic means of language, including the questions of their asymmetrical nature manifested in the phenomena of synonymy and homonymy(see: Слюсаревой 1981, 93-139)

B.A.Ilyish extensively treated the English Composite sentences and offered his own original classification of the latter. His classification is somewhat different from the already existing traditional ones in that he discovered one more type of a composite (complex) sentence called by him complex sentence with a parenthetical clause[84] along with traditionally accepted ones(compound sentences of syndetic and asyndetic type, complex sentence with the subject, predicative, object, attributive, adverbial clauses of place, time, cause(reason), condition, result, purpose, concession, manner and comparison, and appositional clauses and parenthetical clauses (Ilyish 1965, 316-318).

As far as the so called by B.A.Ilyish complex sentences with a parenthetical clause, we are of the opinion that the Composite sentences with such clauses are not complex sentences simply because there's no habitual subordination between their clauses. We would rather treat them as separate independent invariant type of a composite sentence with a parenthetical clause with no coordination or subordination, the syntactic connection(relation) between the clauses being called by us "parenthetical"(see : Hoshimov, 2002, p.124-125).

There are certain other types of Composite sentences that do not fit into any classification available, for example, " *Jack came to his friend(and he is a doctor) just to have a cup of tea with him"*. Such sentences are to be treated as a new independent and invariant type of a composite sentence with a supplementary clause functioning as an appendix, for again here's no coordination, nor subordination, to say nothing of even parenthesization(or parenthesis), here is a connection that may be, we think, conditionally called "supplementation".

B.A.Ilyish also expressed his negative relation to Poutsma's following three more new types of complex sentences with adverbial clauses of: 1) " proportionate agreement(*eg.:a/The more narrowly I look the agreeable project in the face, the more I like I; b/As grew richer, I grew more ambitious)* "; 2) alternative agreement(*eg.:He is said to have worn a coat blue on one side and white on the other, according as the Spanish or French party happened to be dominant)*; 3) exception[85](*eg.:Miss Blimber presented exactly the same appearance she had presented yesterday, except that she wore a shawl*), by explaining that it was impossible to except the abovementioned clauses by H.Poutsma because, as he remarked, in simple sentences there're no such adverbial modifiers that could match the adverbial clauses in composite sentence, though he considers them to be certain kinds of adverbial subordinate clauses only lying outside the exact classification[86]. But we think that such parts of the sentence as : exception, proportion, agreement, supplement, parenthesis, etc. can be distinguished for there's always been lack of the needed terms fit for certain parts of sentence to be considered as such the first three of them may be called adverbial modifiers of exception, agreement, proportion, etc. whereas the last two(supplement, parenthesis) can be treated as the tertiary parts of the sentence, which has unfairly been ignored or mistreated in the traditional grammars, especially "parenthesis" was treated as having no grammatical links with the host sentence(or its parts), it being left outside any sentence structure(though it is in it). For example, in the sentence "Of course, he is my neighbour", "of course" is considered by the overwhelming majority of the grammarians to be not a part of the sentence structure but outside it attaching to the sentence semantics some additional information. We think that "of course" is an equal part of the sentence like any other give part here. It can, may and should be treated as a tertiary part of the sentence, called "parenthesis", expressed by an introductory element "of course". What has so far hindered the further

[84] See: Ilyish B.A. The Structure of Modern English, M., «Prosveshcenie», 1965, p.318
[85] See; H.Poutsma. A Grammar of Late Modern English, Part I, 2 nd half, p.751
[86] See: Ilyish B.A. The Structure of Modern English, M., «Prosveshcenie», 1965, p.314 -315

analysis here is the fact that the theory and practice of the parts of the sentence has not been elaborated at all till the present , we always being and remaining the captives of the traditional grammar which has been and still is mostly Latinized.

In the elaboration of the theory of the composite sentences B.S.Khaimovich and B.I.Rogovskaya deserve special attention and mention. These grammarians – co-authors have critically analyzed along with other grammatical problems the questions of the composite sentence, and has made their own worthy contribution to the syntax of the composite sentences, mainly by distinguishing among the traditionally accepted types of composite sentences (compound, complex) the following, as they think, new types: "complex sentences with an extension clause"(*eg:a) it is indeed doubtful how he had become aware that Rodger was being buried that day;b) I am happy that every thing went off so nicely;c) She is so pretty that all our boys are mad about her; d) His head was still in such a whirl that he felt confused)* and "complex sentences with a parenthetical clause"(*eg.: It is past ten, I think*)(Khaimovich, Rogovskaya 1967, 290-291).

As far as these two types of the composite sentences are concerned, we are of the opinion that their complex sentences with an extention clause should rather be treated in the chapter of the traditional types of the composite sentences like the ones with complement clauses(predicative clauses, object clauses), result clauses, etc. What concerns the complex sentences with a parenthetical clause, the authors , like B.A.Ilyish does, call it as such, but we consider that such composite sentences are to be treated as new original, independent, invariant types of the composite sentences of neither compound, nor complex character, but as "composite sentences with a parenthetical clause" existing along with their invariant compound and complex types, for between the components of such clauses there's neither coordination, nor subordination, to say absolutely nothing of supplementation, there being only the syntactic connection "parenthesization".

Treating the system of complex sentences the authors of "An English Grammar Syntax.N.A. Kobrina, E.A.Korneeva[87] et al, have distinguished the following type: compound sentences (with copulative, disjunctive, adversative and causative-consecutive coordination), complex sentences with: *nominal clauses* (that is, clauses functioning as nouns in various syntactical positions: subject, predicative, and object clauses), *attributive clauses*(appositive /content/ clause) and *adverbial clauses of: place, time, manner, comparison, condition, concession, purpose, cause, result.*, the complex sentence with mutually subordinated clauses and pseudo-complex sentences((Kobrina, Korneeva, 107-143).

In modern syntactical theory there's also an approach to the so called "composite sentence" offered by G.M.Hoshimov[88], who has accordingly worked out a string of universal metaterms and metanotions based on the suffixoid "taxeme" for the above mentioned syntactical phenomenon. So he offers the following system of the universal metaterms for composite sentences in order to avoid multilinguality of the former:

taxeme -means "sentence" with one subject-predicate structure, homogeneous parts being excluded here(*We have some time; They read novels, etc/).*

avoid multilinguality of the former:

1) taxeme - means "sentence" with one subject-predicate structure, homogeneous parts being excluded here(*We have some time; They read novels, etc/).*

2) polytaxeme - composite sentence(*Jack is a student , and his friend is a worker; When David came home, nobody was in, etc.)*

3) collotaxeme - asyndetic composite sentence(*I am a teacher, he is a doctor; I know he is working now, etc.);*

4) parataxeme - syndetic compound sentence(*The people are friendly here, but it's different there);*

5) hypotaxeme - syndetic complex sentence (*They are working hard although they are e[tremely tired, etc.)*

6) parentaxeme – syndetic/asyndetic composite sentence of two subtypes:

a)introducteme*(As you know, we are foreigners);*

b) inserteme: *(My friend/he is a student/ is American.*

7) hypertaxeme - mixed (compound and complex) *(When David came home , nobody was in, but the dog was barking, etc.)*

8) supertaxeme - composite sentence with 4 components(*It was a high snowy mountain and it dominated the valley, but it was so far away that it did not make a shadow (E. Hemingway. A Farewell to Arms, 254)*

9) architaxeme - composite sentence with 5 components(*It was a daybreak, the wind was blowing, some people were coming out of their houses which looked so modern and beautiful that you would like to live here no matter how costly they might be(Newspaper).*

10) ultrataxeme - composite sentence with 6 or more components (*They would not let us go out together when I was off crutches because it was unseemly for a nurse to be seen unchaperoned with a patient who did not look as though he needed attendance, so we were not together much in the afternoon /E.Hemingway. A Farewell to Arms, 117/;*

The contemporary state of linguistics shows that questions relating to syntax need to be thoroughly investigated with a careful glance at quantitatively and qualitatively new types of syntactical units – new qualities in concrete languages of different typology.

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[87] N.E.Kobrina, E.I.Korneeva. An Outline of Modern English Syntax, Leningrad, 1986.. p146

[88] See:G.M. Hoshimov. Типология сложных предложений разносистемных языков. Т., 1991, 38 стр.

From this point of view syntax is of great significance and considerable interest for special, comparative, typological and general linguistics. In this connection the elaboration of special unified terminological apparatus permitting an adequate systematic (special, comparative, typological and general) grammatical analysis of the same types of syntactical units of communicative function is a matter of principle and of great importance for working out its certain metatheory.

As has been stated above, modern linguistics abounds in terms by means of which the composite sentences and other related types of syntactical units are represented. The proof of the aforesaid is that there is an abundance of terms of special character in accordance with grammatical traditions of a given concrete language such as: Russian "сложное (сложносочиненное, сложноподчиненное, бессоюзное, сложноспаянное, многочленносложное, гиперсложное) предложение, главное и придаточное предложения; turkish " қўшма гап, эргаш гапли қўшма гап, боғланган қўшма гап, бош гап, эргаш гап, кошме жомле, иярченле жомле , etc.; roman-germanic "composite (compound, complex) sentence, satzgefuge, satzreihe, la phrase complex ,Japanese "bun" и "ku", etc. This list of the terms representing composite sentences of the non-related languages of the world may be continued, but we think that the aforementioned terms are sufficient for making up a conclusion on the certain discord (or lack of coordination) and disarray (or irregularities) of the terminological apparatus of the syntactic units under study.

The same may be said of such syntactical units larger than composite sentences in the abovementioned typologically non-related languages as :"сочетание (цепь) предложений(combination/chain/of sentences " (see: Буслаев, 1959, 21); "группа предложений (sentence groups)" (Satzgemeinschaft) (see: Boast, 1949, 7); "коммуникат (communicat [kə'myoonəkāt] & communicant [kə'mjunɪkənt]" from "*communicate*")" (see: Гаузенблас, 1967, 72); "сложное синтаксическое целое (A complex syntactic whole " (see: Реферовская, 1975, 194); "абзац (paragraph)" (see: Свотина, 1975, 205); "сверхфразовая единица (supraphrasal unit)" (see: Фридман, 1975, 216);"текст (text)" (see: Тураева, 1986, 113; Адмони, 1985, 68; Шендельс, 1985, 16, etc.).

These terms and notions are widely used by the adherents of the new directions in modern linguistics under the title "текстика или текстолингвистика/текстология (textics or textolinguistics/textology)" or"трансфрастика" ("transfrastics")(see.: Шендельс, 1985, 16-18; Абрамов, 1984, 3-6).

Thereby, as N.S.Slyusareva rightly points out, "it has to be stated that there are disarrays and irregularities in linguistic terminology in general and terminology relating to the field of grammar in particular"(Слюсарева, 1983, 23).

The necessity for and advisability of elaboration of terms of general linguistic character, adequately representing units of one and the same type in languages is becoming indisputable, for a science on language has already proved the practicality and convenience of such universal and generally accepted terms as" "grammar", "linguistics", "syntax", "grammeme "syntaxeme", "phoneme", "morpheme", "lexeme", "paronym", "hyponym", and others, because they represent the very general categorial phenomena peculiar to grammatical structure of any concrete language(See: Слюсарева, 1973, 38-46/. These universal terms constitute the core of the general linguistic terminology as applied to each concrete language. The overwhelming majority of them have entered into the practical field of a science on language, that is into secondary and higher school grammars and so on and so forth.

Universal terms and accordingly notions are also quite necessary in such a field of science on language as syntax, which, too, abounds in a great number of special language terms, representing syntactical units of one and the same type such as: sentence, composite sentence, as well as such other types of larger constructions as "a syntactical whole", "supraphrasal units", "paragraph", etc.

The necessity for elaboration of general/universal terms expressing the linguistic notions of one and the same level, including syntax, which facilitate defining the status of syntactical units – objects of investigation and their direct systemic correlations and links has been pointed out by many linguists (see: Солнцев, 1976, 105; Кибрик, 1985, 75; Черемисина, 1987, 9).

