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LITERATURE

Word Order and Information Status

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MASTER'S THESIS

ADVISOR

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SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ

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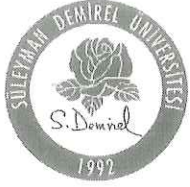
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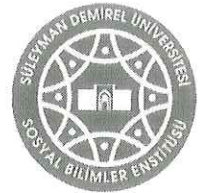
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Yeni Tez Başlığı ¹ (Eğer değişmesi önerildi ise)		
Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Lisansüstü Eğitim-Öğretim ve Sınav Yönetmeliği hükümleri uyarınca yapılan Yüksek Lisans Tez Savunma Sınavında Jürimiz 08/01/2016 tarihinde toplanmış ve yukarıda adı geçen öğrencinin Yüksek Lisans tezi için; ☒ OY BİRLİĞİ ☐ OY ÇOKLUĞU² ile aşağıdaki kararı almıştır. ☒ Yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda aday başarılı bulunmuş ve tez KABUL edilmiştir. ☐ Yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda tezin DÜZELTİLMESİ³ kararlaştırılmıştır. ☐ Yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda aday başarısız bulunmuş ve tezinin REDDEDİLMESİ⁴ kararlaştırılmıştır.		
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¹ Tez başlığının DEĞİŞTİRİLMESİ ÖNERİLDİ ise yeni tez başlığı ilgili alana yazılacaktır. Değişme yoksa çizgi (-) konacaktır.

² OY ÇOKLUĞU ile alınan karar için muhalefet gerekçesi raporu eklenmelidir.

³ DÜZELTME kararı için gerekçeli jüri raporu eklenmeli ve raporu tüm üyeler imzalamalıdır.

LİSANSÜSTÜ EĞİTİM-ÖĞRETİM VE SINAV YÖNETMELİĞİ Madde 28-(4) Tezi hakkında DÜZELTME kararı verilen öğrenci sınav tarihinden itibaren en geç üç ay içinde gereğini yaparak tezini aynı jüri önünde yeniden savunur.

⁴ Tezi REDDEDİLEN öğrenciler için gerekçeli jüri raporu eklenmeli ve raporu tüm üyeler imzalamalıdır. Tezi reddedilen öğrenci, yeni tez konusu belirler.



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Yüksek Lisans tezi olarak sunduğum “Word Order and Information Status” adlı çalışmanın, tezin proje safhasından sonuçlanmasına kadar ki bütün süreçlerde bilimsel ahlak ve geleneklere aykırı düşecek bir yardıma başvurulmaksızın yazıldığını ve yararlandığım eserlerin Bibliyografya’da gösterilenlerden oluştuğunu, bunlara atıf yapılarak yararlanılmış olduğunu belirtir ve onurumla beyan ederim.

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ÖZET

Kelime Sıralaması ve Bilgi Statüsü

Abbas Fadhıl Jabbar AL-ZUBAIDI

Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi

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Danışman: Prof. Dr.Hüseyin RZAYEV

Bu çalışma, İngilizcedeki sözcük sıraları ve bilgi durumunu incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Bu bağlamda, potansiyel sözcük sıralamaları ilgili iki bölümde ele alınmıştır. Sözcük sıralamanın bir dildeki dizinsel unsurlardan oluştuğunu ortaya koyduk. Sözcük sıralama, cümle yapısında süreklilik gösteren değişkenlerden oluşmaktadır. İngilizce de sözcük sıraları genellikle dilbilgisel unsurlara göre belirlenir. Sözcük sıralamasının dilbilgisel analizleri genellikle o dildeki dilbilimsel birimlerden oluşan ifade, kalıp ve cümlelere göre belirlenir. Sözcük sıralaması, dildeki belli bir amacına) vurgulamak için (fonksiyonel yapılarla karşı karşıya), b) değişen cümle yapılarında iletişimsel genel durumların kullanımının çalışmasından oluşur. Dillerdeki sözcükleri düzenleme ve sıralamanın muhtemelen altı mantıksal yolu vardır. Sözcük sıralaması ve dizini temel olarak Özne, Nesne ve Fiil (SVO, SOV, VSO, OVS ve OSV) şeklinde yapılır. Dünya dillerindeki sözcük dizinleri, 86% oranında Özne, Nesne, Fiil (SOV) ve Özne, Fiil, Nesne (SVO) şeklinde ki yapılardan oluşturulur. İngilizcede ise sözcük sıralaması sabittir. Diğer taraftan sözcük dizini bakımından Rusça ve Japonca oldukça esnek dillerdir. Bu dillerde fiil cümlelerinin sonuna da gelebilmektedir. İngilizce vezin dilinde sözcük dizini bakımından azda olsa esneklik göstermektedir. Çünkü vezin eserlerde etkiyi arttırmak için sözcüklerin ve kelimelerin farklı esnek bir şekilde sıralanması gerekir. Cümle, belli bir duruş için temel bir eylemdir. Cümle bazı gerçekleri işaret etmek için elzemdir. Her cümle belli bir durumda iletişimi başlatmak için temel bir unsurdur. Bütün durumlarda iletişimsel uyumsuzluk dilbilgisel uyumsuzluğa tekabül etmez. Bu çalışma, bilimsel dergilerden ve dilbilimsel eserlerden derlenen örneklerin ve ikinci dereceden verilerin analizlerine dayalıdır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Sözcük sıralama, bilgi yapısı, devrik yapı, iletişim düzeyi, Prag Dil Okulu, İletişim

ABSTRACT

Word Order and Information Status

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The aim of this study is to investigate and identify the word order and information status in English. To this end, two chapters were introduced and identified in examining the word order potential. It has been found that the word order is the analysis of the syntactic elements of a language. Word order is both constant and variable features of sentence structure. In English, word order is determined mainly by the grammatical factor. The grammatical analysis of word order refers to the sequential arrangement of words in larger linguistic units such as phrases, clauses and sentence. Word order consists of a) attempts to emphasize a particular perspective toward language (functional versus structural) which is tied to focus on (language in use) and b) the study of general conditions of the communicative use of the word order in various sentence patterns. There are six logically possible ways of arranging words into sentences according to their basic grammatical functions of Subject, Object, and Verb (SVO, SOV, VSO, VOS, OVS, and OSV), the SOV and SVO orders account for 86% of word order variation among the world's languages. In English, the word order is fixed. On the other hand, Russian has flexible word order, and Japanese permits several different orders provided the verb to appear at the end of the sentence. English does not follow the strict word order in the poetry works, because the rearranging of the words of the sentences in poetry works will enhance their dramatic effect. Sentence is an elementary verbal act of taking a stand – point towards some reality, every sentence has a basic section which appears as known , the starting point of communication in the given situation (thematic section) and a section that brings the very contribution of the given sentence to the development of the text (rhematic section). The communicative division doesn't coincide with the grammatical division in all cases. The study is based on an analysis of secondary data which were taken from journals, theses, linguistic textbooks, and conference papers.

Keywords: word order, information structure, inversion, communication level, Prague school, communication

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Introduction

1) Aim and goals

The purpose of this study is to make a few pertinent remarks on word order and information status in English. It starts with shedding light on the method of typology that the Prague school scholars developed. Two goals can be recognized in this method. First, the classification of the languages of the world by means of certain types, second, the investigation and determination of certain typical mechanisms of language. Thus, one of the primary ways in which languages differ from one another is in the order of constituents or word order. It means the order of (subject, object, and verb) with respect to each other. Linguistically, word order is regarded as a syntactic class; it refers to the arrangement of the syntactic elements or constituents in numerous languages and how several languages use different orders. In other words, word order is concerned with the distribution of words and it specifies which words are in which order. In natural languages, words refer to entities, states, and actions. We use these languages to describe how these words relate to one another. In addition to words, word order is also concerned with the method of distribution of phrase or clause which can appear in any position of the sentence.

There are six main word orders found in the world languages, these orders are (SOV, SVO, VSO, VOS, OVS, and OSV). According to this order, SOV languages are dominant, with SVO a close second, and VSO a distant third. The remaining orders (OSV, VOS, and OVS) are rare. For the principle of basic word order, we will start with Weil's claim that "the order of words ought to reproduce the order of ideas; these two orders ought to be identical" (Weil 1978:21). He distinguishes between the syntactic progression and the progression of ideas. Weil assumes that the theory of word order is based on pragmatics, in other words, he claims that the sequence of ideas starts from the initial concept to the goal. In connection with this, these days there is a great interest in the syntactical progression to be identical to the progression of ideas. On the other hand, as Meyer (2009: 112) states that "the syntactic units are not simply arbitrarily grouped and ordered but form identifiable units". Accordingly, there are four different levels of structure at which constituents can occur. These are sentences which are the largest constituent and words which are considered the smallest constituent. Between these two extremes are clauses and phrases. For

Meyer (2009: 112) "the sentence itself is a constituent. But within the sentence, one can find several immediate constituents: separate units into which a given structure can be divided". The sentence consists of two immediate constituents: the subject and the predicate. The predicate, in turn divided into two immediate constituents: the verb and the noun phrase. Lyon (1968) says that all sentences have a simple linear structure, in other words, every sentence of the language could be expressed as a sequence of constituents. Additionally, the sentence is not just a linear sequence of elements, but is made of layers of immediate constituents. The sentence (e.g. the girl will sing) contains four words forms (the, girl, will, and sing) and these forms are constituents of the sentence. These four elements are not equally ranked, in which the word (the) seems to be related with the word (girl) in a more immediate way than with the word (sing). The word (will) seems related with the word (sing) more than with (the). On this basis, the sentence (the girl will sing) has two constituents. These two larger groups or constituents are the immediate constituents of the sentence. In words we can say the sentence (the girl will sing) has two groups, the first is {(the) and (girl)} and the second is {(will) and (sing)}. The constituent of a sentence are organized as constituents inside constituents. So, we can say that constituents are groups of words belonging together.

Furthermore, Greenberg contributing to word order typology, mentions two different kinds of universals; the statistical or absolute universals and the implicational or relational universals. The first universals show that all languages have a given feature (x), whereas the second universals refer to the fact that if a language has (x), then it will have (y). Greenberg prefers to use implicational universals.

2) Scope and limitation

When examining the word order of a language, we may ask: what the order of elements is in the language? Chapter one deals with word order in English, whilst the major concern of chapter two is word order and information status in English. Each chapter gives sufficient space to varying opinions and their critical analysis. with regards word order in English, we will discuss and evaluate the rigid word order of the English language. In order to elaborate on this with this, it is necessary to point out that world languages have either flexible or fixed order of their sentences elements.

In English as a rigid word order language, the normal ordering is SVO (agent-predicate-patient). As a matter of fact, the rigidity of word order in English means that when the order of the elements changes this will lead to change in the syntactic and semantic interpretation of the element. The rigid word order requires the placing of the syntactic subject before the verb in the main clause. According to the fixed word order, the adverbials may come before the subject. They are mobile. English word order doesn't allow for the variation OVS.

In the second section of chapter one, we will deal with the syntactic and semantic parameters of the various sentence patterns. Additionally, we will clarify the syntactic and semantic constituents of the sentence and how they correlate. The question here is how sentence analysis is defined semantically and syntactically and what are the characteristic of the sentence parameters? At first, it is necessary to define the sentence; we must take into consideration that the sentence is a string of words which are held together by syntactic relations. On the other hand, the clause is a sentence that consists of one lexical verb. The clause is a simple sentence and there are clauses consisting of more than one sentence. According to the semantic level, the clause enables people to organise their experiences into patterns or schemas; it represents a pattern of experience. In addition to that, a sentence is an utterance that states a feeling or opinion. Communicatively, sentences are declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory. In order to speak more clearly about the semantic functions of sentence elements, we need to show that discourse consists of a sequence of clauses, thus a clause a basic medium for talking about the world and occurrences that relates to our own circumstances. Any clause contains setting in addition to participants, these participants have a role, and they are either people or physical objects. In other words, they participate in actions and interactions. Settings are pictured as hosting events rather than participating in them such as room, buildings, and geographical regions. The location is a part of the setting and each participant is found at some location. The roles of the participants are either (agent) that is an individual who performs the action, or (patient), is "something that undergoes an internal change of state" (Langacker, 2008: 356). There is another participant called an instrument, it is something used by the agent "to affect another entity" (ibid). The term experiencer refers to mental experience, whatever its nature: intellectual, perceptual, or emotive. Langacker (2008: 356) claims that "an experiencer is therefore

sentient and normally human. In contrast, a mover can equally well be inanimate. It is defined as anything that moves (i.e. changes position in relation to its external surroundings). Finally, the term zero is adopted for participants whose role is conceptually minimal and nondistinctive".

The Subject is one of clause participants, the initial element in the sentence. We can note that there are two orientations of the subject. The first is the agent orientation. In this orientation, the agent is sentient and human, willful creatures forcefully acting on the world. On the other hand, as (Langacker, 2008: 366-367) noted that the theme orientation "reflects the fact that we operate in a world laid out in a certain way, where entities exhibit different properties and occupy distinct locations so that they vary in degree of accessibility and susceptibility to our influence". Syntactically, the noun phrase occurs before the verb in declarative clauses and after the operator in Yes-No question. In the finite clause, the subject is obligatory and determines the number and person of the verb. It also determines the number of the subject complement. It regards the speaker as given information.

The object is one type of the complements that have to follow the verb, which is a noun phrase. Normally the indirect object comes before the direct object. According to traditional grammar defines "the indirect object as a second noun object that tells us (to whom) or (for whom) the action expressed in the verb is being carried out" (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1938: 361). For Quirk (1985: 54) "the indirect object is more peripheral than the direct object, it is more likely to be optional, and may generally be paraphrased by a prepositional phrase functioning as adverbials". A Huddleston & Pullum (2002) state that the direct object is an element of the clause structure expresses the patient role in canonical agent – patient clause, whereas the indirect object associated with the semantic role of the recipient. Concerning the complements, they are words or phrases that complete the sense of a subject, an object, or a verb. They are either subject or object complements. The complement is a noun phrase or adjective phrase. The subject complement follows the subject and the verb, while the object complement comes after the direct object. The subject complement comes after a linking verb, whilst the object complements follows and modifies or refers to a direct object.

As for section three of chapter one, we will discuss inversion in English. The important question in this section is what is inversion and what types of inversion are there? There are numerous constructions with inverted word order in different languages. It occurs when some canonically post-verbal element appears in the initial position of the clause. It is worthwhile to refer to some of the constructions which are "peaceful" with inversion. Some constructions provide possibilities where they involve the fronting of some constituents, while the verb and its auxiliaries remain to the right of the subject. To move forward in clarifying inversion, we must state that in full inversion the subject follows its entire verb phrase; there are five types of full inversion AdvP-inversion, PP-inversion, VP-inversion, AdjP- inversion (Inversion with a preposed adjective phrase), NP-inversion. On the other hand, in the partial or subject-auxiliary inversion, the subject comes after some part of the verbal complex composed of the main verb plus its auxiliaries. For Green (1982: 120), the subject - auxiliary inversion is defined as "declarative constructions where the subject follows part or all of its verb phrase". The other type of inversion is called the Quotation inversion. In this type, the logical subject appears post-verbally, with the direct or indirect quotation in the initial position. The important feature of the Quotation inversion may occur with an active transitive verb. The locative inversion is related to there-insertion. Briefly, the subject – auxiliary inversion is divided into four groups. These groups are pro-inversion, corr-inversion, add-inversion, and Neg- inversion.

For Brinton, fronting "consists in the movement of a word, phrase, or clause to the beginning of the sentence" (Brinton, 2000:293). The function of fronting in English is to mark givenness, and a fronted noun phrase must represent given information.

In addition to what has been mentioned, I will deal with some of the concepts associated with word order in section three of chapter one.

The main aim of chapter two is to introduce information structure and the word order. In section one of this chapter, we will talk about the Prague school which is one of the main centers of European structural linguistics. The most important issue of the Prague school was the program of Saussure for a synchronic account of language as a system of signs. The ideas of the Moscow school were brought to the

Prague school by some of the linguists. These ideas, as well as the activities of other scholars, contributed to the development of this school. The school was successful in presenting a new theory to phonology and describing the sound types of languages as specific subsystems seen from a functional approach. Jakobson is one of the scholars who have contributed to the development of this school. He worked on the analysis of the character of language as a tool serving a function. V. Mathesius is another linguist who contributed to the development of the Prague school. He worked on the division of the structure of the sentence into the topic and focus (theme and comment or rheme), based on (given) and (new) information. In addition to these, Daneš (1974) noted that the (thematic progressions) relate the topic – focus dichotomy of an utterance to its position in discourse. Firbas (1957, 1992) introduced the concept of communicative dynamism. Havranek developed the view of stylistics.

