MANONMANIAM SUNDARANAR UNIVERSITY

DIRECTORATE OF DISTANCE AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

TIRUNELVELI - 627012, TAMILNADU

M.A. ENGLISH - SECOND YEAR

ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE - II

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ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE – II

OBJECTIVES:

- To further the knowledge of students on the nuances of language and applied linguistics.

- To enable the students to acquire the knowledge of the structural description of the language.

- To equip the students with the principles of linguistic analysis.

- To validate the knowledge of English language and its uses in various contexts.

UNIT I: MORPHOLOGY

Basic Concepts: Scope and nature of morphology, Types of morphemes - free and bound; root, stem, base, suffix, infix, prefix, grammatical categories – tense, aspect, mood, person, gender, number, case, word, Etymology, Vocabulary Building

UNIT II: SYNTAX

Traditional and Structural Syntax: parts of speech: Basic syntactic units and their types, Word, Sentence, Sentence Pattern

UNIT III: TRANSFORMATIONAL GENERATIVE GRAMMAR SUBSTITUTION CLAUSES

UNIT IV: SEMANTICS AND PRAGMATICS

Semantics: Types of meaning; descriptive, emotive and phatic; sense and reference, connotation and denotation, Pragmatics: Language use in context; communication: message model and inferential model of communication, sentence meaning and utterance meaning

UNIT V: STYLISTICS & RHETORIC

Types of Discourse, Stylistics, Text as grammar: structure and texture, stylistic devices in literary texts.

CONTENTS

UNIT I

MORPHOLOGY

The term 'Morphology' had no association with language when it was first coined by the German philosopher and poet, Johann Wolfgang von Goethe in the nineteenth century. It was first coined in a biological context. However, the word 'morphology' came from the Greek word 'morph' which means 'shape/form'. So, one can say that morphology is the philosophy ('logos') of shape or forms. Still, one has not found any clue that morphology is a term related to language or linguistics. In biology and geology morphology means the structures or forms of the body and the earth respectively. So, in linguistics also, morphology must refer to a study which is related to the forms of language.

The most basic form of language is the word. Thus, one can say that morphology is the study of forms of words. To be more specific, morphology is the branch of linguistics that studies the formation of words and their internal structures. Linguists often define morphology as the study of morphemes. A morpheme is the smallest grammatical unit of a language. The linguists who investigate words, the formation of words, and the structures of words are called morphologists. They mostly identify and study morphemes which construct new words. It is not possible to divide a morpheme into smaller meaningful parts. It can be divided into a word according to its syllables. For instance, one can divide 'wonderful' into three syllables 'won', 'der', and 'ful' because syllables are determined by sound. However, morphemes are not determined by sound; morphemes are determined through meaning. Every morpheme must contribute a certain meaning to the word. So, the word 'wonderful' can be divided into two morphemes 'wonder' and 'ful'. Together these two morphemes form a new word with new grammatical function. But none of these morphemes cannot be divided into more parts which contain meanings.

Some words can be divided into parts which still have meaning. Many words have meaning by themselves. But some words have meaning only when used with other words. Some of the parts into which words can be divided can stand alone as words. But others cannot. These word parts that can occur only in combination must be combined in the correct way. Languages create new words that has systematically meaningful parts into which words can be divided, e.g., 'boldest' can be divided into 'bold' and 'est' that are called the morphemes of the language. These are considered the basic units of meaning in a particular language.

Words that have meaning by themselves such as boy, food, door are called lexical morphemes. Those words that function to specify the relationship between one lexical morpheme and other words like at, in, on, -ed, -s are called grammatical morphemes. Those morphemes that can stand alone as words are called free morphemes (e.g., boy, food, in, on). The morphemes that occur only in combination are called bound morphemes (e.g., -ed, -s, -ing). Bound grammatical morphemes can be further divided into two types: inflectional morphemes (e.g., -s, -est, -ing) and derivational morphemes (e.g., -ful, -like, -ly, un-, dis-).

Morphemes:

A morpheme can be defined as a minimal unit having more or less constant meaning and more of less constant form. For example, linguists say that the word 'buyers' is made up of three morphemes {buy}+{er}+{s}. The evidence for this is that each can occur in other combinations of morphemes without changing its meaning. One can find {buy} in buying, buys, and {er} in seller, fisher, as well as buyer. And {s} can be found in boys, girls, and dogs. The more combinations a morpheme is found in, the more productive it is said to be.

Note the terminology: Braces, {} indicate a morpheme. Square brackets, [] indicate a semantic characterization. Italics indicate a lexical item.

1. Morphemes can vary in size: neither the number of syllables nor the length of a word can indicate what is a morpheme and what isn't. For example, 'Albatross' is a long word

but a single morpheme, -y (as in dreamy) is also a single morpheme.

2. Just as linguists have had success dissecting phonemes into combinations of distinctive features, so they have viewed morphemes as made up of combinations of semantic features. For example, one can analyze a word like 'girls' in terms of both its morphological andits semantic structure:

Morphological: girls = {girl} + {s}

Semantic: {girl} = [-adult; -male; +human, ...] + {s} = {PLU} = [plural]

3. Two different morphemes may be pronounced (and even sometimes spelled) the same way. For example, the –er in buyer means something like 'the one who,' while the –er in shorter means something like 'to a greater degree than.' The first '–er' always attaches to a verb, while the second '–er' always attaches to an adjective. It makes sense to consider these two different morphemes that just happen to sound the same. (The first is called the agentive morpheme {AG} since it indicates the agent of an action; the second is called the comparative morpheme {COMP} since it indicates the comparative degree of an adjective.)

4. One cannot always hold to the definition of a morpheme as having unchanging form. For example, in words like boys, girls, shirts, books, '–s' is the plural morpheme (symbolized {PLU}.) But what about words such as men or women? Here plurality is indicated not by adding '–s' but by changing the vowel in the stem. Yet we still want to say that men are, morphologically, {man} + {PLU}, even though the form of {PLU} is quite different in this case. In the same way, it seems sensible to say that went = {go} + {PAST}, just as walked = {walk} + {PAST}, even though in the first case {PAST} involves a morphological change in form quite different from the usual adding of '–ed'.

5. Sometimes it is very difficult to identify morpheme boundaries. For example, the word 'hamburger' originally meant {Hamburg} = 'a city in Germany' + {er} = 'originating

from.' But probably most people now understand the word as meaning {ham} = 'ham' + {burger} = 'hot patty served on a round bun.'

Division of Morphemes into Various Types:
Lexical and Grammatical Morphemes:

Lexical morphemes are those that have meaning by themselves (more accurately, they have sense). Grammatical morphemes specify a relationship between other morphemes. But the distinction is not all that well defined. Nouns, verbs, adjectives ({boy}, {buy}, {big})are typical lexical morphemes. Prepositions, articles, conjunctions ({of}, {the}, {but}) are grammatical morphemes.

Free and Bound Morphemes:

Free morphemes are those that can stand alone as words. They may be lexical morphemes ({serve}, {press}), or grammatical morphemes ({at}, {and}). Bound morphemes can occur only in combination and they are parts of a word. They may be lexical morphemes such as {clued} as in include, exclude, preclude) or they may be grammatical (such as

{PLU} = plural as in boys, girls, and cats.

Inflectional and Derivational Morphemes:

One can make a further distinction within the set of morphemes that are both bound and grammatical. Bound grammatical morphemes (those that don't have a sense by themselves and, additionally, always occur in combinations) are commonly known as affixes.They can be further divided into inflectional affixes and derivational affixes. Here is some of the evidence for the distinction between inflectional and derivational affixes.

4

Inflectional Affixes	Derivational Affixes
All are suffixes	May be either suffixes or prefixes
Have a wide range of application. E.g. most English nouns can be made plural, with {PLU}	May have a wide or narrow range
All native to English (since Old English was spoken around 500-1000 AD)	Many were adopted from Latin, Greek, or other languages. (Though others, especially the suffixes, are native, including {full}, {like}, {ly}, and {AG})

Inflectional Affixes:

English has only eight inflectional affixes:

{PLU} = plural	Noun	-s	boys
{POSS} = possessive	Noun	-'s	boy's
{COMP} = comparative	Adj	-er	older
{SUP} = superlative	Adj	-est	oldest
{PRES} = present	Verb	-s	walks
{PAST} past	Verb	-ed	walked
{PAST PART} = past participle	Verb	-en	driven
{PRES PART} = present participle	Verb	-ing	driving

Notice that, as noted above, even irregular forms can be represented morphologically using

these morphemes. E.g., the irregular plural sheep is written as {sheep} + {PLU}, even though the typically form of {PLU} is not used here.

Similarly, better = {good} + {COMP}; drove = {drive} + {PAST}.

Derivational Affixes:

There are an indefinite number of derivational morphemes.

For example, the following are some derivational suffixes:

{ize} attaches to a noun and turns it into a verb: rubberize

{ize} also attaches to an adjective and turns it into a verb: normalize

{ful} attaches to a noun and turns it into an adjective: playful, helpful

{ly} attaches to an adjective and turns it into an adverb: grandly, proudly

A different {ly} attaches to a noun and changes it into an adjective: manly, friendly

English also has derivational prefixes, such as:

{un}, {dis}, {a}, {anti}, all of which indicate some kind of negation: unhappy, Dislike.

Inflectional Affixes:

{PLU} plural nouns are represented as root + {PLU}, whether or not {-s} is actually added to the root.

{POSS} possessive nouns are root + {poss.}, whether or not {-s} is added. It is a historical accident that both these affixes sound the same.

{COMP} and {SUP}. comparative and superlative adjectives. happier = {happy} + {COMP}; happiest = {happy} + {SUP}. Arguably, most beautiful = {beautiful} + {SUP}

The remaining inflectional affixes are attached to verb stems, forming present and past tenses and past participles. Webster's dictionary defines a participle as a word having

the characteristics of both verb and adjective; especially an English verbal form that has the function of an adjective and at the same time shows such verbal features as tense and voice and capacity to take an object.

Present Tense:

{PRES} present tense forms are root + {PRES}. But there is only a surface affix when there is a 3rd person singular subject. That's to say:

John loves Mary = {love} + {PRES} = {love} + {-s}

You love Mary = {love} + {PRES} = {love} + {Ø}

However, modal verbs – can/could, shall. Should, will/would, may/might and must show an absence of this third person singular '–s'.

John may love Mary.

When a modal verb occurs in a sentence, it is always the first verb form and is always followed by an uninflected verb form.

Past Tense:

{PAST} past tense verb forms. John walked = {walk} + {PAST}.

drove ={drive} + {PAST}

In English, only the first verb form is inflected for tense. For example:

I think; but I have thought; and I am thinking [??]

Past Participle:

{PAST PART} driven = {drive} + {PAST PART}

A past participle always follows a form of the auxiliary verb have (in a simple active sentence). (And if both a modal and the auxiliary have occur in the same sentence, have follows the modal: We may have gone.

They have walked home, but not They walked home. [past tense]

Gone, come, hit, walked are all past participles.

Present Participle:

{PRES PART} drinking = {drive} + {PRES PART}

Present participles always occur with an -ing suffix. In a simple active sentence, the present participle always follows a form of the auxiliary verb to be, as in "They were laughing."

If both the auxiliary occurs in the same sentence, the form of 'be' always follows the form of 'have': "We have been eating," not *We are have Eating.

Verb Forms:

Believe it or not, verbs in English are perfectly systematic.

Consider someone may have been knocking at the door

1. knocking is the main verb, since it is the right-most verb.

2. It is a present participle, because it immediately follows a form of be.

3. been is an auxiliary verb, because it is not right-most.

4. It is a past participle, because it immediately follows a form of have.

5. have is an auxiliary verb, because it is not right-most.

6. It is also uninflected, since it follows a modal (may).

7. may is a modal, because it lacks the third person singular –s.

8. It is inflected for present tense, since the first and only the first verb in a simple sentence in English is inflected for tense.

Word Formation Processes:

Obviously, words do not make words, people make words. But study of historical change in languages shows that people do so in ways that are systematic. Since children

often make words too, the study of historical language change has potential relevance to study of child language.

derivation: adding a derivational affix, thus changing the syntactic category. orient >orientation

category extension: extending a morpheme from one syntactic category to another. chair (N)

> chair (V)

compound: combining two old words to make one new one: put-down

root creation: inventing a brand-new word. Kodak

clipped form: shortening a word: brassiere > bra

blend: two words smooched together: smoke + fog > smog

acronym: the letters of a title become a word: NASA

abbreviation: a little like clipping: television > TV

proper name: hamburger < Hamburg

folk etymology: a foreign word is assimilated to native forms: cucuracha (Spanish) > cockroach (English)

back formation: removing what is mistaken for an affix. burglar > burgle

Nouns:

Nouns are words that name or denote a person, thing, action, or quality. They are "thing" words, although "things" can include all sorts of abstract ideas that might otherwise look more like verbs or adjectives. In various languages, they are marked, by affixes or particles, as to their number, gender, definiteness, and especially cases.

Definiteness concerns the extent to which we are talking about a specific thing or

event, one that is known to the speakers, or about something less well defined, such as any old thing, or something not specific. In English, the definite is marked by the article *the*. It can also be marked by otherwords, such as *this, that, my, yours,* and so on. The indefinite is marked by the article *a* or *an,* as well as the plural without an article, or words such as *one, two, some, any,* etc. On the other hand, many languages like Latin, Russian, Hindi and Chinese do not use articles at all. In number of languages, the definite is marked with a suffix. This is true of Swedish, Danish, Norwegian, Icelandic, Rumanian, Bulgarian, and Albanian, among others. The Scandinavian languages are, of course, closely related, so we would expect them to share a feature like this. But Rumanian, Bulgarian, and Albanian are only distantly related. It seems that they influenced each other, or perhaps there were people living in the Balkans in ancient times who influenced them all.

Number, of course, refers to how many of the item we are talking about. There are three common numbers: Singular, meaning one; plural, meaning more than one; and somewhat rarer, the dual, meaning two. One can see the significance of the dual in our own use of words such as couple, pair, and so on. Again, many languages do not mark the plural, much less the dual. The most complex aspect of nouns is cases, also known as declensions. Philosophers in ancient Greece and India were already discussing this as much as 2500 years ago. Much of the terminology we still use today was invented during the Roman Empire, and reflects the cases used in Latin.

The first case is the nominative, roughly the subject of the sentence. In many languages, it is the basic form, sometimes represented by the bare stem. A second case is the vocative, which is the form used when calling out to someone. The rest of the cases are referred to as oblique or objective. Languages that make many distinctions among the oblique cases use them in the same way that other languages use prepositions.

Accusative - the direct object of the verb: *He threw the ball.*

Dative - the indirect object: *He threw it to John.*

Ablative expressed in English with the preposition from: *He threw from first base.*

Locative - expressed in English with prepositions such as *at* or *in: We were at the hotdog stand in the stadium.*

Genitive - the possessive form, often expressed in English with the word *of,* but also with the case *'s: It was John's ball.*

Instrumental - expressed in English with prepositions like *with: He hit it with a bat.*

Sociative - also expressed in English with *with,* but now referring to people: *I went out with her.*

There are many others. A language in the Caucasus Mountains called Tassaran has 48 noun cases. However, many linguists point out that cases should only refer to in flexional languages such as Latin. Agglutinative languages such as Finnish can be better thought of as having post positions that are attached to the noun, since they are very consistent and easy to recognize, unlike the cases in Latin. Here is an example of the Russian word for *country*, singular and plural:

	Singular	plural
Nominative	*Stra**na***	*stra**ny***
Accusative	*Stra**nu***	*stra**ny***
Genitive	*Stra**ny***	*stra**n***
Dative	*Stra**ne***	*stra**nam***
Instrumental	*Stra**noj***	*stra**nomi***
Locative	*Stra**ne***	*stra**nax***

This will not be such a strain, until there are several different declensions, and quite a few

exceptions as well. Compare that with an example of the word for *man* in Tamil, a Dravidian language of Southern India:

	Singular	Plural
nominative	*Maintain*	*manitar**kal***
accusative	*Manitan**ai***	*manitar**kalai***
Dative	*Manitan**ukku***	*manitar**kalukku***
sociative	*manitan**otu***	*manitar**kalotu***
genitive	*manitan**utaiya***	*manitar**kalutaiya***
instrumental	*manitan**al***	*manitar**kalal***
Locative	*manitan**itam***	*manitar**kalitam***
Ablative	*manitan**itamiruntu***	*manitar**kalitamiruntu***

Although there are even more cases, these endings are the same for all other nouns. And, notice how the plural is just a matter of sticking *kal* in between the stem and the affix.

In most languages, the subject of an intransitive verb *(he sits)* is in the same form (i.e., the nominative) as the subject of a transitive verb *(he sees him)*, and the object of a transitive verb is different (i.e., the accusative). These languages are known as nominative-accusative languages. But there are also languages where the subject of an intransitive verb is in the same form as the object of a transitive verb (i.e., the absolutive), and the subject of a transitive verb is different (i.e., the ergative). In these languages, it would be as if we said *he sees him* but then *him sits!* These are called ergative-absolutive languages. Among the ergative-absolutive languages are Basque, the northern Caucasian languages, many Australian aborigine languages, Eskimo-Aleut, and many other languages of north and central America. They are all verb-first or verb-last languages.

Gender is perhaps the oddest noun variation. It is called gender because it is loosely tied to the physical sex of people and animals. Many languages differentiate between masculine nouns and feminine nouns, with different endings for each, and requiring different articles and adjective forms along with them. French, Spanish, Italian, and Portuguese are examples. Other languages, such as German, count three genders: Masculine, feminine, and neuter. Neuter presumably refers to things that do not have a gender, but there is little consistency there. In Dutch, there are two genders, but they are neuter and common, common deriving from what was originally masculine and feminine. English nouns have no gender.

