

THOMAS, David D., author. 1977. *Sentence components*. *Workpapers in Papua New Guinea Languages* 20. Ukarumpa: Summer Institute of Linguistics. pages 153-164.

SENTENCE COMPONENTS

David Thomas

Summer Institute of Linguistics

Summary

- I. SEMANTIC STRUCTURES (deep structure)
 - A. Locution Types (proposition types)
 1. Nuclear Types: statement, introduction, temporal sequence, covarying, conditional, purposeful, deductive
 2. Compounding: contrastive, equivalent, alternative, additive
 3. Peripheral Elements: time, location
 - B. Modal Types
 1. Illocution Types: declarative, interrogative, imperative, social, self-expression
 2. Mood Types: pleasure, surprise, admiration, etc.
 3. Reality Types: factual, contrafactual, hypothetical, uncertain
 - C. Semantic Prosodies: time movement, information flow, reference structure, assertion structure, topic structure
 - D. Presupposition: encyclopedia, structural presuppositions, contraexpectancies
- II. SURFACE STRUCTURES
 - A. Nuclear Forms: simple, relative embedding, conjunctive, participial, nominalizing embedding, infinitivizing, adjectivalizing embedding, appositive embedding, subordinating, juxtaposed, final echo
 - B. Sentence Peripheral Slots: adverbials, vocatives, etc.
 - C. Prosodic Morphemes: intonation, stress
 - D. Grammatical Completeness
- III. PHONOLOGICAL CARRIER STRUCTURES
 - A. Phonological Groupings (hierarchy)
 - B. Phonological Completeness: continuity, speaker shift
 - C. Phonological Unity: speakers, voice qualities

I. SEMANTIC STRUCTURES

A. Locution Types (propositional content)

1. Nuclear Sentence Types (distinctively sentential relationships).
The formulas do not imply necessary clause order.

- a. Statement. Contains no structural implications for further sentence-level slots.

Formula: Statement

Abe went home.

Will Abe give John a book for his teacher?

- b. Introduction. In its simplest forms it seems to be most commonly found at the beginning of a paragraph or discourse.

Formula: Introduction - Predication

There was a man named Bill; he lived in London.

He gave his father ten cents; the ten cents was what he had earned.

- c. Temporal Sequence. It is quite possible that this should not be considered a nuclear type, as it apparently can be accounted for by additive compounding (IA2d) of a simple nucleus (IA1a) plus sequential time movement (IC1). (Cf. Litteral in this volume.) Sentences of this type have solely temporal sequence without logical or causative relationships.

Formula: Prior Event - Subsequent Eventⁿ

Charlie went first to the bank, then he went to the grocery.
Charlie, go to the bank before going to the grocery; then after that go to the hardware shop!

- d. Covarying.

Formula: Free Variable - Conditioned Variable

The covariance may be either static or varying:

As high as the heavens are above the earth, so great is his mercy toward us. (static)

To the degree that the water level rises or falls, the valve opens and closes. (varying)

And the covariance may be a covariance of simple degree, quality, location, or time:

The harder Don ran, the faster his heart beat.

As goes Maine, so goes the country.

The place where they make a field, that's also where they will live.

The day of a feast will be the day for the marriage.

- e. Conditional (Result). A conditional sentence is generally involuntary and tends to be intransitive or passive.

Formula: Condition—Result

In English when the Condition is known because, so, or when are used; when the Condition is unknown if is used.

Because Ernest goes to town he gets shot at.

If Ernest goes to town he will get shot at.

Whenever Ernest goes to town he gets shot at.

- f. Purposeful (Causal, Reason). A Purposeful sentence is characterized by a purposeful sequence of actions. The Purpose clause is generally the negation or the increasing of the situation in the Cause clause. Elliptical Purposeful sentences often have the same form as Conditional sentences.

Formula: Previous State (Cause) — Correcting Event (Result) — Expected State (Purpose)

Frank was sick, so he went to a doctor in order to be cured.

Because Frank received a lot of money, he invested it so that it might increase.

- g. Deductive.

Formula: General Grounds (Major Premise) — Specific Grounds (Minor Premise) — Deduction (Conclusion)

All men are mortal, and George is a man, so George is mortal.

George is pale, and pale people are usually sick, so George is probably sick.

Elliptical Deductive sentences often take the form of Conditional sentences.

If George is pale he is probably sick.

2. Compounding Types (may be found on all levels of language structure). Theoretically any slot in a nuclear formula may take any of the four types of compounding.

- a. Contrastive (Adversative). Usually marked in English with though or but.

Since Frank received a lot of money, though John didn't, Frank invested it...

Abe went, but John stayed home.