The main concerns of section 2 of chapter two are the word order and communication. There is more than one reason to change the order of words in English. One of these reasons is to make communication more effective. The other reason to change the order of sentence constituents is to achieve (end focus) which means to place the most important element at the end.

In this section, we will discuss the sentence elements according to the communicative level; we will then clarify the combining of sentences and the ways used to combine sentences. Coordination being one of them where different types of ellipsis take place. Some linguists refer to the coordination as a non-headed construction because its two clauses are of equal syntactic condition. In other words, coordination is a relation between two or more elements with equal status and the coordinates are combined by means of coordinators such as (and, or, yet). The coordinates may be a binary coordination with just two clauses and it can be multiple coordination with more than two clauses. In addition to that, the coordination may be syndetic when the construction is marked by a coordinator, while when the structure is not marked by the coordinator, it is asyndetic. Syndetic coordination has two types, the first is simple-syndetic and the second one is polysyndetic. Semantically, the coordinators express the relation between the coordinates but syntactically, coordinators usually belong to the coordinate clause.

3) Approach and methods

This study is based on the analysis of different types of samples which have collected from various sources. To achieve the best results, the descriptive method was used: the examples selected were described and appropriate conclusions were made.

4) Data

The data of this study is collected from secondary source of data. The examples used for the analysis were taken from journals, theses, linguistic textbooks, and conference papers.

5) Conclusion, pedagogical implications and perspectives

The conclusion part consists in the generalized findings of the study, whereas the pedagogical implications suggest how word order in English can improve the process of teaching. The perspectives indicate further potential of the study in the examined part, the main emphasis being made on (a) the word order in English and (b) The relationship between word order and communication.

CHAPTER ONE: WORD ORDER IN ENGLISH

1.1 Evaluation of the rigid word order in English

There are three frequent orders of the world languages. According to Greenberg (1966) these three - word order types are - SOV, SVO, and VSO. First of all, languages with VSO order are prepositional, this means that the preposition connects with the noun, pronoun, or with the noun phrase. In other words, the preposition puts before its complement. On the other hand, languages with SOV order are postpositional, in which the postposition places after its complement. Hawkins (1983: 20) claims "all languages with dominant VSO order have SVO as an alternative or as the only alternative, basic order".

In order to continue to clarify the nature of the world languages, Mathesius (1928) and Thompson (1978) indicate that languages can differ in the relative effects of syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic accounts on word order. The essential determinants of word order in English are the syntactic functions of elements, while in the Russian language, "pragmatic consideration have a stronger effect" Mithun (1992: 17). Here is a table showing the distribution of the six basic clausal word orders.

Word order	Number	Per cent
SOV	180	44.78
SVO	168	41.79
VSO	37	9.20
VOS	12	2.99
OVS	5	1.24

OSV	0	0.00
Total	402	100.00

Table 1: Distribution of the six basic clausal word orders in Tomlin (1986)

Dryer (2007) claims that OVS is less frequent, and even rare in English as the following example (1a) illustrates, as compared to (1b) which is rather common in English.

1- a. Peter, I like (OVS less frequency)

1-b. I like Peter (SOV greater frequency).

According to Song (2009:1329), word order is one of "the most recurrent research topics in linguistic typology, generating insightful theories and data". Equally, the concept of basic word order goes back to Greenberg (1966). The notion of the basic word order means the basic position of the verb in English is located before the object (SVO). The problem for a concept of basic word order is to be found in the ordering of the arguments of the verb at the level of the sentence. This mean that the two arguments of the verb whose relative position to one another, and to the verb, is most fixed are subject and object. Siewierska (1988:8) states that the basic word order is "in stylistically neutral, independent, indicative clauses with full noun phrase (NP) participants, where the subject is definite, agentive and human, the object is a definite semantic patient, and the verb represents an action, not a state or an event". According to Song (2001: 51-52), the patterns of basic word order at the phrasal level are:

- 1- PrN {preposition (Pr) + noun (N)} e.g. (She is going to Ataturk Street tomorrow).
- 2- NPr {noun (N) + preposition (Pr)} as in the Urubu-Kaapor language e.g. (Caninde to) ... in English (to Caninde) a place name.
- 3- NA {noun (N) + adjective (A)} as in Malay language e.g. (rumah besar itu), (house big that)...in English (that big house).
- 4- AN {adjective (A) + noun (N)} e.g. a good vegetables.
- 5- NG {noun (N) + genitive (G)} e.g. the car of the woman, woman's car.

- 6- GN {genitive (G) + noun (N)} as in the Ket language e.g. (ob da-qus, (father his-tent).... In English (father's tent).
- 7- NRel {noun (N) + relative clause (Rel)} e.g. the book I bought is good.
- 8- RelN { relative clause (Rel) + noun (N)} as in the Basque language e.g. (gizon-a-k liburu-a eman dio-n emakume-a),(man-the-SBJ book-the give has-REL woman-the)... in English (the woman that the man has given the book to)

Additionally, the fixed word order of English means that when the order of the elements change, it will lead to the change of syntactic and semantic interpretation of the elements. The rigid word order in English indicates that the position of the subject, verb and object must be fixed. English with its (SVO) order belongs to the group of languages that have the fixed subject-initial position preceding both the predicate and the object unlike the languages of (SOV) (e.g. Turkish, Persian, Japanese, etc...) and (VSO) order which is characteristic for the Arabic and the other Semitic languages.

In the same content, Givón (2001: 235) refers to the English as "one of the most consistent rigid SVO languages, at least in terms of its main-clause order". There is no language has an identical rigid or flexible word order in all its structures. The rigidity of word orders in English limits to the more constrained movement, though some scholars claim that there is no language with an informal rigid word order (Miyagawa, 2012). In words, the rigid word-order of modern English (SVO) in simple clauses may be seen as:

2-a/(S-V) – the boy slept.

2-b/(S-V-DO) - The boy hit the ball.

2-c/(S-V-IO) - The man went to the garden.

2-d/(S-V -DO-IO) - The teacher gave the book to his student.

2-e/(S-V-Comp) - I thought that she was mad/ the girl wanted to leave.

2-f/(S-V-DO-Comp) - The teacher told the pupil to leave.

2-g/(S-Aux-V-O) - She was cooking the dinner. (Givón, 2001)

In spite of this fact, the English language is flexible in literary works. That is because the rearranging of the words of the sentences in poetry or prose works will enhance their dramatic effect. Writers in their literary works tend to give the readers some elevated effect, so in definite cases they do not follow word order rules. According to Givón (2001: 236) the word-order variants in several types of marked clauses in English are:

3- a. Existential-presentative (IO-V-S), (V-S-IO)

Near the bridge (there) stood a willow tree.

There's a fly in the ointment.

b. L-dislocation (topicalization) (O, S-V-PRO)

As for John, the guys never saw him

c. R-dislocation (topicalization) (PRO-V-O, S(

She left the house early, Mary

d. Y-movement (contrastive topicalization) (O-S-V(

That one I really hate

e. Cleft-focus (O-S-V(

It's Mary that they like

f. Yes/no-question (Cop-S-Pred), (Aux-S-V-O(

Was Mary tall?

Did John quit his job?

Can Mary do this?

g. Wh-question (O-Cop-S), (O-Aux-S-)

Where is Mary?

Who did they see?

What can she do?

Regarding the concept of the head and their dependents, it is advisable to show that dependency is a relation that exists between two elements or among more than one element in which there is one dominant element which is referred to as the head while the other elements are its dependent(s). For example, in the clause, the verb is the head "and the term arguments are its dependents". (Robert D. Van Valin, 2004: 87). The head is the most important word in the phrase because it bears the essential semantic information and it marks the meaning of the entire phrase. For instance, the phrase (e.g. very nice garden) is about the garden and it shows that we cannot omit the head because it the one obligatory item in the phrase.

Concerning the dependents, they are all the remaining words in a phrase other than the head, Tallerman, (2011:112) indicates that dependents are divided into two main types: the first type are adjuncts, whereas the second are the complements. The adjuncts are optional elements and they don't have a close relationship with the head, they provide extra information, but the complement is "a phrase which is selected by the head, and, therefore, has an especially close relationship with the head" (ibid).

Here is a list of syntactic constructs with the head and dependent(s)

Construct	Head	Dependent(s)
Clause	Verb	Terms
Adpositional phrase	Adposition	Object
Noun phrase	Noun	Modifier(s)
Possessive NP	Possessed N	Possessor NP

Table 2: Heads and dependents (ibid)

By the same token, some of the linguists claim there are three main types of the dependents in the structure of the noun phrase. The first type is the determiner. Huddleston and Geoffrey (2005: 83) define the determiner as "one kind of dependent found only in NP structure. It is normally an obligatory element in NPs with certain types of a singular noun as head dependents in the structure of the NP". The other two

types of dependent are the complements and the modifiers. According to Robert D. Van Valin (2004: 87) "modifiers are dependents, and the elements modified are the heads". The modifiers are simple and complex. The simple ones precede the head nouns, while the complex ones follow the head (Givón, 2001).

In addition to what has been mentioned recently, Huddleston and Geoffrey (2005: 95) state that ".....nouns accept a very wide range of modifiers within the nominal. Because they are inside the nominal they are called internal modifiers. Some precede the head of the NP, while others follow". Before going on to clarify the two types (internal and external modifiers), it is necessary to clarify the concept of nominal which is a unit intermediate between the noun phrase and the noun. For example, in the sentence (the boy who fainted), both the determiner (*the*) and the rest of the sentence (*boy who fainted*) form the nominal.

To move forward in clarifying the internal and external modifiers, again, the internal modifiers are classified into two types. Some of them come before the head of the noun phrase; these modifiers are called the pre-head modifiers. There are various kinds of pre-head modifiers such as (adjective phrase e.g. a short story, determinative phrase e.g. another three candidates, nominal e.g. a United Kingdom palace, verb phrase e.g. a sleeping baby). Down there is a brief explanation of the pre- head modifiers kinds.

The adjective phrase type considers the most common one among other types, on the other hand, determinatives modifiers, they are modifiers "when they follow a determiner rather than functioning as one themselves"(ibid: 96).

In addition to that, pre-head modifiers can be nominals as in these examples "(a brick wall, high octane petrol, a United States warship)" (ibid: 96), these nominals modifiers consist of nouns which can be stand alone or with their dependents. Likewise, there is another type of pre-modifier; it is the head of the verb phrase modifiers which have either a past participle form (e.g. the condemned woman) or a gerund- participle form as in this example (a working man).

In contrast with pre-head modifiers, the post-head modifiers types can be summarized as follows:

- a- Preposition phrases (e.g. medicine *for the child*).

- b- Adjective phrases (e.g. these girls *fond of birds*).
- c- Appositive NP modifiers (e.g. my daughter *Nadia*).
- d- Non-Appositive noun phrase (e.g. someone *your own age*).
- e- Finite Clause (e.g. the gift *that she gave her*).
- f- Non-finite clause (e.g. families *living on flats*)

Appositive noun phrase modifiers particularly can stand alone in place of the whole noun phrase, instead of,

- 4- She invited my son Murat, (we could have: She invited Murat)

Finally, we can say that the "finite clause modifiers are all relative clauses" while the "non-finite clauses may be infinitival, gerund-participial, or past-participial" (Ibid: 96).

On the other hand, external modifiers, in turn, have several subtypes. The first of these subtypes are the quantificational expressions (e.g. *all* the babies). The quantificational expressions come before a range of determiners. There is another subtype of external modifiers; it is the adjectives or Adjective phrase (e.g. *so easy* an assignment). Additionally, the indefinite article (a)n follows this subtype of external modifier. Some subtypes of external modifier occur with proper nouns (e.g. John *himself*), or they require the occurrence of the determiners (e.g. the teacher *herself*, *only* a researcher).

Briefly, modifiers are divided into two types. The first type is the pre-modifiers; these modifiers are located between the determiner and the head noun such as adjectives, nouns, adverbs, participles, gerunds or whole clauses. The second type are post-modifiers; these modifiers are placed after the head noun such as adjectives, adverbs, nouns or whole clauses. On the other hand, and in order to make the dependency relation clearer. We need to show that the syntactic dependency is one of the grammatical relations that determine the order of the words in sentences.

Dependencies can be classified into three types: bilateral, unilateral, and coordinate. The bilateral dependence means "the occurrence of each element is dependent upon the occurrence of the other; that is, the head cannot occur without the dependent, and the dependent cannot occur without the head" (Robert D. Van Valin, 2004: 89). The subject–verb and preposition–object in English are examples of this

type of dependencies. According to the bilateral dependence notion, the subject cannot occur without a verb, and the verb cannot occur without the subject. Robert D. Van Valin, (2004: 89) adds that the "prepositions normally cannot stand alone without an object; even in a sentence like - Who did you give the book to - the preposition (to) has an object, namely the WH-word (who). An object of a preposition cannot be such without the preposition; hence each requires the presence of the other in a prepositional phrase". Concerning the meaning of the unilateral dependence, it is obvious that the head can occur without any dependents, while the dependents cannot occur without the presence of the head. The following example illustrates this type of dependency, (The very tall men like basketball a lot), Modifiers are (very) which modifies (tall), it is an adverb, (the and very) modify (men), and finally (a lot) modifies the verb (like). While the words (The and very tall) cannot occur without any modifiable, unlike the word (tall) which can occur without (very) as in this sentence (the tall men like basketball a lot). In these two examples (Men like basketball a lot/ Men like basketball), the words (men and like) can occur without any modifiers.

The coordinate dependent is the final type of dependence. All of the elements of this type are equal, in which both of them are the heads. In other words, the coordinate dependents are the elements of the sentences with an equal status. The elements in this type of dependency consider as heads. It's appropriate to say that "any kind of conjoined phrase is of this type: for example, (the girl and the boy) (conjoined NPs), (the happy and prosperous couple) (conjoined adjectives), and (Chris cooked and ate the fish) (conjoined verbs)" (ibid: 90). There is a contrast between the two sentences below.

5- a/ Ali saw Nadia and Zahraa.

b/ Ali saw Nadia with Zahraa.

In (5a), *Nadia and Zahraa* are both heads in a coordinate relationship while in (5b), *Nadia* is the head and *with Zahraa* is a modifying PP, with *with* as the head and *Zahraa* as the dependent.

In addition to what has been previously mentioned in connection with the rigid word order of English, we need to say that the term 'word order' is used to refer to the order of constituents in a simple sentence. In the following, there will be a

clarification of some of the functions of the sentence constituents. These elements are (subject, verb, object, predicative, and adverbial). There are clauses have a normal word order. The word order of these clauses as in English is unmarked word order and it consists of the following parameters.

Firstly, we will start with the subject which precedes the verb in the sentence. To shed more light on the subject, it's advisable to say that the strict order of word in English requires the subject (the doer of the action) to come before the verb in the structure of the clause. In other words, it means that a noun phrase comes before a verb phrase in the sentence. The subject is strictly a syntactic category and has a semantic and pragmatic correlate. It is something about which something is said as well as what is being discussed. The role of the subject according to the syntactic level is to name a person, thing, or idea. In which it is one of two major constituents in the sentence, for example.

6- Murat killed Helen in central garden on Monday.

The word (Murat) is the subject; it comes before the predicate (killed Helen) and the adjuncts (in central garden, on Monday).

For Rzayev (2007:32) the subject is " a noun, noun phrase or a pronoun (the pencil/ it was on the table), it normally, in declarative sentence precedes and governs the predicate - verb and occurs immediately after the first part of the predicate in questions", for example

7- Diana opened the book. Have they seen it?

There is also another key point concerning the subject, it is not required in imperative clauses; in other words, it is a missing argument in imperative constructions, this example.

8- Fasten your seat belts. Downing (2015:41)

Additionally, the subject is usually located before the finite verb in the declarative sentence; but the WH-word is the subject of the interrogative clause, for example.

9- a/Who was the last to leave? (ibid: 41)

b/ Elif is staying with them. (The subject comes before the finite verb)

The WH- element (who) functions as a subject in (9). Likewise, the subject can be possessive pronouns or genitive nouns, for example.

10- a/ Yours was rather difficult to read. (Possessive pronouns)

b/ Jennifer's got lost in the mail. (genitive nouns) (ibid: 41)

It is important to mention that the subject has number and person concord agreement with its predicate, for example.

11- a/ The librarian /he/she has checked the book.

b/ The librarians/ you / we / they have checked the book.

c/ Where is my credit card? Where are my credit cards? (ibid: 41)

Beside, in the passive construction, the subject of the active sentence becomes the object which occurring in by-phrase, is sometimes omitted, for example.

12- Nadia translated the story/ the story was translated (by Nadia).

Furthermore, Downing (2015:42) points out "in discourse, when two or more conjoined clauses have the same subject, all but the first are regularly ellipped:

13- He came in, sat down and opened his lap-top".