Many languages outside the European sphere differentiate between animate and inanimate, one referring to people, animals, and spirits, the other things. And there are many languages that make many differentiations: Bantu languages, for example, have many noun categories, such as "long, thin things," "body parts," "places," and so on. In Chinese, there is a strong isolating (non-affix) version of this: When you want to indicate more than one of something, you must use a special word called a classifier betweenthe number and the object. This is analogous to the way one might say *three head of cattle*. There are still more examples of noun variation: Diminutives express smallness, and augmentatives express largeness. Diminutives are often also used to express affection, and augmentatives sometimes express danger or evil. Some languages have a variety of honorifics, often suffixes or prefixes that indicatestatus. The Japanese -*san* is a well-known example. There are also affixes that indicate lowly status, and in some languages several different degrees of status.

Pronouns:

Pronouns are words that serve as place holders for nouns. Instead of referring to a person by his or her name, we use *he* or *she;* instead of naming something repeatedly, we refer to it as *it*. Pronouns have many of the same variations as nouns, including gender, number, and case. There are also three persons that are differentiated in most languages. First refers to the person speaking or his/her group (I, me; we, us); Second person refers to

the person spoken to or his/her group (you); And the third person refers to other people outside the conversation or to things (he, him, she, her,it, they, them). In English, for example,

	nominative	oblique	possessive (adjective)	possessive (pronominal)
first person singular	*I*	*me*	My	mine
second person singular		*You*	Your	Yours
third person singular male	*he*	*him*		His
third person singular female	*she*		Her	Hers
third person singular neuter		*It*		*Its*
first person plural	*we*	*us*	Our	Ours
third person plural	*They*	*Them*	*Their*	*theirs*

In some languages, there are two forms of the third person plural: One is inclusive, and refers to the speaker and the listener together *(Why don't we go have a drink together sometime?);* the other is exclusive, and refers to the speaker's group distinct from the listener *(We are going to beat your team!).* There are also pronouns that reflect the action back onto the subject appropriately named reflexive pronouns. In English, they are often marked with *-self (myself, yourself, himself,* etc.). In many languages, there is a generic reflexive for the third person singular or even third person singular and plural.

Politeness is often an issue with pronouns. In many European languages, there is a distinction made between a familiar and a formal version of the second person singular. In French, for example, you call your friends '*tu'* and your parents, teachers, or boss '*vous'.* You do not switch to '*tu'* until it is subtly agreed between the two of you that it is okay to *'tutoyer.'* In some Asian languages, there is considerably more detail involved. There are other kinds of pronouns besides the personal ones.

Demonstrative pronouns include *this, that, these,* and *those.* Many languages have three sets of these, one for things nearby the speaker, one for things nearby the listener, and one for things away from either.

Indefinite pronouns include words such as *someone, anyone, many,* and so on. Like the indefinite article, they do not indicate precisely whom are what we are talking about.

Interrogative pronouns are used to ask question: *Who is that man?*

Relative pronouns are used to connect a noun with a clause that gives more detail about the noun: *He is the one whom you saw yesterday.* As you can see, in English, these two groups of pronouns are often the same.

Verbs:

Verbs are words which express action taken by something, the state something is in or a change in that state, or an interaction between one thing and another. Like nouns, there are many variations of verbs. Transitive verbs are ones that have both a subject and an object:

John hit the ball. John is the subject and ball the object of the verb hit. Intransitive verbs are ones that only have a subject: *I laughed.* There is nothing that is laughed (except, I suppose, the laugh itself.) Many verbs have an intermediate form called the reflexive, meaning that the subjectis also the object: *I hurt myself.* As the example shows, reflexive verb forms often take a reflexive pronoun as their object. But there are reflexive verbs that do not: *They got married.*

The biggest issue with verb forms is conjugation. In some languages, it is a fairly simple matter; in others, there are a huge variety of affixes. Most familiar to Europeans are tenses. Many languages differentiate between the past tense, the present tense, and the future tense. Some languages also differentiate various details of timing, such as an immediate form, a proximate form (near in time), anda distal form (the distant past or future.) Quite a few languages (Russian and Japanese included) only distinguish past from non-past.

Aspect is actually much older, and seems to tie into our psychology as human beings. The perfect aspect tells us that the action is finished, completed or perfected. In English, it is represented by various forms of the word *to have,* followed by the past participle: *I had said* (past perfect), *I have said* (present perfect), *I will have said* (future perfect). As the last one suggests, by thetime we reach a particular point in the future, my saying something will be over and done with. There is a passive version of the perfect called the effective. In English, an example might be *He got seen.*

The imperfect (durative or continuative) has an ongoing tone to it: The action continues through the moment. In English, we use a form of the verb *to be* followed by the present participle: *I was saying, I am saying, I will be saying.* There are a number of variations on the imperfect aspect. The progressive - *I have been saying* suggests that the action started a bit earlier and continues through the present. The iterative (repetitive) I *keep saying* indicates that a single action is repeatedly performed. And the inceptive (commencement) *Let's get going* says tous that the action should get started.

Finally, there is the simple (or indefinite) aspect. This includes the usual tenses used as is: *I said, I say, I will say.* The simple past is often called the preterit. Next up is mood or mode. The basic form is the indicative: We are saying something that happened, is happening, or will happen. A version of the indicative is the stative, which indicates that someone or something is in a particular state, as opposed to taking a particular action: *He sits.* The next three are used when there is a degree of unreality involved, and are often blended together. The optative (desiderative) indicates a desire or wish for something to happen. In English, this is usually expressed with auxiliary (helper) verbs such as *should* or *would*, as well as with expressions such as *I wish.*

The conditional mood is used when the reality of one event depends on the reality of another: *I will go if you go.* English has the remnants of a conditional: We say *If I were to go* rather than *If I was to go.* But it is rapidly going the way of the *who-whom* distinction. The subjunctive mood is used when there is some doubt or uncertainty about the event. Many languages have entire conjugations of subjunctive, in various tenses and aspects. It was the bane of my high school French class. There are other moods. In Japanese, for example, there are provisional and tentative versions of verbs. And many languages have the imperative: *Do this!* In English this is expressed by leaving out the subject *(you).*

Next, we have various voices. The active voice is the basic one. It is used when the subject performs an action. The passive voice is used when the subject of the sentence is actually the object of the action. In English, we use a form of *to be* with the past participle: *I was hit.* The causative is a voice used when the subject causes the object to perform an action, as in *He made me do it.* When the causative is combined with the reflexive, it is called the dynamic: *They married themselves.*

Person is an aspect of verb forms in many languages. Most commonly, there is an ending or other affix that indicates something about the subject (such as first, second, or third person, gender, and singular or plural). In English, the only person ending left in almost all

17

verbs is the -s in the third person singular of the present tense (*he does,* vs *I, you, we, he, she, it, or they do*). In addition, some languages have variations that express various levels of politeness. Another common verb variation is the negative. In English, we use the word *not* afterone of several auxiliary (see below) verbs. There is a tendency, however, for many verbs to change in the negative, by combining with the *not: I can't, I won't, I don't, I ain't.* Although we can still see where they come from (and the apostrophe reminds us), they are well on their way to becoming separate forms.

Participles are forms of the verb that are often used in such compound verbs. In English, we have two: The past participle (which usually ends in -ed, just like the past tense) and the present participle (which ends in -ing). Participles are also used as adjectives: *He is a dancing fool. He was a beaten man.* And they can even be used as nouns: *Help the downtrodden. Winning is everything.* Note that the past participle is often referred to as the passive participle, and the present participle as the active participle.

Another form of the verb often used in compound verbs is the infinitive. In English, we do not have a real infinitive form, and we just put *to* in front of it: *To sleep, perchance to dream.* And so, we say *He wants to run,* a compound made with *wants* plus the infinitive of *run*. In many languages, there is a special form. In French, for example, it usually ends in -r, and is used as the dictionary form.

There are many forms of verbal nouns (gerunds) i.e., verbs used as nouns, with or without special endings. The infinitive and the participles are examples. But we can also use the verb as is in many languages - English being the best example, since we do it all the time: *I dance* and *I go to the dance* and *I do a dance* and *I devote my life to the dance!*

UNIT II
SYNTAX

The grammatical structure of language comprises two major parts – morphology and syntax. The two areas are obviously interdependent and together they constitute the study of grammar. Morphology deals with paradigmatic and syntagmatic properties of morphological units – morphemes and words. It is concerned with the internal structure of words and their relationship to other words and word forms within the paradigm. It studies morphological categories and their realization.

Syntax, on the other hand, deals with the way words are combined. It is concerned with the external functions of words and their relationship to other words within the linearly ordered units: word groups, sentences and texts. Syntax studies the way in which the units and their meanings are combined. It also deals with peculiarities of syntactic units, their behavior in different contexts. Syntactic units may be analyzed from different points of view, and accordingly different syntactic theories exist.

In linguistics, syntax is the study of how words and morphemes combine to form larger units such as phrases and sentences. Central concerns of syntax include word order, grammatical relations, hierarchical sentence structure (constituency), agreement, the nature of cross linguistic variation, and the relationship between form and meaning. There are numerous approaches to syntax which differ in their central assumptions and goals.

Syntax is the set of rules governing how words combine into phrases and clauses. It deals with the formation of sentences, including rules governing or describing how sentences are formed. In traditional usage, syntax is sometimes called grammar, but the word grammar is also used more broadly to refer to various aspects of language and its usage.

Traditional and Structural Syntax:

Transformational-generative Grammar:

The Transformational grammar was first suggested by American scholar, Zelling Harris as a method of analyzing sentences and was later elaborated by another American scholar, Noam Chomsky as a synthetic method of 'generating' (constructing) sentences. The main point of the Transformational-generative Grammar is that the endless variety of sentences in a language can be reduced to a finite number of kernels by means of transformations. These kernels serve the basis for generating sentences by means of syntactic processes. Different language analysts recognize the existence of different number of kernels (from 3 to 39). The following 6 kernels are commonly associated with the English language:

(1) NV – *John sings*.

(2) NV Adj. – *John is happy*.

(3) NVN – *John is a man*.

(4) NVN – *John hit the man.*

(5) NVNN – *John gave the man a book*.

(6) NV Prep. N – *The book is on the table*.

It should be noted that (3) differs from (4) because the former admits no passive transformation. Transformational method proves useful for analysing sentences from the point of their deep structure.

Flying planes can be dangerous.

This sentence is ambiguous, two senses can be distinguished: a) the action of flying planes can be dangerous, b) the planes that fly can be dangerous.

Constructional Syntax:

Constructional analysis of syntactic units was initiated by Prof. G. Pocheptsov in his book published in Kyiv in 1971. This analysis deals with the constructional significance/insignificance of a part of the sentence for the whole syntactic unit. The theory is based on the obligatory or optional environment of syntactic elements. For example, the element *him* in the sentence *I saw him there yesterday* is constructionally significant because it is impossible to omit it. At the same time the elements *there* and *yesterday* are constructionally insignificant, and they can be omitted without destroying the whole structure.

Communicative Syntax:

It is primarily concerned with the analysis of utterances from the point of their communicative value and informative structure. It deals with the actual division of the utterance – the theme and rheme analysis. Both the theme and the rheme constitute the informative structure of utterances. The theme is something that is known already while the rheme represents some new information. Depending on the contextual informative value any sentence element can act as the theme or the rheme.

In traditional grammar syntax, a sentence is analyzed as having two parts, a subject and a predicate. The subject is the thing being talked about. In English and similar languages, the subject usually occurs at the beginning of the sentence, but this is not always the case. The predicate comprises the rest of the sentence, all of the parts of the sentence that are not the subject. The subject of a sentence is generally a noun or pronoun, or a phrase containing a noun or pronoun. If the sentence features active voice, the thing named by the subject carries out the action of the sentence; in the case of passive voice, the subject is affected by the action. In sentences with imperative mood, the subject may not be expressed.

Zoltan ate the cake. (Zoltan, the subject of this active sentence, carried out the action of eating.)

21

The cake was baked for Zora's birthday. (The cake, the subject of this passive sentence, is affected by the action of baking.)

Bake another cake. (In this imperative sentence, the subject is not expressed. The implied subject is you.)

The predicate of a sentence may have many parts, but the only required element is a finite verb. In addition to the verb, the predicate may contain one or more objects, a subject complement, object complements, appositional phrases (in English, these are prepositional phrases), or adverbial elements.

Some verbs (called transitive verbs) take direct objects; some also take indirect objects. A direct object names the person or thing directly affected by the action of an active sentence. An indirect object names the entity indirectly affected. In a sentence with both a direct and an indirect object, the indirect object generally appears before the direct object. In the following sentence, the direct object, the book, is directly affected by the action; it is what is given. The indirect object, Nikolai, is indirectly affected; he receives thebook as a result of it being given.

Yuri gave Nikolai the book.

In place of an indirect object, a prepositional phrase beginning with to or for may occur after the direct object.

A subject complement (variously called a predicative expression, predicative, predicate noun or adjective, or complement) appears in a predicate with a linking verb (also called a copula). A subject complement is a noun, adjective, or phrase that refers to the subject of the linking verb, illustrated in the following examples.

Elizabeth is a doctor

Salim is Clever.

Kerli is from Estonia.

Traditional grammar treats the parts of speech as the building blocks for everysentence. Words are labelled as belonging to one of the eight parts of speech. The word's parts of speech depend upon its role or function in a sentence.

Now look at the following examples:

We shall fight to the last. (Noun)

We shall fight to the last man. (Adjective)

The rain lasted for two hours. (verb)

The child was found at long last. (Adverb)

Structural Grammar describes how sounds, word forms and word positions affect meaning. It concerns itself with two meanings in each sentence, the lexical meaning and the structural meaning. The lexical meaning is the dictionary meaning of the words. The structural meaning comes from how the words are formed and where they are positioned in the sentence.

Parts of Speech:

There are eight parts of speech in the English language: noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection. The part of speech indicates how the word functions in meaning as well as grammatically within the sentence. An individual word can function as more than one part of speech when used in different circumstances. Understanding parts of speech is essential for determining the correct definition of a word when using the dictionary.

1. Noun:

A noun is the name of a person, place, thing, or idea. Nouns are often used with an article (the, a, an), but not always. Proper nouns always start with a capital letter; common nouns do not. Nouns can be singular or plural, concrete or abstract. Nouns can function in different roles within a sentence; for example, a noun canbe a subject, direct object, indirect

object, subject complement, or object of a preposition.

- Common nouns are generic: girl, boy, city, ship, desk, courage

- Proper nouns are specific: Juliet, Romeo, St. Louis, Titanic

2. Pronoun:

A pronoun is a word used in place of a noun. It is usually substituted for a specific noun, which is called its antecedent. Pronouns are further defined by type: personal pronouns refer to specific persons or things; possessive pronouns indicate ownership; reflexive pronouns are used to emphasize another noun or pronoun; relative pronouns introduce a subordinate clause; and demonstrative pronouns identify, point to, or refer to nouns.

- Personal pronouns: I, me, you, they, them, she, her, he, him, it, we, us

- Relative pronouns: who, whom, whose, which, that, what

- Interrogative pronouns (used in questions): who, which, what, whose

- Demonstrative pronouns: this, that, these and those

- Indefinite pronouns (a partial list): all, anybody, anyone, both, each, everyone, everybody, many, none, several, someone.

3. Verb:

The verb in a sentence expresses action or being. There is a main verb and sometimes one or more helping verbs. ('She can sing.' Sing is the main verb; can is the helping verb.) A verb must agree with its subject in number (both are singular or both are plural). Verbs also take different forms to express tense.

- Action verbs: see, run, jump, sing, study, dance, cry, shout, buy, sell, fix, think, wonder, etc.

- State of being verbs: am, is, was, were, will be, became, appear, seem, look, feel, etc.

- ☐ Modal verbs: can, could, will, would, shall, should, ought, must, may, might, etc. These verbs are found in verbal phrases, seldom by themselves: can see, will run, might study, must sell, etc.
- ☐ Auxiliary verbs: am, is, are, was, were, have, had, etc.

In a verbal phrase, remember that the modal or auxiliary verb may be separated from the main verb, especially in a question:

- o *Did* you *hear* me call?

- o She *is* not *going* with us.

- o How long *have* you *been working* at McDonald's?

4. Adjective:

An adjective is a word used to modify or describe a noun or a pronoun. It usually answers the question of which one, what kind, or how many. (Articles [a, an, the] are usually classified as adjectives.) For example:

- ☐ *brown* eyes
- ☐ *that* person

Adjectives tell...

- ☐ what kind: *brown* eyes
- ☐ which one: *that* person

5. Adverb:

An adverb describes or modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb, but never a noun. It usually answers the questions of when, where, how, why, under what conditions, or to what degree. Adverbs often end in -ly.

- The orchestra played *beautifully*. (How?)

- The band has played *there*. (Where?)

- The choir sang *long*. (To what extent?)

- He is *extremely* capable. (How capable?)

- She danced *very* slowly. (How slowly?)

6. Preposition:

A preposition is a word placed before a noun or pronoun to form a phrase modifying another word in the sentence. Therefore, a preposition is always part of a prepositional phrase. The prepositional phrase almost always functions as an adjective or as an adverb. The English language has more than 40 prepositions, including: above, across, behind, below, down, in, off, on, under, through, into, of, on account of, in spite of, etc.