The two contrasting clauses must contrast in both subject and predicate. Thus a clause Pa may be contrasted with Qb, Q(U-a), Pb, P̄(U-a), P''b, or P'''(U-a).

Abe went, but everyone else stayed home.

Abe went, but John didn't.

Abe went, but no one else did.

Abe went, but John tried to escape.

Abe went, but everyone else tried to escape.

- b. Equivalent (Paraphrase). The equivalence may be strict or loose, varying from identical repetition to pronominalized repetition, synonyms, negated antonyms, generic-specific, statement-specification, or loose paraphrase. In all of these, though the form changes, the situation being described remains the same.

Abe ran, yes he ran.

Abe ran, he raced.

Abe ran, he didn't just walk.

Abe was sick, he had malaria.

Abe was hit, he was hit by shrapnel.

Abe cooked the meal; that is, he boiled the water and burned the toast.

- c. Alternative. Alternation may be either exclusive or inclusive, obligatory or optional, and alternative predicates or alternative participants. This gives us the following four types (for a simple binary alternative), which again may again have alternating predicates or participants:

P or Q

P or Q or both

P or Q or neither

P or Q or both or neither

Either Abe will go or John will go.

Abe may go to town, or he may fix his tractor, or he may milk the cows, or he may do all of those things.

Should I put on a tie, or should I go as I am?

- d. Additive (Coordinate). In additive compounding usually only the subject or the predicate contrast, not both.

Abe went and found he liked it.

John put his hand in his pocket and felt for the key.

3. Peripheral Elements.

a. Time Setting.

Punctiliar: on, tomorrow, 2 days before Christmas

Linear: during, within, while..., during the time that...

From (ablative): since, after

To (dative): until, before

Elapsed: for 4 hours (should this be considered verb phrase rather than sentence time?)

Last March Abe went to town.

Nowadays, if Ernest goes to town one day he gets shot at the next. (Note the sentence time in contrast with the two clause times.)

b. Location Setting. All types can be linear or punctiliar.

General: everywhere, nowhere, somewhere

Internal: in, inside, within, throughout, somewhere in, everywhere in

External: outside, outside of, everywhere except

Proximity: at, near, on, along, all along

In Ukarumpa Charlie went first to the cashier, then he went to the store.

In Kentucky Ernest gets shot at in town but is safe in the countryside. (Note the sentence location in contrast with the two clause locations.)

B. Modal Types (relationships between the speaker, hearer, and the assumed real world)

1. Illocution Types (3 major, at least 2 minor)

a. Declarative.

Degrees of assurance, certain to uncertain, regarding the sentential relation as a whole.

If Ernest smokes he'll get sick.

If Ernest smokes he'll get sick for sure.

If Ernest smokes he may or may not get sick.

Sources of knowledge: general knowledge, first-hand, or second-hand.

Everyone knows that if Ernest smokes he'll get sick.

I think that if Ernest smokes he'll get sick.

It is said that if Ernest smokes he'll get sick.

b. Interrogative.

Truth value (polar, yes/no) questions may presume the answer in various degrees.

Didn't Alex go home?

Did Alex really go home?

Alex didn't go home, did he?

How certain is it that Alex went home?

Content questions may ask for tagmemes from the sentence, clause, or phrase level.

Why did Alex go home? (asking for Purpose)

What did Frank do to get cured? (Result)

Who went to the park? (Actor)

Whose car is that? (Possessor)

How many homers did he hit? (Quantity)

c. Imperative.

Degrees of compulsion, strong to mild.

Abe, milk the cows!

Abe, please milk the cows.

Abe, it would be nice if you would milk the cows.

Sources of compulsion: 1st, 2nd, 3rd person, general

Please come.

It is necessary for your own sake that you come.

The family wants you to come.

It is imperative that you come.

Objects of compulsion: 1st, 2nd, 3rd person

Let's go.

Please go.

He must go.

d. Social. Includes greetings, responses, conversation maintainers, farewells, etc.

Good morning.

Uh huh.

Y'all come back now, hear.

e. Self-expression.

Ouch!

Well, who would have thought it!

2. Mood Types. There are presumably several more than the following three types.a. Pleasure.

Degrees of pleasure, from pleasing to displeasing.

I'm happy John will go to town.

It's too bad John will go to town.

Experiencers of pleasure: general, 1st, 2nd, 3rd person.

It's good that John went to town.

I'm delighted John went to town.

You will be pleased to know that John went to town.

Bill will be happy that John went to town.

Objects of pleasure: action, causer and action, actor and action.

I'm glad John went to town.

I'm angry with Bill over John's going to town.

I'm pleased with John for going to town.

b. Surprise.

Degrees of surprise, from unexpected to normal.