Huddleston and Geoffrey (2005: 13) added that that "the subject normally indicates the actor, the person or thing performing the action". In other words, it has the form of a noun phrase. Additionally, to identify the subject, there are two tests. The first way is the subject-auxiliary inversion, or the question test, for example.

14- Was David sick?

The tag question is another test to identify the subject. The pronoun in the tag questions agrees with the subject in number, person, and gender, for example.

15- Ellen is sick today, isn't he?

To sum up, there are other kinds of subject. From these types, we have the dummy subject (It and there), they are called expletives; structurally they fill the position of the subject but are lexically empty. (Brinton, 2010)

After the subject, the second obligatory constituent in the clause is the predicate. In other words, it is the second functional component of the sentence which says something about the subject. Downing (2015: 45) defines the predicate as "the clause element present in all major types of clause, including the imperative".

Moreover, the predicate is what in the sentence is spoken about the subject and the other members and mostly represents what is predicated of the subject. To add more to show this element, we can say that the predicate is the referent of the subject, which is realized by the verb phrase of the sentence. Likewise, it decides the remaining structure of the clause, by virtue of being intransitive, transitive or copular. Some linguists claim that the predicator may make up the entire predicate or part of it. We can identify the predicator by position in relation to the subject and is realized by finite lexical verbs and can be the primary verb or the non-finite verb.

In the same context, the simple verb phrase consists of one verb which is called a lexical verb. The function of this type of verb indicates an action, states and an event of the sentence; these verbs give details about the clause of the sentence (Carter and McCarty, 2007).

On the other hand, there are also other complements that follow the verb, from these we have the object. The object in English language is always in the objective (i.e. OE accusative) case. According to Rzayev (2007: 33), the object "stands in close connection to a transitive predicate – verb complementing or restricting its meaning", for example.

16- She needs more exercise.

It is important to realize that the basic word order of English language puts the object in the final position of a SPOD sentence type. It can be tested for by WH-clefts. There are two types of objects, the first one is the direct object and it comes after the subject and predicate. It also comes with transitive verbs in transitive clauses and typically realised by a noun group. Furthermore, it becomes the subject in the passive clause.

The way to identify the direct object is by asking questions beginning with (Who? / Whom? What? / Which? / How much? / How many?). Besides, the direct object can be recognized by groups and by clauses. There are several main possibilities to recognize the direct object. These possibilities are:

- a- The direct object is realized by a nominal group, Downing (2015: 49) assumes that "empty pronoun it is necessary as an (anticipatory Direct Object)
- b- In SPOdCo structures, the direct object is realised by a finite or non-finite clause", for example.

17- You must think it strange that he refuses to come. (ibid: 49)

- c- The direct object is a noun or a noun phrase. It follows the verb in the declarative sentence. It may be qualified by other words, for example.

18- She showed Zahraa the nearest way.

- d- The direct objects " can take objective complements after a few verbs (e.g. to elect, to find, to make, to consider, to leave, etc.)"(Rzayev, 2007: 34), for example.

19- Charles made his parents happy. (ibid: 34)

On the other hand, the second type of object is the indirect object which is the second noun object. There are three types of verbs which can take an indirect object. These types are dative verbs (e.g. give), benefactive verbs (e.g. make), and eliciting verb such as (ask) (Jacobson, 1966). These three groups of verbs associate with the prepositional phrase that follows it. Concerning the dative verbs, they are the largest group while the eliciting verbs are the smallest category. Moreover, we must select (to + noun phrase) to the dative verbs (e.g. to give, to sell, to explain, etc.). As for benefactive verbs, we must choose (for + NP) (e.g. buy, cook, prepare). Finally, the eliciting verbs preceded by the preposition (of) (e.g. ask, request, etc.) (ibid), for example.

20- a- She will get this to him. (dative) = deliver

b- She will get this for him. (benefactive) = take, obtain

It should also be noted that there are some verbs govern their objects by means of the preposition. Following this, there is another point to consider is that sentences with prepositional objects preceded by (for), for example.

21- She bought a new necklace for Jack.

After this brief explanation of some of the most important sentence elements, we now turn to the different kinds of possible sentence patterns. First of all, there are different kinds of grammatical constructions. These constructions are possible with different types of verbs. The grammatical constructions called the pattern of the sentence. In the first place, there is the pattern with an intransitive verb (SP- or SPAdv-) which contains a subject, verb, but no complement, for example.

22- She laughed.

Additionally, there is another pattern with linking verb, this pattern consists of (subject S, linking verb, predicate P, and complement C predicative), for example.

23- My buddy is a doctor.

Together with other patterns, there is also another pattern; it is the copula verb pattern, it links the subject with complement which identifies the subject. This pattern consists of (subject + verb + complement of the verb) and it expresses two kinds of verbs. The first kind are the verbs of being. These verbs are stative "and introduce current or existing attributes" (Downing, 2015: 83). The second kind is the verbs of becoming. These verbs "are dynamic and introduce resulting attributes" (ibid: 83). According to (Rzayev, 2007: 30), the patterns with transitive verbs are:

- a- SPOd- (e.g. Dogs, S chase, P cats, Od).
- b- SPOdAdv- (e.g. Father, S puts, P the book, Od on the table, Adv).
- c- SPOindOd- (e.g. Mother, S give, P Charles, Oind ten Dollars, Od).
- d- SPOdOind- (e.g. He, S spent, P the day, Od with his friend, Oind).
- e- SPOdCo- (e.g. The child, S made, P her mother, Od happy, Co).

It is necessary to point out that the direct object element in sentence (a) is obligatory and it is required for the complementation of the verb (predicate).

After this brief explanation of some of the sentence elements and according to the textual meaning of the clause, we can say that the clause has the character of message, it consists of two parts, and these parts are the theme and the rheme.

In the light of the theme, it is the first constituent in the sentence; it may be subject, circumstance, or complement. The rheme is all other constituents which follow the theme. Again, the theme is the subject of the clause, Japanese language,

unlike, English in which the theme appears at the end of the clause. On the contrary, in the free word order languages such as (Russian), the theme occurs in the middle of the clause.

Additionally, here is an explanation of the theme in different sentence types. Before going on to explain that, it is necessary to indicate that the free clause is the one that stand by themselves as a complete sentence. It is either indicative or imperative in the mood. The indicative free clause in the mood is either declarative or interrogative, if interrogative, it is either Yes-No interrogative or Wh- interrogative. In a declarative sentence, the theme conflates with the subject, for example.

24- Bears eat honey.

Theme/ subject Rheme

Furthermore, the theme of the declarative sentence is unmarked, but when the theme is something other than the subject, it is a marked theme. In a declarative clause, the marked theme is realized by:

A- Adjunct

1- An adverbial {e.g. merrily we roll along (Halliday and Matthiessen 2004:74)}.

2- Prepositional phrase (e.g. On Saturday I lost my wallet).

B- Complement

1- Proper names as Head (e.g. Hamlet, we are particularly fond of).

2- Pronoun as Head {e.g. all this, we owe both to ourselves and the peoples of the world (ibid)}.

3- Nominalization (e.g. what they could not do that night, the boy next night tried)

Correspondingly, the theme of the WH- interrogative clause is unmarked; it is the WH- element, for example.

25- What is your name?

On the contrast, in Yes-No interrogative, the theme is the finite verbal operator which is an unmarked theme, for example.

26- Is anybody at class?

Besides, the predicator is the unmarked theme of the imperative clause, for example.

27- Turn off the lights.

Finally, to illustrate the idea of fixed word order of English, it is advisable to note that the system of information which is the system of a grammatical unit, the information unit. In short, the information unit is a structure consists of two functions, the Given, and the New. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 89) point out that Given information is "something already presented in the verbal and non-verbal context". The Given or known information precedes the New one, while the unknown information is marked by a tonic prominence. Moreover, in the information unit, the New is the last element in the structure of the clause. In words, the sequence of information is Given followed by New. The unmarked position of New information is at the end of the sentence.

In summary, there is a semantic relationship between the thematic structure and the information structure. According to the unmarked order of these two structures, the theme falls within the Old information, while the Rheme falls within the New one. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) assume that the Theme-Rheme is the speaker-oriented, while the Given-New information is the listener-oriented.

In the next section, we will discuss syntactic and semantic parameters in different types of sentences in details.

1.2 Word order: syntactic and semantics parameters in various types of sentences

We discussed in the previous chapter the syntactic patterns which make up the configuration of the elements of any clause as well as evaluating the rigidity of English word order. Here, in this chapter, we will discuss different sentence patterns and the semantic and syntactic functions of the elements of these sentence patterns. First of all, we need to note that each pattern consists of a subject and predicate and the type and number of other parts of the clause in each pattern are determined by the verb.

Before discussing the meaning of a sentence and the syntactic and semantic features of its elements, we will mention a simple overview to the typical sentence patterns. Firstly, the pattern is dependent on the meaning of the verb in the predicator. The most three common patterns are intransitive, copular and transitive. The intransitive in turn is divided into three sub-types. These subtypes are monotransitive, ditransitive, and complex-transitive (Downing, 2015).

In the intransitive pattern, the sentence consists of subject and predicate followed by adverbial. After that, we have the copular (verbs) pattern. This type, as (Verspoor and Sauter, 2000: 25) claims "consist of a subject and predicator followed by a subject attribute. The subject attribute gives information about the subject only, not about the predicator". On the contrary in the transitive pattern, the verbs require a completer or direct object.

After this brief clarification of the sentence pattern, it is advisable to talk about what is the sentence before proceeding to explain the semantic and syntactic characteristics of the sentence constituents.

The sentence is an utterance that states a feeling or opinion. It is the unit that consists of words and works on the relating of a group of words that states "an assertion, a question, a command, a wish, or an exclamation, which in writing usually begins with a capital letter and ends with a period, question mark, or exclamation mark" (ibid: 33). Some sentences contain only one clause. A clause states an entire event or a condition with a subject and a predicate. The simple sentence has one clause, for example.

1- Man cannot breathe carbon dioxide.

There are some sentences have more than one clause, for example.

2- Whales cannot breathe under water because they have lungs instead of gills.

(ibid: 34)

In sentence (2) we have two clauses. These clauses are independent (main) clause and dependent (subordinate) clause. The main clauses form a meaningful unit by themselves, while the subordinate clause cannot stand alone.

Furthermore, sentences in English are simple, compound, complex or compound-complex sentences. The simple sentence is the sentence that contains one clause and this not means that the sentence has to be very short. It expresses one complete thought and it has another name such as an independent sentence.

On the other hand, the multiple sentences contain more than one sentence, and it divided into two types, these types are the compound and complex sentences. The feature of the compound sentence is that their clauses have a fixed word order and if these clauses move their meaning will change. It is advisable to note there are some types of coordinate conjunctions or coordinator such as (for, and, yet, and or) are used to form a compound sentence. It is important to realize that when people use the coordination, they seek to give an equal emphasis to each clause and to each idea that clause communicates.

Besides, a complex sentence is a sentence that contains one dependent clause with its own subject and predicate. The clause that begins with a subordinator, a word like (because, although, if, who, where, when, that and so on) called a dependent clause. As (Verspoor and Sauter, 2000: 37) noted there are "a difference between a compound and complex sentence is that in a compound sentence, both parts are really just simple, independent sentences. In a complex sentence, the dependent clause cannot stand on its own and functions as a constituent (subject, object, adverbial, or attribute) of the main clause, or in some cases it is only a part of another sentence constituent".

Communicatively, sentences are declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory. The declarative sentence expresses a statement. In this type of sentences, we seek to inform someone about something. The syntactic pattern of this type of sentences consists of the subject plus the whole verb. (Rzayev, 2007: 41)

states that "to negate positive-declarative sentence with an auxiliary or a modal verb (can, must, be, have) we place (not) immediately after the operator". In addition to that, the speaker tries to give information about situations and events in a declarative sentence. On the contrary, the interrogative sentence means that someone tries to get information from someone else, it expresses questions. The syntactic pattern of the interrogative sentence consists of "part of the verb + subject + rest of the verb" (Verspoor and Sauter, 2000: 17). As for the imperative sentence, it states that someone asks someone else to do something and it expresses a command. The form of this type of sentence patterns contains the verb itself and the rest of the sentence. Finally, in the exclamatory sentences, people want to express their feeling or attitudes. The syntactic characteristic of this type of sentence contains (How/ What + the rest of sentence).

In contradiction with the communicative characteristics of the sentences, semantically, the clause enables people to organise their experiences into patterns or schemas and it represents a pattern of experience. This pattern conceptualised as a situation type and the situation type or the semantic schema for a situation, in turn, consists of three parts. These parts are the participants, processes and the circumstances in which the process is the central part and is realised by a verb. It also can be "an action, a state, and a meteorological phenomenon" (Downing, 2015: 156).

Additionally, the process can be "regarded as what 'goings-on' are represented in the whole clause". (Bloor, 2004: 109). Likewise, it demotes what is going on in the clause. It is part of the proposition that encoded in the verbal group. There are two types of process. The first one is the dynamic process which involves something that occurs or happens. We can identify this type of processes by asking the question (what happened?). The second type of processes is the stative process which seems as durative over time, and as existing rather than happening (ibid). The dynamic process occurs in the progressive and imperative, while the stative one doesn't take place in the imperative or progressive. In addition to these types, the process divides into several categories.

The first category is the material process. The material (action) process expresses the activities of doing, happening, changing and creating as well as it states an activity; this activity is typically achieved by a (doer) or (agent). In turn, the agent is

typically a human, it is an entity having energy, volition and intention and it must be capable of controlling the action. Dik (1978: 37) uses the term (agent), while Halliday (1967) prefer the term (actor).

3- The boy kicked the ball.

In the sentence (3), the actor is the word (the boy); it is the first participant in (3). Here, the participant is the person who responsible for the action. In other words, it is (the boy) who performs the action. The second participant in the material process is the goal. Other linguists prefer the terms (affected, patient, and medium) instead of (goal). For (Downing, 2015: 161), the goal is "someone or something affected by the action denoted by the verb in an active clause, as a result of the energy flow". The word (the ball) in (3) is the goal; it is the point of impact.

Lock (1997) illustrates that the actor is “the thing which does the action” and answers the question (what did/do/does X do?). On the other hand, the goal is the direct object which answers the question (what happened, happens to Y?) in which (Y) refers to the goal. It is also “the thing which is on the receiving end of the action” (ibid: 72). Moreover, the changing of the clause from active to passive is one of the operations we can carry out with the material process, for example.

4- a/John opened the door. (active)

b/The door was opened by John. (Passive)

The word (the door) in (4b) is the subject; it is still functioning as a goal while the word (John) is the object; it is still functioning as the actor. The process in both (5/a, b) below from (Bloor, 2004: 110) expresses the classical forms of the verbs as transitive and intransitive.

5- a/ Jerry opened the door. (Actor: Jerry; Goal: the door), (transitive)

b/ Half an hour later he returned. (Intransitive)

As in (5b), we cannot make a passive construction with the intransitive clause. Equally, Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) point out that the actor and the goal are represented by a nominal group while the process types are represented by a verbal group. In addition to the two participants in the clause (actor and goal), there is

another one, it is the recipient which is the indirect object and the one who receives the goal, for example.

6- They'll give him his paper.

In addition to the recipient, there is another participant in the material process which is the Beneficiary. It "is someone for whose benefit the action is carried out" (Lock, 1997: 76). It occurs with verbs such as (send, give, buy, and so forth), for example.

7- She gave some of money to Nadia.

On the contrary of the material processes, there is another category which is the mental processes. Through this process, we organize our mental contact with the world. (Lock, 1997: 105) classifies the mental process into four types.

a- The cognition (e.g. know, understand, believe).

b- The perception (e.g. see, hear, feel).

c- The affectivity (love, hate, miss, like).

d- The desideration (hope, wish, desire, want).

The mental process is realized through the use of the above verbs. It described as "states of mind or psychological events" (Bloor, 2004: 116). There is no concrete action is performed with the mental process. It has only one participant. This participant is animate and usually human. In other words, it is the one that senses, for example.

8- Huda liked the gift.

Most of mental process clauses have a second participant. This participant is the phenomenon which is what is liked, seen and thought, for example.

9- Don't you want me? (Lock, 1997:105)

Moreover, the phenomenon has different kinds of phenomena which may be facts, events, thoughts and situations. The kinds of phenomenon have a relation to different subtypes of mental process.

Generally speaking, the participants in the mental process are sensing something. The participant that called Sensor is having the function of sensing while the participant called phenomenon is being sensed. In a related context, the subject of the clause in the mental process denotes a conscious being and represents a nominal group while complement denotes any kind of entities such as (objects, subtractions and animals) and represents the nominal group as in the case of the subject. There is a

distinction between the material and mental processes. In the material process, it is preferred to use the present continuous, for example.

10- I am going home.

While, the present simple is the tense used with mental process, as in the example.

11- They see the stars.