As M.I.Cheremisina has justly pointed out, "in fact, the science on the language could see and realize the phenomena between which certain relations are established. In modern linguistics these phenomena have been accordingly termed
by means of the suffixoide "-eme" as in cases of" phoneme", "morpheme," "lexeme", "grapheme", " sememe and others, implying the units of certaion levels.

These units are perceived as invariants of various type of variation. As phenomena of the lower rank they(variants) are logically subordinated to invariants. Invariants and variants together are opposed to speech representations. Speech representation is a phenomenon, and not an essence or entity. In the sphere of syntax the corresponding scientific notions and ideas are in the phase of formation, and an acute need for them is naturally felt. But here in syntax there is a great lack of terms by the help of which one could discriminate and mutually oppose notions of invariants as pure units of the given level, of variants subordinated to invariants, and of speech representations as phenomena in which the difference between a variant and an invariant is lifted.

The very expression "syntactical level of language" conditionally presupposes minimum three different sublevels: 1)level of phrases; 2)level of simple sentences, 3)level of composite sentences. That's why it is impossible, for example, to use the term " syntaxeme" here. And ,unfortunately, the absence of the discrete and systemic terms, considerably hinders the process of formation of the corresponding notions"(see:Черемисина, 1981, 3-4).

In connection with the aforesaid elaboration of the universal definitions and universal terms for representing accordingly one and the same phenomena and notions in languages of different typologies pursues the purpose of creating a general linguistic theory fully relying on the strictly revealed data of the the typological research. Nevertheless the former(the general linguistic theory) operating with the universal or unified terms and notions does not and can not ignore the varicoloured empirics of substantiality and idiomatism(originality) of any concrete language.

Thereby, the course of the development of linguistic mind shows that from the point of view of the typological and general syntax of the composite sentences such terms as composite compound, complex, multimember sentences (see : Белошапкова, 1970; Адмони, 1982; Закиев, 1983; Гак, 1981); "боғланган қўшма гап", "эргаш гапли қўшма гап"(see: Абдурахмонов, 1960; Аскарова, 1963); "бейлейле кушма жомле", "тагылмали кушма жомле", "иерченли кушма жомле"(see; Закиев, 1983), Composite, Compound, Complex Sentence, La Phrase Complex, Zusammengesetzter Satz , etc. existing and functioning in various languages turn out to be not at all happy ones because of their ambiguity, special language character, typological inadequacy and classificational inability.

Therefore, it is advisable to study and describe the abovementioned types of syntactical units by the help of universal terms of the type " phoneme, morpheme, lexeme, syntaxeme, etc. on the basis of their general and universal definitions (compare: the diversity of definitions of the composite sentence and related phenomena in non–related languages).

Below an attempt has been made by us to elaborate universal definitions and terms for representing and studying the types of syntactical units, and the terms being offered do not contradict the general tendences of creating linguistic terminology, rising to their latin –greek sources(compare: "syntax", "grammar", "hypotaxis", "parataxis", hypertaxis, etc.), on the contrary, as we think, they facilitate the clarification and establishment of the status of the syntactical units and their systemic links, as well as elaboration of general syntactic theory, and if necessary, the reconsideration of the syntactical terms and notions in languages in general.

As E.N.Shiryaev fairly points out, " any new statement(treatment –G.H.) of the old problem, seems to be justified(well grounded) in two cases: 1) if the development of the general linguistic theory is so that its application to this or that roblem allows to substantially push forward the scientific investigation of the very problem; 2) if such a new language material (which has not ever been interpreted in the old conceptions) on the very problem becomes known and insistently demands the development of the theory"(see: Ширяев, 1986, 3). Both of these conditions, as he thinks, turn out to be significant for the problem of the composite sentence, in special(monolingual) , comparative , typological and general linguistics.

And V.P.Neroznak is quite right when he writes that" new scientific categories, new notional(conceptual) apparatus originates (arise, spring up; come into existence / being; crop up) either as a result of the already carried out research as an original(singular) outcome(summation) of their theoretical comprehention, or in the process of large-scale unconventional(non-traditional) scientific research as a necessary link in their development"(see: В.П. Нерознак, 1986, 193/

Scientific research, carried out in the investigations of the latest years demand that there should be a much more intent(close) and adequate approach to syntax and its units, that is to the types attached to its relatively independent sublevels, including new qualities – new phenomena rooting in the given subsystem as a result of the development and perfection of language.

First and foremost, we think , it is necessary to note the reasonability of distinguishing an intermediate level between the lexical and syntactical levels of language, that is the lexico-syntactical level, or in the terminology of M.Y Blokh" a phrasematical level, to which there may be attached a unit well-known in linguistics as " word combination", that is a phraseme"(see: Блох, 1986, 45/.

Phraseme, as has been stated above, is only a nominative unit of a constructive aspect of language and is accordingly defined canonically as a unit represented by a combination of at least two full-pledged lexemes(expressed by notional or primary parts of speech) . Between these lexemes, as a rule, there exist certain structural-semantic relations, but the phraseme , though actualizes such relations, is devoid of communicative features due to the fact that the phraseme itself is not a whole , autosemantic unit like, for example, sentence is.

In the phrase such grammatical absolute reations as "taxis" (*term due to R.Jacobson* , see: Якобсон, 1972, 106; comp.: Бондарко, 1983, 153/, that is traditionally known temporal relations, as well-as subject-predicate syntactical relations are not realized. And this is also witnessed by the aspiration and attempt of linguists to distinguish the(transient) level of " minor syntax" that is the phrasematic level (see: Блох, 1986, 46-48). Moreover, the very essence of the term" syntax" seemingly dictates such a necessity. Compare: the root " taxis" in the very word " syn*taxis*" meaning the level of language represented by the units of syntactical structure(see: Ахманова, 1966, 468), that is taxemes. They are meant to express the "taxis" – temporal relations as to the event contained in them from the point of view of the moment of speech about it(event).

Syntax, hereby, is a level of any concrete language, represented by purely taxis units, that is taxemes directly endowed with the category of predicativity. And this fact allows us to state that syntax itself is represented by the "taxis" – a level including several sublevels permanently correlating with the former.

It is known that in languages first of all sentences are endowed with the taxis relations, and sentences are characterized accordingly by the absolute grammatical category of predicativity. In order to avoid special language terms,

expressing a whole unit "sentence" in different concrete languages, we conditionally call " sentence" by the universal term "taxeme"(comp.: taxeme by L. Bloomfield and others(see: Блумфильда /1968/, Pike /1943, 128/, Ахмановой /1966, 468/ and " proposeme" by A.Blokh(see: Блох /1986, 47/).

So in syntax there may be distinguished a level "taxis" to which on the emic level the term "taxeme" as its whole unit is attached. The latter, being an invariant unit of language, has in speech, that is on the ethic level unlimited number of realizations which can be conditionally called "taxes" like a lexeme a concrete realization of which is, as is known, a "lex"(compare: also"morpheme" and "morph").

We stress that "taxis", in its turn, is represented by the following sublevels obligatorily existing in any concrete language:

1) monotaxis(sublevel of simple sentence);
2) polytaxis(sublevel of composite sentence);

Polytaxis, in its turn is devided into:

1) parataxis(sublevel of compound sentence);
2) hypotaxis(sublevel of syndetic complex sentence);
3)collotaxis(sublevel of asyndetic composite sentence with collocated c) components);
4) parentaxis(sublevel of composite sentence with a parenthetical clause);
5) hypertaxis(sublevel of composite sentences of a mixed type) (compare: Адмони, 1982, 31)which may be further subdivided into composite sentences of a mixed type with three, or more(four, five and so on) components, each having its own subject-predicate structure.

To the abovementioned levels and sublevels the following emic units may be attached:

1. monotaxeme
2. polytaxeme
3. parataxeme
4. hypotaxeme
5. collotaxeme
6. hypertaxeme
7. parentaxeme,

which can be further subdivided into subtypes and variations[89], and there may be attached the following ethic units of language as their concrete realisations:

e) monotax
f) polytax
g) paratax
h) hypotax
i) collotax
j) parentax
k) hypertax

Obviously, here the notions of "syntax" and "taxis" with their emic(syntaxeme, taxeme) and ethic(syntax, tax) units are generic(compare them with the terms "binome", "trinome"and " polinome", offered by M.I.Cheremisina to represent composite sentences with two, three or more components, thgough it would have been logical for her to start with the term " mononome"), and the terms like " "proposeme" and "dicteme" for representing types of sentences"(see: М.Я.Блох /1986, 17, 54; 1994; 2000).

It is fixed by the investigation that syntax of any concrete language consists of the two main and obligatory sublevels of "taxis"- mainly of the level of monotaxis and of politaxis with their corresponding emic and ethic units, and their subtypes and variations, as has been mentioned above, are differently spread in the world languages, because there are languages that have no microsystem of hypotaxeme, hypertaxeme , etc.(see: Хашимов, 1991, 50/.

The aboveoffered unified or universal terminology for representing the syntactic units existing in languages needs to be further deeply studied and exactly disclosed , which is rather a topic of separate investigation and analysis.

Questions on the theme:

1. What is a simple sentence (monopredicative unit) as to M.Y.Blokh? What is a composite sentence (polypredicative unit)
2. What are the Compound, complex, "semi- compound" and "semi-complex sentences", including composite sentences with more than two clauses as to M.Y.Blokh?
3. What are the "proposemes, cumulemes,occursemes,dictemes" as to M.Y.Blokh?
4. What is L.L.Iofik's classification of composite sentences?
5. What is a composite sentence with coordinative connection as to L.L.Iofik ?;
6. What is a composite sentence with relatively conjunctive connection L.L.Iofik?;
7. What is a composite sentence with subordinative connection L.L.Iofik?

[89] The subtypes of hypertaxeme are characterized by a mixed – hybridized syntactic links between the components. See: Г.М.Хошимов.Типология сложного предложения в разносистемных языках. Диссю докт.фил.наук , Ташкент, 2002 стр.124-134

8. What is a composite sentence with correlative (introductory) connection L.L.Iofik?
9. What is A.M.Mukhin's classification of composite sentences L.L.Iofik?
10. What is a Composite sentence with a coordinative connection?
11. What is a Composite sentence with a subordinative connection?
12. What is a Composite sentence with an introductory connection?
13. What is B.A.Ilyish's traditional classification of composite sentences? What is a composite (complex) sentence called by him "complex sentence with a parenthetical clause"?
14. What composite sentences do B.S.Khaimovich and B.I.Rogovskaya distinguish ?
15. What is a"complex sentences with an extension clause"?(eg: "It is indeed doubtful how he had become aware that Rodger was being buried that day)?
16. What do you know about G.M.Hoshimov's taxemic approach to Composite sentences?
17. What is a monotaxeme as to G.M.Hoshimov?
18. What is a polytaxeme as to G.M.Hoshimov?
19. What is a parataxeme as to G.M.Hoshimov?
20. What is a collotaxeme as to G.M.Hoshimov?
21. What is a hypotaxeme as to G.M.Hoshimov?
22. What is a parentaxeme as to G.M.Hoshimov?, What is a hypertaxeme as to G.M.Hoshimov?
23. What is an ultrataxeme as to G.M.Hoshimov?
24. What is an architaxeme as to G.M.Hoshimov?

Lecture 14 (2 hours)

Theme: Functional Sentence Perspective. Sentence pragmatics. Discourse Analysis (textics or textology). Punctuation in Modern English.