Experiencers of surprise: general, 1st, 2nd, 3rd person.

Objects of surprise: action, causer and action, actor and action.

You mean to say she ran away!

I hadn't quite thought she would run away!

It was to be expected that she would run away.

Bill was surprised at her for running away.

c. Admiration.

Degrees of admiration, from pride to shame.

Experiencers of admiration: general, 1st, 2nd, 3rd person.

Objects of admiration: action, causer and action, actor and action.

I'm proud that he won the prize.

I admire him for winning the prize.

His mother was ashamed of his winning the prize.

3. Reality Types. A sentence may be factual, contrafactual, hypothetical, or uncertain. This differs from the Assurance parameter of the Declarative illocution in that Assurance measures the certainty of the relationship between the parts of the sentence, while Reality tells us whether or not the events of the sentence actually take place. The following sentences all have certain Assurance but differ in their Reality.

Because Ernest went to town he got shot at.

If Ernest had gone to town he would have been shot at.

If Ernest goes to town he gets shot at.

If Ernest were to go to town he would get shot at.

- C. Semantic Prosodies (Staging). Also present at other levels.

1. Time Movement. The progress of time through the sentence may be indicated graphically by lines and dots as in Ballard et al. 1971, by simple subscripts as below here, or by more precise topological indications as in Litteral 1972.

All men are mortal (T_1), and George is a man (T_1), so George too must be mortal (T_1).

Gilbert smokes (T_1), and everyone who smokes (T_{1a}) gets sick (T_{2a}), so Gilbert will get sick (T_2).

2. Information Flow. New and old in the sentence, as distinct from new and old in the discourse. Deduction sentences require that the Conclusion be entirely composed of sententially old information. Purposeful sentences require that the Purpose be largely

composed of old information from the Cause. Other sentence types have fewer requirements on the information flow.

All men (N) are mortal (N), and George (N) is a man (O), so George (O) too must be mortal (O).

If Ernest (N) goes to town (N), he (O) will get shot at.

3. Reference Structure. Some sentence types have specific pronominalization and reference rules. Some rules for the Purposive sentence are:

- (i) Cause (C) and Result (R) tend to expect the same surface subject, so a subject of R that is not the subject of C must be named.
- (ii) Purpose (P) does not have surface subject expectations, so any participant from R can be the subject of P.
- (iii) Only participants from R are pronominalized in P.
- (iv) C and P must have the same participants in the same semantic roles, so that determines pronoun reference in P.

John (N₁) wounded Bill (N₂), so Bill (N₂) went to the doctor (N₃) so he (Pr₂) could cure him (Pr₂).

John (N₁) wounded Bill (N₂) so he (Pr₁) went to a doctor (N₃) so the doctor (N₃) could cure Bill (N₂).

4. Assertion Structure (sentential prominence). One or more clauses in a sentence may be asserted (marked in the examples with *). In a Purposeful sentence the Cause cannot be asserted by itself of just with Purpose, but all other combinations can be gotten:

*Frank was sick, *so he went to the doctor so that he could be cured.

Because Frank was sick, *he went to the doctor so that he could be cured.

Because when Frank was sick he went to the doctor, *he got cured.

Because Frank was sick, *he went to the doctor, *and he got cured.

*Frank was sick, *so he went to the doctor, *and he got cured.

Clauses before the assertion are presupposed, asserted clauses are stated, and clauses following the assertion are predicted. Locution and mood assertion differences may be marked lexically, as in the following:

John accused Bill of running away. (asserted locution 'Bill ran away', presupposed mood 'displeasure')

John blamed Bill for running away. (asserted mood, presupposed locution)

5. Topic Structure (theme-rheme). There seems to be a sentence topic structure in contrast with clause topics, but I have done no analysis on it yet.

D. Presupposition.

1. Sentential Encyclopedia. The encyclopedia may contain universally known, culturally known, and contextually known information necessary for the understanding of the sentence. To understand the "Frank was sick..." sentence properly we must have in our encyclopedia the following information:
 - (i) sick people generally go to doctors (cultural)
 - (ii) doctors generally make sick people well (universal)
 This is sentential information, in contrast with phrase, clause, paragraph and discourse information which must also be known. The speaker expects the hearer to have this in his encyclopedia.
2. Structural Presuppositions. The locution structures presuppose certain time, information, reference, and assertion structures in whole or in part. For discussion of these see IC above.
3. Contraexpectancies. Violation of the encyclopedic or structural expectations, generally marked in English with but, though, nevertheless, or something similar.

Fred received a lot of money, so he invested it, but he didn't get any richer.

Don ran harder but his heart didn't beat any faster.

Though Charlie went to the bank, he didn't then go to the grocery.