Added to what has been previously mentioned, the process cannot be probed and substituted with (do) “Mental processes are processes of feeling, wanting, thinking and seeing. They are not kinds of doing, and cannot be probed or substituted by do. We cannot say (What John did was know the answer); or (What did Mary do with the gift?) — She liked it. This lack of a substitute verb can render some things unsayable, as in the following example from casual conversation: (That’s because I prefer small boats, which other people don’t necessarily)” (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004: 207).

There is another criterion to differentiate the mental verbs from the material ones; this criterion refers to that we cannot form a passive voice with the former, as in the example below.

12 a- the boy can see the garden,

b- The garden was seen by the boy. (Not possible to form a passive voice)

Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 245) differentiate between the material and mental processes. He claims that “material clauses are concerned with our experience of the material world while mental clauses are concerned with our experience of the world of our own consciousness”.

As for the relational process, it is the third main category of processes which states the notion of being. It is the process of being and having and serves to relate the two participants together. This type of process is realized by the verb (be) and sometimes is called a linkage.

There are two participants in this process. The first one is the carrier and the second is the attribute. The former participant is mapped into the subject, while the latter is mapped into the complement. There are also different types of relational processes such as (intensive, possessive and circumstantial) and each of these types has two modes in this process. The first is the attribute and the latter is identifying. The attribute ones are not reversible and the identifying ones are reversible, in the sense we can switch between the sentences (Lock, 1997), as in the example below.

13- Mohammed is the headmaster/ the head master is Mohammed.

In the intensive relational process, there are two entities. The first entity is the one that “has some class ascribed or attributed to it” (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004: 267). It is the attribute. As we mentioned, the carrier of the attribution is the subject and it is the second participant in this type, for example.

14- Dina is gruesome.

In (14), the nominal group (Dina) is the carrier of the attributive intensive clauses of the relation process. The second participant of this process is the attribute (gruesome). It represents a nominal group. In the case of identifying mode, the intensive process of relational process has two participants. The first is called the identifier and the second is the identified, as in the following example.

15- The deadly spiders are the funnelwebs.

In (15), the process (are) is intensive in the identifying relational clause. The identifier (funnelwebs) is one of the participants and it is a nominal group. The subject (the deadly spiders) mapped into the identified participant and shares the same characteristic with the identifier as a nominal group. Likewise, the relational process is not allowed to form a passive voice, it shares the same criterion with the mental one in this aspect, as in the below example.

16- Homeless was being the boy. (not possible)

In brief, Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) classify the processes into major and minor processes. The major processes are material, mental and relational. The minor processes include behavioural process, existential process, and verbal process.

The behavioural process is the half way between material and mental processes. The verbs of this type of process have similarity with the materials ones; they describe physical action of some kinds (Finch, 1998). This type of process requires one participant. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) term this participant, the behavior and it should be animate subject as in the mental process. The present progress is the unmarked tense of this process. Additionally, the verbs of this type of process do not take an object and cannot form a passive. They are intransitive as in the case of relational processes, for example.

17- They are dreaming.

There is another type of the minor process. It is the verbal process. As with behavioural and mental processes, the participant of this type is animate. Finch (1998: 123) states "there is one special feature of verbs in this category is that the participants can be swapped round without any change in meaning", for example.

18- "Hello, said the visitor {has the same propositional meaning as in (the visitor said hello)}"

There is another feature of the verbs of this process is that they can form a passive, for example.

19- Hello was said by the visitor.

Sayer target

In this process, there are two participants, the first participant is the Sayer, and the second one is the target.

The final category of the processes is the existential process. It has only one participant. The participant is the existent. It is the thing or the person being affirmed as existing. The existential process consists of two main forms of grammatical realization.

A- "With a copular verb and an empty there as Subject" (Bloor, 2004: 125), for example.

20- There was a little mouse.

B- "With a copular verb, the Existent as Subject and usually a circumstantial Adjunct" (ibid: 125), for example.

21- Eight of us were in the museum

In addition to previous explanation, in order to continue to clarify the syntactic and semantic features of the sentence elements, it requires noting that there are rules governing the order of the units that constitute the sentence. Any phrase in English consists of a noun phrase and a verb phrase. In the noun phrase, the head word is the noun, while the verb is the head in the verb phrase. The noun phrase can function as a subject of the clause. On the contrary, the predicate contains a head word represented by the verb which is an important constituent in the predicate. It can change the form or the function of the sentence. As we mentioned, the simple sentence consists of two obligatory elements. These elements are the subject and the predicate. The subject-predicate is the grammatical relation of the deep structure while as Chomsky adopted; the topic-comment is the grammatical structure of the surface structure. The subject is connected with the meaning of the verb and its position depends on the type of the sentence. It precedes the predicate in the declarative clause, while follows the operator in the question sentences. The subject is absent in imperative sentences, it may be omitted. Moreover, the subject controls the form of the verb and it may be preceding by a preposition in the passive, as in the example.

- 22- a/ The lion hunts its victim at day,
b- Victim is hunted by the lion at day.

The subject may be termed as the psychological subject, which is the starting point of the message. It is the entity that the speaker wishes to say something about it. In other words, it is the topic of the sentence. In the example (22 a), the word (lion) is the psychological subject.

Additionally, the subject is the naming part of the sentence. There is a grammatical subject in the sentence. It is called surface subject. In the active sentence (22 a), the lion is the agent, it is the grammatical subject. In the passive sentence (22 b), the word (lion) still the deep subject and the agent as in (22 a). The word (victim) is the grammatical subject of the sentence.

In summary, the subject is what is being talked about and the predicate is what is being said about the subject, for example.

- 23- The man woke up.

The subject of (23) is (the man); it is the topic of the sentence while the subject in the example below is the person whom the message concerns, it is something is being predicated about the doer of the action.

- 24- The aristocrat person gave my uncle this present.

The phrase (the aristocrat person) in (24) is the subject; he is the person who performs the action of giving, in other words, he is the person who is predicated about.

Furthermore, there are three types of subject; the first type is the psychological subject which it is the thing that found in the mind of the speaker to start with. The second type is the grammatical subject which is "a noun or some word standing for a noun" (Fowler, 1870: 103). It is "the nominal which determines verbal concord" (Lyons, 1977: 504), in addition to that, there is another indication of the grammatical subject in which a nominal is the grammatical subject, as far as English is concerned, is the position of the nominal relative to other nominals in the sentence in which it occurs.

For example, in a sentence like

- 25- John killed Bill

In sentence (25), "neither verbal concord nor the grammatical category of case, but merely its position relative to the verb and to 'Bill', serve to identify 'John' as the grammatical subject" (ibid). The third type of subject is the logical subject. It is the

doer of the action, that of "having to do with relations between things, as opposite to the grammatical relations, which were the relations between symbols" (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 56). The example below illustrates the three types of subject.

26- This picture my father was given by the queen.
Psychological subject grammatical subject logical subject

Additionally, the subject divided into notional and structural where it expresses with nouns (noun phrase) or their equivalents, for example

27- That man is lovely.

Moreover, To-infinitive and -ing clause can be the notional subject of the sentence, for example.

28- a/ To leave was impossible,

b/ leaving is impossible.

Modern English prefers anticipatory (it), where the infinitive and -ing clause may be in the genitive or the objective case, for example.

29- It is difficult to escape.

There is another realization of the notional subject by using the dummy (it) with the expressions of weather and time, for example.

30- It is a long way from here to Paris.

Downing (2015: 45) states that "unstressed (there) fulfils several of the syntactic criteria for subject: position, inversion with auxiliaries and repetition in tag phrases; but unlike normal subjects, it cannot be replaced by a pronoun. Concord, when made, is with the following NG:

31- a/ There was only one letter delivered today, wasn't there?

b- There were only two letters delivered yesterday, weren't there?"

As for the predicate, it may be simple and compound. Rzayev (2007: 46) states that "the simple verbal predicate usually consist of one notional verb, either in simple or composite form", for example.

32- She *goes to* the gym every Saturday.

On the contrary, the compound predicate sub-divided into nominal and verbal predicate. The compound nominal predicate indicates "a certain state or quality of the subject, it is otherwise called a qualifying predicate" (ibid).

33- My father *is very sad* these days.

On the other hand, compound verbal predicate differentiates between compound verbal model and compound verbal aspective subtypes, for example.

34- a/ Jack *could finish* his job late in the morning.

b/ John *begun working* a bit earlier that day.(ibid: 46)

In addition to what was mentioned earlier, there are other functions come with the predicate. These functions are the object, complement, and the adjunct (adverbial). The predicate often contains a direct object, for example.

35- Yesterday, Queen Diana sent Nancy her congratulation.

The direct object of (23) is the (her congratulation) which it forms with other notions such as (subject predicate, indirect object and adverbial) the grammatical relations of the sentence. There are common kinds of the objects. These kinds are the nouns, proper names, and pronoun. The objects are in the objective case and this shows itself in the nominative or personal pronoun (I, he, she, we, and they) versus the objective ones, for example

36- Khalid is growing a beard (it).

Likewise, we can use the –ing clause as an object with certain verbs such as (finish, deny, enjoy, avoid), for example.

37- Lena like dancing.

The –ing clauses are also used after preposition and function as an object, these gerunds come after names, adjectives and verbs, for example.

38- I enjoy reading stories and I found of cooking.

Additionally, we may use (the infinitive of verbs + to) as an object; the infinitive may have other words attach to it, for example.

39- They planned to *see him at the garden*.

There is another important point must refer to that at the end of the declarative sentence we can find the important information which the speaker wants to draw the listener's attention to them. The order of the objects (Oi + Od or Od+ Oi) refers to the more important information expresses by this or that object. We can put the indirect object after the direct object preceding by (for, to) to give it special important (Od + for /to + Oi).

In addition to what has been discussed concerning some of sentence constituents, the adverbial is another important element in the sentence; adverbials tell

something about the action, state and happening described by the predicate. They are an optional element. We can omit them without any effect on the structure. Most of the adverbials are mobile. They can occur at different places in the sentence. They can refer to time, place, manner and some other aspects of the action. There is also a significant idea that the adverb is one of the units realizing the adverbial functions. There are several syntactic functions for the adverb. The sentence function means the adverb modify a complete sentence, for example.

40- She had *deliberately* broken the vase. (Dixon, 2005: 31)

Furthermore, the adverb has one manner function if it modifying the verb plus object, for example.

41- He had (gathered up the pieces carefully). (ibid)

In addition to these functions, the adverb can modify an adjective, a complete noun phrase and another adverb. Time adverbials also behave as inner adverbials when they link with verbs from the (look, rest, and motion) types, such inner adverbials can occur after the predicate, for example.

42- He *sat* on a sofa.

As well, adverbials can be realized by preposition comes before them in the sentence, for example.

43- I saw John *last week*. (time)

Moreover, adverbials can be realized by a noun phrases followed by (ago, long, before, etc.), for example.

44- *Seven days ago* Huda was not interesting in this project.

Additionally, the adverbial phrase is one of the units to realize the adverbial functions, for example.

45- Unwary of the evident danger, he was sitting and waiting to his friend to come. (Rezyav, 2007: 50)

In the same content, the adverbials can be realized by a participle or participle phrase, for example.

46- Being 2nd year student, I can't bear to ignore my lesson. (Reason)

Finally, the adverbials can be an infinitive or an infinitive phrase, for example.

47- She has come to apologize.

On the other hand, spatial or time adverbials may behave as outer adverbials and they often moved to the initial /final position, for example.

48- In the park, Suzan met Diana, or / Suzan met Diana in the park.

For Downing (2015: 66) the adverbials according to the semantic level "represent circumstances, specifications and comments of many different types which are attendant on the verb or the whole clause. A further characteristic of adjuncts is the tendency of different types of meanings to be expressed by different adjuncts in a single clause, not as coordinated realizations of a single adjunctive element, but as separate, and multiple adjuncts". Adverbials may be connective adjuncts or stance adjunct, where the former function as connectors of the structure. The stance adjuncts are classified into three types: epistemic, evidential and evaluative (ibid).

Rzayev (2007: 52) indicates that the position of adverbials depends on three factors.

- 1- They depend on their structure and their meaning.
- 2- The structure of the sentence plays a crucial role in the determination of the position of the adverbials.
- 3- The emphasis the speaker or the writer wants to give to the adverbials in the communication.

Likewise, adverbials of time, place and manner are obligatory for (SPAdv-) pattern, for example.

49- She lived in England.

To sum up, for Rzayev (2007: 50) "some adverbials semantically and syntactically are not essential to the structure, i.e. they are optional", these optional adverbials are:

- A- Manner (e.g. carefully), telling us what is the way to perform an action.
- B- Time (e.g. for two o'clock), telling us when the action is performed.
- C- Place (e.g. in the centre), telling us where the action is performed.
- D- Cause, (telling us for which/ what reason.
- E- Purpose, (telling us for what purpose).
- F- Degree, (telling us to what extent).

There are three main positions of adverbials for the declarative sentences, these positions are

- 1- Final positions after (object and intransitive verb).
- 2- Medial position
 - a- Before the main verb if there is no auxiliary verb in the sentence.
 - b- After the first auxiliary.

- c- Between two auxiliaries.
 - d- After (b) when it the main verb in the sentence.
- 3- Final position.



1.3 Inverted word order in English

Inversion occupies a significant position in language use. It is used for creating a large selection of syntactic constructions. In addition to forming the questions, inversion also contributes to identification of the topic. Crystal (2008: 254) defines the inversion as "A term used in grammatical analysis to refer to the process or result of syntactic change in which a specific sequence of constituents is seen as the reverse of another. In English, for example, one of the main ways of forming questions is by inverting the order of subject and auxiliary, e.g. *is he going?*" The inversion helps to connect discourse elements together especially in journalism. This connective function is used in literary works. Birner (1996: 12) defines the Inversion as "it is a sentence in which the logical subject appears in post-verbal position while some other, canonically post-verbal, constituent appears in clause-initial position". The central argument of Birner about inversion is that "inversion serves an information packaging function, linking relatively unfamiliar information to the prior context via the clause-initial placement of information which is relatively familiar" (Birner 1996: 77).

For Green (1982: 120), the inversion is "those declarative constructions where the subject follows part or its entire verb phrase". Moreover, the inversion is a movement, where two of the constituents revise and the usual word order changes and the constituents get redesigned in another shape or way. Furthermore, the inverted word order sometimes functions for the purpose of emphasis, in other words, it serves to achieve more emphasis and particular effect as compared to the normal word order which occurs when the sentence begins with the subject followed by a predicate. Likewise, inversion gives special emphasis with statements when the sentence begins with negative words or idea. In related, the correct order of the words in English helps the purpose of communication smoothly. On the basis of this, the communication depends on the order of the words within the clause.

Additionally, the inversion is either full or semi. The semi-inversion is the inversion of subject and auxiliary, but the full inversion requires the pre-subject position of the entire verb. Rzayev (2007: 180) illustrates that "full inversion occurs in certain structure involving fronting and the placing of a subject in end position". This

type of inversion requires initialing the entire verb or the predicate before the subject in which it found in SPAdv or SPnom types of sentences. In the SPnom type, the link verbal is tied to the verb and when the element is marked to the theme, the linking verb will remove and it changes into presubject position, for example.

1- She is a one on whom falls essential duty.

According to the opinions of some linguists, the optional inversion means that the subject follows the verb. However, inversion is necessary when the auxiliary or part of it comes before the subject, while the fronting and re-ordering of the elements of the clause or the sentence give emphasis to some particular places of the sentence. This lead us to note that some types of the change effect the order of the constituents of the clause during the translation from one language to another and the replacing occurs during this process, where one element changes its place after or before another one. The simple sentence can be changed to complex or composite ones. In the case of syntax, there are five types in full inversion. The example in (2) shows the adverb or adverbial phrase inversion, where the sentence begins with it.

2- Now is the occasion for the first of these omissions to be rectified.

In the PP-inversion, the sentence begins with the prepositional phrase or it starts with either locative or directional preverbal (PP), for example.

3- In this matter lies the similar between two political parties.

The position of the subject in this construction is postverbal. The type of the verb is intransitive. This kind of inversion is called "locative" inversion.

The VP-inversion means that the sentence begins with past or present participle forms, for example.

4- Lying outside, covered in a tidy mystic scarf, was the smallest infant I had ever seen.

If the adjective phrase preposed in the sentence, the inversion will be called adjP-inversion. In this type, there are several forms of both comparative and superlative degrees, in which the comparative and the positive adjective have the initial position in the sentence, for example.

- 5- Most worrying is environmentalist willingness to spend money to conciliate local government.

Finally, in the NP-inversion, the indefinite article, and no article has an initial position in the sentence, for example.

- 6- A late donor was Arif. My friend is David.