7. Conjunction:

A conjunction joins words, phrases, or clauses, and indicates the relationship between the elements joined. Coordinating conjunctions connect grammatically equal elements: and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet. Subordinating conjunctions connect clauses that are not equal: because, although, while, since, etc. There are other types of conjunctions as well.

- Subordinate conjunctions: when, while, although, because, since, if, until, even though, etc.

- Coordinate conjunctions: for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so

- Correlative conjunctions (used in pairs): neither/nor; either/or; not only/ but also; both/and

8. Interhection:

An interjection is a word used to express emotion. An interjection expresses an emotion such as delight, surprise, or disgust. It is often followed by an exclamation point.

☐ (Delight) Wow! Gosh! Golly! For heaven's sake!

☐ (Surprise) Oh! Ah! Yikes! Gee!

☐ (Disgust) Yuck! Ugh! Bah!

Basic Syntactic Units and their Types:

The basic units of syntax are phrases and sentences. Each of them has its own characteristics and purpose. Also, syntax units include text and a complex syntactic whole. The syntactic language level can be described with the help of special linguistic terms and notions: syntactic unit, syntactic form, syntactic meaning, syntactic function, syntactic position, and syntactic relations. Syntactic unit is always a combination that has at least two constituents. The basic syntactic units are a word group, a clause, a sentence, and a text. Their main features are:

a) they are hierarchical units – the units of a lower level serve the building material for the units of a higher level;

b) as all language units the syntactic units are of two-fold nature:

c) they are of communicative and non-communicative nature – word groups and clauses are of non-communicative nature while sentences and texts are of communicative nature.

Syntactic meaning is the way in which separate word meanings are combined to produce meaningful word groups and sentences. In *Green ideas sleep furiously*, the sentence is quite correct grammatically. However, it makes no sense as it lacks syntactic meaning. Syntactic form may be described as the distributional formula of the unit (pattern).

John hits the ball – N1 + V + N2.

Syntactic function is the function of a unit on the basis of which it is included to a

larger unit: in the word-group a smart student the word 'smart' is in subordinate attributive relations to the head element. In traditional terms it is used to denote syntactic function of a unit within the sentence (subject, predicate, etc.). Syntactic position is the position of an element. The order of constituents in syntacticunits is of principal importance in analytical languages. The syntactic position of an elementmay determine its relationship with the other elements of the same unit: his broad back, a back district, to go back. Syntactic relations are syntagmatic relations observed between syntactic units. They can be of three types – coordination, subordination and predication. The syntactic units cango into three types of syntactic relations.

1. Coordination – syntagmatic relations of independence. Coordination may be symmetric and asymmetric. Symmetric coordination is characterized by complete interchangeability of its elements: *pens and pencils*. Asymmetric coordination occurs when the position of elements is fixed: *ladies and gentlemen*. Forms of connection within SR1 may be copulative (*you and me*),disjunctive (*you or me*), adversative (*strict but just*) and causative-consecutive (sentence and text level only).

2. Subordination – syntagmatic relations of dependence. They are observed on the phrase and sentence level. Subordination may be of three different kinds – adverbial (*to speak slowly*), objective (*to see a house*) and attributive (*a beautiful flower*). Forms of subordination may alsobe different – agreement (*this book –these books*), government (*help us*), adjournment (the use of modifying particles *just, only, even, etc.*) and enclosure (the use of modal words and their equivalents *really, after all, etc.*).

3. Predication – syntagmatic relations of interdependence. Predication may be of two kinds – primary (sentence level) and secondary (phrase level). It is observed between the subject and the predicate of the sentence while secondary predication isobserved between non-finite forms of the verb and nominal elements within the sentence. Secondary predication serves the basis for gerundial, infinitive and participial word groups (predicative complexes).

28

Word Order:

In linguistics, word order (also known as linear order) is the order of the syntactic constituents of a language. Word order typology studies it from a cross-linguistic perspective, and examines how different languages employ different orders. Correlations between orders found in different syntactic sub-domains are also of interest. The primary word orders that are of interest are the constituent order of a clause, namely the relative order of subject, object, and verb; the order of modifiers (adjectives numerals, demonstratives, possessives, and adjuncts) in a noun phrase; the order of adverbials.

Some languages use relatively fixed word order, often relying on the order of constituents to convey grammatical information. Other languages often those that convey grammatical information through inflection allow more flexible word order, which can be used to encode pragmatic information, such as topicalization or focus. However, even languages with flexible word order have a preferred or basic word order, with other word orders considered marked. Constituent word order is defined in terms of a finite verb (V) in combination with two arguments, namely the subject (S), and object (O). Subject and object are here understood to be *nouns*, since pronouns often tend to display different word order properties.Thus, a transitive sentence has six logically possible basic word orders:

- about half of the world's languages deploy subject–object–verb order (SOV);

- about one-third of the world's languages deploy subject–verb–object order (SVO);

- a smaller fraction of languages deploys verb–subject–object (VSO) order;

- the remaining three arrangements are rarer: verb–object–subject (VOS) is slightly more common than object–verb–subject (OVS), and object–subject–verb (OSV) is the rarest by a significant margin.

There are a lot of definitions concerning the word group. The most adequate one

seems to be the following: the word group is a combination of at least two notional words which do not constitute the sentence but are syntactically connected. According to some other scholars, a combination of a notional word with a function word may be treated as a word group as well. The problem is disputable as the role of function words is to show some abstract relations and they are devoid of nominative power. On the other hand, such combinations are syntactically bound and they should belong somewhere.

General Characteristics of the Word Group are:

1) As a naming unit it differs from a compound word because the number of constituents in a word group corresponds to the number of different denotates.

2) Each component of the word group can undergo grammatical changes without destroying the identity of the whole unit: *to see a house - to see houses.*

3) A word group is a dependent syntactic unit, it is not a communicative unit and has no intonation of its own.

Classification of Word Groups:

Word groups can be classified on the basis of several principles.

1. According to the type of syntagmatic relations: **coordinate** (*you and me),* **subordinate** (*to see a house, a nice dress*), **predicative** (*him coming, for him to come*),

2. According to the structure: **simple** (all elements are obligatory), **expanded** (*to read and translate the text* – expanded elements are equal in rank), **extended** (a word takes a dependent element and this dependent element becomes the head for another word: *a beautiful flower – a very beautiful flower*).

3. Subordinate word groups:

Subordinate word-groups are based on the relations of dependence between the constituents. Element which is called **the head** and the dependent element which is called

the adjunct (in noun-phrases) or **the complement** (in verb-phrases). According to the nature of their heads, subordinate word groups fall into **noun phrases** (NP) – *a cup of tea*, **verb phrases** (VP) – *to run fast*, *to see a house*, **adjective phrases** (AP) – *good for you*, **adverbial phrases** (DP) – *so quickly*, **pronoun phrases** (IP) – *something strange, nothing to do*. The formation of the subordinate word group depends on the valency of its constituents. **Valency** is a potential ability of words to combine. Actual realization of valency in speech is called combinability.
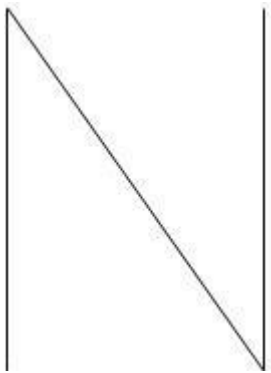
The noun-phrase (NP):

Noun word groups are widely spread in English. This may be explained by a potential ability of the noun to go into combinations with practically all parts of speech. The NP consists of a noun head and an adjunct or adjuncts with relations of modification between them. Three types of modification are distinguished here:

a.   **Premodification** that comprises all the units placed before the head: *two smart hard working students.* Adjuncts used in pre-head position are called **pre-posed** adjuncts.

b.   **Post modification** that comprises all the units all the units placed after thehead: *students from Boston.* Adjuncts used in post-head position are called **post-posed** adjuncts.

c.   **Mixed modification** that comprises all the units in both pre-head and post-headposition: *two smart hard working students from Boston.*

Pre-posed adjuncts		Post-posed adjuncts
Pronoun	Adj.	
Adj.	Ven	
N2	Ving	
N`s	prep.N2	
Ven	prepVing	
Ving	D	
Num	Num	
D	wh-clause, that-clause	

Noun phrases with pre-posed adjuncts:

In noun phrases with pre-posed modifiers we generally find adjectives, pronouns, numerals, participles, gerunds, nouns, nouns in the genitive case (see the table). According to their position all pre-posed adjuncts may be divided into **pre-adjectivals** and **adjectiavals**. The position of adjectivals is usually right before the noun-head. Pre-adjectivals occupy the position before adjectivals. They fall into two groups: a) **limiters** (to this group belong mostly particles) and b) **determiners** (articles, possessive pronouns, quantifiers).

Premodification of nouns by nouns (N+N) is one of the most striking features about the grammatical organization of English. It is one of devices to make our speech both laconic and expressive at the same time. Noun adjunct groups result from different kinds of transformational shifts. NPs with pre-posed adjuncts can signal a striking variety of meanings:

world peace – peace all over the world

silver box – a box made of silver

table lamp – lamp for tables

table legs – the legs of the tableriver

sand – sand from the river

school child – a child who goes to school

The grammatical relations observed in NPs with pre-posed adjuncts may convey the following meanings:

d. subject-predicate relations: *weather change*;

e. object relations: *health service, women hater;*

f. adverbial relations:

a) of time: *morning star,*

b) place: *world peace, country house,*

c) comparison: *button eyes,*

d) purpose: *tooth brush.*

It is important to remember that the noun adjunct is usually marked by a strongerstress than the head. Of special interest is a kind of 'grammatical idiom' where the modifier is reinterpreted into the head: *a devil of a man, an angel of a girl.*

4. Noun phrases with post-posed adjuncts:

NPs with post-posed may be classified according to the way of connection into

prepositionless and **prepositional**. The basic prepositionless NPs with post-posed adjuncts are: Nadj. – *tea strong*, NVen – *the shape unknown*, NVing – *the girl smiling*, ND - *the man downstairs*, NV in f – *a book to read*, NNum – *room ten*.

The pattern of basic prepositional NPs is N1 prep. N2. The most common preposition here is 'of' – *a cup of tea*, *a man of courage*. It may have quite different meanings: **qualitative**-*a woman of sense*, **predicative** – *the pleasure of the company*, **objective** – *the reading of the newspaper*, **partitive**– *the roof of the house.*

The Verb-phrase:

The VP is a definite kind of the subordinate phrase with the verb as the head. The verb is considered to be the semantic and structural center not only of the VP but of the whole sentence as the verb plays an important role in making up primary predication that serves the basis for the sentence. VPs are more complex than NPs as there are a lot of ways in which verbs may be combined in actual usage. Valent properties of different verbs and their semantics make it possible to divide all the verbs into several groups depending on the nature of their complements.

Classification of Verb-phrases:

VPs can be classified according to the nature of their complements – verb complements may be nominal (*to see a house*) and adverbial (*to behave well*). Consequently, we distinguish **nominal, adverbial** and **mixed** complementation. Nominal complementation takes place when one or more nominal complements (nouns or pronouns) are obligatory for the realization of potential valency of the verb: *to give smth. to smb., to phone smb., to hear smth.(smb.), etc.*

Adverbial complementation occurs when the verb takes one or more adverbial elements obligatory for the realization of its potential valency: *He behaved well, I live in Kyiv (here).*

34

Mixed complementation – both nominal and adverbial elements are obligatory: *He put his hat on the table* (nominal-adverbial).

According to the structure VPs may be basic or simple (*to take a book)* – all elements are obligatory; expanded (*to read and translate the text, to read books and newspapers*) and extended (*to read an English book*).

Predicative Word Groups:

Predicative word combinations are distinguished on the basis of secondary predication. Like sentences, predicative word groups are binary in their structure but actually differ essentially in their organization. The sentence is an independent communicative unit based on primary predication while the predicative word group is a dependent syntactic unit that makes up a part of the sentence. The predicative word groupconsists of a nominal element (noun, pronoun) and a non-finite form of the verb: N + V non-fin. There are Gerundial, Infinitive and Participial word-groups (complexes) in the English language: *his reading*, *for me to know, the boy running, etc.)*

Sentence:

It is rather difficult to define the sentence as it is connected with many lingual and extra lingual aspects – logical, psychological and philosophical. We will just stick to one of them - according to academician, G. Pocheptsov, the sentence is the central syntactic construction used as the minimal communicative unit that has its primary predication, actualizes a definite structural scheme and possesses definite intonation characteristics. This definition works only in case we do not take into account the difference between the sentence and the utterance. The distinction between the sentence and the utterance is of fundamental importance because the sentence is an abstract theoretical entity defined within the theory of grammar while the utterance is the actual use of the sentence. In other words, the sentence is a unit of language while the utterance is a unit of speech.

The most essential features of the sentence as a linguistic unit are

a) its **structural** characteristics – subject-predicate relations (primary predication), and

b) its **semantic** characteristics – it refers to some fact in the objective reality. It is represented in the language through a conceptual reality:
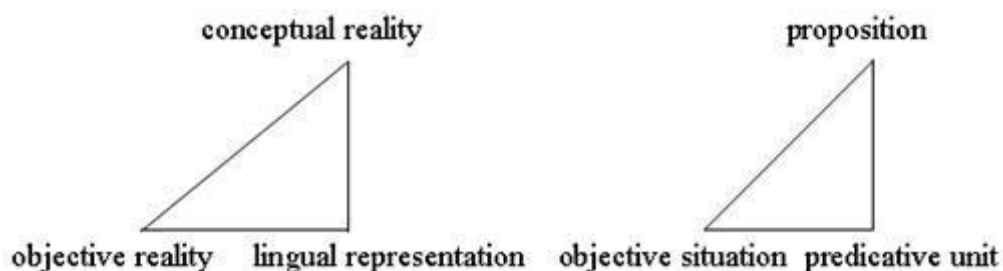

We may define the proposition as the main predicative form of thought. Basic predicative meanings of the typical English sentence are expressed by the finite verb that is immediately connected with the subject of the sentence (primary predication). To sum it up, the sentence is a syntactic level unit, it is a predicative language unit which is a lingual representation of predicative thought (proposition).

Different Approaches to the Study of the Sentence:

a) Principal and secondary parts of the sentence.

b) Immediate constituents of the sentence. IC analysis.

To grasp the real structure of the English sentence, one must understand not only words that occur but also the principles of their arrangement. Each language has its own way of structural grouping. English has dichotomousphrase structure, which means that the phrase in English can always be divided into twoelements (constituents) until we get down to the single word. All groups of words are arranged in levels. The name given by linguists to these different levels of relationship is **immediate constituents**. Thus, one way of analyzing a sentence is to cut it to its immediate constituents, that is,to single out different levels of meaning:
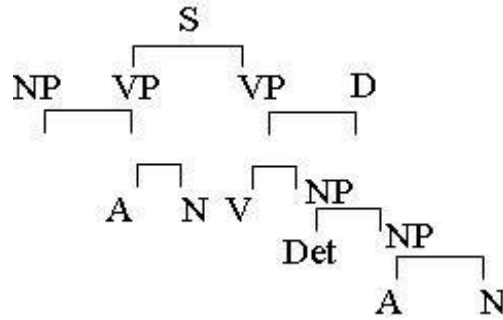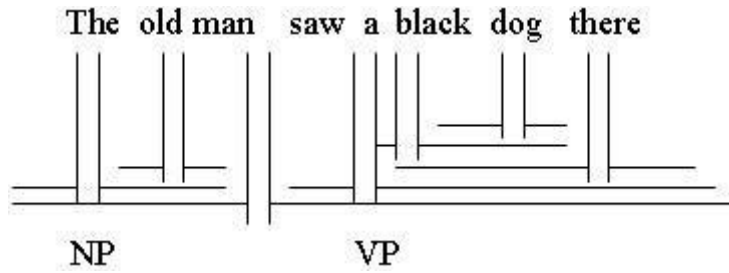
It is obvious that dividing a sentence into ICs does not provide much information. Nevertheless, it can sometimes prove useful if we want to account for the ambiguity of certain constructions. A classic example is the phrase *old men and women* which can be interpreted in two different ways. Ambiguity of this kind is referred to as syntactic ambiguity. By providing IC analysis we can make the two meanings clear:
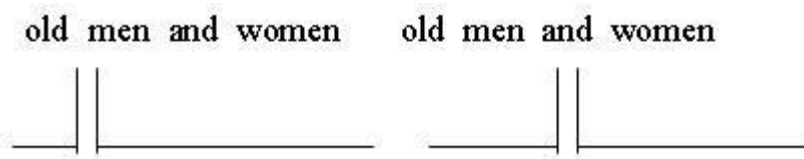
X p>

c) Oppositional Analysis:

The oppositional method in syntax means correlating different sentence types: they possess common features and differential features. Differential features serve the basis for analysis. E.g., two-member sentence: one member sentence (John worked: John! Work! Or: I speak English: I don't speak English.

d) Constructional Analysis:

According to the constructional approach, not only the subject and the predicate but also all the necessary constituents of primary predication constitute the main parts because they are constructionally significant. Therefore, the secondary parts of the sentence are sometimes as necessary and important as the main ones. If we omit the object and the adverbial modifier in the following sentences they will become grammatically and semantically unmarked: Bill closed the door; She behaved well.

The structural sentence types are formed on the basis of kernels (basic structures).

Three main types of propositional kernels may be distinguished: N V, N is A, N is N. However, if we take into account the valent properties of the verbs (their obligatory valency) the group will become larger (8 kernels), e.g., N1 V N2 N3: *John gave Ann the book*, N1 V N2: *I see a house*. The kernel sentences form the basis for syntactic derivation. Syntactic derivation lies in producing more complex sentences.