P l a n:

1. Functional sentence perspective.
2. Thematic part of a sentence (theme).
3. Rhematic part of sentence (Rheme).
4. Problem of ellipsis in grammar: Structural ellipsis and "Communicative ellipsis".
5. Sentence pragmatics and speech acts (somehing is *said* (*locutionary act*), a *communicative function* (inviting, apologizing, requesting) is *performed* (*illocutionary act*), and an *effect is produced* on the listener or hearer (*perlocutionary act*). Searle (1969, 1975, 1979) grouped illocutionary acts into five main types (*representatives*, *directives*, *commissives*, *expressives*, *declarations*):

a) *locutionary act*(somehing is *said)*
b) *illocutionary act*(a *communicative function* of inviting, apologizing, requesting is *performed)*
c) *perlocutionary act(*an *effect is produced* on the listener or hearer)

6. Notion of "discourse"(discourseme)
7. Notion of "text"(texteme)
8. Discourse analysis (or discoursology)(textics or textology),
9. Punctuation in Modern English
10. Notion of punctuation.
11. Punctuation rules
12. Punctuation marks and their functions in a sentence:

a) full stop, comma, colon, semicolon,
b) question mark, exclamatory mark,
c) dash, inverted commas, repeated dots (three and more than three dots, etc.)

13. Conclusion.

Key words: *sentence perspective, functional sentence perspective, thematic part of a sentence (theme), rhematic part of sentence (rheme), problem of ellipsis in grammar, structural ellipsis and "communicative ellipsis", sentence pragmatics, locutionary act, illocutionary act , perlocutionary act. discourse,discourseme, discoursology , text, texteme, textology), textics grammar, cognition, communication, grammaticalization, punctuation, punctuation marks and their functions: full stop, comma, colon, semicolon, slash, question mark, exclamatory mark,dash, inverted commas, repeated dots (three and more than three dots), etc.*

The course of lecture:

Every sentence is constructed and used for the purpose of communication, so it is aimefd at realizing its communicative intention input by the speaker or writer.

M. A. K Halliday, in his work The Place of "Functional Sentence Perspective" in the System of Linguistic Description, throws an original light upon the problem. New York, p.52-53. Since FSP (1) is readily incorporated into what Jacobson called a "means-ends" model of language, this enables us to define its place in the description of language. First, it is part of general linguistic theory. There is a "textual" component in every language (clearly, if we claim that it is essential to the functioning of language, we are claiming that it is universal). Hence it enters into the description of every language.

Secondly, the textual component is not a "level" in the usual (stratal) sense of the term; it is a "vertical" division within the content plane. There is no suggestion of one component being "deeper" or "more surface" than another.

Thirdly, the textual component differs from the others in that, while they are directly relatable to the conditions of language use, the textual component is related only indirectly, through its function of creating text. Fourthly, there is the place of FSP within the textual component. We have kept these two terms distinct because the latter is expressly related to a theory of language function, and is a broader category. FSP has been used mainly to refer to structural relations within the sentences; but the textual component specifies both intra-sentence and intersentence relations, including non-structural relations of presupposition. Let us try and summarize the domain of the textual component, as we see it.

The textual component includes:

1. relations of presupposition (....)

a) verbal (i.e. anaphora and cataphora)

i) between sentences ("Cohesion")

ii) within sentences

b) situational

2. structural relations (i.e. FSP)

a) in syntactic units

i) sentence and clause

ii) phrase ("group")

b) in communicative units ("information structure")

As far as English is concerned, the structural relations in the sentences and clause are those of theme and rheme, together with various patterns of identification and predication (the thing that...is...; it's...that...; etc.). We take "theme" in Travnicek's sense: it is the FSP element that is realized by first position, and has nothing to do with previous mention. The relations of information structure – that is, those within the unit realized by the tone group; Firbas' "prosodic means of FSP - are those of "given" and "new", as we see it, which do relate to the recoverability of information from situation or preceding text. In the nominal and verbal group, the structures involved in FSP are those relating to the here and now ...: the "deictic" elements in the widest sense of the term.

It may be that, if the general notion of the textual (or "communicative component" - but we are less happy with this, because it suggests the personal interaction of speaker and hearer, which is treated as a different function in the language system) is accepted, the term FSP would be regarded as covering all the relations which derive from this function of language. Be that as it may, the two concepts, that of the text-creating function in a functional theory of language, and that of functional sentence perspective, clearly belong together. The emphasis on functional theories, in Czechoslovak linguistic scholarship has thrown light on a general property of language, one that helps to explain the nature of the linguistic system, that whereby language is in turn enabled to serve the variety of ends in the context of which it has evolved.

Proceeding from the above described, we can conclude that any sentence (or utterance) consists of two communicatively important parts, that is:

1. Thematic
2. Rhematic

The thematic part is the one that includes the so called "old information" which is comparatively less important than the second part known as "Rhematic". So, the rhematic part is the one that contains "new information" which is very important from the communicative point of view, in other words, it is the part for the sake of which the given sentence is constructed.

For example:

Jack	lives in the USA
---	---
old inf-n	new information - rheme
theme	

From the point of view of formal (or structural) grammar there's the so called structural ellipsis which means that in the sentence a thematic part can be ellipted, but from the point of view of communication act there's no ellipsis at all, for the so called ellipted part or "thematic" part can easily be restored in the mind of both the speaker (writer) and the listener (or reader).

Hence we can conclude that never and under no circumstances should the rhematic part be elliminated or ellipted, for the rhematic part is the "heart" or "core" of the sentence. (utterance) uttered or written.

Since FSP is readily incorporated into what Jakobson called a "means-ends" model of language, this enables us to define its place in the description of language.

First, it is part of general linguistic theory. There is a "textual" component in every language (clearly, if we claim that it is essential to the functioning of language, we are claiming that it is universal). Hence it enters into the description of every language.

Secondly, the textual component is not a "level" in the usual (stratal) sense of the term; it is a "vertical" division within the content plane. There is no suggestion of one component being "deeper" or "more surface" than another.

Thirdly, the textual component differs from the others in that, while they are directly relatable to the conditions of language use, the textual component is related only indirectly, through its function of creating text.

Fourthly, there is the place of FSP within the textual component. We have kept these two terms distinct because the latter is expressly related to a theory of language function, and is a broader category. FSP has been used mainly to refer to structural relations within the sentence; but the

textual component specifies both intra-sentence and inter-sentence relations, including non-structural relations of presupposition. Let us try and summarize the domain of the textual component, as we see it. The textual component includes:

1. relations of presupposition [...]
(a) verbal (i. e. anaphora and cataphora) (i) between sentences (my "Cohesion") (ii) within sentences
(b) situational
2. structural relations (i. e. FSP)
(a) in syntactic units
(i) sentence and clause (ii) phrase ("group")
(b) in communicative units (my "information structure")

As far as English is concerned, the structural relations

in the sentence and clause are those of themeand rheme, together with various patterns of identification and predication (the thing that... is...; it's ... that ...; etc.). I myself take "theme" in Travnicek's sense: it is the FSP element that is realized by first position, and has nothing to do with previous mention. The relations of information structure — that is, those within the unit realized by the tone group; Firbas' "prosodie means of FSP — are those of "given" and "new", as I see it, which do relate to the recoverability of information from situation or preceding text. In the nominal and verbal group, the structures involved in FSP are those relating to the here and now ...: the "deictic" elements in the widest sense of the term.

It may be that, if the general notion of the textual component (or "communicative component" — but it is not a happy one either, because it suggests the personal interaction of speaker and hearer, which is treated as a different function in the language system) is accepted, the term FSP would be regarded as covering all the relations which derive from this function of language. Be that as it may, the two concepts, that of the text-creating function in a functional theory of language, and that of functional sentence perspective, clearly belong together. The emphasis on functional theories, in Czechoslovak linguistic scholarship has thrown light on a general property of language, one that helps to explain the nature of the linguistic system, that whereby language is in turn enabled to serve the variety of ends in the context of which it has evolved.

Sentence pragmatics

What is a pragmatic theory? It has proven difficult to provide a satisfactory definition of pragmatics due to the complexity of the phenomena involved. The modern use of the term can be traced back to Charles Morris (1938) who defined pragmatics as the study of "the relation of signs to interpreters". He distinguished three fields of study: (1) *syntax*, the study of "the formal relations of signs to one another", (2) *semantics*, the study of "the relations of signs to the objects to which the signs are applicable", and (3) *pragmatics*, the study of "the relation of signs to interpreters" (Morris, 1938: 6).

H. Paul Grice (1957, 1975) was concerned with the nature of the relation of signs to interpreters, and in particular how a speaker manages to communicate a specific communicative intention to his or her interlocutor, and how the interlocutor recognizes this intention. He formulated a set of maxims that guide the process by which the interlocutors recognize each other's communicative intention.

John L. Austin (1962) and his student John R. Searle (1969, 1975) tried to provide a systematic classification of such communicative intention. With each utterance a person makes, three acts are performed simultaneously: somehing is *said* (*locutionary act*), a *communicative function* (inviting, apologizing, requesting) is *performed* (*illocutionary act*), and an *effect is produced* on the listener or hearer (*perlocutionary act*). Searle (1969, 1975, 1979) grouped illocutionary acts into five main types (*representatives*, *directives*, *commissives*, *expressives*, *declarations*) and formulated specific contextual conditions relevant for the performance and distinction of different speech acts. Although not explicity stated, most treatise on pragmatics focus on linguistic communication in context.

Levinson (1983), in his book "Pragmatics", devotes 35 pages to the problem of defining pragmatics, and finally sums up that despite problems the most promising definitions are those "that equate pragmatics with 'meaning minus semantics', or with a theory of language understanding that takes context into account, in order to complement the contribution that semantics makes to meaning" (32). And he suggests that "if one really wants to know what a particular field is concerned with at any particular time, one must simply observe what practitioners do" (32).

The contributions to this issue are witness to the variety of phenomena studied in pragmatics, and in particular neuropragmatics. However, most of the contributions restrict pragmatics to linguistic communication in context. This is rooted in traditional rather than theoretical reasons.

Dascal (1983) questions the practice to "identify the theory of use (pragmatics) with an account of the inter-relations between language and the communicative situations in which it is typically used" (42). He stresses that pragmatics must deal not only with the communicative uses of language, which he calls sociopragmatics, but also with its mental uses, which he refers to as psychopragmatics. Similarly, Tirassa (this volume) argues for a theory of cognitive pragmatics that describes what goes on in the mind of interlocutors who engage in communication.

Broadening the scope of pragmatics may indeed prove beneficial and open up new directions. There is also a tendency in modern linguistics , for example, to develop a neurofunctional pragmatic approach to neurological rehabilitation and relates pragmatics to human action in general. Stemmer, discussing discourse studies in brain-damaged populations, stresses the importance to study discourse as a phenomenon of human action, and to view discourse as a form of manifestation of the interaction between organism and environment. In doing so, new directions for studying discourse in brain-damaged populations can evolve.

We end this introduction by providing a brief insight into the origins and the development of the term "pragmatics" and its multifacet (various) meanings and leave it to the reader to pragmatically choose the appropriate pragmatic concept.

One of the central meanings of the Greek word *πραγμα* (pragma) and, in this context its synonym *πραξιζ* (praxis), is *action, doing*; the other central meaning refers to *factual, real*. It is from the first central meaning that the performance oriented notion of "Praxis"/"practical" and related fields develop. A second major meaning area develops around "pragmatical"/"pragmatics", in colloquial language often synonymous to useful, suitable, opportune. The third field is around the notion "pragmatism" which refers mainly to philosophical ways of thinking such as those introduced by Peirce or Kant. A fourth derivative is "pragmatology" (4), a term used differently in different contexts and which centers on self reflection on pragmatic thinking.

Finally, there is the derivative "praxeology" (5) which refers to a research area established by Polish researchers and which centers around the methodology of efficient actions and optimal action directives.

Before we begin discussing illocutionary and perlocutionary acts, however, we should introduce one other term that characterizes all that we have said about performative statements thus far: locutionary. A locutionary act, as Austin explains, "includes the utterance of certain noises, the utterance of certain words in a certain construction ,etc.

Let's shift to J. R. Searle's original classification of speech acts.

J. R. Searle's Classification of Speech Acts

Below we can consider how Searle classifies Speech Acts as follows:

1) Assertives :

They commit the speaker to something being the case. The different kinds are: suggesting, putting forward, swearing, boasting, concluding. Example: ``*No one makes a better cake than me*''.