To highlight more on the full inversion concept, it is important to note that it requires the fronting of some of the sentence constituents before the subject such as adverbs, prepositions and so on. The full inversion falls when the subject follows its entire verb phrase. Furthermore, the inverted word order is achieved through several techniques. The interrogative is one type of these techniques. The placing of the verbs or auxiliaries before their subjects is what happens to the sentence with the interrogative. Further, the inverted order of the constituent has different situations. From these situations, there is the question situation which requires the initialing of the verb before the subject. The command is another situation of the inverted word order. Besides, the preceding of the auxiliary before the subject is consider one of the inverted word order situation in which the sentence starts with negative words such as (rarely, never, and hardly, for example.

- 7- Never will they observe him.

In addition to the preceding situation, the conditional sentence is considered as another type of inversion in English. In the conditional inversion, the word (if) is omitted and the inverted word order occurs with the subject and verb, for example.

- 8- a/ If he was higher, he would be happier,

b/ Was he higher, he would be happier.

As for semi- inversion, Rzayev (2007: 181-183) points out that there are different categories of partial inversion. He states that partial inversion occurs in cases below.

A- Clauses of result and degree with pre-modifying “so and such” usually followed by subject-operator inversion, for example.

- 9- So pale and upset did my father looked that everyone thought he was ill.

B- After initial negative adverbs such as (at no time, not until, on no account, for example.

10- On no account should one drink and drive.

C- After the initial “little”, for example.

11- Little does he realize what problems he creates for others?

D- Initial negative or restrictive adverbials of time or frequency expressions such as (never, rarely, seldom, hardly, ever, no sooner, etc...), for example.

12- Never had Cowperwood seen his father so pale and helpless.

E- In adverbial clauses or gerundial constructions starting with “only” such as “only then, afterwards, later, when and so on), for example.

13- Only then did he remember that it was her birthday.

F- In tag statements or dialogue answers beginning with “so, neither, or, nor”, for example.

14- a- you haven't mown the lawn,

b- I know, and nor do I intend to.

G- in conditional sentences where the “if” has been or can be omitted, for example.

15- Had I known how far it was I'd have caught a cab.

H- After the conjunction “as” used to extend a statement to other people or things, for example.

16- His idea is very good, as were his previous one.

For Dorgeloh (1997) the subject-auxiliary-inversion is fall within the partial inversion. In this type or in the subject-operator-inversion, the subject comes after the first auxiliary of the verb phrase. There are four types of subject-auxiliary-inversion. The first one is pro-inversion, where the subject comes in the final position of the sentence introduced by (be) or lexical verb, for example.

17- So moved were the viewers that tears came to their eyes.

This refers to utterances introduced by (so, such, thus, nor and neither) and the focus is in the subject. Otherwise, when the inversion occurred in the correlative construction, the inversion is corr-inversion, in which the clauses that linked by (so... that, such... that, more/er/less or than, also, but, not only and so on) belongs to the corr-inversion, for example.

18- So wholly disparate do they seem, indeed, that it comes as something of a shock.

The corr-inversion like the pro-inversion, the subject comes in the final position of the sentence introduced by a form of copular (be-inversion). With regard to the add-inversion, there are numbers of pro-form such as *nor* and *neither* in which these pro-forms work as additive adverbs (ibid), for example.

19- They do not come to its birthday, nor are they informed of its decisions.

In the negative-inversion, these negation words (*no*, *never*, *nothing*, *not*, etc.) and negative adverbs such as (*hardly*, *only*, *scarcely*) precede the finite verb, for example.

20- Never have they tried this.

Otherwise, inversion differs from preposing, in which the latter involves the fronting of some elements while the verb and its auxiliaries are still to the right of the subject. Precisely, preposing means "initial clause placement of core elements, i.e. preposition, noun, verb, and adjective phrases, which are normally placed in post-verbal position" (Biber, 1999: 900). It is the first step towards the full inversion and may serve to place the given information in the initial position of the clause. Huddleston and Geoffrey, 2005 claims that the preposing is to put an element before the subject of a clause when its basic position would be after the verb.

In summary, Ward (1988:2) defines the inversion as "those sentences in which a phrasal constituent is moved leftward to sentence-initial position". In other words, it is a "sentence in which a lexically governed phrasal constituent (NP, AP, PP, VP) appears to the left of its canonical position, typically sentence-initially" (ibid). With regard to the preposing, the preposed elements may be the (direct object, indirect object, subject or object complements, and the obligatory adverbials). In general, the preposing is the constituents of the canonical postverbal phrases appear in preverbal position. Here are some examples are taken from (Ward, 1988) to illustrate the notion of perposing, these examples show that the preposing occur with NPs, PPs, VPs, and AdjPs.

21- Colonel Bykov had delivered to Chambers in Washington six Bokhara rugs which he directed Chambers to present as gifts from him and the Soviet

Government to the members of the ring who had been most co-operative. *One of these rugs Chambers delivered to Harry Dexter White.* (pp, 3)

22- With better jobs and more education," he writes, "women are also moving forward on the dollar front." *For that last bold assertion there are no statistics.* (pp, 3)

23- At the end of the term I took my first schools; it was necessary to pass, if I was to stay at Oxford, and *pass I did.* (pp, 3)

24- In the early days, our productions were cheap and cheerful," says producer John Weaver of London-based Keefco. [...] Today's tapes may still be cheerful, but *cheap they are not.*

In addition to what was mentioned earlier, here are other examples of preposing,

Noun phrase (NP)

25- To illustrate with a simple analogy, consider a person who knows arithmetic, who has mastered the concept of number. In principle, he is now capable of carrying out or determining the accuracy of any computation. *Some computations he may not be able to carry out in his head.* Paper and pencil are required to extend his memory. [N. Chomsky, Rules and Representations, 1980: 221].

Preposition phrase (PP)

26- But keep in mind that no matter which type of equipment you choose, a weight-training regimen isn't likely to provide a cardiovascular workout as well. *For that, you'll have to look elsewhere.* [Philadelphia Inquirer, 8/28/83].

Verb phrase (VP)

27- They certainly had a lot to talk about *and talk they did.* [The New Republic, 4/23/84].

Adjective phrase (AP)

28- Interrogative do should then be classed as a popular idiom. *Popular it may indeed have been,* but I doubt the different origin. [A. Ellegård, The Auxiliary Do, the Establishment and Regulation of Its Use in English, 1953: 168]

In words, preposing divided into two types. The first one is the focus preposing, this type contains the focus of the utterance and bears nuclear accent. The second

type is the topicalization, the preposed constituent in this type other than the focus and bears multiple pitch accents.

On the other hand, the postposing is any construction in which a lexically governed phrasal constituent appears to the right of its canonical position, typically but not exclusively in sentence-final position, leaving its canonical position either empty or else occupied by an expletive (Birner & Ward 1996). It involves putting the pre-verbal elements at the end of the sentence. the postposing "is some argument of the verb appears to the right of its canonical position, typically but not always sentence-finally, leaving its canonical position either empty or else occupied by an expletive element" (Birner & Ward 1998: 3). In postposing, the expletive (there) appears in the canonical subject position while the logical subject is postposed.

Also, there is another type of inversion, quotation inversion. In this type, the logical subject appears the post-verbal elements with a direct and indirect quotation in the initial position (Birner and Ward, 1996).

29- "I think the hyper-cars are more hype than anything," said Larry Carlat, editor of Toy and Hobby World. ["Wheeling 'n' dealing," Chicago Tribune, 11121189, sec. 5, p. 1]

This type of inversion may occur with the active transitive verbs in which its constituents may occur in any order –" including having the NP and verb appear parenthetically inside the quotation-so long as the subject NP and the verb remain adjacent" (ibid: 21). So, it has free word - order and requires a verb of saying as well as it occurs with direct or indirect quotation.

To move forward in clarifying the inverted word order, it is advisable to point out that fronting means moving elements of clause found after the verb into the initial position of the sentence. It is rare in English, usually occurs in the declarative clauses. There are several types of fronting, these types are:

A- The fronted of objects: there are different structures occur as fronted objects such as nouns, pronouns, and complement clauses, for example.

30- a/ Zahraa moved ahead. 'This I do not understand,' he said, (noun phrase as fronted object).

31- b/ What she can do, she can do, (complement as fronted object).

B- The fronted of nominals, this means a nominal structure is in initial position such as adjective complement, for example.

32- Whether Hadi was there or not, he could not be certain.

C- The fronting of predicatives: this means the subject predicatives is in initial position. There are different structures of the fronting predicatives such as special cases of predicative fronting, these cases are (1) combinations of proportion clauses marked with (the) (2) degree clauses with (so.....that), for example.

33- a/ Far more serious were the severe head injuries; in particular, a bruising of the brain. (News), (Biber, Conrad, and Leech, 2002: 402). {proportion clauses marked with (the)}

b/ So ruthless was the IRA in its all-out onslaught against the police and the Army, it didn't care who got in its way. (News), (ibid). {Degree clauses with (so.....that)}

As in (33a), the fronted predicatives occur with inversion. Predicative fronting with subject-verb inversion happens with comparative and superlative structures.

Additionally, the fronting of non-finite constructions has three types. The first one is the fronting of infinitive, for example.

34- I had said he would come down and come down he did. (ibid: 403)

The other types are the (fronted –ing and –ed structures). These types come with a long subject, for example.

35- The money was left on the parapet of a bridge carrying the track over an old dismantled railway line. Waiting below was Michael Sums, who had left a tray on the bridge parapet for the money. (News), (ibid: 403)

In these types of fronting, heavy subjects moved to the final position of the clause and the subject – verb inversion comes with them. For some linguists, the exclamative clauses that have WH-element have obligatory fronting, for example.

36- How beautiful he is!

In (36), the WH- element occurs in pre-subject position. Likewise, the exclamative clauses may be consisted of optional fronting with the word (such), for example.

37- Such a sure hand my father has with people.

Finally, the fronting with dependent clauses comes with subordinators such as (as and thought), for example.

38- Try as they &, no one close to Frankie Howard could ever improve his image. (News), (ibid).

In addition to the previous cases of inverted word order topics, there are other linguistic constructions that have the same value, from these, the dislocation. For some linguists, the prototypical dislocation structure has an extra noun phrase. This extra noun phrase is located to the right or left of the main part of the sentence. The extra noun phrase is often used as an antecedent for the personal pronoun, for example.

39- a/ The woman next the window, I think his wallet was stolen. (left dislocation)

b/ she can be very judgmental, her mother. (Right dislocation)

Left-dislocation consists of a clause; this clause contains a pro-form that refers back to a co-referential noun phrase.

40- Susan, she is the one to be blamed for such bad situations.

The pronoun (she) in (40) refers back to the dislocated noun phrase. Left-dislocation is also used to reintroduce old topics; it is not used to introduce a new referent or topic into the discourse, but to mark essential referents that are brought back into the discourse after a gap of absence, the reintroduced referent with left-dislocation is generic or definite (Alonso, 2007), for example.

41- Basketball players, they are always traveling around the world.

On the other hand, there is another construction that may be linked with the inverted word order, this is the extraposition structure. Huddleston and Geoffrey (2005) introduce two types of extraposition constructions, these constructions are the subject extraposition and the internal complement extraposition, the subject extraposition is "clauses with a subordinate clause subject generally have variants with the subordinate clause at the end and dummy it as subject", for example.

42- It would be a mistake to give up now. (ibid: 247)

As for the internal complement extraposition, it occurs with complex-transitive constructions.

43- I find it disappointing *that he gave up*. (ibid: 249)

The dummy (it) in (43) appears as an object and the subordinate clause as extraposed object. The effect of the extraposition is to put the heavy elements (subordinate clauses) at the end of the clause. Finally, in extraposition, the subordinate clause is placed at the end of the sentence, it is the extraposed subject and the position of the subject is filled by the pronoun (it).

Concerning the voice, it is a grammatical category concern with the verb phrase and other constituents in the clause. It is a system, where the contrastive types vary in the way semantic functions are aligned with syntactic roles. The active voice is called active because the subject is aligned with an active role, with the role of the agent, for example.

44- Diana assassinated Zahraa.

In example (44), the subject performs the action, it is the participant that carries out the action, as well as the grammatical subject of the verb, whereas in example (45), the subject associate with passive and has the role of patient.

45- Zahraa was assassinated by Diana.

The subject of example (45) is the one on whom the action was performed. Here is a summary of the syntactic form of the active and passive voice.

A- The subject of the active voice becomes the subject of passive agent.

B- The object of the active appears as the subject of the passive.

C- The preposition (by) is introduced before the agent.

D- The verbs of the active become in the past participle forms in the passive.

In words, the prepositional phrase (by Diana) in (45) is the internalized complement and in some exceptions, it is omissible. The subject (the external complement of the active) appears internal to the verb phrase in the passive whereas the direct object (internal complement of the active) appears external to the verb phrase in the passive. Finally, the passive forms without the internalized complement are short passives while the ones that contain it (internalized complement) are long passives.

The copula and intransitive verbs cannot take the passive, in addition to these verbs the transitive verbs; called (middle verbs) cannot take the passive in some senses, for example.

46- a/She lacks confidence.

b/ they have a big house.

All these verbs in (46 a,b) belong to the stative class of verbs of (being) and (having), but the stative class of verbs of (attitude) and (volition) can occur in the passive, for example.

47- The boss wants her (active) ----- she is wanted by the boss. (Passive).

1.4 conclusions:

English language has a fixed word order which is also known as SVO, and it differs from languages are spoken by the Turkish, Persian and Japanese, which is called the SOV order. Unlike other nature of written work, the literary works in English have a flexible word order and this is due to the nature of the order of words in poetry and prose.

The English word order is quite rigid: English sentence consists of a subject followed by a predicate and a complement. The adverbial is the only constituent that has a free order in the clause. One of the problems for a notion of the basic word order is the position of the arguments of the verb at the level of the sentence. The subject is one of these arguments; it comes in the first position of the sentence and it precedes each of predicate and object. It has to come before the predicate in English language. It is the main participant in the situation represented by the clause and has the highest claim to the status of the topic. The predicate is what is predicated of the subject. It represents the verb phrase just as the subject is the noun phrase. It names the process in the sentence.

The terms, theme, and rheme are independent of each other. The theme is the form which the speaker proceeds in his discourse. The theme incorporates with the subject. It is the topic of the clause. The topic is an element which may be according to the ideational meaning a participant or a circumstance. The thematic section may be subject, adjunct, or complement according to interpersonal meaning.

The structure of information unit consists of the given information which comes before the new one. Speaker treats the old information as being recoverable to the listener, while the new information is unknown or unrecoverable to the listener. The Theme—Rheme is a way of organizing the elements of the clause whereas the structure of given –new information is not. The Given- New structure is a clause feature; it is realized by the intonation, so the given element can come in any position. We can signal the (new) element by the tonic prominence, it may come first. The focus of the information is the element can carry the tonic prominence.

Many linguists assume that the theme is what I want to talk about while the given information is what I want you to take for granted. The thematic movement is a downward movement; it is the movement away from a point of departure whereas the

informational movement is an upward movement, a movement towards a point of climax which in the unmarked case is final in the clause.

A sentence can be simple, compound, complex, or compound-complex, depending on the types of clauses it contains. Clauses are either independent (main) or dependent (subordinate). Independent clauses can stand on their own, or, two or more main clauses may be connected with a coordinator (a coordinate or a correlative conjunction) or separated with a semi-colon, to form a compound sentence. Subordinate clauses are introduced by subordinators and function as a clause constituent (subject, object, adverbial, and so on) or as part of a constituent; it cannot form a complete sentence by itself.

We need to be aware of the constituents of a sentence and their patterns to analyze it. Sentences may have different communicative functions; each of these communicative functions is expressed through a typical pattern. These patterns are – declarative, interrogative, imperative or exclamatory patterns.

A declarative sentence presents information about a situation or event; it names one or more participants, a process, an attribute of one of the participants, and various aspects of the setting. The communicative function of the interrogative sentence is to get information, while the imperative one is used to get someone to do something and the exclamatory sentence is used to express one's reaction about something. Finally, the inversion is a sentence in which the logical subject occurs in post-verbal position while some other, canonically post-verbal, constituent occur in the initial position of the clause. It serves to form the questions; also contributes to the identification of the topic. Inversion is either full or partial. In the full inversion, the subject comes after all its verb phrase; it is the subject-predicate inversion. The partial inversion is the subject-auxiliary inversion. In this type of inversion, the subject occurs after the auxiliary but in front of the remaining constituents of the verb phrase.