II. SURFACE STRUCTURES (meaningful forms)

A. Nuclear Form Types. (English types suggestive only)

a. Simple

Alfred ran downhill.

b. Relative Embedding

Fred, who was rich, invested his money to get richer.

c. Conjunctive

Fred was rich, so he invested his money so that he might become richer.

d. Participial

Being rich, Fred invested his money.

e. Nominalizing Embedding

Fred's wealth led him to invest his money.

f. Infinitivizing

Fred invested his money to get richer.

g. Adjectivalizing Embedding

Rich Fred invested his money.

h. Appositive Embedding

Fred, a rich man, invested his money.

i. Subordinating

Under the influence of his sickness, Frank went to a doctor.

j. Juxtaposed

Frank was sick; he went to a doctor.

k. Final Echo (tag)

Frank was sick, so he went to a doctor, he did.

B. Peripheral Slots.1. Adverbials. Occur in various positions.

Fortunately Alfred ran downhill.

George is a man, so naturally he is mortal.

Surprisingly Don's heart didn't beat any faster when he ran harder.

2. Vocatives. Semantically a paragraph-level function, but often manifested on the sentence level.

Frank, because you are sick, go to a doctor.

Invest your money, Fred, because you are rich.

C. Prosodic Morphemes Affecting the Sentence.1. General Intonation Contours. Most languages have several standard contrastive intonation contours, which may be analyzed in terms of levels or of tunes. (Cf. Armstrong & Ward 1926, Pike 1945, Lehiste 1970)2. Intonational Prominence. Many languages add extra intonational peaks for emphasis (superimposed on the general contour) and dips for de-emphasis. English usually marks a parenthetical comment with a dip. (Cf. Dorothy Thomas 1966.)3. Stress Placement. The placement of sentential stresses can indicate prominence. (Lehiste 1970)

If Ernest comes home he may *meet his friend.

If Ernest comes home he *may meet his friend.

D. Grammatical Completeness (ellipsis). A sentence may be grammatically intact, or may contain deleted sentence tagmemes or deleted clause tagmemes.

Frank went to the doctor to be cured. (deleted Cause)
 Gerald is pale, so he is probably sick. (deleted General
 Grounds)

III. PHONOLOGICAL CARRIER STRUCTURES (The phonological elements or characteristics which of themselves do not carry meaning but are structurally necessarily present.)

A. Phonological Groupings (hierarchy). Syllables, feet, pause groups, intonational groups, intonational sentences.

///Frank/was sick//so he went/to a doctor//to get cured///

B. Phonological Completeness.

1. Continuity.

Continuous: uttered without a break

Interrupted: uttered with breaks in the middle, either from the speaker voluntarily pausing or from other people interrupting.

Fragmentary: started but not finished.

2. Speaker Shift. Usually a speaker will finish his own sentence, but occasionally another speaker will finish it for him.

C. Phonological Unity.

1. Speakers. A single speaker or several speakers in unison.

2. Voice quality. Quality, volume, pitch, speed.

REFERENCES

- Armstrong, L.E. and I.C. Ward, 1926. *Handbook of English Intonation*. Leipzig: Teubner.
- Ballard, Lee, Robert Conrad and Robert Longacre, 1971. More on the Deep and Surface Grammar of Interclausal Relations. Huntington Beach: S.I.L. LD-AP No. 1.
- Grimes, Joseph E., 1975. *The Thread of Discourse*. The Hague: Mouton.
- Huttar, George, 1973. On Distinguishing Clause and Sentence. *Linguistics* 105:69-82.
- Lehiste, Ilse, 1970. *Suprasegmentals*. Cambridge: MIT.
- Litleral, Robert, 1972. Rhetorical Predicates and Time Topology in Angkor. *Foundations of Language* 8:391-410.
- Longacre, Robert, 1976. *An Anatomy of Speech Notions*. Lisse: de Ridder.

- Pike, Evelyn, 1974. *Coordination and its Implications for Roots and Stems of Sentence and Clause*. Lisse: de Ridder.
- Pike, Kenneth L., 1945. *Intonation of American English*. Ann Arbor: U. Michigan.
- _____ and Evelyn Pike, 1976. *Grammatical Analysis*. Huntington Beach: S.I.L.
- Smaby, Richard, 1974. Subordinate Clauses and Asymmetry in English. *Journal of Linguistics* 10:235-269.
- Thomas, David, 1975. *Notes and Queries on Language Analysis*. Huntington Beach: S.I.L. LD-AP No. 10.
- Thomas, Dorothy, 1966. Chrau Intonation. *Mon-Khmer Studies* 2:1-13. Reprinted in R. Brend, ed., *Studies in Tone and Intonation* (1975). Basel: Karger.