2)Directives :

They try to make the addressee perform an action. The different kinds are: asking, ordering, requesting, inviting, advising, begging. Example: ``*Could you close the window?*''.

3)Commisives :

They commit the speaker to doing something in the future. The different kinds are: promising, planning, vowing, betting, opposing. Example: ``*I'm going to Paris tomorrow*''.

4)Expressives :

They express how the speaker feels about the situation. The different kinds are: thanking, apologising, welcoming, deploring. Example: ``*I am sorry that I lied to you*''.

5)Declarations :

They change the state of the world in an immediate way. Examples: ``*You are fired, I swear, I beg you*''.

As we see, Searle classified the speech acts into five types, but we think this list may be continued further, by adding "imperatives, interrogatives, emotives, etc. That's a matter of separate study and discussion.

Discourse analysis (textics or textology).

In modern tendencies of contemprorary grammatical analyses one has to deal with the phenomenon called d i s c o u r s e analysis - the study of continuous streches of language longer than a single sentence, also called discourse linguistics. It may also be called "*discoursology*"(HGM. It especially investigates the organization of such general notions as conversations, arguments, narratives, jokes, and speeches, looking out in particular for linguistic features which identify the structure of the discourse(discourse markers) such as "I mean to say...", or "Well, anyway"/ The term has been used to apply to both spoken and written language, but some authors - linguists restrict it to speech, and deal with the structural organization of writing under the heading of text(D.Crystal. A Dictionary of Language, Second edition, The University of Chicago Press, 2001, p. 91.

As is seen from the aforesaid, d i s c o u r s e analysis is a sociolinguistic, communicative and pragmatic study of language means and their functional properties. So in the sentence "Well, anyway"discourse analysis can reveal communicative and pragmatic intention of the language user in making use of the very unit and explain the sociolinguistic factors causing such a use .

Discourse analysis yields considerable information about the structure of a text or a type of text, and about the role that each element plays in such a structure. Descriptive linguistics, on the other hand, tells only the role that each element plays in the structure of its sentence. Discourse analysis tells, in addition, how a discourse can be constructed to meet various specifications. [...] It also yields information about stretches of speech longer than one sentence; thus it turns out that while there are relations among successive sentences, these are not visible in sentence structure (in terms of what is subject and what is predicate, or the like), but in the pattern of occurrence of equivalence classes through successive sentences.

Discourse-and-grammar is a branch of functional linguistics that takes the position that the internal structures can be shaped by forces arising out of discourse. Cognitive and communicative factors motivate and/or constrain the way speech patterns are used in verbal interaction. Grammar is but a set of entrenched speech patterns due to frequent use in daily talk.

Discourse-and-grammar as an approach to the study of language was developed as a branch of the functionalist tradition in linguistics, which takes the position that language is primarily a tool for human communication and linguistic forms should be accounted for in terms of this communicative function (Thompson 1992).

The discourse-and-grammar approach further emphasizes the importance of examining discourse data, especially naturally occurring conversational data, for understanding why grammar behaves the way it does in mundane speech, where the majority of verbal communication takes place (Hopper 1992). When the spontaneous but interactional nature of human communication and the fragmentary but patterned characteristic of conversational speech are taken into consideration side by side, we have to acknowledge that speech is a contingent and concerted accomplishment reflecting the social settings in which it is situated.

Furthermore, those frequently repeated, thus regularized, patterns used in speech would eventually turn into what we call the grammatical structures of the language. This paper attempts to offer first an introduction to discourse-and-grammar as a functionalist approach to linguistics and then a survey of the recent studies of Chinese that take this approach. Section 2 is a discussion of a numberof concepts and notions central to the approach. Section 3 presents the review of Chinese studies. Section 4 concludes the paper with a brief discussion.

Discourse-and-grammar as a branch of functional linguistics took shape in the 1970s when some scholars began to take actual discourse as data and then recognized the relationship between the structure of grammar and the structure of discourse (e.g., Chafe 1980; Halliday 1985; Sankoff & Brown 1976). In the 1980s, various claims were made to account for this relationship (e.g., Givon 1979a, 1979b, 1984, 1990; Haiman 1980, 1983; Haiman & Thompson 1988; Hopper & Thompson 1980, 1984; Pawley & Syder 1983; Tomlin 1987; see also literature referred to in the following discussion). The often-quoted slogan from Du Bois 1985 summarizes the view generally held among researchers in the field: Grammars code best what speakers do most (p.363). This view also foreshadowed the directions of the quest for the relationship between discourse and grammar in the 1990s. Efforts have been made to answer the question, 'what is it that speakers do most?', and the discoveries are certainly fruitful. Before we come to the recent developments made in the 1990s, we need to briefly review some earlier studies that have become milestones in the development of the field.

In this survey, we will go over the achievements made by several scholars who I consider have contributed most significantly to the advancement of the field, although it is obvious that the field would not be as mature and lively as it is today without the research done by many other scholars, before and after them.

W. Chafe has significantly influenced the development of discourse-and-grammar, as he directs our attention to the relationship between memory, consciousness and speech production (Chafe 1987, 1994). He proposes the notion of 'intonation unit' (IU) as the basic unit of spoken (conversational) language, each of which expresses a single focus of consciousness.

Related to the notion of IU is his theory of information flow. In addition to old and new information, he proposes the notion of accessible information, which refers to ideas (or concepts) that were mentioned a while ago or ideas that are not mentioned but can be inferred from the overall discourse topic/frame. His one new idea constraint limits an IU to no more than one idea that contains new information, although such a unit may at the same time express additional ideas that contain either given or accessible information. His "light starting point constraint further hypothesizes that the most effective way to communicate is tostart with what is shared knowledge between the speaker and the hearer. For example, old information typically occupies the sentence-initial position in English. The IU approach has been widely adopted by linguists working in the field in the 1990s because it captures the fact that the syntax of (spontaneous) spoken language as used in interaction is very different from that of typical written language (Chafe & Danielewicz 1987).1 The relationship between information, discourse, and grammar is further explicated by J. Du Bois' studies on the Mayan Sacapultec language (Du Bois 1985, 1987). His "Preferred Argument Structure" (PAS) hypothesizes that each clause contains no more than one lexical argument (the "one lexical argument constraint"), and the lexical argument does not appear in the A role (the "non-lexical A constraint" A being the subject of a transitive verb). Since new information is conveyed by lexical noun phrases, the new information will be introduced into discourse through the non-A roles, i.e., O (the object of a transitive verb) or S (the subject of an intransitive verb). The A role, on the other hand, typically carries old information, and the old information is realized with pronouns or zero anaphora.

Du Bois also proposes the notion of competing motivation, which refers to the two opposite pressures arising from discourse: the pressure to contrast old and new information, and the pressure to maintain topic continuity. Du Bois points out that the grammatical relations in a language, a language-internal matter, are shaped by the competition of these two language-external forces. The ergative-absolutive languages with S/O alignment are those in which the pressure for old/new information outweighs the pressure for topic continuity, whereas the nominative-accusative languages with A/S alignment are those in which the pressure for topic continuity outweighs the pressure for old/new information. However, the workings of both\ forces are seen in all languages. For example, in nominative-accusative languages we also see structural alternatives (postposed S, thus creating S/O alignment) that would meet the demand for old/new information distinction.

P. Hopper is another linguist who has significantly contributed to the development of discourse-and-grammar. Hopper raises the notion of emergent grammar, which views grammar as a set of sedimented (i.e., grammaticized) recurrent

partials whose status is constantly being renegotiated in speech and which cannot be distinguished in principle from strategies for building discourses (Hopper 1988:118; see also Hopper 1987, 1998).

Contrary to the a priori view of grammar, which holds that grammar is a discrete set of rules and logically and mentally precedes discourse, the emergent view motivates that grammar is primarily shaped by the speech patterns speakers form in their actual use of language, which are constantly regulated and reformulated by factors arising from human cognition and communication. Related to the emergent nature of grammar are the notions of frequency and grammaticalization. Over time, a frequently repeated practice in discourse gives rise to the transformation of that pattern into a permanent, grammatical feature in the language. The inception of grammaticalization, i.e., how grammaticalization takes place, has thus found an account in this approach, in which real speech data is taken seriously.

S. Thompson's decades of work on the relationship between discourse and grammar is characterized by her numerous collaborations with scholars of diverse specialties, which have certainly contributed to the promotion of dialogue and interaction among various functionalist perspectives.

Below, we survey several of her collaborative works published in the 1990s, which all put forward theoretical inquiries that have shaped the trends of research in the field in recent years. In the tradition of conversation analysis, the transition relevance place (TRP) has been recognized as the critical site for the split-second precision of the turn-taking system and the sequential organization of talk (Sacks et al. 1974).

However, how TRPs are constructed and recognized by speakers and hearers, and what constitutes the related notion of turn-construction unit (TCU), have been repeatedly questioned and discussed. Conversation analysts generally take TCUs as syntactic units. That is, the end of a syntactic unit is a possible completion of a turn, at which potential next speakers may start the next turn. Ford et al. (1996) argues, however, that intonation and gesture are just as important to the projection of the TRP.

Ford & Thompson (1996) point out further that syntax alone is in fact not the best predictor of turn completion. The authors propose the notion of complex transition relevance place (CTRP), at which intonation, syntactic, and pragmatic completions co-occur and next speakers consider the most appropriate place to start a turn. On the other hand, exceptions to this overall turn transition principle, i.e., speaker change occurring at points other than CTRPs, or CTRPs without speaker change taking place, can systematically be accounted for by taking into consideration the local, interactional work that needs to be accomplished at that moment of talk. Syntax in actual language use is often perceived as fragmentary, incomplete, and disorderly.

Ono and Thompson's investigations of English grammatical constructions in conversation show that the explanation for why syntax looks the way it is in actual language use lies in the operation of the cognitive constraints on information flow and the operation of the interactional constraints on how conversation participants listen and respond to their interlocutor (Ono & Thompson 1995, 1996). Examining how interlocutors collaborate, overlap, and mess up with each other s speech, the authors show that speech patterns can be completed across intervening, irrelevant materials at talk, and can be completed by multiple speakers across turns. Completed talk can also be expanded across speakers.

Ono and Thompson further adopt Langacker's notion of schematic language patterns (Langacker 1987, 1991) and propose to view syntax in practice as a dynamic, negotiating process in which schematic language patterns are subject to constant reshaping. Extending the emergent view of grammar to the study of the transitivity of verbs, Thompson and Hopper (to appear) criticize the argument structure approach as being too narrow to account for what is really happening in language use. The argument structure approach contends that verbs provide, on the basis of their meanings, frames specifying the semantic roles of the obligatory and optional arguments (e.g., agent and patient) that can occur with them. The semantic roles are then linked to various grammatical relations (e.g., agent to subject, patient to object). However, Thmpson and Hopper maintain that in conversational data the majority of the predicates are dispersed verbal expressions with no fixed argument structure (see also Hopper & Thompson 1980; Hopper 1991). The indeterminacy in argument structure and grammatical relation is best accounted for by the emergent view of grammar: Grammar is a constantly evolving, dynamic, and open-ended set of small sub-systems. Grammatical regularities are simply the entrenchment of certain frequently used patterns (see also Bybee & Scheibman 1999; Bybee & Thompson 1997; Hopper 1997).