CHAPTER TWO: WORD ORDER AND INFORMATION STATUS IN ENGLISH

2.1 Communicative level (Prague linguistics circle), (three level approaches):

The Prague Linguistic Circle changes the older diachronic paradigm of linguistics into a synchronic theory. The first session of this school took place in 1926. With the phonological theory, it enters the international scene. While Jakobson offered the phonological repertory as a system of opposition, Trubetzkoy (1929; 1939) chooses a comparative analysis of phonemic systems. Mathesius adds another approach, he stressed that the phonological repertory is used in the expressions of a language. In other words, the Prague School is linked to the phonology, with its phonologically relevant functions: expressive and demarcative, it is associated with the theory of oppositions which the linguist Trubetzkoy introduced it to the linguistics. In fact, the distinction between phonetics and phonology is associated with the members of this school. The structural and functional views connect with the names of the Prague school. The Prague Linguistic Circle is an important moment in the development of phonology, structuralism, and linguistics. Besides, in addition to the study of language as a synchronic system, the study of social function and the functionality of language elements is another concept laid down by the members of this school. After the October Revolution from Russia, many members of the Moscow Linguistic Circle were forced to leave Russia and joined the Prague school. From these scholars were Roman Jakobson and Nicholay Serghey Trubetzkoy. The members of the Prague school were influenced by Ferdinand de Saussure in the field of linguistics.

Ferdinand de Saussure's structuralism is divided into two dichotomies: langue/vs/parole and form/vs/substance. In detail, Parole signifies the language behavior whereas the langue according to Saussure is the totality of models of the formation that trigger the utterances of a language. Scholars of the Prague school took into their account some of the geographical, political and social factors in the study of language. Furthermore, the researchers of this school distinct between diachronic and synchronic linguistics, they adopted his distinction from Ferdinand de Saussure, synchronic linguistics study the structure of language at given point in time while diachronic linguistics deal with the historical development of isolated elements.

In the field of syntax, the scholar Vilém Mathésius, the founder of the Prague School, made a distinction between the theme and rheme. He analysed the sentence from a functional perspective and advocated a theory to grammar; this approach is the functional sentence perspective. Vilém Mathésius, one member of the Prague linguistic school, was inspired by the ideas of some scholars that the Prague linguistic school contributed to developing of linguistics, the works of the Prague school linguists can be summarized as follows:

A- "The principle of phonology" by Trubetzkoy.

B- "Comments on Phonological Change in Russian Compared with that in Other Slavic Languages" (1929) and "Characteristics of the Eurasian Language Affinity" (1931) by Roman Jakobson.

Thus, Prague scholars provided the first systematic formulation of semiotic structuralism. Based on Mathesius's view, the normal form for language to be for thematic elements to precede rhematic elements, i.e. the semantic representation, the theme represents the thing, object, entity, matter, it is what the sentence is about. It is the initial position of the sentence. For Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 64), the theme is "the starting point for the message. It contains the given or familiar information. It is " what is being talked about, the point of departure for the clause as a message" (Halliday, 1967: 212). In the declarative sentences, the unmarked theme is the grammatical subject. In Yes-No interrogative, the finite element and the subject are the unmarked themes of the clause whereas the WH-element is the unmarked theme of the WH- interrogative sentences. The predicator element is the unmarked theme of the imperative clause and if this clause contains a finite before the predicator, the theme will include both of them. The marked theme is any constituent other than the subject functions as a theme, this constituent move from its default unmarked position to the front of the clause. Circumstantial Adjuncts is one of the marked themes, these circumstantial adjuncts transferred from their normal position in the initial position of the clause, they have been thematised or fronted, for example.

1- In Paris last year, they did a lot of sightseeing.

Objects in the initial position of a clause are marked; these thematized objects have kind of contrastive effect, for example.

2- If find I get on with her very well, but him I really cannot bear. (Lock 1997: 224)

Attribute complements as themes are marked, for example.

- 3- Strange indeed was the sound that came from within. (ibid}

The topical theme is the first element in the clause; it is part of the meaningful clause construction. It symbolizes a participant, circumstance or process. It is recognized by one of the following constituents: subject, predicate, complement or circumstantial adjunct. In the interrogative clauses, the finite is not a topical theme, for example.

- 4- Europe, after 1500, entered a time of far-reaching mechanical and scientific discovery and development.

Eggins (2004) defines the topical theme as a constituent to which a transitivity function can be assigned, these transitivity functions are (Actor, Behaver, Sensor or Circumstance). It is considered the core element of the textual metafunction in the sense that it is the only required element. Each clause must contain one topical theme, for example.

- 5- However, cries are discomforting. (ibid: 302), ({cries} is the topical theme).

The topical theme refers to persons, creatures, and things. It is "presented by the speaker as identifiable or at least accessible to the hearer"(Downing 2015: 209). It is what the clause is about, topical theme relates to the ideational metafunction. Bloor (2004: 77) claims that "When the speakers in any conversation use expressions like (well, try to indicate that they about to continue an idea or refute an argument, they are commenting, in a sense, on the previous speaker's text. This indicates that they are using a textual Theme. Words such as then, however, nevertheless, therefore, introduced as conjunctive Adjuncts are often, but not always, selected as textual Theme". There are two types of the textual theme. The first is Continuity Adjuncts theme and the second is the Conjunctive Adjuncts theme, for example.

- 6- a/ Oh, she gives him a glass of milk. (Continuity Adjuncts as theme)

b/ but in Iraq, they give you a new identity. (Conjunctive Adjuncts as theme).

There are several elements can function as an interpersonal theme. These functions are:

- A- Modal adjuncts such as (vocative, polarity, and comment). 7- Maybe Nour could help.

B- Finite verbal operator (in interrogative structure).

- 8- Do you need more soup, Ali?

Eggins (2004: 302) states that the interpersonal theme is a "constituent to which we would assign a Mood label (but not a Transitivity label) occurs at the beginning of a clause).

The textual themes express only the textual meaning. According to Fontaine (2013: 149) the textual theme "have an explicit relevance function and serve to indicate the relevance of the clause to neighbouring clauses within the text". These themes are expressed by conjunction and continuatives, for example.

9- *Because* they were so strong, I couldn't beat them.

As Danes (1974) shows that the source of the theme occurs in three possible. The theme of a given clause derived from the theme of the preceding sentence, it is the constant theme progression. The linear theme progression suggests that the theme may be derived from the rheme of the preceding clause. The final source of thematic progression is the derived theme progression where "the theme is derived from what Daneš referred to as a Hypertheme, a general overriding topic of a larger stretch of text such as a paragraph" (ibid: 166).

Here is a text; this text is taken from the website. We will analyze the theme and rheme of this extract,

10- (a) Snowflakes are made of ice crystals. (b) Each snowflake is made of as many as 200 ice crystals. (c) Some snow crystals are symmetrical, like the type that you cut from paper. (d) They form a hexagonal shape (e) because that is how water molecules organize themselves as they freeze. (f) Others are small and irregularly shaped. (g) If they spin like tops as they fall to the ground, (h) they may be perfectly symmetrical when they hit the Earth. (i) But if they fall sideways, (j) they will end up lopsided.

To analyze, the theme of the text is very relevant to a preceding clause. The phrase (snow crystals) is the most common theme; it refers back to the phrase (snowflakes). According to Danes (1974) approach, the constant theme progression is frequent in this text. This theme progression supports the topic of the extract. In clauses (b) and (c), the change from the constant to linear progression shows a move in the text from a focus on the (snowflake) to the (snow crystal). We can see that the theme of clause (f) is derived from the theme of clause (c) through contrast (e.g. other ----- some snow crystals). Most types of the theme in this text is the topic theme, while the ones in clauses (e), (g), and (i) are textual themes. The thematic progression

of the clause is (derived from the title), in clause (c) is linear. It is a constant thematic progression in clause (d).

It is worth noting that the information structure has received different names. Von der Gabelentz used the notion of psychological subject—psychological predicate, while the Prague school used the terms (Theme-Rheme / Topic- comment). E. Kiss (1995: 7) uses the terms notional subject – notional predicate. Chomsky (1971) uses focus - presupposition, indicating the semantic nature of the distinction. The information structure meets the immediate communicative needs of the interlocutors. The notion of information structure reflects the formal features of the utterance. It is one of the linguistic representation dimensions (Chafe, 1976). It is a complex aspect that reveals itself in a number of separate categories; these categories are (given/new, topic/comment and focus/background). Information structure, those aspects "that respond to the temporary state of the addressee's mind, thus excluding several other aspects of messages, like a reference to long-term background knowledge, choice of language or level of politeness that otherwise could be understood as packaging as well" (Krifka, 2008:14).

For Halliday (2002) the information structure is one aspect of the textual organization of the language. The new element in the information structure is an obligatory one while the given element is optional. The old or known information is the given one, it is assumed to be present in the knowledge of hearer. Firbas (1959) assumes that the new information might be the theme of the sentence. This assumption comes from the view that theme is the element with the lowest degree of the communicative dynamism while the rheme is the element with highest degree. It is the tension between what is already known and what is new. The distinction between the subject-predicate plays role in the philosophical disciplines such as epistemology, logic, and metaphysics (Heusinger, 2002). The starting point will be with the use of subject – predicate according to the linguistic distinction. The subject associates with noun phrase and the predicate with verb phrase in a simple sentence. Some linguists use the terms topic – comment to refer to the subject and predicate. The topic – comment categories have to do with the knowledge more than the syntactic level. According to the epistemology distinction, the subject serves to identify what is being discussed. The predicate uses to explain the thing so identified (ibid). In the logic feature, there are two notions goes back to Aristotle's pioneering

work. These notions are the traditional subject – predicate view. Heusinger (2002: 279) points out that in the metaphysical distinction the "subject and predicate is closely correlated to the substance-attribute distinction. So, there is no clear definition to the terms subject – predicate. Von der Gabelentz (1869) defines the psychological subject according to the cognitive state is "that about which the hearer should think", and the psychological predicate is "that what he should think about it". For Amman (1928), the sentence is a message and it consists of two parts (Heusinger, 2002). Amman assumes that the informational structure is the basis for dividing the grammatical structure into subject and predicate. He assures that the psychological structure doesn't coincide with the grammatical structure. According to the gestalt school, there are two parts. The first one is the figure and the second is the ground. This school developed on vision, it used to express some of the perceptual channels such as speech. The figure part of this school represents the given or the less informative material of the sentence, while the ground one represents the prominent part. Later, the communication and information adopted the prominent and highlighted information from the gestalt school.

The modern linguists of the Prague school use the terms topic – focus and integrate these terms to the grammatical model. Danes (1970) presents two faces to the information structure, these faces are the utterance organization and the utterance perspective. In respect with the act of communication, the utterance is a statement about something. The utterance may be theme or rheme. When we link utterance with context, we recognize two parts, the old and the other conveys new information. Halliday supposes two structural portions of information structure, the first thematic structure, and the second one is givenness. The givenness refers to the internal structure of an informational structure. According to Halliday, the information structure consists of given material that is available in the discourse and the new one that is not available in the discourse, it is the information focus. The given is information recoverable either situationally or anaphorically. The new information is not being recoverable from the preceding discourse. Chafe (1976) states that discourse is structured according to the speaker beliefs about the hearer beliefs, rather than according to the semantic content of linguistic terms. Chafe (1976) uses the term (information package). He illustrates that

I have been using the term packaging to refer to the kind of phenomena at issue here, with the idea that they have to do primarily with how the message is sent and only secondarily

with the message itself, just as the packaging of toothpaste can affect sales in partial independence of the quality of the toothpaste inside. Our starting point, then, is that the packaging phenomena relevant to nouns include the following: a. the noun may be either given or new; b. it may be a focus of contrast; (c) it may be definite or indefinite.; (d) it may be the subject of its sentence; (e) it may be the topic of its sentence; and (f) it may represent the individual whose point of view the speaker is taking, or with whom the speaker empathizes.(Chafe 1976: 28)

Prince (1986:208) describes the information structure as

Information in a discourse does not correspond simply to an unstructured set of proposition; rather, speakers seem to form their utterances so as to structure the information they are attempting to convey, usually or perhaps always in accordance with their beliefs about the hearer: what s/he is thought to know, what s/he is expected to be thinking about.

Vallduví (1990) classifies the information structure into three parts, these parts are the (focus + link + tail), he assumes that the main division into focus and background, and the second partition of ground into (link and tail), for example.

11- Zina drinks water.

Link tail focus

The focus and ground according to Vallduví (1990) correspond into the notion of (focus – background), and the second partition (link – tail) matches with the (topic and the rest of the background).

One may notice other notions in the information structure. These notions are topic and focus. The topic is the entity that about which the information must provide or request in the discourse. Focus is the most important and salient information in the discourse. As E. Kiss (1977) states, the topic is denoted by intonation in English language. It has an initial position in the clause and it represents the preverbal element. It can be a noun phrase, adverb, preposition phrase or embedded sentence. Strawson (1964:97-98) states that the topic is what a statement about, it is used to show "knowledge in the possession of an audience", he adds another property to the topic as "The statement is assessed as putative information about its topic". Jackendoff (1972: 16) defines the topic in the term of presupposition "the information in the sentence that is assumed by the speaker to be shared by him and the hearer". It is used to refer to the theme, psychological / logical subject, and ground. For Dik (1989) the topic is one type of his proposals concerning the pragmatic function. He divides the topic into four types, as shown below:

1-The first type is the new topic. It "introduces a topical entity into the discourse". (ibid: 269). This type of topic prefers to be late (non-initial), for example.

12- I am going to tell a story about an elephant called Jumbo.(ibid:268)

The new topic in (5) is the words (elephant called Jumbo).

2-The second type of topic is the given topic. This type is treated as repeated reference through anaphoric reference. It comes at the beginning of the clause, for example.

13- Before two days, I got an email from my friend (new topic). He/ my friend/
the boy (given topic) wished to see me in the park.

3-The sub- topic is the third type of Dik-topic. This type "behaves as if it had been explicitly introduced into the discourse, it behaves like given topic" (Mackenzie and Keizer, 1999:179). This type of topic has a special prominence. It is found in the first position of the sentence, for example.

14- John gave a party (new topic) last week, but the music (sub-topic) was awful.
(Dik, 1989: 275)

4-The final type is resumed topic. Mackenzie and Keizer (1991:179) assume that "resumed topic is a given topic has not been mentioned for some time in the discourse". It is an entity has been mentioned before. It comes in the initial position of the clause, for example.

15- Zena had a sister Nadia (new topic) and a brother Murat (new topic). Nadia
..... Now, Zena's Brother Murat, who I mentioned before ... (resumed topic).

In this matter, Reinhart (1982) refers to the topic as to be synonymous and it can be introduced by the phrase (she said about). It is referential and we cannot find any topic in the presentational and existential sentences and it has existential presuppositions (ibid). For some linguists, the topic is the known, give and old information. It is what the sentence is about. It is the theme; it is something is talked about. It is considered the point of the departure of the utterance. It is something known from the preceding context in the sense that there are markers which identify the topic in the sentence (As for..., With respect to..., or regarding) (Huddleston and

Pullum, 2002: 1371). The topic is either global topic "organizes a whole piece of language" (Downing & Locke, 2006: 225), or local topic which helps to build up the episodes of the talk and discourse as a whole. The topic of sentences and utterances is called the local topic while the topic of the sections in writing and paragraphs is called global one. The local topic corresponds with the subject of the sentence or the theme. Gonzalez & de Los Angeles (2001:73) point out that the topic is a "definite expression conveying given information, it recoverable from the preceding context or known to the participants". Erteschik-Shir (1997) notes that there are sentences contain implicit (stage) topics. The (stage) topics are the (here-now) parameter of the discourse. These parameters indicate the spatio-temporal, for example:

16- a- what happened?

b- Diana cleaned the room.

The answer of the question in (16b) is evaluated with respect to the spatio-temporal parameters of the sentence. Erteschik-Shir (2007:18) assumes that the stage topics are "topics with no need for previous mention". The topic in (17) is a (stage) topic. It is an implicit topic, for example.

17- There's a car outside the house.

The parameter (outside) refers to the (here) parameter of the sentence. One can recognize the sentence is true or false when he /she look outside the house. If there is a car outside the house, the sentence will be true. So, the implicit stage topics are available in the conversations because any conversation takes place in a specific time and specific place. At the beginning of every conversation, these parameters function as potential topics.