Syntactic processes may be internal and external. Internal syntactic processes involve no changes in the structure of the parts of the sentence. They occur within one and the same part of the sentence. External syntactic processes are those that cause new relations within a syntactic unit and lead to appearance of a new part of the sentence. The external syntactic processes are:

Extension - *a nice dress – a nice **cotton** dress.*

Ajoinment - the use of specifying words, most often particles: *He did it –**Only** he did*

Enclosure – inserting modal words and other discourse markers: *after all, anyway, naturally,* etc.

Informative structure of the utterance:

The utterance as opposed to the sentence is the unit of speech. The main categories of the utterance from the point of view of its informative structure are considered to be the theme

and the rheme. They are the main components of the Functional Sentence Perspective (FSP) – actual division of the sentence (most language analysts stick to the term "sentence" but actually they mean "utterance"). In English, there is a standard word order of Subject + Verb + Object: *The cat ate the rat*– here we have a standard structure (N1 + V + N2). However, there are numerous otherways in which the semantic content of the sentence can be expressed:

1. The rat was eaten by the cat.

2. It was the cat that ate the rat.

3. It was the rat that the cat ate.

4. What the cat did was ate the rat.

5. The cat, it ate the rat.

Which of these options is actually selected by the writer or the speaker will depend on the context in which the utterance occurs and the importance of the information. One important consideration is whether the information has already been introduced before or it is assumed to be known to the reader or listener. Such information is referred to as given information or the theme. It contrasts with information which is introduced for the first time and which is known as new information or the rheme.

Informative structure of the utterance is one of the topics that still attract the attention of language analysts now-a-days. It is well recognized that the rheme marking devices are:

1. Position in the sentence. As a rule, new information in English generally comes last: *The cat ate the rat.*

2. Intonation.

3. The use of the indefinite article. However, sometimes it is impossible (as in 1): *A gentleman is waiting for you.*

4. The use of 'there is', 'there are'. *There is a cat in the room.*

5. The use of special devices, like 'as for', 'but for', etc.: *As for him, I don't know.*

6. Inverted word order: *Here comes the sun.*

7. The use of emphatic constructions: *It was the cat that ate the rat.*

However, sometimes the most important information is not expressed formally: *The cat ate the rat after all.* The rheme here is 'the rat'. At the same time there is very important information which is hidden or implicit: the cat was not supposed to do it, or – it was hard forthe cat to catch the rat, or – the cat is a vegetarian (this hidden information will depend on thecontext or situation). In other words, we may say that this sentence contains two informative centres, or two rhemes – explicit and implicit.

Functional typology of utterances:

Actional utterance: N + Vact. + Complement – actional predicate

Performative utterance: I + Vperf./Vsay – performative predicate

Characterizing utterance: N + Vbe + A/Q – characterizing predicate

Sentence Pattern:

Sentence patterns are made up of phrases and clauses. A *phrase* is a group of connected words, but it is not a complete sentence because it ismissing a subject and/or a verb. Phrases are just one component that makes up a complete sentence. A *clause* contains a subject (actor) and a verb (action). There are two types of clauses:

1. An independent clause is a complete thought. It can stand alone as a complete sentence.

2. A dependent clause (a.k.a. subordinate clause) cannot stand alone as a complete sentence (even though it may contain a subject and a verb). It begins with a subordinating conjunction (because, when, while, after and many more).

The possibilities are endless for different types of sentences patterns. Here are the most common and basic sentence patterns:

1. The chef cooked.

   Pattern: Subject + Verb

2. The creative chef cooked.

   Pattern: Adjective + Subject + Verb

3. The creative chef methodically cooked.

   Pattern: Adjective + Subject + Adverb + Verb

4. The creative chef methodically cooked in the kitchen.

   Pattern: Adjective + Subject + Adverb + Verb + Prepositional Phrase

A subject performs the action in a sentence. For instance, in the sentence, "Matt eats pizza," Matt is the subject because he is the one eating the pizza.

A verb is a word that usually indicates some type of action. There are two basic types of verbs in English: action verbs and linking verbs. An action verb represents something the subject of a sentence does, whereas a linking verb connects the subject to a specific state of being. In other words, a linking verb describes a subject instead of expressing an action. Linking verbs are also known at state of being verbs, and the most common one in English is the verb to be.

If we consider the above sentence, "Matt eats pizza," the verb is eats, which is an action verb because it tells us what Matt does – he eats.

In this sentence, "Matt is hungry," the verb 'is', which is a form of to be, a linking verb. Notice how Matt does not do anything in this sentence. Instead, the verb describes how Matt feels – hungry. Is links Matt with hunger.

An object usually appears after the verb. There are two types of objects in the English language: direct and indirect.

A direct object takes or receives the action of the verb. In other words, the subject of the sentence acts on the direct object.

The direct object in our sample sentence "Matt eats pizza" is pizza. Matt eats what? Pizza.

An indirect object tells us to whom or for whom an action is done. To understand this concept, we need to come up with a longer sentence.

Our new sample sentence will be, "Matt cuts the pizza for Nate." In this sentence, our subject is Matt, our verb is cuts, the direct object is the pizza, and our indirect object is Nate. The pizza is cut for whom? Nate because Matt cuts the pizza for him.

So, remember, this is the basic pattern of an English sentence: SUBJECT + VERB + OBJECT.

UNIT III - TRANSFORMATIONAL GENERATIVE GRAMMAR

SUBSTITUTION CLAUSES

In English grammar, substitution is the replacement of a word or phrase with a filler word such as 'one', 'so', or 'do' in order to avoid repetition. Consider the following example from Gelett Burgess' poem "The Purple Cow".

I never saw a Purple Cow,

*I never hope to see **one**;*

But I can tell you, anyhow,

*I'd rather see than be **one**.*

This author relies on substitution to make his piece less monotonous. Notice how, in lines two and four, "one" is used in place of "The Purple Cow". Burgess was far from the first, and certainly not the last, writer to use substitution. In fact, substitution was one of the methods of cohesion examined by M. A. K. Halliday and Ruqaiya Hasan in 1976 in the influential text *Cohesion in English* and remains one of the main tools for written coherence today.

Examples and Observations:

Substitution is not restricted to writing and can be found in many types of media. See the following spoken examples from television and speeches.

- "Don't you ever read the *Times*, Watson? I've often advised you to *do so* if you want to know something," (Lee, *Sherlock Holmes and the Deadly Necklace*).

- "When I quote others, I *do so* in order to express my own ideas more clearly." -Michel de Montaigne

- *Niles:* 'I'll have a decaf latte, and please be sure to use skim milk.

  Frasier: I'll have *the same,* ("You Can't Tell a Crook by His Cover").

- "Any people anywhere, being inclined and having the power, have the right to rise up,

43

and shake off the existing government, and form a new *one* that suits them better,"(Lincoln 1848).

- "All generalizations are false, including this *one*." -Unknown

- *Alan Garner:* "Hey guys, when's the next Haley's comet?

  Stu Price: I don't think it's for like another sixty years or something.

  Alan Garner: But it's not tonight, right?

  Stu Price: No, I don't think *so*," (Galifianakis and Helms, *The Hangover*).

The Process of Substitution:

An A-Z of English Grammar & Usage, by Leech et al., provides a helpful summary of the process of substitution. In substitution, there are two expressions [*A*] ... [*B*] in the text: [A] could be repeated (as in [*A*] . . . [*A*]) but instead we 'replace' it with a substitute word or phrase [*B*].

An example of substitution:

- 'I bet you *get married* [*A*] before I *get married* [*A*].' - repetition

- 'I bet you *get married* [*A*] before I *do* [*B*].' - substitution, using *do* as a substitute for *get married*, (Leech et al. 2001).

Types of Substitution:

María Teresa Taboada, in her book *Building Coherence and Cohesion*, classifies and structures substitution more clearly. See her example utterances and explanations for a detailed breakdown. Substitution comes in three flavors: *nominal, verbal* or *clausal*, depending on the item being substituted. *One* or *Ones* are the terms most commonly used for nominal substitution in English. Verbal substitution is realized through an auxiliary verb (*do, be, have*), sometimes together with another substitute term such as *so* or *the same*.

Taboada also explains the form and function of ellipsis substitution, an alternative to

simply swapping one word for another. "Ellipsis is a special instance of substitution, in that it involves substitution by zero. Instead of one of the lexical items mentioned for substitution, no item is used, and the hearer/listener is left to fill in the gap where the substitute item, or the original item, should have appeared."

Reference Versus Substitution:

If substitution reminds you of pronoun reference, this is probably because the two grammatical constructions are fairly similar. However, they are *not* the same and must not be confused. Brian Paltridge explains the distinction between reference and ellipsis-substitution in *Discourse Analysis: An Introduction.* He says that it is important to point out differences between reference and ellipsis substitution. One difference is that reference can reach a long way back in the text whereas ellipsis and substitution are largely limited to the immediately preceding clause. Another key difference is that with reference there is a typical meaning of co-reference. That is, both items typically refer to the same thing. With ellipsis and substitution, this is not the case. There is always some difference between the second instance and the first. If a speaker or writer wants to refer to the same thing, they use reference. If they want torefer to something different, they use ellipsis substitution.

Examples of Substitution in English Grammar:

Yes and No:

We often use the words *yes* and *no* instead of long sequences of other words. These are *clausal substitutions* as they are replacing whole clauses:

A: Do you know what you want to watch on TV tonight?

B: Yes. (= I know what I want to watch on TV tonight)

Here and There:

We use words such as *here* and *there* as substitution in English grammar to replace details about place. In other words, to replace adverbials of place:

- ☐ John asked me to go for dinner at Toni's Italian, but I didn't want to go there as it's so busy at the weekend.

- ☐ I'm so glad I moved to Australia. I hope you'll visit me here one day.

Then and At That Time:

In order to replace details about time (adverbials of time), we use words such as *then* and *at that time:*

- ☐ *He suggested we go at 5pm but I did not want to go then.*

- ☐ *I prefer going abroad at Christmas time and my friends like to go at that time of year as well.*

One, Ones, and The Same:

These are often called *nominal substitutions* as they are replacing nouns in a sentence:

- ☐ *Both courses look good, so I'm not sure which one to choose.*

- ☐ *We've finished this crossword puzzle. Do you want to start another one?*

- ☐ *Don't buy those shoes - I think you can find some better ones.*

- ☐ *He wants the beef burger with cheese, and I think I'll have the same.*

Do:

This is often referred to as a *verbal substitution* as it is an auxiliary verb used to replace verbs or verb phrases:

- ☐ *I'm sure you'll get home before I do.*

We also sometimes combine *do* with *so* and *the same* to make a substitution:

- ☐ *He's been exercising every day. You should do the same.*

This and That:

We use *this* and *that* for substitution in English grammar in order to refer to longer pieces of text that can't usually be related to a specific part of the sentence as in the examples above. They would be classed as *clausal substitutions* as they are replacing whole clauses:

☐ There is inflation and rising unemployment in the country. This/That is going to cause problems for the government in the elections.

☐ She did not even bother to thank me, and that's why I won't help her again.

This and *that* are often interchangeable in substitution as in the first example, but we use *that* to disassociate ourselves from something or someone as in the second example.

Substitution is a relation between linguistic items, such as words or phrases or in the other word, it is a relation on the lexico-grammatical level, the level of grammar and vocabulary, or linguistic form. It is also usually as relation in the wording rather than in the meaning. The criterion is the grammar function of the substitution item. In English, the substitution may function as a noun, as verb, or as a clause. Then, Halliday and Hasan divide the three types of substitution namely nominal, verbal, and clausal. The table below is summary of substitution forms.

	Thing (count noun)	One(s)	The same
Nominal	**Process**	**So**	**Do the same**
	(Nominalized) AttributeFact		**Be Say**
Verbal	**Process (+…)**	**Do**	**Do so**
Clausal (): report, condition, Modality	**Positive** **Negative**	**So Not**	**So Not**

1) Nominal Substitution One/ Ones:

The elements of nominal substitution are *one, ones* and *same*. The substitution one/ ones always function as head of a nominal group, and can substitute only for an item which is itself head of nominal group. Look at the example below:

a) *My pen is too blunt. I must get a sharper* **one** *(1).*

The word one is the substitution for pen.

b) *I shoot the hippopotamus with bullets made of platinum because, if I use leaden ones, his hide is sure to flatten 'em (2).* (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 91).

In sentence *(1)* **one** is the substitution for *pen*. Hence the full form of the sentence ismy *pen is too blunt. I must get a sharper pen.* Whereas in example *(2) bullets* is the head of nominal group *leaden ones.* The full form of the nominal group is leaden *bullets.*

2) Verbal Substitution:

The verbal substitution in English is *do*. This operates as the head of a verbal group, in the place that is occupied by the lexical verb; and it is always in the final position in the group. Here are the examples:

a) *Does Jean* **sing***? – No, but Mary* **does** (Halliday and Hasan, 1979: 118)

b) *'I don't* **know the meaning of half those long words***, and, what's more, I don't believe you do either!'* (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 112).

In the example a) *does* substitues *sing*; in b) *do* subtitues *know the meaning of half those long words.*

The substitution do is almost always anaphoric; it may presuppose an element within the same sentence as itself, so that there is already a structural relation linking the presupposed to the presupposing clause; but it frequently substitutes an element in a preceding sentence, and

48

therefore it is a primary source of cohesion within a text. Only occasionally, it is cathaporic, which is within the sentence and does not make contribution to cohesion.

3)   Clausal Substitution:

The words used as substitution are *so* and *not.* There are three environments in which clausal substitution take place: report, condition and modality. In each of these environments it may take either of two forms, positive or negative; the positive is expressed by *so*, the negative by *not.*

a)   Substitution of Reported Clauses:

Look at the example below:

*'...if you've seen them so often, of course **you know what they're like'***.

*'I believe **so**,' Alice replied thoughtfully.*

Here, *so* substitutes *I know what they're like.*

The reported clause that is substituted by *so* or *not* is always declarative, whatever the mood of the presupposed clauses. There is no substitution for interrogative or imperative indirect questions or commands), and therefore the clauses substitution does not following verbssuch as *wonder, order* or *ask.*

b)   Substitution of Conditional Clauses:

A second context for clausal substitution of that of conditional structure. Conditional clauses are frequently substituted by *so* and *not*, especially following *if* but also in other forms such as *assuming so, suppose not:*

(1) Everyone seems to think he's guilty. If so, no doubt he'll offer to resign.

(2)We should recognize the place when we come to it.

Yes, but supposing not: then what do we do? (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 134).

In sentence (1) *so* substitutes *he is guilty,* whereas *not* in the sentence (2) substitutes *wedon't recognize the place when we come to it.*

c)   **Substitution of Modalized Clauses:**

Finally, *so* and *not* occur as substitution for clauses expressing modality. Look at the example below:

'Oh, I beg your pardon!' cried Alice hastily, afraid that she had hurt the poor animal's feelings.'I quite forgot you didn't like cats.

Not like cats!' cried the mouse, in a shrill, passionate voice,

    *'Would you **like cats if you were me?**'*

*'Well, perhaps **not**, said Alice in a shooting tone.*

Modality is the speaker's assessment of the probabilities inherent in the situation, as in the example above. These may be expressed either by modal forms of the verb (*will, would, can, could, may, must, should, is, to and ought to*), or by modal adverbs such as *perhaps, possibly, probably, certainly, surely;* the latter are frequently followed by a clausal substitute, with the proviso already noted, that those expressing certainly do not accept substitution in the positive, though they do in the negative.

Phrases:

A phrase is a group or combination of two or more words. It is a unit of a complete sentence. By itself, a phrase is not a complete sentence, as it does not relay acomplete thought. It does not contain the subject and the predicate both, so it is not a clause either. The length of the phrase may differ from two words to many more words. This does not have any connection to whether it is a phrase or a sentence. For example, 'old dog' is a phrase. So is 'the old, smelly, shivering dog' is also a phrase.

Types of Phrases

1) Noun Phrases

These are the phrases contains a noun - name, place or things and at least one modifier associated to the noun. The modifier can prefix or suffix the noun. The entire phrase will act as a noun for that particular sentence. Here are some examples,

- He was wearing a *black linen shirt.*
- They lived in a *small, tidy cottage*
- Alex rode her *old bicycle* to their *shiny new school*
- The *black car* got towed.

2) Verb Phrases:

Every sentence will generally contain a verb. But sometimes the action being described requires a more nuanced multi-words verb phrase. The phrase consists of the main verb/verbs and then auxiliary verbs, i.e. helping verbs. Some such verb phrases are as follows,

- The teacher *is writing* the answer.
- They *have been playing* since the last two hours
- You *must call* your mom at once
- He *has taken* the dog along

3) Prepositional Phrase:

Any phrase that consists of a preposition, and the object of the preposition, which will be a noun or a pronoun s what we call a prepositional phrase. Such a phrase also at times consists of other modifiers describing the object of the prepositional phrase. Let us look at some examples,

a. Students are advised to be *on time*

b. Please turn t*owards the right* at the intersection

Now there are certain times where a prepositional phrase will act as an adjective for a sentence. It will be the answer to the question "which one?". For example,

c. Please get the book *above the cupboard.* (Which book?)

d. The *student at the end of the line* is misbehaving again. (Which student?)

And then the prepositional phrase can be seen as the adverb of a sentence. How? Where? or When? are the questions that it answers.

e. The cat is hiding *behind the tree.* (Where is the cat?)

f. The family headed to church *after breakfast.* (When did the family leave?)