Finally, we come to the scholarship produced in conversation analysis, which is also influential to the development of discourse-and-grammar. In the 1960s and 1970s linguists, anthropologists, and sociologists conducted numerous studies of language use as situated action (e.g., Brown & Levinson 1987;Garfinkel 1967; Goffman 1974; Gumperz & Hymes 1964; Sacks 1992; Sacks et al. 1974; Schegloff et al. 1977; Schegloff & Sacks 1973). Aiming to examine how language is used and organized in interaction, the ethnomethodological approach to conversation analysis established the importance of turn-taking and other notions essential to the management of turn structure (e.g., Akinson & Heritage 1984; Goodwin 1981; Schenkein 1978). Some of these notions are particularly important to the development of discourse-and-grammar in the 1990s, e.g., sequentiality, repair, overlap, pause and turn completion signals. Schegloff is probably the scholar in language and social interaction whose works have brought most inspiration and challenge to linguists who examine naturally occurring conversation for their quest of What is it that speakers do most? (e.g., Schegloff 1979, 1982, 1987, 1988, 1996). Schegloff's plea to linguists to look seriously at the adaptive nature of language with respect to the interactional contingencies is best stated in the following passage, which has become a frequent quote: If the conduct of language as a domain of behavior is biological in character, then we should expect it (like other biological entities) to be adapted to its natural environment...Transparently, the natural environment of language use is talk-in-interaction, and originally ordinary

conversation. The natural home environment of clauses and sentences is turns-at-talk. Must we not understand the structures of grammar to be in important respects adaptations to the turn-at-talk in a conversational turn-taking system with its interactional contingencies? (Schegloff 1989: 143)

One of the representative accomplishments arising from the dialogues andinteractions among linguistic anthropology, functional grammar, and conversation analysis in recent years is Ochs et al. (1996). In this anthology, the idea of discourse-and-grammar is further expanded into that of interaction-and-grammar.

The editors note, Real-time data have inspired a radical shift in the kind of question being asked...in what ways an understanding of the profoundly interactional nature of spoken language can be brought to bear on our understanding of what we take grammar to *be*...categories of grammatical description need to be made responsible to the categories appropriate to describing communicative interaction (p. 11). Contributors to this volume all promote the idea that grammar and social interaction organize one another. Specifically, grammar, as a resource, organizes social interaction. For example, interlocutors use prosodic, syntactic, and lexical clues to project and/or anticipate possible turn endings. On the other hand, social interaction organizes grammar, and grammar is an outcome of lived sociality. For example, English tag question as a grammatical device is used as a turn extension to fulfill the interactionally motivated need for speaker transition. Finally, grammar is itself a mode of social interaction. The editors of the volume write, ...the linguistic shaping of an utterance is intertwined with changing relationships among participants over interactional time. As an utterance proceeds, its lexical and grammatical structuring may open up, narrow down, or otherwise transform the roles of different participants to the interaction.... The unfolding structuring of a single utterance shifts the statuses of participants as speakers and recipients (p. 39).

After the brief survey of the field, we turn to studies focusing on Chinese in the next section. Due to space limitations I am constrained to focus the discussion on discourse-and-grammar studies that both address Mandarin or (Taiwanese) Min and are published in the 1990s, especially those too late to be covered in Biq et al. (1996), a review article that examines functionalist linguistic studies of Chinese from the 1970s to early 1990s.

Authentic discourse data and the study of grammar

One of the prime issues that has concerned Chinese functional linguists is the search and characterization of the level at which words are strung together to form what we habitually call a sentence. The notion of sentence in the sense of a formal schema strictly defined in terms of grammatical relations, however, has long been considered problematic due to some structural characteristics of Chinese, such as that the grammatical subject of a clause does not need to be overtly expressed. On the other hand, it is strongly felt that along the hierarchy there is indeed a distinct level between a clause and what we call a paragraph in written language.

The question is, if the traditional definition of a sentence fails to characterize this structural level, is there a more adequate alternative? Is this alternative account established purely on grammatical terms, or on discourse terms, or on a combination of the two? In the decades before the 1990s, numerous proposals were made to deal with this issue, and the most influential among all was probably the notion of topic chain offered in Tsao (1979, 1990) (see also Cumming 1984; Li & Thompson 1975, 1976, 1981, 1982; Tai 1985). In the 1990s we continue to see more discussions addressing this important issue.

Most noticeably, in the 1990s the data that scholars examine and base their arguments on are generally authentic discourses, written or spoken, which have certainly inspired new perspectives on the old issue. Chu (1998) is a functionalist treatment of the relationship between Chinese discourse and grammar based on written texts. The author points to the limitations of the traditional adherence to sentence grammar and suggests the indispensability of discourse in the accounting of Chinese syntactic structure. The study culminates in the author s conceptualization of the Chinese sentence, which is defined as consisting of one or more clauses that are related by formal devices identifiable by overt signals such as zero anaphora, conjunctions, adverbs, verbal affix, type of verb, unmarked clause order, and sentencefinal particles. Subordination and topic chain are notions critical to the establishment of this structural unit. Sentences are then combined to form larger discourse units (i.e., paragraphs) in terms of lexical cohesion and rhetorical relations.

Ho (1993) is another book on Chinese discourse based on data consisting of spontaneous but primarily monologic speech collected from interviews where native speaker informants were asked to engage in narrating, explaining, and describing activities. The author proposes utterance cluster, a notion similar to Tsao s topic chain and Chu s sentence, as the basic unit of Chinese discourse.5 Based on his spoken data, the author also offers some observations regarding Chinese thematic structure and information structure. For example, disfluencies typically concentrate at the theme/rheme juncture. & (Zhang & Fang) (1996) is probably the most insightful functionalist study of (Mandarin) Chinese published in Mainland China in recent years.

Topics covered in the book include the thematic structure, the focus structure, grammaticalization, and parts-of-speech and their syntactic functions. The authors examine both written and spoken data. Their spoken data consist of recordings of both TV dramas and naturally occurring narratives and conversations in Beijing Mandarin collected in the 1980s.

The significance of studying the spoken vernacular for the understanding of grammar is readily seen in the authors various arguments throughout the book. For example, the authors demonstrate that some utterance-middle particles (e.g., *a* and *ba*) appearing in speech, especially in (monologic) narratives, are indicators of the speaker's division of primary information (or focus, which follows the particle) and secondary information (or theme, which precedes the particle),

although the break in the utterance unit created by the occurrence of the particle may not correspond precisely to any syntactic or semantic configurational point. In the discussion of the on-going grammaticalization of the proximal and distal demonstratives in contemporary Beijing Mandarin, the authors also point out the tendency of associating each alternative pronunciation with a distinct grammaticalized use (e.g., unstressed proximal *zhe* before nominal for generic reference; stressed *zhe/na* before stative verbs for intensity). Tao (1996) is an exemplary study that focuses on the relationship between conversation and grammatical regularities in Chinese. In this book, conversational data is first given a prosodic analysis in terms of intonation units (IU). Next, a prosodic-syntactic comparison is offered to examine the correspondence between the various types of IUs and the grammatical structures that are displayed in these IUs.

The kinds of grammatical structures actually used in native speakers' speech are drastically different from those derived from analyses based on isolated, out-of-context sentences. For example, Tao discovers that the three major syntactic types that would appear in a Mandarin IU are, with descending frequency, elliptical clauses, NPs, and full clauses.6 Moreover, a verb clause with at most one lexical argument is the favored form in spoken Chinese (see also Tao & Thompson 1994). This observation is in agreement with those offered by Chafe and Du Bois reviewed in Section 2. Tao argues, therefore, for a phrase-centered (as opposed to clause-centered) framework to characterize Chinese syntax as it is used in speech.

After reviewing studies that call our attention to discourse data, especially spoken discourse data, we will turn to scholarship focusing on the spontaneous and interactive aspects of conversation.

Spontaneity and interaction in spoken discourse

How conversation participants negotiate speakership is an important issue in conversation analysis. Schegloff (1982) distinguishes primary speakership from non-primary speakership in conversation, and points to the interactional function of backchannels (which is also known as a type of reactive token in later literature) used by the non-primary speaker. Clancy et al. (1996) is a cross-linguistic study of how the non-primary speaker s reactive tokens (RTs) are used in English, Japanese, and Mandarin. They find that the three languages differ in terms of the types of RTs favored, the frequency with which RTs are used, and the way in which speakers distribute their RTs across conversational units. For our purpose here, the study shows that among the three groups, Mandarin speakers have the strongest tendency to place their RTs at the Complex Transition Relevance Places (CTRPs), a notion we introduced in Section 2.7 Chen & Lee (1998) is a study of the use of RTs in Taiwanese conversation. Hesitation phenomena reflect the psychological reality of on-line encoding in language production. Linguists in the 1990s ask further if disfluency in language production would in any way reflect the grammatical complexity of the unit to be encoded.

Huang (1993) and Yang (1997) both find no significant correlation between pause and syntactic complexity in Chinese speech production. Liu (1998) suggests that pauses are sensitive to the activation status of the subsequent lexical nominal referents. New referents are more likely to be verbalized with disfluency than given referents. In addition, the codability of a referent also affects the difficulty in lexical search. Finally, different pausing devices are associated with referents of different information status. For example, lengthening tends to mark difficulty in introducing new referents, whereas demonstratives tend to retrieve referents that convey given information.

Fox & Jasperson (1995) suggest that syntax affects how English speakers repair their own speech in talk. For example, notions such as clause or phrase do constrain how English speakers recycle part of his utterance in self-repair. The general claim that syntactic practices of a language shape the organization of repair is maintained in Fox et al. (1996), a cross-linguistic study of selfrepair in English and Japanese.

Chui (1996), however, argues that the scope of self-repair recycle in Mandarin conversation is not syntax-oriented but is instead subject to the quantity of words preceding the repair source and the lexical-form complexity of the preceding words. L. Tao et al. (1999) discuss another type of same-turn self-repair unique to tone languages: tone-choice repairs. Typically, Mandarin speakers do repair on a tone to match the tone sandhi rules without a pause for mental search for the appropriate tone.

However, tone repair triggered by the distortion of tone manifestation during syllable lengthening, which itself is for hesitation or mental search, is often accompanied by pauses. Overlap in conversation is an important phenomenon reflecting the organization of turn structure. Numerous studies have treated the issue in the tradition of conversation analysis (e.g., Jefferson 1973, 1986, 1993). Biq (1998) examines overlap in Mandarin conversation in terms of its placement in turn structure and its function in speaker negotiation.

The findings suggest that even in overlap, a presumable anomaly given the usual smooth speaker transition which dominates conversation, prosodic and syntactic (in-)completion are still critical turn projection cues which constrain when and how speakership can be negotiated. On the other hand, pragmatic considerations ma override syntactic and prosodic cues and strategically motivate overlapping We now turn to investigations that focus on the relationship between cognition, information status, and linguistic sequencing in Chinese discourse.

Cognition, information status, and linguistic sequencing

Given the spontaneous nature of speech, the next question to be asked is how information is processed in interaction. Thus, how information flow is handled in Chinese is an important research topic. Taking Du Bois' notion of Preferred Argument Structure (PAS) as point of departure, Chui (1994) studies the relationship between information flow and Mandarin grammar as displayed in conversation. The findings suggest that the given-new information distribution is tied to word order rather than syntactic roles in Chinese speech: given information tends to appear before the verb, while

new information after the verb. In Huang & Chui (1997) the S and A alignment is argued based on the fact that anaphoric links across successive clauses show S-A links much more than S-O links. S and A form a category (nominative) that marks topical information while O forms a category (accusative) that marks new information.8 Another issue regarding Chinese word order that attracts functionalists' attention is right-dislocation, also known as the afterthought form or the inverted sentence.

The traditional, afterthought treatment takes right-dislocation as a result of the speaker s repair or reorganization of his prior speech (Chao 1968). A more popular alternative takes the whole phenomenon as a left-dislocation process to thematize certain sentence constituents (Packard 1986).

The so-called right-dislocated part is, in this view, the part that remains in its original position. Tai and Hu (1991) further identify thematization, repair, and afterthought appendage as discourse factors that motivate right-dislocation utterances. Focusing on the right-dislocation of pronouns and noun phrases in activity-oriented interactive discourse by 7-year-old children, Guo (1999) points out the inadequacies of the left-dislocation analysis, which can explain cases in which the co-referent (in the main clause) of the right-dislocated NP is a zero, but cannot explain cases in which the co-referent is overtly expressed. Guo argues, instead, for a social-interactional approach, in which right-dislocation is analyzed as a grammaticalized device that occupies the utterance-final position, a slot typically reserved for the expression of the speaker s affect. Guo claims that the emphatic function of the right-dislocated pronoun or NP expresses the speaker s negative evaluation toward certain person or object, especially when they occupy the topic or subject position in the main clause.