In the case of the term focus, Callies (2009) assumes that the focus complements the topic; it is the one of the elements of the discourse that has more value than other elements. The focus is the unknown or new information in the discourse, i.e., it brings about the very information the sentence was assembled to convey. Moreover, the focus is the new, non-presupposed part of the sentence or clause. According to Lambrecht (1994: 207) the focus "is the element of information whereby the presupposition and the assertion differ from each other. From this viewpoint, it is that portion of a proposition which cannot be taken for granted at the time of speech. It is the unpredictable or pragmatically non-recoverable element in an utterance". It refers to something that the speaker/writer intends to be at the center of

the hearer's/reader's attention. Halliday (1967) assumes that there are two types of focus. The first type is the unmarked focus and the second one is the marked focus. The unmarked focus is to put the stress at the end of the clause. When the final constituent is made more salient than other elements, the focus is called unmarked focus (end-focus). The marked focus is the stress of the sentence falls on an element is not last one in the clause. Callies (2009: 21) mentions two types of focus, these two types are contrastive and non-contrastive. The contrastive case of focus involves "closed set of relevant alternatives, with these alternatives often being explicitly mentioned or at least involving their contextual salience" while the non-contrastive focus is involved "an open set of possible referents". Haspelmath (2001) distinguishes two types of focus. The first is the information focus. It serves to bring in the new information. The identificational focus is has a contrastive value and singles out a candidate from a limited contextually given or inferable set of alternatives. There is a school in Europe is called (Columbia school). This school is founded by the functionalist William Driver. This school defines the focus as "what the speaker is assuming the hearer is already concentrating on, what s/he has at the forefront of his/her consciousness at the time of utterance" (De Groot & Mackenzie, 2004: 119). This definition is similar to the definition of the topic in the functional grammar. For (Krifka, 2007:18) the focus "indicates the presence of alternatives that are relevant for the interpretation of linguistic expressions", while Jackendoff (1972) the focus is the information that not be shared by the speaker or hearer. It is used to refer to the logical / psychological predicate, rheme, and comment. Focus is defined by Gonzalez & de Los Angeles (2001:73) as "propositional functions predicated about this set or individuals, it bears sentential stress". It is non-presupposed information in the sentence. The answer to the WH-question is new information while the question is the presupposed information, for example.

18- a- What did Laith do?

b- He cleaned the car.

The subject (he) in (18b) is the topic of the clause, it is known information while the focus is the VP (cleaned the car); it is a new and non-presupposed information. Dik (1989) refers to the pragmatic function focus, it divides into new focus (completive) and contrastive focus. The new (completive) focus is what we can find in question- answer pairs, for example.

19- a- when is Hussein reach?

b- At five o'clock.

For Mackenzie and Keizer (1991) the contrastive focus divides into two types. The first one is the parallel focus. The second type is the counter-presuppositional focus, this types in turn is subdivided into four types, which are as follows (replacing focus, expanding focus, restricting focus, and finally selecting focus).



2.2 Word order and communication:

Reading on "Word order and Communication", I find out that most linguists believe that word order is a constant aspect of the structure of the sentence and that the grammatical analysis of the word order refers to the arrangement of the words in large linguistic units such as phrases, clauses, and sentences. As a matter of fact, the principle of the word order expresses different relationships within the constructions of the sentences. Thus, the forms of the sentence serve in the process of any piece of interactional communication. Rzayev (2007: 173) states that there are some of the assumptions about word order; these assumptions are "sentences always occur in a context and word order as its constant property, is sensitive to the features of that context. Moreover, there is another assumption points out that sentence is communicative and order of its internal components is designed for communication. Word order forms the structure of the sentence and conveys meaning. Sentence has a basic section, which appears as known or as something yields itself as a starting point of communication in the given situation and section brings the contribution of the sentence to the development of the text. There are some ways to indicate the communication value of the elements of the sentence. These ways are word order, context, and semantic means. In addition to the thematic subjects, English has a rhematic or no-thematic subjects, for example.

1- A boy broke the window.

As it is explained in chapter one, each sentence consists of participants in addition to the process and the circumstances. A semantic representation is a scale of communication dynamism, and the use of the dependency syntax help to interpret the left to right order of the elements in the semantic representation, each participant determines its position in the systemic arrangement of participants according to their communicative dynamism. So, according to the semantic representation, the topicalized elements occur to the left of the verb.

The grammatical factor determines the word order of English. In simple, it is not possible to use the order of (goal – verb - actor) in English, where the actor belongs to the rheme and the goal belongs to the theme. This order may appear in the passive construction. It is called the subjective order. Accordingly, the traditional order of English is (actor – verb – goal), this called the objective order. One can find

optional elements in the sentence; these elements connected with the semantic structure and they render a range of circumstance of the action such as (manner, time, place, and condition). In this case, the optional elements are considered as a separate category, they unlike the Theme and Rheme constituents. The optional elements have a secondary importance. The functions of these elements are to connect the theme of a given paragraph of the thematic frame of the whole chapter or book. The position of the subject is high in the short sentences, while in the large sentences, the occurring of the subject in the initial position decreases. It may prefer the final or the medial position with the clauses of three elements. In the clause with four or five members, the subject places near the beginning. As we know that the first part in the sentence is the theme, it is the subject of the clause. We may make another element the theme instead of the subject. We do that by the moving that element to the front of the sentence. This kind of fronting is recognized as inversion (see Ch 1 section C from this thesis). Inversion means the fronting of the verb phrase of the sentence or part of it is moved before the subject. The subjective word order or inversion consists of two types, the first is the full inversion and the second is the partial one. The full inversion is the fronting of the subject in the end position and occurs in sentences of SPAdv- and SPnom patterns. To sum up, the subject is a thematic constituent and partly functions as a rhematic constituent stands at the beginning or near the beginning of the clause, the proportion of the thematic function increases with the length of the sentence.

The verbal predicate is one type of the predicate. In short sentences, the verbal predicate stands at the beginning of the clause, while the nominal predicate occurs at the end and constituent the rheme. In longer clauses, the verbal predicate stands in the second position after the thematic element, while the nominal one occurs in the last position of the clause. In the case of the object position, it prefers the post-verbal position in the clauses of all length. The object stands in the final position of the end-focus with SPO- and SPOA- sentence patterns when it is long, as it is exemplified below:

- 2- The teacher explained everything that could cause misunderstanding. (Rzayev 2007)

The free choice of the order of the direct and indirect objects is occurred when both of them are not pronouns, for example.

- 3- a/ Zahraa sent a gift of birthday to her friend.
b/ Zahraa sent her friend a gift of birthday.

Semantically, adverbials are classified into two types. The first is inherent adverbials; these adverbials have qualified the predicate. The second type is the all other adverbials. The adverbials are mobile. There are two positions of them, they can occur at the beginning and the end of the clause.

It is worthy mention that the distribution of the communicative constituent begins with the lower degree constituent and proceeding to the higher degree constituent. The thematic constituent occurs in the first position with communicative fields of the length of two elements, while the rhematic element stands in the second position. In the clauses of the length of three elements, the theme has the highest frequency, in which it occurs at the beginning then follows by the rhematic constituent. Finally, the theme or any other optional constituents occur at the beginning of the clause with the communicative field of the sentences of the length of four or five elements.

Each syntactic constituent takes various functions in the communication construction of sentence types. Each syntactic element may carry different communicative functions in which there is no one-to-one correspondence between the communication functions of the syntactic constituent and the syntactic. Each element has different communication functions, most typical of it. Here is a schematic survey of the relationship between syntactic and communication functions of the sentence elements. This scheme is adopted from Rzayev (2007).

A syntactic unit is a carrier of	Syntactic element	Sentence type	Communication function
a/ One function	Subject	Sp Rhematic in Inverted SPO structures SP	TOR together with the P or rhematic with the predicate Group mainly Thematic; rhematic

		SPODi	T or rheme / T
b/ two functions : the first being more frequent than the other	Predicate	SPO SPOAdv	T.R T.T
	Direct object Indirect object Object	SPO SPOAdv SPOOi	R T.R T.R T.R
c/ two functions, the mean frequencies of which approximately the same, there is a strong dependence on length	Adv	SPAdv; SPOAdv	R R.T (in inverted structures)
d/ three functions, the first one predominates and its frequency approximately equals the sum of frequencies of the two other functions	Adv	SPOAdv; SPO OiAdv; SP(O)Adv Advd	R.T.O

Table 1: relationship between the syntactic and communication functions of the sentence elements

The structure of the sentence controls the meaning. All in all, speakers need to use accurate sentences to communicate with each other, i.e., they should avoid the ambiguity and make their contribution clear and avoid disorderliness in their use of the language. The contribution of the speaker and listener must be relevant to the current communication and they should make their contribution more informative.

They should say you believe to be true. So, the rules of the communication sequencing operate with meanings performed with sentences. The sentence has form and function tied to its structure and depends on it. This shows that the structure has to be studied in relation to function; and function has to be studied in relation to structure. The sentence is "a process with a series of steps, or mental operations, carried out in a particular order, the product of which is a completed sentence" (Rezyav 2007: 190). This is one of the ways to produce a sentence. There are three problems to create or produce a sentence, these problems are the grammar of the sentence, the description of how these sentence communicates, and the third problem is the process, the linguistic description of the mental and semantic procedures by people to produce a sentence. Each sentence has two levels, the first is the surface structure and the second one is the underlying representation. According to the surface structure, each sentence consists of one or smaller phrases. Consider the following example;

4- The fresh young troops defeated Napoleon's army. (ibid: 192)

To analyze, this sentence contains a noun phrase (The fresh young troops) and a verb phrase (defeated Napoleon's army), the noun phrase consists of an article (the) and a nominal (fresh young man), the nominal divided into adjective and noun. The verb phrase consists of the main verb (defeated) and the noun phrase (Napoleon's army), the noun phrase in turn contains a genitive and noun. The underlying representation of the sentence shows there is more than one proposition of the one sentence. The proposition is the meaning of the sentence, it is a complete thought. If the predicate describes accurately the referent of the subject, the proposition is true.

5- a/ Murat wrote the letter.

b/ Murat is the one who wrote the letter.

c/ The letter was written by Murat.

d/ The letter is what Murat wrote.

Clearly, these sentences convey the same message, they express the same proposition. These sentences differ in focus, in (5 b, c) there is a special emphasis to

Murat. There is no focus in (5a) and it put to the (the letter) in (5d). A proposition is something abstract but meaningful. W.Kreidler (1998: 64) notes that the proposition "can be expressed in different sentences and in parts of sentences, perhaps with differences of focus but always with the same basic meaning. And, as you recall, any sentence can be expressed in different utterances, produced by different people at different times and in different places". There are some kinds of modification in English. These modifications called inflection. Inflection consists of tense, aspect, and modality. The three tense, aspect, and modality may be combined together. As we know, there are two analyzes of any sentence; the syntactic analysis is the description of a sentence. A syntactic analysis according to W.Kreidler (1998: 65) "is an account of the lexemes and function words in a sentence, describing how these combine into phrases, and showing the functions that these lexemes and phrases have in the sentence". Whereas the semantic analysis deals with meaning, in this type of analysis, we separate inflection from the proposition. The following sentences (e.g. Nadia sends his friends a letter / Nadia sent his friends a letter) have the same proposition, but their syntactic forms are different. So, the inflection is a part of the syntactic structure of sentences but not of the semantic structure. Proposition consists of a predicate and numbers of arguments (noun phrases), are a referring expressions. The predicate may be a verb, an adjective, a preposition, or a noun phrase. In each proposition, the arguments of a predicate have many functions and roles, for example.

6- Harry broke the vase.

In (6), the proposition of sentence has a predicate and two arguments, the first argument (Harry), syntactically is the subject and has the semantic role of the agent. The noun phrase (the vase) is the object of the clause, but semantically, it has the function of affected. It is very importing to relate and combine the propositions in order to economize on speaking and listening time. There are several ways of combining proposition to form complex surface structures, for example

7- Mena eats apples and Lina eats oranges. (Mena eats apples and Lina oranges)

It is noted that there are different processes functions to combine the sentences or the propositions such as coordination, substitution, ellipsis and indirect response. Language supplies a social link between society parts to become an effective way of communication. The conjoining is a process which two units linked together which

the domination of a sentence node over another. It is unlike the embedding transformation which permits the domination of a sentence node over another to form a compound sentence. Coordination is two or more units joined together; they relate causing structural change for the purpose of communication. Coordination means two or more of a constituent of equal status are joined to make a large unit. In coordination, there are two sentences combined with the conjunction (and), Rzayev (2007: 195) notes that "the second part with the conjunction (and) may be a) interchanged with the first part, b) a chronological follow-up of the first part, c) a consequence of the first part, and d) a specifying comment on the first part", for example.

8- They worked and played (they played and they play).

As (Denham and Lobeck 2003: 269) point out "the conjunction means the joining phrases (of the same category, usually) with a conjunction (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, and so) joining phrases (of the same category, usually) with a conjunction (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, and so)". Coordination is a non-headed construction in which we cannot distinguish a head and dependent construction in the composition of the coordinate clause. The sentence with coordinate structure contain two parts, the first is a bare coordinate and the second an expanded coordinate, for example.

9- He's a good doctor and her patients really like him.

Bare coordinate	expanded coordinate
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Huddleston and Pullum (2005) mention three properties of coordination, these properties are:

- 1- The grammar sets no limit on how many coordinates a coordination can have.
- 2- The bare coordinates are required to be syntactically similar in certain ways.
- 3- An expanded coordinate can never be preposed.

There is an unlimited number of coordinates and the syntactic of the bare coordinates must be similar. It is impossible to prepose the expanded coordinate, for example.

- 10- She attended the dinner, but she is not a member. NOT (But she is not member. she attended the dinner.)

The symmetric coordination is "the order of the coordinates can be changed without perceptible effect on the acceptability or interpretation of the coordination" (ibid: 230). Whereas, in the asymmetric coordination, we cannot change the order of coordinates, for example.

- 11- a/ she was sleepy and angry / she was angry and sleepy. (symmetric coordination)
b/ They were left high and dry NOT The were left dry and high. (asymmetric coordination)

The unmarked coordination means there are no coordinators is used, we used commas here to separate the items in writing, for example.

- 12- She felt tired, hungry, and sad.

The repetition of the coordinator adds emphasis to the relation it states, for example.

- 13- She felt tired, and hungry, and sad

However, when a speaker puts one of the determinatives (both, either, and neither) before the first coordinate, then, he uses what is called the correlative coordination, for example:

- 14- Both the manager and the secretary of the office have been arrested.

All phrases and clauses within the composite sentences are derived from conjoined sentences. Derived conjunction is the regrouping of the constituents and the deletion of some elements from the context. Deletion is a grammatical process involves the omission of the peripheral, repeated and unnecessary details. There are several using the following conjunctions, the coordinator (but) involves contrast in the value of variable and it is used to combine two sentences, for example.

- 15- Nadia is talented, but she is lazy.

The conjunction (or) is used to show the (alterative) use. The conjunctions (nor/or/not) may be anticipated by (both/either), whereas the conjunctions (neither/but) can be anticipated by (not only/not).

There are several categories to study the coordinate construction. The first one subject NP deletion, in which one of the noun phrases of the conjoined sentences is deleted for economics purposes, for example.

16- My uncle comes to tea and stayed to dinner.

In this sentence, the predicate is (stayed for dinner) and the subject NP of the second sentence has been deleted. In the case of predicate phrase deletion, the deletion occurs within the right elements rather than of the left ones, for example.

17- Helen and John are at the office now.

Specifically speaking, the verbs that follow the two subjects of (17) (Helen is / or John is) is singular, but the regrouping of these two conjoined sentence change it into plural.

Another point to be noted here is the insertion and each other deletion is another category to study the formation of the coordinate. It serves to add new structural elements to the structure and occur with the conjunction (and), for example.

18- The cups and dishes cost five and three Euros respectively.

Analyzing the above sentence, one may note that the (cups) is associated with the (dishes), and the (five) with the (three). The insertion of (respectively) makes the coordination clear. Obviously, coordination involves ellipsis; it means to avoid repetition, for example.

19- Sabrina might be late, but I don't think they will.

According to the communicative function, one reason to use ellipsis is that by omitting given items the attention is focused on new material, for example.

20- Have you told her of the new project? Not yet.

The phrase (not yet) is the rhematic section which cannot be omitted unlike the omitted thematic section (I have told her of the new project).

There are three types of ellipsis; these types are a nominal, a verbal, and a clausal ellipsis. The nominal ellipsis occurs within the nominal group, the grammar of nominal ellipsis allows "the omission of Head nouns in a nominal group" (Bloor 2004: 97), for example.

21- She'll ask Hillary about televisions and find out whether we have got any.

It is normal to find the verbal ellipsis in "in all short form answers and responses" (ibid: 97), for example.

22- Have you read the book? – I am trying.

Ellipsis in the clause is related to the question-answer process in dialogue; two kinds of ellipsis in the clausal can be recognized: First, is yes/no ellipsis. Second, is WH- ellipsis, as it is used in these two examples.

23- Is she at home? – yes (clausal ellipsis with yes/ no ellipsis type).

24- Who is at home? – Jerry (clausal ellipsis with WH- ellipsis type).

The substitution occurs when a speaker or writer avoid the repetition of a lexical item and is "able to draw on the grammatical resources of the language to replace the item". It serves as a "place-holding device" (Halliday 2004), let's consider the following sentence:

25- Would you like this carpet? Or do you prefer the other one?

In this sentence, the listener or the reader can interpret (one) in terms of the previous mention of (carpet), and this forms a cohesive tie. As in ellipsis, substitution consists of three types. In nominal substitutes, (one, ones and same) is used instead of nominal groups and Head nouns, for example.