4) Infinitive Phrases:

A phrase that includes an infinitive along with a simple verb is an infinitive phrase. There may also be modifiers attached to the object in the phrase, It contains a verb, so it plays the role of expressing an action in the sentence. Infinitive phrases can act as a noun, adjective or adverb in a complete sentence.

a. Alex likes to read comics (functions as a noun here)

b. To attend the morning lecture, I set my alarm for 6 am. (noun form)

c. To keep his dogs calm, Alex turned on the radio. (Functions as an adverb here)

5) Participle Phrases;

A participle phrase will begin with a participle, which can be a present participle (ending with -ing) or a past participle (ending with -ed). There may be a few modifiers and associated words included in the phrase. One thing to remember is that a participle phrase always takes the form of an adjective in a sentence. Some examples of the participle phrase are,

a. We got a call from my aunt today *telling us the good news.*

b. The house was severely *damaged by the flood.*

c. Please sit down without *making a sound*

52

6) Gerund Phrases:

Now a gerund is a word that invariably ends with "-ing", without exception. So, a gerund phrase is a phrase that contains an 'ing" word, with some modifiers in some cases. But participle phrases also have a similar pattern (-ing words), so how do you tell the difference between the two? Well while participle phrases function as adjectives, Gerund Phrases exclusively function as nouns. Let us look at some examples,

a. She is currently *writing her memoir.*

b. *Washing the dishes* is Alex's chore

c. *Waking up before sunrise* had become his habit.
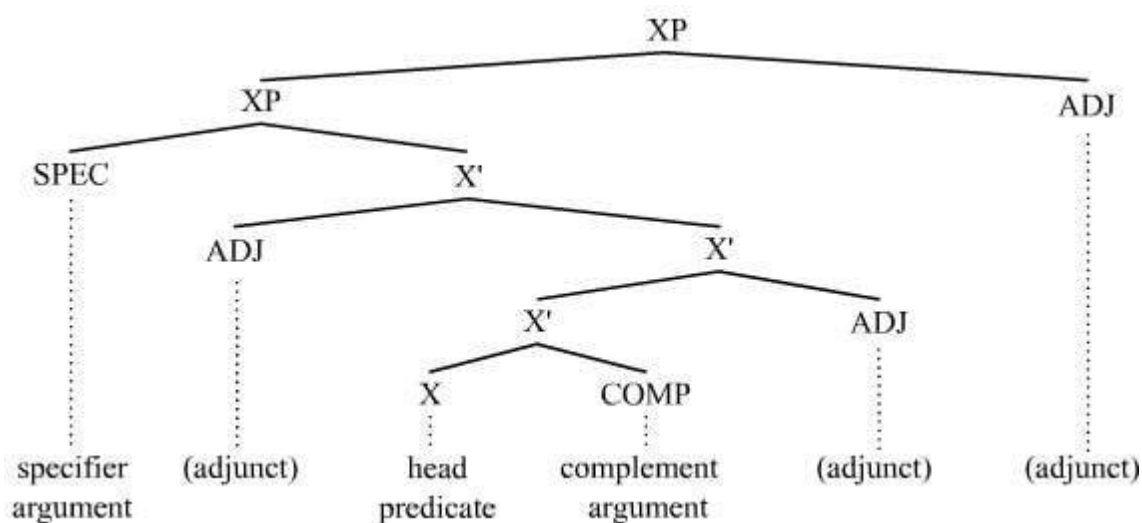
7) Absolute Phrase:

An absolute phrase will contain a noun or a pronoun with a participle. Again, it may also contain additional associative words and modifiers. An absolute participle will modify a whole clause, or even a whole sentence, not only one word. However, it does not constitute a complete sentence or a clause. Generally, an absolute phrase is separated by commas. Let us take a look at a few examples,

a. He looked towards the beggar, *his face expressing pity*

b. We were glued to the match, *our eyes always following the ball.*

c. He sat on the bed, *his clothes neatly folded* by his side.

Arguments And Modifiers:

The word 'argument' in linguistics does not have the same meaning as that word in common usage. When used in relation to grammar and writing, an argument is any expression or syntactic element in a sentence that serves to complete the meaning of the verb. In other words, it expands on what's being expressed by the verb and is not a term that implies controversy, as common usage does.

In English, a verb typically requires from one to three arguments. The number of arguments required by a verb is the valency of that verb. In addition to the predicate and its arguments, a sentence may contain optional elements called adjuncts. According to Kenneth L. Hale and Samuel Jay Keyser in "Prolegomenon to aTheory of Argument Structure," argument structure is "determined by properties of lexical items, in particular, by the syntactic configurations in which they must appear."

```
                            XP
            XP                              ADJ
   SPEC           X'
           ADJ          X'
                   X'          ADJ
               X      COMP

specifier   (adjunct)   head    complement   (adjunct)   (adjunct)
argument                predicate  argument
```

In linguistics, an argument is an expression that helps complete the meaning of a predicate, the latter referring in this context to a main verb and its auxiliaries. In this regard, the *complement* is a closely related concept. Most predicates take one, two, or three arguments. A predicate and its arguments form a *predicate-argument structure*. The discussion of predicates and arguments is associated most with (content) verbs and noun phrases (NPs), although other syntactic categories can also be construed as predicates and as arguments. Arguments must be distinguished from adjuncts. While a predicate needs its arguments to complete its meaning, the adjuncts that appear with a predicate are optional; they are not necessary to complete the meaning of the predicate. Most theories of Syntax and semantics

acknowledge arguments and adjuncts, although the terminology varies, and the distinction is generally believed to exist in all languages. The area of grammar that explores the nature of predicates, their arguments, and adjuncts is called valency theory. Predicates have a valence; they determine the Number andtype of arguments that can or must appear in their environment. The valence of predicates isalso investigated in terms of subcategorization.

Arguments and Adjuncts;

At one time, Sam actually wanted to send a duck to his representative in congress for fun.
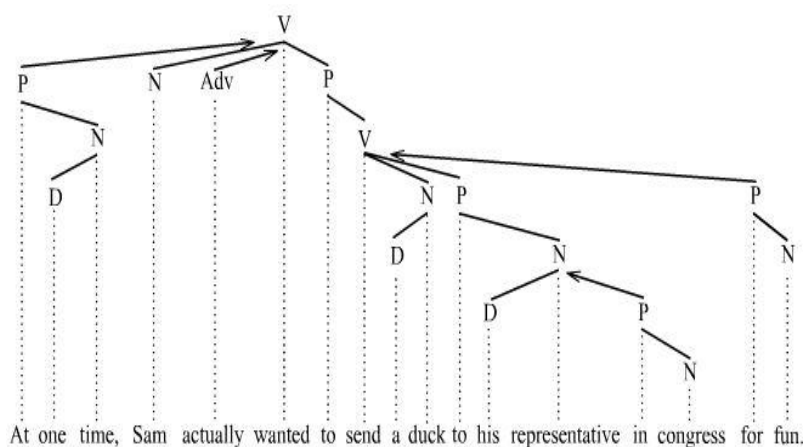
The basic analysis of the syntax and semantics of clauses relies heavily on the distinction between arguments and adjuncts. The clause predicate, which is often a content verb, demands certain arguments. That is, the arguments are necessary in order to complete the meaning of the verb. The adjuncts that appear, in contrast, are not necessary in this sense. The Subject phrase and Object phrase are the two most frequently occurring arguments of verbal predicates. For instance, Each of these sentences contains two arguments (in bold), the first noun (phrase) being the subject argument, and the second the object argument. *Jill*, for example, is the subject argument of the predicate *likes*, and *Jack* is its object argument. Verbal predicates that demand just a subject argument (e.g. *sleep*, *work*, *relax*) are intransitive, verbal predicates that demand an object argument as well (e.g. *like*, *fry*, *help*) are transitive, and verbal predicates that demand two object arguments are ditransitive (e.g. *give*, *lend*) .

55

When additional information is added to our three example sentences, one is dealing with adjuncts. The added phrases are adjuncts; they provide additional information that is not necessary to complete the meaning of the predicate *likes*. One key difference between arguments and adjuncts is that the appearance of a given argument is often obligatory, whereas adjuncts appear optionally. While typical verb arguments are subject or object nouns or noun phrases as in the examples above, they can also be prepositional phrases (PPs) (or even other categories). Subject and object arguments are known as *core arguments*; core arguments can besuppressed, added, or exchanged in different ways, using Voice operations like passivization, antipassivization, application, incorporation, etc. Prepositional arguments, which are also called *oblique arguments*, however, do not tend to undergo the same processes.

Psycholinguistic (argument vs adjuncts):

Psycholinguistic theories must explain how syntactic representations are built incrementally during sentence comprehension. One view that has sprung from psycholinguistics is the argument structure hypothesis (ASH), which explains the distinct cognitive operations for argument and adjunct attachment: arguments are attached via the lexical mechanism, but adjuncts are attached using general (non-lexical) grammatical knowledge that is represented as phrase structure rules or the equivalent.

Argument status determines the cognitive mechanism in which a phrase will be attached to the developing syntactic representations of a sentence. Psycholinguistic evidence supports a formal distinction between arguments and adjuncts, for any questions about the argument status of a phrase are, in effect, questions about learned mental representations of the lexical heads. Psycholinguistic research on sentence comprehension holds promise. It can reveal subtle distinctions that we are unaware of and may not be easily examined in institutions.

Syntactic versus Semantic Arguments:

An important distinction acknowledges both syntactic and semantic arguments. Content verbs determine the number and type of syntactic arguments that can or must appear in their environment; they impose specific syntactic functions (e.g. subject, object, oblique, specific preposition, possessor, etc.) onto their arguments. These syntactic functions will varyas the form of the predicate varies (e.g., active verb, passive participle, gerund, nominal, etc.).In languages that have morphological case, the arguments of a predicate must appear with the correct case markings (e.g., nominative, accusative, dative, genitive, etc.) imposed on them by their predicate. The semantic arguments of the predicate, in contrast, remain consistent. In other words, the syntactic arguments are subject to syntactic variation in terms of syntactic functions, whereas the thematic roles of the arguments of the given predicate remain consistent as the form of that predicate changes.

The syntactic arguments of a given verb can also vary across languages. For example, the verb *put* in English requires three syntactic arguments: subject, object, locative (e. g. *He put the book into the box*). These syntactic arguments correspond to the three semantic arguments agent, theme, and goal. The Japanese verb *oku* 'put', in contrast, has the same three semantic arguments, but the syntactic arguments differ, since Japanese does not require three syntactic arguments, so it is correct to say *Kare ga hon o oita* ("He put the book"). The equivalent sentence in English is ungrammatical without the required locative argument, as the examples involving *put* above demonstrate. For this reason, a slight paraphrase is required to render the nearest grammatical equivalent in English: *He positioned the book* or *He deposited the book*.

Arguments Versus Adjuncts:

A large body of literature has been devoted to distinguishing arguments from adjuncts. Numerous syntactic tests have been devised for this purpose. One such test is therelative clause

diagnostic. If the test constituent can appear after the combination *which occurred/happened* in a relative clause, it is an adjunct, not an argument, e.g. The same diagnostic results in unacceptable relative clauses (and sentences) when the test constituent is an argument. The utility of the relative clause test is, however, limited. It incorrectly suggests, forinstance, that modal adverbs (e.g., *probably*, *certainly*, *maybe*) and manner expressions (e.g., *quickly*, *carefully*, *totally*) are arguments. If a constituent passes the relative clause test, however, one can be sure that it is *not* an argument.

Obligatory Versus Optional Arguments:

A further division blurs the line between arguments and adjuncts. Many arguments behave like adjuncts with respect to another diagnostic, the omission diagnostic. Adjuncts can always be omitted from the phrase, clause, or sentence in which they appear without rendering the resulting expression unacceptable. Some arguments (obligatory ones), in contrast, cannot be omitted. There are many other arguments, however, that are identified as arguments by the relative clause diagnostic but that can nevertheless be omitted.

The relative clause diagnostic would identify the constituents in bold as arguments. The omission diagnostic here, however, demonstrates that they are not obligatory arguments. They are, rather, optional. The insight, then, is that a three-way division is needed. On the one hand, one distinguishes between arguments and adjuncts, and on the other hand, one allows for a further division between obligatory and optional arguments.

Arguments and Adjuncts in Noun Phrases:

Most work on the distinction between arguments and adjuncts has been conducted at the clause level and has focused on arguments and adjuncts to verbal predicates. The distinction is crucial for the analysis of noun phrases as well, however. If it is altered somewhat, the relative clause diagnostic can also be used to distinguish arguments from adjuncts in noun phrases.

Representing Arguments and Adjuncts:

The distinction between arguments and adjuncts is often indicated in the tree structures used to represent syntactic structure. In phrase structure grammars, an adjunct is adjoined to a projection of its head predicate in such a manner that distinguishes it from the arguments of that predicate. The distinction is quite visible in theories that employ the X-bar schema, e.g. The complement argument appears as a sister of the head X, and the specifier argument appears as a daughter of XP. The optional adjuncts appear in one of a number of positions adjoined to a bar-projection of X or to XP.

Branching structures and hence construe syntactic structure as being flatter than the layered structures associated with the X-bar schema must employ some other means to distinguish between arguments and adjuncts. In this regard, some dependency grammars employ an arrow convention. Arguments receive a normal dependency edge, whereas adjuncts receive an arrow edge. In the following tree, anarrow points away from an adjunct toward the governor of that adjunct:

The arrow edges in the tree identify four constituents (= complete subtrees) as adjuncts: *At one time*, *actually*, *in congress*, and *for fun*. The normal dependency edges (= non-arrows) identify the other constituents as arguments of their heads. Thus *Sam*, *a duck*, and *to his representative in congress* are identified as arguments of the verbal predicate *wanted to send*.

A modifier is a word, phrase, or clause that modifies that is, gives information about another word in the same sentence. For example, in the following sentence, the word 'burger' is modified by the word 'vegetarian':

Example: I'm going to the Saturn Café for a **vegetarian** burger.

The modifier 'vegetarian' gives extra information about what kind of burger it is.

A modifier can be an adjective (a word that modifies a noun, like 'burger'), but it can also be

an adverb (a word that modifies a verb):

Example: The student **carefully** proofread her draft.

The adverb 'carefully' is the modifier in this example - it modifies the verb 'proofread,' giving important details about how the proofreading was conducted.

A modifier can even be a phrase or clause, as in the following example:

She studied **in the library**.

Here, the phrase 'in the library' gives us extra information about the verb, 'studied.' Modifiers can also be used for sentence variety.

Misplaced Modifiers:

When a modifier is ambiguously or illogically modifying a word, we consider it a *misplaced modifier*.

Example: Dolger discovered an ancient Mayan civilization **using astronavigation**.

The modifier, "using astronavigation," is unclear in this sentence. Does it modify "Dolger" or "civilization"? A reader will wonder, "Was Dolger using astronavigation? Or was the civilization he discovered using astronavigation?"

Dangling Modifiers:

When a modifier is not modifying a specific word, we call it a *dangling modifier.*

Example: After consulting a selection of current publications, research in this area has been sparse.

In this example, it is not clear who is consulting the selection of current publications. In other words, there is no referent in the sentence.

Case Theory and Ordering Compliments:

Case is the grammatical function of a noun or pronoun. There are only three cases in modern English, they are subjective **(he),** objective **(him)** and possessive **(his)**. They may seem more familiar in their old English form - nominative**,** accusative and genitive.

The pronoun cases are simple though. There are only three:

1. **Subjective Case:** pronouns used as subject.

2. **Objective Case:** pronouns used as objects of verbs or prepositions.

3. **Possessive Case:** pronouns which express ownership.

PERSONAL PRONOUN

Subjective/Nominative	**Objective/Accusative**	**Possessive/Genitive**
Referring to the subject in a sentence	Referring to the object in a sentence	The apostrophe form of the word ("Lynne's).
I	Me	Mine
You	You	Yours
He	Him	His
She	Her	Hers
It	It	Its
We	Us	Ours
They	Them	Theirs
Who	Whom	Whose

These pronouns, and *who* and its compounds, are the only words that are inflected in all three cases (subjective, objective, possessive). In nouns the first two cases (subjective and objective) are indistinguishable, and are called the common case. One result of this simplicity is that, the sense of case being almost lost, the few mistakes that can be made are made often, even by native speakers, some of them so often that they are now almost right by prescription. *Complement* is the term used for a word or words that are needed to complete the meaning of an expression. Most phrases and clauses will include a complement of some kind. If one cannot remove it from your sentence, then it is likely to be a complement. This is how complements differ from adjuncts. Adjuncts are optional as they are usually just descriptive. Complements are not optional. They are essential to ensure understanding.

Easy Examples of Complements:

The word *complement* most commonly crops up in the terms subject complement and object complement.

Subject Complement. A subject complement is the adjective, noun, or pronoun that follows a linking verb. (Examples of linking verbs include *to be*, *to smell*, *to seem*, *to taste*, *to look*.) Here are two easy examples of subject complements. (The subject complements are shaded and the subjects are bold.)

Lee is weak.

(*Lee* is the subject, *is* is the linking verb, and the adjective *weak* is the subject complement. It tells us something about the subject. It completes the meaning.)

John was a chicken.

(*John* is the subject, *was* is the linking verb, and the noun phrase *a chicken* is the subject complement. It tells us something about the subject. It completes the meaning.)

Object Complement. An object complement is the adjective, noun, or pronoun that follows a direct object (shown in bold) to rename the direct object or state what it has become.

Here are two easy examples of object complements. (The object complements are shaded and the objects are bold.)

> The vote made **John's position** untenable.