Following the study on conversation in Tao (1996) discussed earlier, Tao (1998) and & (Tan & Tao) (1998) continue to examine the relationship between IU and syntactic regularities in Mandarin monologic narratives. In Tao (1998), the cognitive effort required in activating and verbalizing new information is suggested as the major factor that causes the delay of the production of speech and the resulting split of a syntactic unit (e.g., the A/S arguments from VP) across IUs. In addition to the cognitive constraints on information flow, & (Tan & Tao) (1998) suggests the degree of structural integration between syntactic constituents as another factor. For example, the prevalence of elliptical clausal IUs in speech seems connected to the less integrated constituent relation in the subject-predicate structure (as compared to that in the VO structure).

The evidence that Tan and Tao (1999) gather from their examination of the coordination construction in Mandarin conversation further convinces the authors to advocate for the notion of syntax-for-interaction, in which syntactic patterns are fluid, flexible, and interaction-oriented. For example, the conjuncts in coordination construction can be syntactically flexible (e.g., a V conjoined with a relative clause). The distribution of conjuncts across IUs is also variable and subject to a number of factors. However, the flexible system is not disorderly but rather regularized as a result of the cognitive and social interactional constraints imposed on speakers in conversational interaction.

Clause combining is another important topic for both word order and discourse organization. Chinese speakers are generally believed to prefer to present supporting materials before they deliver their main point in making exposition, elaboration, or argumentation. Biq (1995), however, finds that in causeconsequence clause ordering, the *yinwei* clause, if present at all, is typically postposed in Mandarin conversation. Even in conservative genres such as written press reportage, the postposed *yinwei* clause is still the preferred pattern. This fact is motivated by the speaker's (or news reporter's) desire to present critical information in the first (the "left-most") position, which echoes the left-dislocation account offered for the inverted sentences in interactive discourse discussed above. Following the analytic model in Ford (1993), Wang (1999) examines the clause ordering for temporal, conditional, and causal clauses in Mandarin conversation.

Again, while temporal and conditional clauses occur before the main clause as expected, causal clauses prefer occurring after. Since the preceding main clause typically completes with an ending intonation, the following causal clause is viewed as a clause independent of the main clause. The causal connectives can thus be taken as markers of coordinate conjunction.

(For more information on sentence pragmatics visit the following internet sites:
http://cogprints.org/125/00/INTRO2web.html - fn1#fn1http://cogprints.org/125/00/INTRO2web.html - fn1#fn1http://cogprints.org/125/00/INTRO2web.html - fn1#fn1http://cogprints.org/125/00/INTRO2web.html - fn1#fn1http://cogprints.org/125/00/INTRO2web.html - fn1#fn1[1]
http://cogprints.org/125/00/INTRO2web.html - fn2#fn2http://cogprints.org/125/00/INTRO2web.html - fn2#fn2http://cogprints.org/125/00/INTRO2web.html - fn2#fn2http://cogprints.org/125/00/INTRO2web.html - fn2#fn2http://cogprints.org/125/00/INTRO2web.html - fn2#fn2[2])

Punctuation in Modern English

When studying grammar one has to know what punctuation is, or else one's knowledge of grammar of language will not be as complete as it should be, though,
as to prof. B.A. Ilyish, punctuation is not in itself inseparable part of the grammatical structure of a language, it cannot be passed over in silence in a Treatise on grammar, as it may, and often does, acquire grammatical significance. The other layer of language with which punctuation is connected is of course its phonetic layer, namely intonation.

In treating the punctuation we fully share the approach made by prof. B.A.Ilyish, because he is indeed very accurate in his considerations of the phenomenon under discussion.

In different languages the relations between punctuation, intonation, and grammar (syntax) may be different, that is, punctuation may tend to indicate intonation to a greater or to a smaller extent. It certainly always has something to do with

grammar. Now from this viewpoint it may be said that in English punctuation is connected with intonation to a greater extent than in Russian. Without going into details at the moment, we may content ourselves with recalling one fact. In Russian there is a strict principle saying that a subordinate clause is always marked off from its head clause by a comma. Thus, practically speaking, if there is no comma in a sentence, we may be certain that there is no subordinate clause in it. In English, on the other hand, there is no such general principle: sometimes a subordinate clause is not separated from its head clause by any punctuation mark whatsoever. This, for instance, is the case in the following sentence: *Only now, because of the fact that she felt that she needed a new hat to go with the coat, she decided to say that it cost one hundred and twenty-five instead of one hundred and fifteen.*

There are several subordinate clauses here which are not marked off by any commas, namely, (1) *that she felt* (an appositional clause to *fact),* (2) *that she needed a new hat to go with the coat* (an object clause to *felt),* (3) *that it cost one hundred and twenty-five instead of one hundred and fifteen* (an object clause to *say).* The absence of commas here is due to the fact that in actual speech there is no intonational break between the subordinate clause and its head clause in any of these cases (this of course has to be ascertained by phonetic experiment and analysis). There are only two commas in the sentence, namely after *now*(this comma marks the beginning of the loose adverbial modifier *because of the fact...* with all the subordinate clauses belonging to it), and another after *coat,* to mark the end of the whole group. Thus from the number of commas no deduction could be made about the number of subordinate clauses found within the sentence.

This general characteristic of English punctuation as distinct from Russian should be kept in mind in dealing with it.

We will no longer speak of the intonational value of punctuation and we will concentrate on its grammatical significance.

Let us first take those punctuation marks which have reference to the sentence as such (that is, as a unit), and serve to point to the end of a sentence and to its communication type. These two functions, though essentially different, are performed by punctuation marks simultaneously.

The punctuation marks performing these functions are, the full stop (.), the question mark (?), and the exclamation mark (!).

The full stop may, in general, be said to be a signal of the end of a sentence, though its use as a sign of abbreviation (in such expressions as *a. m., p. m., B. C, A. D.*, etc.) shows that its sentence-ending function is not necessarily the only one. However, with this reservation the function of the full stop as a signal of sentence end may be said to be almost certain.[90]

The other function of the full stop refers to the communication character of the sentence. Namely, a full stop shows that the sentence is not interrogative and not exclamatory. That is the only conclusion in this way that can be drawn from it. The question whether the sentence is declarative or imperative cannot be settled by the presence of a full stop at the end. Imperative sentences with a full stop at the end are quite possible, though not exactly frequent. Here are a few examples: *Oh, just look at the collar, and those sleeves and those pockets. Don't go acting like this.* The utmost that can be said in this respect is that it is much more likely for a sentence ending with a full stop to be a declarative than an imperative sentence.

The other two punctuation marks which can signal the end of a sentence are *the question mark and the exclamation mark.* This function of theirs may be said to be almost certain. We are, however, bound to say "almost", because we must take into account some special cases, mainly in direct speech, where there may be a question mark or an exclamation mark, though the sentence including direct speech may run on after that, as in the following examples: *"Renegade!" said Mr Blythe. "Why can one always tell an Englishman?" said John.* Of course there are two things to be distinguished here. The sentence *"Renegade!"* as pronounced by Mr Blythe is certainly finished where the exclamation mark stands, and so is the sentence *"Why can one always tell an Englishman?"* as pronounced by John, at the point where the interrogation mark stands. But the sentences *"Renegade!" said Mr Blythe* and *"Why can one always tell an Englishman?" said John,* as written by Galsworthy, are not finished at those points. They run on with the word *said* in both cases and the name of the speaker. So it will perhaps be best to say that the question mark and the exclamation mark do signal the end of the sentence in one way, and do not signal it in another way. There appear to be, as it were, two layers of sentence ends in such cases as these.[91]

The functions of the two punctuation marks to show the communication type of the sentence are unmistakable.

The question mark certainly always shows the sentence to be interrogative, even though the question contained in it may be rhetorical, which does not affect the grammatical type of the sentence. The only thing to be noted here is that a question mark is also always used at the end of sentences with a so-called tag-question, as in the following example: *By the way, you didn't chance to bring along your dress suit with you, did you?* or *But you didn't have to fall all over and dream in his eyes, either, did you?* Such sentences may be taken in different ways. They might, for instance, be termed half-interrogative, or they might be taken as compound sentences, with the first clause declarative, and the second interrogative. But whichever way we choose to look at them, some interrogative quality is found all the same, either in a diluted way in the sentence as a whole, or else in a concentrated state in the latter part of it.

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[90] It should be noted, too, that in recent times the use of the full stop in abbreviations tends to be restricted. For instance, nowadays no full stop is used if the last letter of an abbreviation is the last letter of the word, as in *Mr, Mrs.* There is also a tendency to drop the full stop in such abbreviations as *n* (for noun), *v* (for verb) in dictionaries, etc. This makes the function of the full stop to mark the sentence end more certain.

[91] The full stop does not appear in such ambiguous positions. It is always replaced by a comma when the inserted sentence of the type *said he* is added.

The exclamation mark is a sufficiently certain signal of the sentence being either exclamatory or emotional. It is obvious that a non-exclamatory and non-emotional sentence cannot have an exclamation mark at its end. As to the other peculiarities of the sentence, namely, whether it is an exclamatory sentence, or an emotional, declarative, interrogative, or imperative one, the exclamation mark, of course, does not say anything.

The other punctuation marks have no reference to the sentence as such, except, we may say, indirectly. Some of them do, and some do not, show that the sentence is not finished. Let us first have a look at the punctuation marks which definitely show that the sentence is not finished. These are: the comma (,), the semicolon (;), and the colon (:). If we see any of these punctuation marks in the text, we may be quite sure that the sentence is not finished and will run on.

The other remaining punctuation marks are not certain signs of this. Let us, for instance, consider the dash (—). This may occasionally occur as a sign that the sentence is interrupted, that is, it will not run on, though it is not syntactically rounded off. In this case the following word ought to begin with a capital letter: if it began with a small one, this would mean that the sentence is running on. Here are two examples of an interrupted sentence ending with a dash: *"But we ain't got Old Joe. We got—" "Shut up, you fool!" "Why, Uncle Peter! What on earth —"*

The repeated dots (three and more often four) are also sometimes used in this way. They are a signal showing interruption, if the following word begins with a capital letter (we must set apart cases when that word is a proper name). Repeated dots are, however, much less frequently used in English than in Russian, where they are the usual means of showing interruption in the sentence. Here is an example of this rather rare use in English: *Was he not merely thinking of an accident that, had it occurred or could it but occur in his case... Ah, — but that could it but occur. There was the dark and evil thought about which he must not, he must not think. He MUST NOT. And yet — and yet... He was an excellent swimmer and could swim ashore, no doubt — whatever the distance.* Let us first consider the first repeated dots (after *case).* The sentence is obviously interrupted, as the attributive subordinate clause beginning with the pronoun *that* and modifying the noun *accident* is never brought to an end; it ought to have been resumed after the end of the second-degree subordinate clause (a clause of condition) *had it occurred or could it but occur in his case,* but is not resumed (the capital initial *A* of the following *Ah* proves that a new sentence is beginning there). So, in this particular case, the repeated dots stand at the end of an interrupted sentence, though they in themselves would not be sufficient proof that what follows is the beginning of a new sentence.

As to the repeated dots after *and yet,* it must be said that the words *and yet* (repeated twice) cannot in themselves be a sentence, and as the following word *He* begins with a capital *H,* it is clear that it is again the beginning of a new sentence, so that the preceding sentence is shown to be interrupted, and the dots clearly stand at the end of this interrupted sentence.