(Here, *John's position* is the direct object of the verb *made*, and the adjective *untenable* is the object complement that completes the meaning. The adjective *untenable* tells us something about the direct object (*John's position*). It can't be removed because it completes the meaning. This is an example of an object complement.)

> We voted **John** chairman.

(Here, *John* is the direct object of the verb *voted*, and the noun *chairman* is the object complement that completes the meaning. The noun *chairman* tells us something about the direct object (*John*). It can't be removed because it completes the meaning.)

Here are two real-life examples with subject complements:

> **It** always seems impossible until **it** is done. (President of South Africa
> Nelson Mandela)

(*It* is the subject, *seems* is the linking verb, and *impossible* is the subject complement. In the clause *until it's done*, *it* is the subject, *is* is the linking verb, and *done* is the subject complement.)

> **The flower that smells the sweetest** is shy and lowly. (Poet William Wordsworth)

(This example is complicated because there's a subject complement embedded within the subject (i.e., the bold text). In the bold text, *that* is the subject, *smells* is the linking verb, and *the sweetest* is the subject complement. Now, let's reverse up a bit. *The flower that smellsthe sweetest* is the subject, *is* is the linking verb, and *shy and lowly* is the subject complement. Hey, if you followed that, you've got subject complements nailed!)

Real-Life Examples of Object Complements:

Here are two real-life examples with object complements:

I don't need drugs to make **my life** tragic. (Musician Eddie Vedder)

(Here, *my life* is the direct object of the verb *make*, and *tragic* is the object complement that completes the meaning.)

The general tendency of things throughout the world is to render **mediocrity** theascendant power among mankind. (Philosopher John Stuart Mill)

(Here, *mediocrity* is the direct object of the verb *render*, and noun phrase *the ascendant power among mankind* is the object complement that completes the meaning.)

Let's look at one more before we really throw a cat among the pigeons. This example includes a subject complement and an object complement.

What makes life dreary is the want of a motive. (Novelist George Eliot)

(*What makes life dreary* is the subject, is the linking verb, and noun phrase *the wantof a motive* is the subject complement.)

What makes **life** dreary is the want of a motive.

(*Life* is the direct object of the verb *makes*, and *dreary* is the object complement that completes the meaning of the clause.)

More about Complements:

In the examples above, the subject complements complete the meaning about subjects, and the object complements complete the meaning about objects. That seems pretty straightforward, doesn't it? Well, unfortunately, it gets a little more complicated because the term *complement* is used by some grammarians in a much wider sense. They like to remind the rest of us that complements are just the words needed to complete the meaningsof expressions. Therefore, rather unhelpfully, the term *subject complement* is also used for a complement that is a subject, and, equally unhelpfully, the term *object complement* is used

a complementthat is an object. Look at this example:

> The manager cut John's salary.

(Here, the noun phrase *The manager* is the subject of the verb *cut*. As it's a subject and a complement (i.e., essential for understanding), you might see it referred to as a subject complement. It actually complements the verb. So, in a logical world, it would be called a *verb complement*. But, it's not.)

> d.   The manager cut John's salary.

(Here, the noun phrase *John's salary* is the direct object of the verb *cut*. As it is an object and acomplement (i.e., essential for understanding), you might see it referred to as an object complement. As with the subject complement, it actually complements the verb. So, in a logical world, it would be called a *verb complement*. But, again, it is not.)

Used in this wider sense, *complement* can also be the words that follow a preposition.

> **With** his help.

> **On** her own.

Here, the complements are the objects of prepositions.

A complement can also be the word or words that form part of phrasal verb. (In these examples, the main verb of the phrasal verb is shown in bold.)

> **Break** down

> **Cross** out

> **Check** up on

> **Look** out for

So, be aware that there are two different scopes for the term *complement*. Here are two more examples to explain the two scopes:

Scope 1. (This is what 99% of people mean.)

> Lee is hungry.

(Hungry is a subject complement. It follows a linking verb to describe the subject.)

> Lee licked **the plate** clean.

(*Clean* is an object complement. It tells us what the object has become.)

Scope 2. (Just be aware that you might encounter the terms *subject complement* and *object complement* used in this way.)

> Lee is hungry.

(*Lee* could be described as the subject complement. It's a subject, and it's a complement, i.e., essential for meaning.)

> Lee licked the plate clean.

(*The plate* could be described as an object complement. It's an object, and it's a complement, i.e., essential for meaning.)

Remember this much. Complements are not optional. They're essential to ensure understanding. This is how complements differ from adjuncts.

Why Should I Care about Complements?

Provided we are talking about the way that most people think of complements (i.e., Scope 1), you have to say that there is not much value in learning about complements because native English speakers rarely mess up their complements. However, if you are learning a language (like Russian) that puts its complements in a different case (the instrumental case in the case of Russian), then you might want to pay a bit more attention to spotting complements. That said, there are two noteworthy points linked to complements.

(Point 1) Do not use an adverb as a subject complement.

A subject complement is an adjective, noun, or pronoun. It's never an adverb.

You will likely be blamed for making the narcissist feel badly.

(This is an extract from a self-help website. *To feel* is a linking verb. *Badly* is the subject complement. It should be the adjective *bad* not the adverb *badly*.) Ironically, this mistake occurs most commonly with people who consciously thinkabout whether they should be using adjectives or adverbs. Spotting that *feel* (or whatever linking verb) is a verb, they look to modify it with an adverb. What they fail to do is differentiate between a linking verb and an action verb.

Look at this old joke:

My dog has no nose.

How does he smell? Terrible.

If you are telling this joke, make sure you say *terrible* not *terribly*. Consider these:

My dog smells terribly.

(There's no subject complement here. This means the dog is terrible at smelling. It does not mean the dog is smelly, which is the twist of the punchline.)

My dog smells terrible.

You can say "It is I" or "It is me."

Under traditional rules, personal pronouns (like *I*, *she*, and *he*) that are subject complements are written in the subjective case (like *I*, *she*, and *he*) not in the objective case (like *me*, *her* and *him*). This means that those who insist on writing "It is I" or "It was he" have tradition on their side. However, those who would rather write "It is me" or "It was him" have overwhelming common usage on their side.

UNIT – IV

SEMANTICS AND PRAGMATICS

Semantics:

Semantics refers to the interpretation of language, including words, sentences, phrasing, and symbols. This linguistics discipline also includes understanding the relationships between words and how readers build meaning from these relationships. The study of semantics is the study of how language and its different facets create meaning. The languages analyzed in semantics can include natural languages, ones that occur and evolve naturally, such as English, Farsi, or French and artificial languages, such as those used in computer programming (JAVA, Python, etc.). The word semantic first appeared in English in1894. It comes from the French semantique, "the psychology of language," and derived fromthe Greek semantikos, indicating "significant," and semainein, "to show by sign, signify, point out, indicate by a sign."

Semantics is an important part of the study of linguistic structure. They encompass several different investigations: how each language provides words and idioms for fundamental concepts and ideas (lexical semantics), how the parts of a sentence are integrated into the basis for understanding its meaning (compositional semantics), and how our assessment of what someone means on a particular occasion depends not only on what is actually said but also on aspects of the context of its saying and an assessment of the information and beliefs we share with the speaker.

Semantics is the study of how sentences of a language or some suitable level of representation, such as logical forms compositionally determine truth conditions. Semantics is sometimes referred to as "what is said". Semantics studies the way in which truth conditions are associated with sentences in a systematic way depending on the lexical meanings of their parts and their mode of combination. Semantics is the study of meaning in

language. We know that language is used to express meanings which can be understood by others. But meanings exist in our minds and we can express what is in our minds through the spoken and written forms of language (as well as through gestures, action etc.).

The sound patterns of language are studied at the level of phonology and the organization of words and sentences is studied at the level of morphology and syntax. These are in turn organized in such a way that we can convey meaningful messages or receive and understand messages. Semantics is that level of linguistic analysis where meaning is analyzed. It is the most abstract level of linguistic analysis, since we cannot see or observe meaning as we can observe and record sounds. Meaning is related very closely to the human capacity to think logically and to understand. So, when we try to analyze meaning, we are trying to analyze ourown capacity to think and understand our own ability to create meaning. Semantics concerns itself with „giving a systematic account of the nature of meaning.

The purpose of semantics is to propose exact meanings of words and phrases, and remove confusion, which might lead the readers to believe a word has many possible meanings. It makes a relationship between a word and the sentence through their meanings. Besides, semantics enable the readers to explore a sense of the meaning because, if we remove or change the place of a single word from the sentence, it will change the entire meaning, or else the sentence will become anomalous. Hence, the sense relation inside a sentence is very important, as a single word does not carry any sense or meaning.

Types of Semantics:

There are seven types of linguistic semantics: cognitive, computation, conceptual, cross-cultural, formal, lexical, and truth-conditional.

Cognitive semantics: This focuses on language through the lens of general human cognitive abilities.

69

Computational semantics: This utilizes algorithms and architectures to explore how linguistic meaning is processed.

Conceptual semantics: This analyzes the conceptual elements that allow people to understand words and sentences. Conceptual semantics includes analysis of both the denotative (literal, dictionary definition) meaning of a word, as well as the connotative meaning added by associated layers of emotions, thoughts, and experiences which humans connect to language.

Cross-cultural semantics: This explores whether words have universal meanings and what differences and similarities translate between one language or culture to another.

Formal semantics: This branch of semantics utilizes symbolic logic, philosophy, and mathematics to produce theories of meanings for natural and artificial languages.

Lexical semantics: This focuses on the meaning of words, and how meaning is created through context. Lexical semantics also often involves breaking down individual lines of text to study root words, nouns, verbs, adjectives, idioms, and how they are arranged.

Truth-conditional semantics: This is a formalized theory that associates each sentence of natural language with a meta-language conditional under which it is true.

Semantics and Literary Devices:

Semantics plays a significant role in our ability to understand and be moved by literary works, as we must be able to grasp both the individual meaning of words and their relationship to their context. Conceptual semantics, with its focus on connotative and denotative meaning, allows readers to process literary devices like figurative language, figures of speech, and imagery, such as metaphor, simile and personification. Lexical semantics enables astute readers to interpret elements such as tone based on diction, context, and the writer's choice of symbols they use as markers for punctuation.

Types of Meaning:

Philosophers have puzzled over this question for over 2000 years. Their thinking begins from the question of the relationship between words and the objects which words represent. For example, we may ask: What is the meaning of the word "cow"? One answer would be that it refers to an animal that has certain properties, which distinguish it from otheranimals, which are called by other names. Where do these names come from and why does the word "cow" mean only that particular animal and none other? Some thinkers say that there is no essential connection between the word "cow" and the animal indicated by the word, but we have established this connection by convention and thus it continues to be so.

Ogden and Richards give the following list of some definitions of "meaning".

Meaning can be any of the following:

1. An intrinsic property of some thing

2. Other words related to that word in a dictionary

3. The connotations of a word (that is discussed below)

4. The thing to which the speaker of that word refers

5. The thing to which the speaker of that word should refer

6. The thing to which the speaker of that word believes himself to be referring

7. The thing to which the hearer of that word believes is being referred to.

Descriptive:

The descriptive meaning of an expression is that aspect of meaning which only concerns the relationship between a given sign and its denotation. It contrasts with non-descriptive meaning, which concerns attitudes held by speakers towards a given denotation (e.g. emotive meaning, social meaning). Descriptive Linguistics investigates the form and function of language, applying theoretical approaches to the analysis of descriptive and

sociolinguistic data. Contemporary theoretical linguistic investigations often make use of quantitative/computational tools, methods, and models to support and enhance qualitative scholarly interpretations of the language phenomena being studied. Descriptive Linguistics research is currently represented in our programs in the areas of phonetics (the scientific study of speech sounds), semantics (the study of meaning in language), historical linguistics (the study of language variation and change over time), and sociolinguistics (the study of language in society).

Emotive and Phatic:

The emotive function reflects the attitude or mood of the addresser towards the information being communicated. The message can be perceived as conveying emotion, such as anger, anticipation, joy and sadness. Emotive messages focus more attention on the addresser and less on the information being sent. Despite the absence of emotional tone and nonverbal cues, people can distinguish emotions in a text-based communication.

Examples: emotions are often expressed using emojis or slang such as "lol" or "omg", as well as words bearing strong sentiment ("what a horrible human being").

The emotive attitude or experience always emerges as a result of some kind of stimulus of emotion. The stimulus of emotion is not always easily identifiable and is notalways identical with the object of utterance. When a waiter uses a diminutive with his customer or an adult with a child, there is usually a discordance between the stimulus of the emotive attitude of the speaker and the object talked about. Thus contextual, situational and pragmatic factors have to be considered in order to identify the meaning of the sign properly.Further, the stimulus of emotion and the expression of emotion itself are structured differently in different types of lexical signs.

Emotive signs usually make use of some type of contiguity and/or iconicity to express their meaning, in addition to their arbitrary side. These relationships between the signifier

and signified, however, vary substantially in quality and in the level on which they operate. It is far not always a simple iconicity between the outer form of the signifier and the object that plays an important role, as the authors of older studies on emotivity believed. It can be a relationship between the inner form of an expression and its actual meaning (as in diminutives) or a relationship between two signified of one signifier, or even a contrastive lexical or stylistic collocation happening on the level of the discourse which produces emotive components of meaning. There is moreover a serious interplay between the expressive and the referential meaning of an emotive sign.

The stronger the emotive content of a sign, the more the referential aspect recedes into the background (the extreme case being the interjections, where it becomes completely implicit). Most emotive signs are formally conspicuous. This striking quality gives them an appellative (conative) function, i.e., causes an automatic appeal to the receiver. It attracts his attention and facilitates the contamination by the emotive attitude.

Sometimes referred to as back-channel or small talk, the phatic function serves the purpose of preserving the physical and psychological contact between speakers. The physical contact is related to the physical environment in which the conversation takes place and in the case of online forums, this will be a reference to the platform. The psychological contact refers to the personal relation between speakers and the involvement inthe conversation. Examples: involvement in the conversation ("I see"), agreement and disagreement between speakers ("good point", "I don't think so").

As a conclusion, it must be asserted that there are seven phatic functions found in this research, namely: (1) joking function, (2) complimenting function, (3) apologizing function, (4) rejecting function, (5) avoiding function, (6) affirming function, and (7) reminding function. In addition, it must be emphasized that the efforts to dignify the Indonesian language cannot stop when the linguistic rules are described in terms of linguistic definition. The

Indonesian grammatical rules have been specified and codified for a long time. Nevertheless, the debate remains in whether the Indonesian language has truly been a dignified language, or whether it has served so many different functions, or has it catered many diverse interests, or is it studied by a wide audience. The linguistic rules intertwining with the language use as shown in the pragmatic phenomena need to be promoted continuously. The pendulum of language study which has swung to the linguistic issues related to usage, optimization of language functions, has become the right momentum to dignify the Indonesian language more perfectly.

Sense and Reference:

Sense:

Sense is the more interesting part meaning. Sense refers to how we see an object or the amount of information given about an object. The classic example cited showing the distinction is the planet, Venus. As a planet it has reference arbitrarily given the name Venus. It is often called the morning star when seen in the morning, and the evening star when seen in the evening. Thus, it has two senses, depending on the time of day the object is seen. The planet itself is the referent, the morning star is one sense, the evening star the other sense. It could have other senses.

The referential function, which is the most frequent one in communication, is marked by a reference to the context of the discussion, which can be a situation, a person, or an object. The message is used to transmit information and the words most often carry literal definitions (denotative). Instances of referential messages include observations, opinions, and factual information.

Examples: factual information ("Trump won the election"), opinions ("He has a shot")

Connotation and Denotation:

Denotative meaning is the logical meaning, which indicates the essential qualities of aconcept which distinguish it from other concepts. Connotative meaning is the additional or associated meaning, which is attached to thedenotative, conceptual meaning. It consists of associations made with a concept whenever that concept is referred to.

Pragmatics:

Morris's picture of pragmatics is broad and amorphous. Pragmatics, he writes, concerns itself with "the biotic aspects of semiosis, that is, with all the psychological, biological, and sociological phenomena which occur in the functioning of signs." Given how much in our lives is bound up with the use of signs, this is tantamount to a comprehensive theory of human interactions. Pragmatics is the study of inferences that hearers draw on the basis of interpreting truth conditional meaning. Pragmatics is referred to as "what is meant". It is the study of how semantic meaning, the mental states of the speaker and hearers, and other contextual features underpin what is communicated by utterances.

Pragmatics is usually thought to involve a different sort of reasoning than semantics. Semantics consists of conventional rules of meaning for expressions and their modes of combination. Locke supposed that communication was basically a matter of a speaker encoding thoughts into words and the listener decoding words back into thoughts. The same basic picture is found fairly explicitly in Saussure and other influential theorists. This picture seems to fit reasonably well with the picture that emerged from the logicians and philosophers of language in the tradition of logical analysis, of language as a system of phonological, syntactic and semantic rules, of which competent speakers and interpreters have implicit mastery. Paradigmatically, the sincere speaker plans to produce an utterance with the truth-conditions of a belief she wishes to express; she chooses her words so that her utterance has those truth conditions; the credulous interpreter needs to perceive the utterance, and recognize

75

which phones, morphemes, words and phrases are involved, and then using knowledge of the meanings, deduce the truth conditions of the utterance and of the belief it expresses. The facts with which pragmatics deals are of various sorts, including:

1. Facts about the objective facts of the utterance, including: who the speaker is, whenthe utterance occurred, and where;

2. Facts about the speaker's intentions. On the near side, what language the speaker intends to be using, what meaning she intends to be using, whom she intends to refer to with various shared names, whether a pronoun is used demonstratively or anaphorically, and the like. On the far side, what she intends to achieve by saying what she does.

3. Facts about beliefs of the speaker and those to whom she speaks, and the conversation they are engaged in; what beliefs do they share; what is the focus of the conversation, what are they talking about, etc.

4. Facts about relevant social institutions, such as promising, marriage ceremonies, courtroom procedures, and the like, which affect what a person accomplishes in or by saying what she does.

Language Use in Context:

'Context' is an all-pervasive term in pragmatics. For some authors 'context' is the defining concept of pragmatics. But many, perhaps too many, different concepts are included under this term. In Linguistics, 'context' commonly means the previous and subsequent linguistic material in a given text. In Kaplan's scheme, the context is objective, it comprises the actual basic facts about an utterance: the speaker, time, place, and possible world in which it occurs. In Stalnaker's scheme, context is basically subjective: a matter of common ground: that is, shared beliefs that serve as common presuppositions for the interpretation of assertions. Often the term is used for anything in the indefinitely large surrounding of an utterance, from the intentions of the speaker to the previous topics of conversation to the objects discernible

in the environment.

Linguistic Context versus Extra Linguistic Context:

Considering the context of an utterance, one of the most intuitive distinctions is between the context as consisting of its previous and subsequent utterances the linguistic contexts and any other extra-linguistic circumstance surrounding the utterance. In the case of ellipsis and anaphoric (and cataphoric) pronouns the designation is determined, or at least constrained, by the linguistic context of the utterance, while the designation of deictic demonstratives is fixed by contextual extra linguistic facts.

Narrow versus Broad:

Narrow context is usually understood as the list of parameters for basic indexical, parameters that correspond to basic facts about the utterance. Speaker, place and time are on almost everyone's list, as required for the interpretation of 'I,' 'here,' 'now' and tense. Kaplan adds the possible world, for the interpretation of 'actual.' Arguably, every utteranceoccurs in a world, at a time, in a place, and with a speaker. In contrast, wide or broad context is understood as all other kinds of information, inparticular, information relative to the speaker's communicative intention, used for the interpretation of 'pragmatic aspects' of the utterance.

Narrow context is semantic, wide context pragmatic. But on this there would be some disagreement, as many would hold that information about the speaker's intentions, and perhaps also about causal and informational chains, on-going topics of conversations, and much else, are needed for semantics.

Epistemic versus Doxastic:

It is sometimes assumed, particularly by writers with a psychological orientation, that, together with speaker's intentions, it is speaker's beliefs what determine the content of expressions in her utterance, with the issue of the truth (or falsity) of her beliefs having no relevance. So, belief rather than knowledge is the relevant concept to characterize context.

According to this view, there would not be a significant difference between 'intending to say' and 'saying,' which goes about some truths of intentions in general: one usual way of failing to perform an action comes from the falsity of some agent's belief. This is related to another possible distinction between objective and subjective contexts.

Objective versus Subjective:

There are a number of cases, however, in which the speaker's beliefs, even if shared by everyone in the conversation, do not seem to determine content. Suppose, for example, that Elwood's hero worship of John Searle has reached such a point that he now takes himself to be John Searle. He introduces himself to the new class of Stanford graduate students by saying, "I'm John Searle, from across the Bay." It seems that even if he and everyone in the conversation believe he is Searle, what he has said is the falsehood that Elwood is John Searle. Or, suppose a group of golfers is standing on the small portion of the Stanford golf course that juts into San Mateo County, but none of them realize it. "The county seat of this county is San Jose," one of them says, for some reason or other. He believes he has informed them of the truth that the county seat of Santa Clara County is San Jose, and in fact the other members of the foursome learn this fact from what he says. Nevertheless, many would argue, what he said was false, and only fortuitous ignorance led his partners to learn a truth from the falsehood he uttered.

Pre-semantic Context:

Pre-semantic context provides information for identifying the utterance: which words in which language with which syntactic structure, and with which meanings are being used.

Semantic Context:

Semantic context comprises those contextual features that determine or partly determine the content of context-sensitive expressions. This is the case of pronouns, whose linguistic meanings do more or less strictly constrain but do not determine their designate.

78

Their meanings direct us to the context (linguistic context, in cases of anaphoric co-designation; extra-linguistic context in cases of indexical and deictic uses of demonstratives) to look for the designation of the pronoun. But there are more context-sensitive expressions than indexical, deictic and anaphoric pronouns.

Sentence mood, for instance, is an indicator of illocutionary point, but it does not determine the precise illocutionary force of an utterance without the help of contextual factors. The contribution to utterance-content of some particles like 'but' (that, according to Grice, produce 'conventional implicates) are another case in point.

Post-semantic Context:

A post-semantic context comprises facts that provide unarticulated content. For example, the fact that a conversation is about Palo Alto may determine, perhaps together with speaker intentions, that the statement "It is raining," has the content that it is raining in Palo Alto. Arguably, such contextual contributions are not triggered by the meaning-rules of the words used, but more global considerations. The fact that we usually are talking about rain in a particular place hasto do with the nature of rain and the way humans are concerned with it and conceptualize thephenomena, rather than the syntax of 'rain.

(Far-side) Pragmatic Context:

This comprises those contextual factors needed to get at (calculate, infer) what is communicated or done in and by saying what one says. This importantly concerns the speaker's intentions regarding indirect speech acts, implicatures, and non-literal contents. It may also include institutional facts and indeed, all sorts of other things relevant to the effectsof the utterance. Here are a number of distinctions that have been made with respect to the concept(s) of context that the reader may find helpful. The list is not intended to be exhaustive, mutually exclusive, or to represent a single coherent view of pragmatic phenomena.

Communication:

Message Model and Inferential Model of Communication:

Message Model:

Linguistic communication is successful if the hearer receives the speaker's message. It works because the message has been conventionalized as the meaning of expressions, and by sharing knowledge of the meaning of an expression, the hearer can recognize the speaker's message and speaker's communicative intention.

- Message is encoded by the speaker

- Message is carried through sounds

- Message is decoded by the hearer

The Inferential Model:

The inferential model proposes that communication consists of communicators making inferences about what the other is thinking or intending based on evidence provided in context. Inferences are essentially deductions or informed estimates. Because we cannot directly read the content of other people's thoughts, we have to do our best to figure out what they are thinking - that is, the meme states they are intending to communicate based on their behavior that is, based on the social stimuli they exhibit. For this process to be successful, communicators have to display and recognize two distinct types of intentions: informative intentions and communicative intentions.

Informative intentions refer to intentions related to the content of one's meme state—that is, what one is trying to communicate. When communicators are constructing or sending a message, their informative intention is that their audience recognize what they are trying to communicate. When communicators are interpreting or receiving a message, the informative intention they must infer or recognize is what their interlocutor wanted to communicate or share with them. For example, if Sally wants to tell Anne that, "the toy is in the box", Sally's

informative intention is that Anne recognizes, or infers, that the particular toy she is referring to is located in a particular box. This informative intention i.e., that Anne recognize that a particular toy is in a particular box) is what Anne needs to infer for communication of this meme state to be successful. This is generally the set of inferences about intentions that comes to mind first when we think about communicating via inference-making.

Communicative intentions, the second type of intentions, refer to intentions to communicate in the first place. We do many things every day that result in casting many different types of stimuli, but much of it is not intended for anyone, or to communicate anything - it is just incidental, or a by-product of doing other things. For example, when walkdown the street, your legs and arms move (as you propel yourself forward) and your gaze moves around (taking in your surroundings), but this nonverbal behavior is not necessarily intended to activate any specific meme states in anyone. However, if you see your friend as you walk down the street, lock eyes with him or her, and start moving in a visibly purposeful way toward them, you could intend your non-verbal behavior to communicate to your friend: "I see you; I am coming over to say hello to you." In the first example, there is no communicative intention associated with your body movement and gaze; in the second, there is a communicative intention associated with your body movement and gaze.

When communicators are constructing or sending a message, their communicative intention is that their "audience recognize that are trying to communicate". When communicators are interpreting or receiving a message, the communicative intention they must infer or recognize is that their interlocutor wants to communicate with them. Thus, communication depends on two distinct intentions being present and recognized: first, a communicator must intend to communicate (communicative intention), and others must recognize this. Then the communicator must intend for specific meme states to be activated in others' minds (informative intention). Once other communicators have recognized the

communicative intention and as a result, oriented their attention to the stimuli being provided as relevant to this process then they must infer the communicator's informative intention, or what meme state the communicator is seeking to activate.

Sentence Meaning and Utterance Meaning:

Sentence Meaning:

Sentence Meaning is an important component of a general account of linguisticmeaning. Studying it raises important issues about finding relevant data, about the relationship between data and theories, about the use of intuitions as data. It also raisesquestions about the notion of compositionality, and about the interaction of separate components of linguistic knowledge and linguistic theory. Sentence Meaning is a difficult subject which can be introduced gently, beginningwith an overall sketch of what a theory of linguistic meaning needs to account for, namely how an initial, linguistically encoded semantic representation leads to an overall interpretation of an utterance in context.

Linguistic semantics aims to account for what is linguistically encoded, while a pragmatic theory will explain how more detailed interpretations are derived on the basis of semantic representations. Most courses in semantics begin by concentrating on lexical meaning. Once thesemantics-pragmatics distinction has been established, students become accustomed to exploring questions about meaning focusing mainly on words.

One way to introduce questions about sentence meaning is to consider example utterances which have the same propositional content but differ in linguistically encoded meaning. This means that there must be a difference in meaning at sentence level. An alternative is to start with a broader range of examples and ask what are the linguistically encoded differences between them. This leads to differentiating different types of lexical meaning, syntactic meaning, intonational meaning and contextual inference. This leads to the important notion of compositionality, the notion that the linguistic meaning of an expression is

made up from the sum of the meanings of its parts. If compositionality is maintained, and if sentences with the same propositional content have different meanings, then there must be linguistically encoded meaning at sentence level which goes beyond propositional content.

The first step in determining what kind of meaning this could be is to consider common sense notions, such as that interrogative syntax encodes question meaning. It is easyto find counterexamples to this view, which leads to the discussion of particular theoretical approaches. Most courses begin by considering the notion of speech acts, originating in the work of Austin (1976). Each new approach can be interrogated by considering a range of examples. Each course organizer can decide precisely which range of approaches to consider and in how much detail.

Classroom activities will focus on technical terms, starting with fundamental terms such as sentence, utterance, proposition and definitely including terms conventionally associated with linguistic forms, such as interrogative and terms conventionally reserved for 'forces' or interpretations, such as question. Alongside exercises designed to reinforce understanding of these terms, some work will focus on discussion of reading, which can include individual or group presentations. The core of a course will involve the use of data to test particular approaches, which lends itself well to group problem-solving tasks. Assessment can cover essays and exercises, in coursework or in exam conditions, andprojects in which students collect and evaluate their own data.

Utterance Meaning:

a. It is relevant enough to be worth the hearer's processing effort.

b. It is the most relevant one compatible with the speaker's abilities and preferences.

In this approach, the search for relevance is a basic feature of human cognition, which is exploited, in ostensive-inferential communication. Speakers and hearers have powerful mind-reading abilities. In producing a certain utterance, the speaker tends to take for granted

what background assumptions the hearer is likely to use, what inferences he is likely to draw, etc. Since she can predict to some extent the line of thought the hearer is likely to take in processing her utterance and so what information is likely to be relevant to him at that moment, she will produce, according to her own abilities and preferences, an utterance which will enable the hearer to derive the intended effects for the investment of as little processing effort as is compatible with the speaker's abilities and preferences. On the assumption that the speaker is aiming at optimal relevance, and is competent to achieve it, thehearer is entitled to follow a path of least effort in deriving cognitive effects and to take the first interpretation that satisfies his expectations of (optimal) relevance to be the one the speaker intended.

Basic Idea About Words Interpretation in Utterances:

On some occasions, the speaker thinks the most efficient way of communicating her intended message the way that would involve the least expenditure of processing effort to derive the intended effects is through the using of words or phrases in utterances. She predicts the hearer will retrieve the conceptual representation it encodes and add some of it. The Pragmatic Construction of Word Meaning in Utterances accompanying information to the context to derive the set of implications she intended. It is because wordsand phrase have conventional meanings that denote ordinary situations that they provide convenient clues to the derivation of a wide range of implications for a relatively low processing effort. This part looks in detail at how the process of words in utterances interpreting works.

Decoding the utterance containing words and phrases triggers automatically in the hearer's mind both a presumption of optimal relevance and the relevance-theoretic interpreting procedure which will guide the hearer in bridging the gap between what is linguistically encoded and what is communicated both, explicitly and implicitly. Relevance Theory argues that pragmatics does not only operate at sentence level butalso at word level in deriving the proposition expressed by the speaker's utterance.

Arriving at the meaning intended by the speaker of an utterance involves a simultaneous pragmatic adjustment of word, phrase meaning which takes place during the process of deriving explicit content, context and implicatures. This process continues until the hearer arrives at a combination that satisfies his expectations of relevance. It is the pragmatic meaning of a word resulting from the process of deriving an optimally relevant interpretation that will be taken to be the concept the speaker intended as a constituent of the explicator of her utterance. In this way, the meaning intended by literally, loosely, hyperbolically and metaphorically used words in utterances, seen to involve just the same mechanisms as are employed in arriving at the meaning of an utterance. Although concepts are linguistically decoded, the output of this decoding is not immediately accepted as the constituent of the thought intended by the speaker.

The concept encoded by a word act as a mere template or pointer to infer the concept expressed by the use of that word and the meaning construction of utterances can be described by assuming an intensive interaction between the lexicon and context. Furthermore, because most words encode a rather unspecified concept, they often need to be pragmatically enriched in context. And also, there is a one-to-many relation between lexically encoded concepts and the concepts they can be used to communicate.

The meaning of words in an utterance the speaker intends to convey is pragmatically (re) contracted on-line by relevance driven inferential mechanisms, which takes as input a set of highly accessible encyclopedic assumptions from the concepts encoded by these words. The amount of processing effort invested, and the depth of processing of the encoded concepts, is highly constrained at every stage by the search for an optimally relevant interpretation.

UNIT V

Stylistics and Rhetoric

What is Discourse?

Discourse comes from the Latin "discursus", which means "a running about." This illustrates the basic idea of relaying information through the natural rhythm and flow of language. Discourse is another word for written or spoken communication. The term is a broad one that has slightly different definitions depending on the discipline in which it is used; in literature, discourse refers to a presentation of thought through language.

Discursive language typically contains long, detailed sentences that address a specific subject in a formal manner. Discourse is a coherently arranged, serious and systematic treatment of a topic inspoken or written language. It constitutes the categories of academic writing aimed at teaching students the method of organizing, narrating and giving detailed description of events in expository paragraphs.

The Function of Discourse:

Discourse is crucial to how readers understand the world the author is trying to create, but its function is much larger in scope than any one literary work. Discourse serves to inform and shape how the individual sees the world and how they form a baseline for responding to different concepts. At its most basic, it may seem like discourse is only communication, but communication is how one interact with one another, with ourselves, andwith the societies. Written communications be they novels, poems, nonfiction books, letters, diary entries, or emails are records of how a society shares information. They provide insights into why we think the way we do and how we connect with people and ideas. They influence behavior, relationships, and social change.

Classes of Discourse:

Discourse may be classified into descriptive, narrative, expository, and argumentative.

1. **Descriptive Discourse:**

A descriptive discourse often takes two forms; it can be in static form, or the form called process description. The static description draws a verbal picture using words that appeal to the senses, while the process description tends to explain the various degrees or levels of advancement involved in carrying out a task. Again, static description may either be the technical or the imaginative form.

The technical form gives a lucid description and objective delineation of details; whereas, the imaginative uses suggestive words and connotations Opens in new window to create a dominant effect about the subject being described. Thus, one may have equipment being described technically by thoroughly giving details of its parts and the functions of such parts, or imaginatively where figures of speech Opens in new window and associated connotations are used to describe it.

1. Good descriptive writing includes many vivid sensory details that paint a picture and appeals to all of the reader's senses of sight, hearing, touch, smell and taste when appropriate. Descriptive writing may also paint pictures of the feelings the person, place or thing invokes in the writer. In the video section below, watch a teacher use a Five Senses Graphic Organizer as a planning strategy for descriptive writing.

2. Good descriptive writing often makes use of figurative language such as analogies, similes and metaphors to help paint the picture in the reader's mind.

3. Good descriptive writing uses precise language. General adjectives, nouns, and passive verbs do not have a place in good descriptive writing. Use specific adjectives and nouns and strong action verbs to give life to the picture you are painting in the reader's mind.

4. Good descriptive writing is organized. Some ways to organize descriptive writing include: chronological (time), spatial (location), and order of importance. When describing a person, you might begin with a physical description, followed by how that person thinks, feels

and acts.

2. Narrative Discourse:

A narrative discourse is that which in its description portrays causally related incidents; here the occurred incidents are often arranged one after another in an order of chronology. The narrative discourse in its typical form is often referred to as fiction; this is because it both provides a highly detailed and structured conception of anecdote. Researchers use narrative analysis to understand how research participants construct story and narrative from their own personal experience. That means there is a dual layer of interpretation in narrative analysis. First the research participants interpret their own lives through narrative. Then the researcher interprets the construction of that narrative. Narratives can be derived from journals, letters, conversations, autobiographies, transcripts of in-depth interviews, focus groups, or other types of narrative qualitative research and then used in narrative research.