In other cases, of course, both the dash and the repeated dots may come at a place in the sentence which is not its end: the following word begins with a small letter, which is proof that the sentence is continued. Let us first have a look at a dash in such circumstances: *It was wrong — wrong — terribly wrong.* As the second *wrong* and *terribly* begin with a small letter, it is clear that neither the first nor the second dash stands at the end of a sentence, which runs right on from the word *it* to the third and last *wrong.*

As for repeated dots used elsewhere than at the end of a sentence, they are very seldom met with in texts. Here is one example: *And yet as she walked home from this trivial and fairly representative scene, her heart was not nearly so angry as it was sad and sore because of the love and comfort that had vanished and was not likely ever to come again... ever... ever. Oh, how terrible... how terrible/* In both sentences the repeated dots are in each case followed by a word beginning with a small letter, and that proves that the sentence is running on.

So much for the possible significance of punctuation marks for the end of a sentence and for its communication type.

Now we come to the meaning of punctuation marks within a sentence.

We must first of all distinguish between punctuation marks going in pairs, those which can, but need not, form pairs, and those that never form pairs.

There are two of them belonging to the first category: brackets (parentheses) and inverted commas. These cannot occur in any other way but in pairs. Two other punctuation marks may, but need not necessarily, be used in pairs. These are dashes and commas. If we have a dash or a comma in a sentence we cannot at once tell whether it makes part of a pair or not: that will only appear as we read on. Two dashes occurring at a close interval from each other may or may not form a pair: this will only be made clear by the grammatical and semantic conditions of the sentence; and the same may be said about two commas.

Let us first have a look at sentences where two dashes do form a pair.

They — Messrs Foster, Crockett and Porter — had been used to make surgical instruments, which were what she would now require. And the factory section which lay opposite the small city — across the Mohawk — was little more than a red and gray assemblage of buildings with here and there a smokestack projecting upward, and connected with the city by two bridges — a dozen blocks apart — one of them directly at this depot, a wide traffic bridge across which traveled a car-line following the curves of Central Avenue, dotted here and there with stores and small houses. There are two pairs of dashes here: the first pair consisting of the dash after *city* and the one after *the Mohawk,* and the second consisting of the dash after *bridges* and the one after *apart.* That they really are pairs, and not merely a chance accumulation of dashes, is shown by grammatical and lexical features of the sentence, namely, for the first pair of dashes, by the fact that if we omit the words enclosed by the dashes, *across the Mohawk,* the sentence' will lose a closer definition of the site of the factory section

described, but will not be changed in any other way: in fact the words *across the Mohawk* give a more exact description of the site, as characterized by the preceding text *(opposite the small city).* The phrase *across the Mohawk* is a loose adverbial modifier. As to the second pair of dashes, it clearly encloses a loose attribute to the noun *bridges*, the distance between them being stated to be a dozen blocks. In that case, too, if the words *a dozen blocks apart* are dropped, the distance between the two bridges will be unknown, but the structure of the sentence will not be otherwise changed.

In other cases two dashes, though they may be close to each other, do not form a pair, and this again becomes clear from grammatical and semantic considerations. Let us take an example from Galsworthy: *All I meant was that when you tell me a thing is going to cost so much, I like to — well, in fact, I — like to know where I am.* That these two dashes do not form a pair is clear from the fact that we cannot drop the words standing between them without getting an inadmissible text: *All I meant was that when you tell me a thing is going to cost so much, I like to like to know where I am.* So each of the two dashes has to be taken as a separate unit, and in fact, in this sentence each of them expresses a stopping, or hesitation on the part of the speaker.

In a similar way, we must find out whether two commas form a pair or not. Here is an example of two commas forming a pair: *He looked rather dirty and stupid, and even as much flaminess as that of the young cock, which he had tied by the leg, would never glow in him.* If we drop the words between the comma which comes after *cock* and the one which comes after *leg,* we shall lose a characteristic of the cock (indeed, these words form a subordinate attributive clause), and the text would run on without them. Thus the two correlative commas are used to single out a certain element in the sentence (a subordinate clause).

The same may be said about two commas forming a pair in the lollowing sentence: *Life had worn him down on one side, till, like that family of which he was the head, lie had lost balance.* The words *like that family of which he was the head*, consisting of a prepositional phrase and a, subordinate attributive clause, may be dropped, and the result woubi be the loss of additional information based upon a comparison between "him" (Old Jolyon Forsyte) and his family: the sentence would run on: *Life had worn him down on one side till he had lost balance.*

In other cases, again, two commas within a sentence may have nothing to do with each other, as in this example: *His features were wide and flattened, and he had prominent, pale eyes...* The comma after *flattened* and the comma after *prominent* are not in any way connected with each other, the words standing between them do not form any sort of syntactical unit, and they could not be safely dropped without damaging the syntactical structure of the sentence, as will be seen from the following experiment: *His features were wide and flattened pale eyes,* which is not grammatically tenable. Indeed the two commas perform quite different functions here: the comma after *flattened* marks off the first clause of the compound sentence from its second clause, while the one after *prominent* serves to separate from each other two homogeneous attributes *(prominent* and *pale)* to the word *eyes.*

The number of single commas, that is, commas not connected with one another, is probably much greater than that of commas going in pairs.

The remaining punctuation marks never form pairs. For instance, semicolons, though of course there may be two or three or more of them within a sentence, never combine into pairs.

Let us take a sentence with two semicolons in it: *We must pass over De Quincey, whose romantic prose, as in the* Mail Coach *and the* Opium Eater, *is infused with the imaginative quality of a dream consciousness; Lamb, with his gentle, whimsical Elia; Hazlitt, whose high spirits and easy-flowing style in* My First Acquaintance with the Poets *belie his assurance thai he found writing so hard.*

The same may be said about colons: they never go in pairs either, and it must be added that we seldom find more than one colon in a sentence.

Punctuation marks forming pairs always single out some separate part of the sentence. This may be either a loose secondary part, or a subordinate clause, or a parenthesis, or, last not least, an insertion. We will briefly consider some examples. *A number of young English poets — brought up, no doubt, to the notes of Henley's anthology,* Lyra Heroica *— were either killed during the World War or died while it was going on.* The two dashes single out a loose attribute, and the first two commas a parenthesis. *James Elroy Flecker was a more original poet. Though his poems are usually romantic —* The Golden Journey to Samarkand, *the prologue tOhis Eastern play,* Hassan, *might serve as a general title to them all —he is less oracular than Tennyson, less copious and more self-critical.*The inserted clause coming in between a subordinate clause of concession and the main clause is marked off by dashes.

Now, whether the portion of the sentence enclosed between two commas, or two dashes, or parentheses, is a loose part, or a subordinate clause, or an insertion, has of course to be determined by careful study of the text and even that may sometimes fail to give a completely certain result.

Now let us proceed to a study of the non-paired punctuation marks with their individual peculiarities, from the grammatical viewpoint.

What grammatical information do we derive from a semicolon in a sentence, that is, what can we suppose about the structure of the sentence, before we take a look at the actual words composing it? It is not possible here to say anything with absolute certainty, as the use of the semicolon is not circumscribed by strict rules. However, more likely than not, a sentence containing a semicolon will be a composite sentence, and very likely a compound one, with the semicolon separating two independent clauses from one another. This is the case, for instance, in the following examples: *He had tried to kill Mrs Moore this evening, on the roof of the Nawab Bahadur's house; but she still eluded him, and the atmosphere remained*

tranquil. Both before and after the semicolon there is at least one independent clause. / *had only seen the poor creature for a few hours when she was taken ill; really this has been needlessly distressing, it spoils one's home-coming.* (Idem) In this particular case what precedes the semicolon is a combination of a main and a subordinate clause; what follows it is a combination of two independent clauses. If we were to apply the term "sentence" somewhat loosely, we might say that the semicolon is preceded by a complex sentence and followed by a compound one. What matters, however, is that in each of the two halves there is an independent clause, and thus the sentence may be termed compound in the first place.

Occasionally, however, this general principle of a semicolon being a sign of a compound sentence will not hold good. There may be special reason inducing a writer to use a semicolon outside a compound sentence; and this will mainly happen in a sentence having a certain amount of commas within it, when some division in the sentence has to be marked off by some punctuation mark stronger than a comma.

Thus the semicolon is a punctuation mark affording high probability, but not certainty, of the sentence being compound.

The colon, in so far as grammar is concerned, is rather similar in function to the Semicolon. It also is a pretty sure signal of a compound sentence, with the additional shade of meaning of the latter part giving some explanation or illustration of what has been stated in the former. Here is a clear example from E. M. Forster: *And it seemed to him for a time that the dead awaited him, and when the illusion faded it left behind it an emptiness that was almost guilt: "This really is the end," he thought, "and I gave her the final blow."* What follows the colon is the statement of his thoughts, illustrating the idea of guilt mentioned in the first p'art (that preceding the colon).

A similar example is found in the same author: *Fielding was a blank, frank atheist, but he respected every opinion his friend held: to do this is essential to friendship.* The part preceding the colon in this case is itself a compound sentence (in a somewhat loose application of the term); this, however, is irrelevant for the fact that the colon is a signal of a compound sentence, in so far as there is an independent clause on either side of it.

The function of the colon is somewhat more complicated because it is occasionally used to introduce direct speech. It is well known, however, that this use of the colon is much less characteristic of English than of Russian: in English direct speech is often preceded by a comma, especially if it does not begin a new paragraph.

The grammatical significance of the comma is much harder to define. Its uses are so varied that it appears to be practically impossible to give it a general characteristic: it may mark the end of a main clause, or of a subordinate clause, or it may stand between homogeneous members (whether subjects, predicates, predicatives, objects, adverbial modifiers, or attributes), or it may also mark-off an apposition, a direct address, etc. The only thing that may perhaps be said about the function of the comma in general is, that it marks some kind of syntactical division. It will perhaps be best to illustrate this by pointing out contexts in which a comma would not fee possible. These are:

(1) The group of attribute and head word (by attribute is meant one that is not loose). No comma would for instance be possible after the word *one*, or after *two*, or after *distinct* in the following sentence: *At one period two distinct tombs containing Esmiss Es-moor's remains were reported.*

(2) The group of subject and predicate. Thus no comma would be possible after the word *Fielding* in the sentence, *Fielding said no more* (Idem), or after the word *Weeks*, or after *eyes*, or *Philip*, or *American* in the sentence *Weeks spoke seriously, but his gray eyes twinkled a little at the end of his long speech, and Philip flushed when he saw that the American was making fun of him.* Commas are also impossible in certain other groups, as between a preposition and a noun. The essential point is, that a comma does mark some kind of grammatical division, at least that between homogeneous parts of a sentence or that between a loose secondary part and the rest of the sentence. The more exact function of a comma in every given case can only be made out by considering its syntactical surroundings.

Such, then, would appear to be the grammatical functions of punctuation marks. They might also be shown by a very simple experiment: dropping all punctuation marks from a certain passage in a text and finding out what points in the grammatical structure of the passage are lost or at least obscured by this omission. This would reveal the exact value of punctuation from the grammatical viewpoint.

The function of inverted commas, or quotation marks (" "), stands somewhat apart from that of other punctuation marks. From the grammatical viewpoint inverted commas appear to have no significance.

Questions on the theme:

1. What is a functional sentence perspective?
2. What part is called a thematic part of a sentence (theme)?
3. What part is called a rhematic part of sentence (rheme)?
4. What do you know about the ellipsis in grammar?
5. What is a structural ellipsis?
6. What is "communicative ellipsis"?
7. What do you understand by sentence pragmatics?
8. What is a locutionary act?
9. What is an illocutionary act?
10. What is a perlocutionary act?
11. What is a discourse?
12. Is there any difference between discourse and text?

13. What is discourseme?
14. What is discoursology?
15. What is a text?
16. What is a texteme?
17. What is textology or textics?
18. What is punctuation?
19. What punctuation marks do you know?
20. What functions of the punctuation marks do you know?
21. When is full stop used?
22. When is comma used?
23. When is semicolon used?When is question mark used?
24. When is exclamatory mark used?
25. When is dash used?
26. When is dash used?
27. When are inverted commas used?
28. When are repeated dots (three and more than three dots, etc.) used?
29. What is slash used for?

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Plan of seminars on "Theoretical Grammar"

№	Themes to be studied	Hours for seminars
9	The Phrase theory : Structural types of phrases Sentence theory: Structural and semantic sentence types	2
10	Theory of Parts of the Sentence. Principle, secondary and tertiary parts of sentence	2
11	Composite(compound and complex) sentence theory nd its classification. The problem of syndetic and asyndetic types of Composite Sentence	2
12	Compound and complex sentence theory and their structural and semantic types	2
13	Complex sentences with subject, predicative, object, attributive and appositive clauses	2
14	Complex sentences with adverbial clauses of time and place Complex sentences with adverbial clauses of condition, concession, manner and comparison, result, degree and measure	2
15	Different approaches to the Composite sentences(dicteme, occurseme, cumuleme, collotaxeme, parataxeme, hypotaxeme, parentaxeme, hypertaxeme(supertaxeme, architaxeme, ultrataxeme) theories) Functional Sentence Perspective, Sentence Pragmatics and Discourse Analysis.	2
		30

PLAN OF SEMINARS IN "THEORETICAL GRAMMAR"
(FOR THE 3 RD COURSE)
Seminar 9
Theme: "The Phrase theory : Structural types of phrases".
Part I

Plan:

1. The notion of a phrase and a phraseme.
2. Different approaches to the definition of a phrase as a unit of minor syntax.
3. The structural types of phrases: a) coordinate phrases: b) subordinate phrases: c) predicative phrases.
4. The Syntactical relations between the components of a phrase.

a) Government(бошкарув).
b) Agreement(мослашув).
c) Adjoinment(битишув)

4. L.S.Barkhudarov's phrase types.
5. The coordinate phrase and its subtypes.
6. The subordinate phrase and its subtypes.
7. The predicative phrase and its subtypes.

a) Infinitival
b) Gerundial
c) Participial
d) Absolute predicative constructions (with out not-finites)

8. The Disputable nature of the phrases of the type "*at home, at school, at risk, in hand, by chance, by mistake, in conclusion, in front of, on behalf of, with reference to, in accordance with, etc.* and their treatment by B.I. Ilyish.
9. The problem of mixed types of phrases.

Part II

Sentence theory: Structural and semantic sentence types.

Plan:

1. Notion of a sentence(a simple and composite sentence types)
2. The disputable nature of sentences and other units larger than sentences(supraphrasal units, complex syntactic wholes, etc.)
3. Structural types of a simple sentence:
   1) one member unextended;

2) one member extended.
3) two member unextended;
4)two member extended

4. Semantic types of it:

a) Declarative
b) Interrogative
c) Imperative
d) Exclamatory

1. Composite sentence and its types
2. Compound sentence and its types
3. Complex sentence and its types

Seminar 10.

Simple Sentence : Theory of Parts of the Sentence. Principle, secondary and tertiary parts of sentence.

Plan:

1. The theory of the parts of the sentence: Notion of a part of a sentence.
2. Principle parts of the sentence(subject, predicate):

1) Subject as principle or primary part of the sentence:

a) subject and its grammatical definition, structural simple, complex)ypes and possible ways of expressing it.
b) problem of sentences with "it" as a subject (personal/impersonal).

2) predicate as principle or primary part of the sentence:

a) predicate and its grammatical definition, structural types and possible ways of expressing it.
b) (disputable cases with the sentence parts of the type" He is at home or They are in London" as predicates or adverbial modifiers

3. Secondary parts of the sentence(object, attribute, apposition, adverbial modifiers):

1) object and its grammatical definition, structural types of an object (simple direct/indirect object, complex direct/indirect object types)

a) possible ways of expressing the object
b) the so called cognate object
c) disputable cases with the underlined sentence parts of the type" He began to work/working"
d) disputable cases with the underlined sentence parts of the type "He made a mistake", and " He gave a push" as predicates or predicates with an object, etc..
e) disputable cases with the underlined sentence parts of the type" The boy likes Jack's dancing", "The boy likes Jack dancing", " The boy likes Jack to dance" , " I find it interesting" and "You may call the baby what you will", etc.

3) attribute and its grammatical definition, structural types of an attribute (simple attribute, complex(clausal) attribute types) and possible ways of expressing the object
4) positional types of an attribute (prepositive and postpositive)
5) disputable cases with the sentence parts of the type" in the room" as attributes or adverbial modifiers)
6) apposition and its grammatical definition, structural types of an apposition (simple attribute, complex(clausal) apposition types) and possible ways of expressing the apposition

4)the problem of "tertiary'' parts of the sentence:

a) parenthesis
b) introductory elements(words, phrases, sentences)
c) direct address
d) vocatives(oh, hey, ouch, etc.)

(for literature see the list given for seminar 1)

Seminar 11.

Theme: Composite(compound and complex) sentence theory nd its classification. The problem of syndetic and asyndetic types of Composite Sentence.

Plan:

1. Composite sentence as a type.
2. Structural types of composite sentences(compound, complex, mixed).
3. Ambiguous(homonymous) composite sentences and the problem of deciphering them(as in "that, so, so that, as, if, as if, lest, what, which, where-clauses, etc.).
4. Semantic types of composite sentences(declarative, interrogative, imperative, exclamatory(emotive).

1) Disputable types of Composite Sentences(with a parenthetical , introductory clause, comment , inserted clause)

2) Composite Sentence with a parenthetical/or comment clause("*As you know,…", " as is seen…"),* and its types.

3) B.I. Ilyish's treatment of Composite Sentences(with a parenthetical clause as a "*complex sentence type(with a parenthetical clause)".*

4) Composite Sentence with an introductory*(…you know…)* clause and its types
5) Composite Sentence with an inserted(*My friend Jack/he is an engineer/ lives here)* clause and its types
(for literature see the list given for seminar 1)

Seminar 12
Theme: Compound and complex sentence theory and their structural and semantic types.

Plan:

1. Compound sentence and its definition
2. Structural (syndetic) types of Compound sentence:

a) Compound sentence and types of coordination :
b) Compound sentence with copulative coordination
c) Compound sentence with disjunctive coordination
d) Compound sentence with adversative coordination
e) Compound sentence with causative-consecutive coordination

3. Structural (asyndetic) types of Compound sentence
4. Complex sentence theory, its definition and structural and semantic types.
5. Structural (syndetic) types of Complex sentence:

1) Complex sentence with nominal(subject, predicative, object, attributive) clauses
2) Complex sentence with adverbial clauses(of place, time, reason/cause, condition, comparison, purpose, concession, result, manner, degree and measure

6. Problem of mixed types of Composite sentences(semi-compound, semi-complex)
7. Problem of discriminating the principle and subordinate clauses in Complex sentences with a subject and/or predicative clauses or both Structural (asyndetic) types of Complex sentence(*I know Jack is here).*
8. Problem of syncretic types of Complex sentences as in " *He hides the milk lest the cat might get at it" or"You have to wait until he comes" or " They can't open it unless he permits".*

(for literature see the list given for seminar 1)

Seminar 13
Theme: Complex sentences with subject, predicative, object, attributive and appositive clauses.

Plan:

1. Complex sentences with "nominal clauses"
2. Complex sentence with a subject clause
3. Complex sentence with a predicative clause
4. Complex sentence with a direct/indirect object clause
5. Complex sentence with an attributive clause :

a) Structural types of Complex sentence with an attributive clause:
b) Complex sentence with an attributive restrictive clause
c) Complex sentence with an attributive nonrestrictive clause

6. Complex sentence with an appositive clause
7. Structural types of Complex sentence with an attributive clause

(for literature see the list given for seminar 1)

Seminar 14
Part I
Theme: Complex sentences with adverbial clauses of time and place,

Plan:

1. Complex sentence with an adverbial clause and its definition
2. Structural types of Complex sentence with an adverbial clause
3. Semantic types of Complex sentence with an adverbial clause:
4. Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of time
5. Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of place
6. Problem of synonymy of Complex sentences with adverbial clauses of time and other clauses
7. Problem of homonymy of Complex sentence with adverbial clauses of time and other clauses.
8. Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of reason/cause
9. Structural types of Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of reason/cause and other clauses:
10. Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of purpose
11. Problem of synonymy of Complex sentences with adverbial clause of reason/cause /purpose and other clauses
12. Problem of homonymy of Complex sentence with adverbial clauses of reason/cause, purpose and other clauses

Part II

Complex sentences with adverbial clauses of condition, concession, manner and comparison, result, degree and measure.

Plan:

1. Complex Sentence with adverbial clause and its definition.
2. Complex sentences with an adverbial clause of condition.
3. Complex sentences with an adverbial clause of concession.
4. Complex sentences with an adverbial clause of manner.
5. Complex sentences with an adverbial clause of comparison.
6. Problem of synonymy of Complex sentences with adverbial clauses introduced by the conjunction "if"and "in case"(provided, providing given, on condition that)
7. Problem of homonymy of Complex sentences with adverbial clauses introduced by the conjunction "if"and "in case", "so that", "that", "so", "lest", "where", "whether", who, why, when, which, etc.
8. Complex sentences with an adverbial clause of result
9. Complex sentences with an adverbial clause of degree and measure.
10. Problem of synonymy of Complex sentences with adverbial clauses introduced by the conjunctions "so"and "so that"
11. Problem of homonymy of Complex sentences with adverbial clauses introduced by the conjunctions "so", "so that" etc.

(for literature see the list given for seminar 1)

Seminar 15

Theme: Different approaches to the Composite sentences(dicteme, occurseme, cumuleme, collotaxeme, parataxeme, hypotaxeme, parentaxeme, hypertaxeme(supertaxeme, architaxeme, ultrataxeme) theories)

Part I

Plan:

1) Different approaches to Composite sentences and units larger than them
2) M.Y.Blokh's dilemma of the simple sentence (monopredicative unit) and the composite sentence (polypredicative) and its subtypes: compound, complex, "semi-compound" and "semi-complex sentences", including composite sentences with more than two clauses.
3) M.Y.Blokh's sentence termed "proposeme", and his *dicteme (*an elementary topical segmental unit of the continual text), *occurseme(* the supra-sentential construction based on occursive connection: the *occurseme* consisting of two or more cumulemes), *cumuleme(*the supra-sentential construction of one-direction communicative type)
4) L.L.Iofik's classification of composite sentences into: 1) composite sentence with coordinative connection; 2) composite sentence with relatively conjunctive connection; 3) composite sentence with subordinative connection; 4) composite sentence with correlative (introductory) connection.
5) A.M.Mukhin's classification of composite sentences into: 1) composite sentence with a coordinative connection; 2) composite sentence with a subordinative connection; 3) composite sentence with an introductory connection
6) B.A.Ilyish's traditional classification of composite sentences, including a composite (complex) sentence called by him "complex sentence with a parenthetical clause"of the type(*as you know, as they think, as is seen…. you see…, I guess, etc.*) .
7) B.S.Khaimovich and B.I.Rogovskaya's treatment of traditionally accepted types of composite sentences (compound, complex) and the following new types called by them "complex sentences with an extension clause"(*e.g: It is indeed doubtful how he had become aware that Rodger was being buried that day;*
8) G.M.Khasimov's taxemic conception of Composite sentences and units larger than the latter.

Part II

Theme: Functional Sentence Perspective, Sentence Pragmatics and Discourse Analysis.

Plan:

1. Notion of a Functional Sentence Perspective.
2. The theme of the sentence
3. The rheme of the sentence
4. Problem of ellipsis in the sentence
5. Structural ellipsis and communicative ellipsis
6. Sentence Pragmatics.
7. Pragmatic types of the sentence
8. Speech acts(locutive, illocutive and perlocutive acts) and communication.
9. Notion of "discourse"(discourseme)
10. Notion of "text"(texteme)
11. Discourse analysis (or discoursology)(textics or textology)
12. Cohesion and coherence in discourse

(for literature see the list given for seminar 1)

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