Narrative Research:

Narrative analysis, can also practice narrative research, which is a type of study that seeks to understand and encapsulate the human experience by using in depth methods to explore the meanings associated to people's lived experiences. One can utilize narrative research design to learn about these concepts. Narrative analysis can be used in narrative research as well as other approaches such as grounded theory, action research, ethnology and more.

3. Expository Discourse:

An expository discourse consists in giving definitive explanation and clarification by means of examples and illustrations, details, details comparison and, definition contrast, and other rhetorical devices of like nature.

What is Expositor?

The purpose of the expository writing style is to enlighten or instruct. In other words, it means to present an idea or relevant discussion that helps explain or analyze information. Some of the most common examples of expository writing include scientific reports, academic essays and magazine articles. An expository writer cannot assume that potential readers have prior knowledge or understanding about the information that they present. It's best to avoid beating around the bush and highlight things as they are. It needs to be informative and highlight relevant details for better understanding. There should be clarity and an expository writer should know what they are talking about. Well written expository pieces continue to focus on the main topic and list events in an organized manner. The use of the first-person narrative should be avoided; instead, second-person instruction is much more effective. It should steer clear of personal thoughts and opinions and present an unbiased version of the information.

The Different Types of Expository Writing:

Here are the various types of expository writing that'll help you deliver ideas clearly:

Problem and Solution:

As the name suggests, you identify the problem, provide details about it to explain it and suggest a solution(s) to tackle it. You have to justify the solution with sufficient data and propose ways to implement those solutions.

Cause and Effect:

It conveys why something happened and how will it impact something. The outcomes suggested can be either true or hypothetical but the author should validate them.

Compare and Contrast:

In this type of expository writing, the writer compares the similarities and contrasts the differences between the two subjects. This is only possible when subjects belong to the same category. For example, a comparative study between indoor and outdoor stadiums.

Definition and Classification:

It provides a complete description of a subject, elaborating on the meaning, types and examples. It includes terms that have concrete meaning (e.g., objects) as well as abstract meanings (e.g., emotions).

4. Argumentative Discourse:

The argumentative discourse is used with the sole purpose of persuading the audience or either accept or reject opinions. As a primary prerequisite, argumentative discourse only takes effect where there is a contentious or controversial topic. A <u>topic</u> is said to be controversial if there are at least two sides of analyzing or resolving it, and if both sides are logical as well as equally debatable and defensible. It is unnecessary writing an argumentative discourse if the resolution to the issue is obvious. Credibility of sources and logic of presentation are important factors in writing an argumentative essay. Also important is combining a number of rhetorical devices to add rhetorical nuances.

Argumentative Discourse deals with the tools provided for the analysis of argumentative texts and discourse by 'pragmatic' characteristics. It focuses on those linguistic elements in a reconstruction that are relevant to making an adequate analytic overview of the discourse. Starting from the assumption that all speech acts playing a part in argumentative discourse can be reconstructed as part of an attempt at resolving a difference of opinion, the project concentrates on verbal moves which can play a constructive role in the consecutive stages of a critical discussion. In this endeavor, insight from speech act theory, discourse analysis, conversation analysis and other branches of pragma-linguistics are explored which can be helpful in making a systematic inventory of the means used to indicate the communicative and interactional functions of argumentative moves. In our broad conception of this notion, indicators of argumentative moves or, for short, argumentative indicators, are words, expressions or other signs which can serve as indicators of moves and relations between

moves that are relevant to resolving a difference of opinion by means of a critical discussion.

Stylistics:
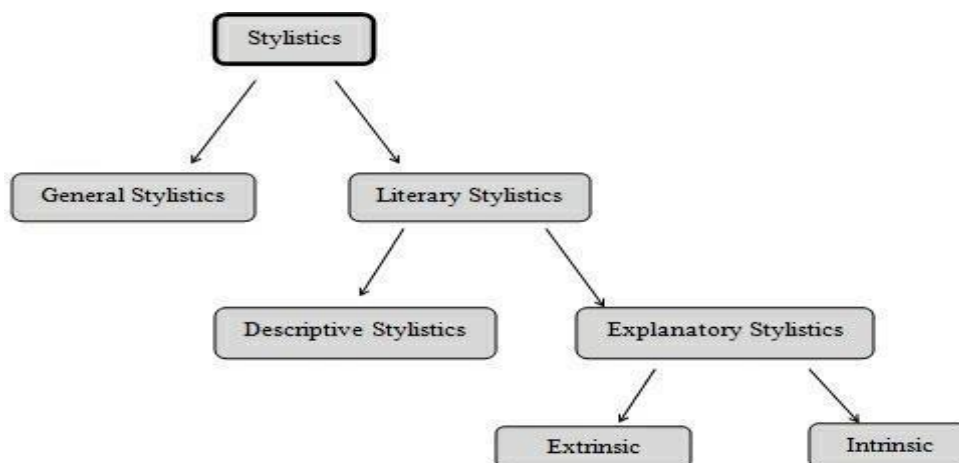
Stylistics is a branch of applied linguistics concerned with the study of style in texts, especially, but not exclusively, in literary works. Also called literary linguistics, stylistics focuses on the figures, tropes, and other rhetorical devices used to provide variety and a distinctness to someone's writing. It is linguistic analysis plus literary criticism. In many mays, stylistics is an interdisciplinary study of textual interpretations, using both language comprehension and an understanding of social dynamics. A stylistician's textual analysis is influenced by rhetoric reasoning and history.

Michael Burke describes the field in *The Routledge Handbook of Stylistics* as an empirical or forensic discourse critique, wherein the stylistician is a person who with his/her detailed knowledge of the workings of morphology, phonology, lexis, syntax, semantics, and various discourse and pragmatic models, goes in search of language-based evidence in order to support or indeed challenge the subjective interpretations and evaluations of various critics and cultural commentators. Burke paints stylisticians, then, as a kind of Sherlock Holmes character who has expertise in grammar and rhetoric and a love of literature and other creative texts, picking apart the details on how they operate piece by piece—observing style as it

91

informs meaning,as it informs comprehension. There are various overlapping subdisciplines of stylistics, and a person who studies any of these is known as a stylistician:

Literary stylistics: Studying forms, such as poetry, drama, and prose

Interpretive stylistics: How the linguistic elements work to create meaningful art

Evaluative stylistics: How an author's style works—or doesn't—in the work

Corpus stylistics: Studying the frequency of various elements in a text, such as to determine the authenticity of a manuscript

Discourse stylistics: How language in use creates meaning, such as studying parallelism, assonance, alliteration, and rhyme

Feminist stylistics: Commonalities among women's writing, how writing is engendered, and how women's writing is read differently than men's

Computational stylistics: Using computers to analyze a text and determine a writer's style

Cognitive stylistics: The study of what happens in the mind when it encounters language

General Stylistics: Stylistics refers to numerous approaches to studying how language is used. It accompanies other methods of studying texts, such as pragmatics. Stylistics can be applied for practical purposes, or merely out of interest.

Literary stylistics is a practice of analyzing the language of literature using linguistic concepts and categories, with the goal of explaining how literary meanings are created by specific language choices and patterning, the linguistic foregrounding, in the text. While stylistics has periodically claimed to be objective, replicable, inspectable, falsifiable and rigorous, and thus quasi-scientific, subjective interpretation is an ineradicable element of such textual analysis. Nevertheless, the best stylistic analyses, which productively demonstrate direct relations between prominent linguistic forms and patterns in a text and the meanings or effects readers experience, are explicit in their procedures and

argumentation, systematic, andtestable by independent researchers.

Stylistics is an interdiscipline situated between literary studies and linguistics, and from time to time has been shunned by both, who for decades predicted its decline if not disappearance. The opposite has happened; stylistics is flourishing, and some of its proponents argue that it offers more authentic and relevant literary studies than much of what goes on in university literature departments. Equally, some stylisticians see their work as a more coherent linguistics, adapted to a particular purpose, than much of the abstract linguistics pursued by academic linguists.

In recent years, stylistics has been reanimated by adoption and adaptation of ideas sourced in cognitive linguistics and by the increasingly easy creation of huge corpora of languages in digital, machine-searchable form; these two developments have given rise to various forms of cognitive stylistics and corpus stylistics. In the early decades of the 21st century, one of the most exciting strands of work in stylistics is exploring kinds of iconicity in literary texts: passages of language that can be seen to enact or perform the effects or meanings the text is intent on conveying.

Descriptive statistics are brief descriptive coefficients that summarize a given data set, which can be either a representation of the entire population or a sample of a population. Descriptive statistics are broken down into measures of central tendency and measures of variability (spread). Measures of central tendency include the mean, median, and mode, while measures of variability include standard deviation, variance, minimum and maximum variables. Descriptive statistics, in short, help describe and understand the features of a specific data set by giving short summaries about the sample and measures of the data. The most recognized types of descriptive statistics are measures of center: the mean, median, and mode, which are used at almost all levels of math and statistics. The mean, or the average, is calculated by adding all the figures within the data set and then dividing by the number of

figures within the set.

A text grammar is the study of texts above the level of the sentence. It shows how texts are put together so as to convey ideas, facts, messages, and fiction. A similar term is discourse analysis. Both are mostly concerned with natural language use; discourse analysis would include spoken language. Speech is also the parent of rhetoric, the ancient study of persuasive speaking. In a similar way, literary criticism parallels text grammar, because both concentrate on the printed word.

A text grammar approach puts emphasis on the linguistic structure of a text, rather than its cultural or symbolic meaning. A text is a coherent body of sentences. Coherent means they are linked by a consistent *theme*. The text ends when *completion* is signaled. For example, when a problem introduced at the start is solved, or when a promised discussion has reached a conclusion.

Text Types:

Each text focuses on certain things. If texts are grouped by what they are doing, then there are five basic text types:

1) Description - Common in science and technology.

2) Narration - Covers the passage of time, and is common in the humanities.

3) Exposition - In which the narrator or writer offers a detailed analysis and explanation of some issue.

4) Argumentation - In which the communicator compares alternative points of view, judges and persuades.

5) Instruction - In which the communicator tells readers what to do. Uses action demanding sentences in sequence.

A text grammar is the study of texts above the level of the sentence. It shows how

texts are put together so as to convey ideas, facts, messages, and fiction. A similar term is discourse analysis. Both are mostly concerned with natural language use; discourse analysis would include spoken language. A text structure is the framework of a text's beginning, middle, and end. Different narrative and expository genres have different purposes and different audiences, and so theyrequire different text structures. Beginnings and endings help link the text into a coherent whole.

What are stylistic devices?

In literature and writing, a figure of speech (also called stylistic device or rhetorical device) is the use of any of a variety of techniques to give an auxiliary meaning, idea, or feeling. Sometimes a word diverges from its normal meaning, or a phrase has a specialized meaning not based on the literal meaning of the words in it. Examples are metaphor, simile, or personification. Stylistic devices often provide emphasis, freshness of expression, or clarity.

Stylistic Devices:

Stylistic devices refer to any of a variety of techniques to give an additional and/or supplemental meaning, idea, or feeling. Also known as figures of speech or rhetorical devices, the goal of these techniques is to create imagery, emphasis, or clarity within a text inhopes of engaging the reader. Let us take a look at some examples to learn more about how to find and understandthese devices:

1. Adnomination:

Repetition of words with the same root. The difference lies in one sound or letter. A nice euphony can be achieved by using this poetic device.

Examples: Nobody loves no one. Someone, somewhere, wants something.

2. Allegory:

Representation of ideas through a certain form (character, event, etc.). Allegory can convey hidden meanings through symbolic figures, actions, and imagery.

Example: *Animal Farm* by George Orwell is all about the Russian Revolution. And characters stand for working and upper classes, military forces, and political leaders.

3. Alliteration:

The repeated sound of the first consonant in a series of words, or the repetition of the same sounds of the same kind at the beginning of words or in stressed syllables of a phrase.

Examples: A lazy lying lion. Peter picked a peck of pickled peppers. Sally sells seashells by the seashore.

4. Allusion:

Reference to a myth, character, literary work, work of art, or an event.

Example: I feel like I'm going down the rabbit hole (an allusion to Alice's *Adventures in Wonderland* by Lewis Carroll).

5. Anaphora:

Word repetition at the beginnings of sentences in order to give emphasis to them.

Example: "Let freedom ring from the mighty mountains of New York. Let freedom ring from the heightening Alleghenies of Pennsylvania. Let freedom ring from the snow-capped Rockies of Colorado. Let freedom ring from the curvaceous slopes of California." (Martin Luther King)

6. Epiphora. Word repetition at the end of sentences.

Example: "And that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth." (Abraham Lincoln)

7. Antithesis:

Emphasizing contrast between two things or fictional characters.

Example: "Love is an ideal thing, marriage a real thing; a confusion of the real with the ideal never goes unpunished." (Johann Wolfgang von Goethe)

8. Apostrophe:

Directed speech to someone who is not present or to an object.

Example: "Work on, my medicine, work! Thus, credulous fools are caught." (William Shakespeare)

9. Assonance:

Repetition of vowels in order to create internal rhyming.

Example: "Hear the mellow wedding bells." (Edgar Allan Poe)

Related: **Consonance.** Repetition of consonants.

10. Cataphora:

Mentioning of the person or object further in the discourse.

Examples: I met him yesterday, your boyfriend who was wearing the cool hat. If you want some, here's some cheese. After he had received his orders, the soldier left the barracks.

11. Climax:

Arranging text in such a manner that tension gradually ascends.

Example. He was a not bad listener, a good speaker and an amazing performer.

Opposite: **Anticlimax.** Tension descends.

12. Charactonym (or Speaking Name)

Giving fictional characters names that describe them.

Example: Scrooge, Snow White.

13. Ellipsis:

Word or phrase omission.

Example: I speak lots of languages, but you only speak two (languages).

14. Euphemism:

Replacing offensive or combinations of words with lighter equivalents.

Example: Visually challenged (blind); meet one's maker (die) Opposite:

Dysphemism. Replacing a neutral word with a harsher word.

15. Epigram:

Memorable and brief saying, usually satirical.

Example: "For most of history, Anonymous was a woman." (Virginia Woolf)

16. Hyperbole:

Exaggeration of the statement.

Example: If I've told you once, I've told you a thousand times.

Opposite: **Litotes.** Understatement.

17. Hypophora:

Asking a question and answering it right away.

Example: Are you going to leave now? I don't think so.

18. Irony:

There are three types of irony:

- *Verbal* (Antiphrasis) – using words to express something different from their literal meaning for ironic effect (I'm so excited to burn the midnight oil and write my academic paper all week long").

- *Situational* – result differs from the expectation (Bruce Robertson, a character of *Filth,* is a policeman. Nonetheless, he does drugs, resorts to violence and abuse, and so on).

- *Dramatic* – situation is understandable for the audience but not the fictional character/actor (audience sees that the fictional characters/actors will be killed now, though the characters don't expect it).

18. Merism:

Describing people/objects by enumerating their traits.

Example: Lock, stock, and barrel (gun); heart and soul (entirety)

19. Metalepsis:

Referencing one thing through the means of another thing, which is related to the first one. Example: "Stop judging people so strictly, you live in a glass house too."

(A hint atthe proverb: people who live in glass houses should not throw stones.)

20. Metaphor:

Comparing two different things that have some characteristics in common.

Example: "Love is clockworks and cold steel." (U2)

21. Metonymy:

Giving a thing another name that is associated with it.

Example: The heir to the crown was Richard. (The crown stands for authority)

22. Onomatopoeia:

Imitating sounds in writing.

Example: oink, ticktock, tweet tweet

23. Oxymoron:

Combining contradictory traits.

Example: Living dead; terribly good; real magic

24. Parallelism:

Arranging a sentence in such a manner that it has parallel structure.

Example: "Tell me and I forget. Teach me and I may remember. Involve me and I will learn." (Benjamin Franklin)

Opposite: **Chiasmus**. An inverted parallelism.

Examples: "To stop, too fearful, and too faint to go." (Oliver Goldsmith); "My job is not to represent Washington to you but to represent you to Washington." (Barack Obama)

25. Parenthesis:

Interrupting a sentence by inserting extra information enclosed in brackets, commas, or dashes. Example: Our family (my mother, sister, and grandfather) had a barbeque this past weekend.

26. Personification:

Attributing human characteristics to nonhumans.

Example: Practically all animals in fairy tales act like human beings. They speak and have traits that are typical of people.

27. Pun:

A kind of wordplay. Here are a few types of puns:

- *Antanaclasis* – repetition of the same word or phrase, but with a different meaning ("Cats like Felix like Felix." - "Felix" cat food slogan).

- *Malapropism* – usage of the incorrect word instead of the word with a similar sound ("optical delusion" instead of "optical illusion").

- *Paradox* – self-contradictory fact; however, it can be partially true ("I can resist anything but temptation."—Oscar Wilde).

- *Paraprosdokian* – arranging a sentence in such a manner so the last part is unexpected

(You're never too old to learn something stupid).

- *Polyptoton* – repetition of the words with the same root ("The things you *own* end up *owning* you."—Chuck Palahniuk).

28. Rhetorical Question:

Questioning without expecting the answer.

Example: Why not? Are you kidding me?

29. Simile:

Direct comparison.

Example: "Your heart is like an ocean, mysterious and dark." (Bob Dylan)

30. Synecdoche:

Generalization or specification based on a definite part/trait of the object.

Example: He just got new wheels. (car)

31. Tautology:

Saying the same thing twice in different ways.

Example: first priority; I personally; repeat again

32. Zeugma (or Syllepsis):

Applying a word to a few other words in the sentence in order to give different meaning.

Example: Give neither counsel nor salt till you are asked for it.

With all these stylistic devices, writing can potentially be more attractive.