26- Would you like some cakes?' 'Please pass the ones with sugar in.

One as a substitute word is used with deictics such as (this one, the blue one, etc.). In the verbal substitution, we replace the lexical verb in a verbal group by the word (do), for example.

27- They met in India. Do you remember? Yes, they must have done.

The third type of substitution is the clausal. It is common in speech and written prose. In this type of substitution, "the words (so and not) can stand in place of an entire clause or part of a clause, and the reader or listener can only interpret the meaning of the substitute in terms of what has previously been expressed in full" (Bloor 2004: 96), for example.

28- I do mean something else / I thought so.

Rzayev (2007: 214) refers to three types of indirect responses; these types are commentary, disclaimer, and supplementary indirect responses. The commentary is very common in language use, "any question may be greeted by a commentary, which can contain a statement about the speaker's attitude to the answer". This type can be containing the "elliptical potentialities of (reporting-reported) sequences", for example.

29- Why is your brother late? - I don't know

The supplementary response is an answer to the question by implication, it provides information different from what which is asked for, for example.

30- Can you print this letter? – if he gives me enough money

The third type of indirect response is the disclaimer one. In this type, any question follows by a disclaimer, "which sidesteps the question by disputing, its relevance, a disclaimer involves moving from a yes/no to a WH- context, or vice versa" (Hasan and Halliday 1976: 213), for example.

31- When did we go to watch the new film? - Did we?

2.3 Conclusion:

Based on what have been explained in this chapter, the Prague school has analysed different aspects of the language system and text. According to this school, the main aspects related to the language system are as follows (function pattern, syntactic model, and so on). The second type of aspects related to the text consists of (topic-focus organization, dependency, etc...)

It is concluded that Prague School scholars see language units as a set of oppositions. They were involved with the literary approach and linguistic and work on the rising of the functional approach and analysis of language. It is fair enough to say that one of the most important contributions of the Prague School scholars is the development of the communicative function. They distinguish a three level approach to language units. These are (1) the grammatical one which is separated from the 2) semantic structure of the sentence and from the third level of the sentence structure which is known as (3) textual organization.

The most popular linguists in the Prague school are the Czech linguist Vilém Mathesius, Roman Jakobson, B. Trnka and J. Rypka and B. Havránek. Each one of those scholars introduces a new trend to the development of language. In addition to their concerning on the phonology and phonetics, Prague circle linguists bring in the theories of functional sentence perspective, theme- rheme, topic-focus or topic-comment organization. The hallmark of Prague linguistics was that it saw language in terms of function. Mathesius's work concerns the use of terms theme and rheme, and the notion functional Sentence Perspective is one example of the functional explanation. Mathesius approach claims that sentence falls into two parts the theme, which refers to something about which the hearer already knows, and the rheme, which states some new fact about that given topic. Theme-rheme division corresponds to the syntactic distinction between subject and predicate. Prague scholars developed the notions of topic and comment that are used by the Americans linguists.

It is clear when people talk, they want to say something. When we listen to someone, we expect him to tell us something. When people talk, they intend to convey or send information in order to elevate the ideas of the listeners. There must be three elements to achieve the purpose of the communication. The sender is the first element, the person who begins a message in the communication process. The second

element is the message, it is the information sent by words in speech or writing, or other signs and symbols. The third element is the receiver: he is the person who listens or reads or observes the message that sent by the speaker in the communication process. The sender or the speaker is the source of the information, he/she seeks to send or convey his/her information to the goal. The goal is the receiver the person who receives information. The word order, semantic means, and context are three important means to indicate the communication values. Any sentence consists of three features of representations; these features are logical, grammatical and psychological representations. It is easy to connect the grammatical aspect of these representations to the syntactic structure while the logical one matches to the semantic features. The psychological aspect relates to communication function of the sentence.

There is no one –to- one correspondence between the syntactic elements and the communicative functions of these elements. Each syntactic constituent has several functions. These functions are not equal and sometimes one element has one or more functions. People to communicate with each other need to recognize some principles and maxims, these maxims are the maxim of manner and how people should make their contribution clear. The second one is the maxim of quantity in which the contribution of each speaker and listener should be informative. People need to relate what they say to the current communication: this is the maxim of relation. In the maxim of quality, the people should make their contribution reliable. We saw three problems constrained the producing of any utterance and sentence; the problems are the grammar, function and the process of creating that sentence. In the linear of the arrangement of any sentence there are two levels, the first is the surface structure and the second is underlying representation. The underlying representation level consists of propositions. The proposition is the meaning of the sentence and each proposition has one predicate and more than one arguments. The sentences or propositions combine in different ways; these ways are the coordination, ellipsis, substitution and the indirect responses.

The Information Theory describes communication as speech acts which produce communicative intentions as Grice discovered (1957), a communicative intention is “to” produce some effect in an audience by means of the recognition of this

intention.” More than that “communication succeeds if the hearer identifies the speaker’s communicative intention in the way intended” (Bach 2004:470). While for Relevance Theorists intention determines truth conditions of utterance content, for functionalists and cognitivists, it is not just the communicative intention phenomenon which determines the success of the communication process as Sperber and Wilson (1986:20), 69-70) have rightly pointed out, Grice and his followers have not supplied much in the way of explaining how communication (i.e., mutual understanding) succeeds in particular cases. When we are decoding utterance meaning, since we are communicating, it could make a difference between Linguistic and communicating meaning. Grice describes the double nature of the utterance as “what is said” and “what is interpreted”. Grice and Relevance Theorists describe the meanings of those elements differently. For Grice, “What is said” is determined by truth –conditions while “what is implicated” is determined by the communicative intention. Let’s see an example:

X: “Do you want to play chess?”

Y: I have a headache”

Explicature:” Y has a headache at this moment and he can’t play chess”

Implicature: “Person Y would not be playing chess”.

“What is said” is that Y has a headache, and “what is implicated “is that he couldn’t play chess; his intention is to have a rest.

Explicature is part of utterance content, but implicature is deduced. We could say that person Y wouldn’t say that he couldn’t play bridge, but he implicated it. Relevance Theorists make a difference between saying and implicating. It is not truth-conditions that are necessary for saying: what they say equals explicit content. It depends on cognitive information and they say “what is said” or “saying” is located between Linguistic meaning and cognitive information. In their opinion, explicatures consist of causal and temporal conclusions. Implicatures consist of implicated premises and conclusions (Stojanovic Prelevic 2011:108) for Jacobs (1995:149), Language Learners must acquire the ability to produce and comprehend the propositional content and intention of sentences, a sensitivity to the often very different cultural and pragmatic assumptions of speakers of the Language, and the

ability to recognize the ways in which the propositional content of the target Language is packaged grammatically to indicate the informational functions of the various constituents. Speakers or writers need to take into account whatever relevant knowledge their audience already possesses. Some of what they say must be new information for the audience, or else what bother to say it? But other information included is “old” news that may be needed as background for the new content. Addressees must be able to determine what the main thrust of each sentence is and what is background as well as what connection it has to what was said before and what is/will be said after.

Information thus has different functions, three major of which can be indicated by the grammatical forms:

- 1) Information Status: Old information versus new information;
- 2) Reference/Assertion: Content that is just referred to versus content that is asserted
- 3) Topic/Comment: What the speaker intends a sentence (or larger discourse unit) to be about versus what news information is asserted about the topic.

These three informational functions frequently overlap as dimensions of utterances. The notions “topic and “old information” are not the same since their scopes differ essentially: topic remains the same through the whole text (paragraph at least) While “old information” – “new information” quality, changes from sentence to sentence. The other important distinction is due to the reason that topic, remaining the same, is always old information while the new information of the previous sentence can become the known information of the following sentence in accord with the pattern “thematization of the rheme”.(Hegel’s Law “negation of negation”) and occur outside the topic. “New information” is asserted in the comment (which in many cases is identified with “focus”) and expresses either the speaker’s main message for that sentence or information considered relevant to the main message for J. Firbas (1976:11), a sentential semantico-grammatical structure may appear and function in different kinds of context and different kinds of perspective, and they make it serve different communicative purposes. In V. Mathesius’ conception the theme of a sentence is constituted by elements that expresses something known, given or

something that can be gathered from the previous context; the rheme, on the other hand, is constituted by elements that express something news, something unknown from the preceding context. He defines the theme as “that which is known or at least obvious in the given situation, and from which the speaker proceeds” in the discourse (Mathesius 1939:171; cf. Firbas 1964:268). The rheme of utterance “jadro vypovedi” is defined by Mathesius as “that which the speaker states about, or in regard to, the theme of utterance” (Ibid: 171). An analysis of the FSP was carried out with greater accuracy, with greater accuracy, with greater delicacy by M. A. K. Halliday as an element of his textual function.

“Word order”, as Rzayev et al (2007:173) argue, “is both a constant and variable feature of sentences structure”. Since English lacks special inflections signalling grammatical relations, it relies on word order as a principal means of expressing various relationships (which is restricted to the requirement of structural well-formedness) within the constructions of various patterns. But, it can hardly be restricted to the description of sentence forms independent of the purposes or functions these forms are designed to serve in the process of communication. As such, word order consists of (a) attempts to emphasize a particular perspective to word language (functional versus structural) which is general conditions of the communicative use of word order in various sentence patterns. For Rzayev et al, the following key assumptions about word order are central to sentence analysis in terms of context and communication:

1. As sentence always occurs in a context, the ordering of its internal components is sensitive to features of that context;
2. Sentence is always communicative and the order of its internal components is designed for communication.

These closely interplaying functions of word order influence sentence structure in different ways and different patterns or word order can be understood only by reference to the role which they play in grammatical and communicative organization of the sentence as a whole.

It follows that every sentence has a basic section, which appears as known or something that can be easily gathered from the previous experience or at least yields itself as a starting point of communication in the given situation and a section that brings the very contribution of the given sentence to the development of the text.

The information communicated by the latter (rhematic) + the section about the former (thematic) cannot be wholly gathered from the situation and constitutes the very essence of the experience towards which the sentence is taking a stand-point. This communicative division of the sentence may be expressed by the pattern:

S (Sentence) = TS (Thematic Section) + RS (Rhematic Section) (Rzayev et al (2007:173-174))

In English, as in many other languages, old information tends to precede new information. The topic phrase is always old information, and as Jacobs(1995:153) claims when topic phrases occur, they occupy the initial position in their sentence. So, the sentence initial position is a good site for “what the sentence is about”, that is, the topic.

This assertion can hardly hold true for all possible cases, since in definite cases, the topic can occur in sentence-final position and function as the rheme of the sentence. It is especially common for the so-called wh-clefts. e.g.

What we'll speak about today is passive voice in different languages.

In accord with the universal feature of the “wh-cleft part (i.e., its functioning as the old information), the topic comes at the end position and functions as the new information, i.e. as the rhematic section of the sentence. But when there is no topic noun phrase and the subject is old information, then the subject, as the first major constituent in the sentence, easily takes on the topic function. So the subject and topic functions often coincide in English in sentence-initial position. In analysing the text below about Broca's area, Jacobs (1995:154) arrives at the following judgement which contrasts his own sayings:

The specialized regions of the brain investigated in the greatest detail are those involved in language. Broca's area, on the side of the frontal lobes, is susceptible to damage leading to aphasia because it is adjacent to the face area of the motor cortex.

A stroke destroying Broca's area almost always severely damages the neural mechanism required for speech articulation. A patient of mine, who recently suffered such a stroke is still able to read, write and comprehend, but cannot speak.

For Jacobs, the first two subject NPs are definite NPs (“The specialized regions of the brain investigated in the greatest detail” and “ Broca's area” which expressing old information also function informationally as the topics of their sentences. He also claims that structurally, these definite NPs are different in the that they do not have topic-comment structure, what can hardly be justified, since the topic of these two sentences is Broca's area “located in the specialized regions of the brain” related to this area on the basis of “whole-part” relationship, while the second parts of both sentences provide necessary information about the first parts and consequently function as the comments, also giving new information.

The third subject (“a stroke destroying Broca's area”) although an indefinite NP, also informationally functions as the topic of the sentence and being a generic noun phrase, it also expresses old information. Jacobs assumes that the subject of the final sentence (“a patient of mine who recently suffered such a stroke”) is not the topic of the sentence, since it is indefinite and refers to a specific person, not known to the addressee. For him, just for this reason, the whole sentence is new information and hence the NP cannot be a topic. As we stated above, “topicality” and “givenness” don't always overlap. And the 2nd reason is that this noun phrase is neither indefinite nor tells something new, since both the doctor (“I”) and one of his patients (“a patient of mine”) are definite and express old information and function as the topic (i.e. “one of the patients of the doctor specialized in Broca's area disorders”). The “newness” of the information expressed by the second part (“is still able to read, write and comprehend, but cannot speak”) has been strengthened not only by the word order principle. It has also been reinforced and emphasized by the intensifier “still” and the contrast of “but cannot speak” to “is still able to read, write and comprehend”, the factors which can hardly be ignored.

To summarize, the analysed opinions show that word order and semantic factors usually go hand in hand, but there are also cases when they cannot come to “a peaceful agreement” and for the solution of such discrepancies contextual and other socio-cultural factors should be considered.

Considering sentence – initial position an important position for structuring information, writers and speakers usually remind their addressees of key old information so that the new information will be understood appropriately and efficiently (what, in fact, overlaps with [a] the way and direction of thinking – “from something known to something unknown”, and [b] “that something known should precede, i.e., should be expressed first after which should follow its specification”).

One of the other very common structures that enable old information (i.e, the theme) to be shifted into sentence – initial position is the passive voice. As shown before, a definite noun phrase in subject position functions as the old information. e. g.

The Master degree student from Iraq hired a flat in Isparta.

The noun phrase “The Master degree student from Iraq” has the agent role and has been used before the action (s)he performed. It denotes “old information” and accordingly precedes the action performed by her/him, which in itself is “new information”.

But suppose the speaker or writer wants the noun phrase “a flat in Isparta” to be both the topic and “old information”. For this purpose, this NP should be used in sentence – initial position which requires speakers to adjust the word-order principle to discourse needs and the intention of the communicants:

A/The flat in Isparta was hired by the master degree student.

Passive constructions play a crucial role not only in structuring the form of the sentence. they also follow communicants to structure the flow of information in an appropriate way. The passive clause with the “by” phrase has the same propositional content as its active voice counterpart, but the information is arranged differently. The theme or the entity (“a flat in Isparta”) affected by the event (“being hired”) occupies the prominent first slot in the sentence, while the event and the agent are placed at the end of the clause. The cases with omitted agents are not exceptions; just on the contrary, they are rather widespread in English, due to definite reasons, of course. Yet an agent is responsible for the action described by the clause. Somehow, the active voice order “agent – action + other constituents” seems to most English speakers the more “natural” order. Since the agent need not be specified in passive clauses, the passive voice has even been stigmatized by George Orwell, William Zinsser and other

writers as a form used by unscrupulous politicians and others to deceive and confuse the public. However, these critics over-look the fact that in some contexts a passive clause may be stylistically superior to its active counterpart.

In passive clauses, the verb includes within itself the information that there is an agent. So, unless the speaker wants to make a special point of who the agent is, or the meaning of clause can hardly be completed without the agent, it is optional rather than obligatory to specify the agent in a prepositional phrase like “by a master degree student from Iraq”. Therefore, passive clauses (without “by” agent) can specify one fewer argument than the corresponding active clause, what, in fact, makes delivery and recognition of the demarcation line between “old” and “new” information containing “thematic” and “rhematic” sections much easier.

In English and probably all other languages, there are truth-conditionally equivalent alternatives to practically every describable construction, and to the extent that this is true, the alternatives turn out to have different pragmatic values (Green 2004:408-409). Horn (1984,1993) offers a detailed and convincing explanation of why this is inevitable. For Green (Ibid: 409-410), the factors which might enter into the choice between or among truth-conditionally equivalent constructions are numerous. e.g. choosing a passive construction over an active counterpart might be motivated by an intention to represent the patient as the topic and/or defer information about the agent to the end of the sentence as in (1a), where it will be more perceptually prominent, naturally receiving sentence stress. On the other hand, using the passive voice allows expression of the agent to be entirely suppressed, enabling a speaker to accommodate a fact that it is unknown (1b) or irrelevant (1c) who the agent is, or to just avoid saying who the agent is, even if he does know, as in (1d):

(1) a. The bank was robbed by two young men....

b. My bike was taken between 3:00 and 5:30 on Monday

c. Over 20.000 copies of the book were sold before it was discovered that pages 285 and 286 were missing.

d. [Do you know where the February “Scientific American” is?] It was thrown out.

For some other linguists, using a passive also commonly implies a belief that the event described had a particular effect on some contextually salient sentient individual (Lakoff 1971; Davidson 1980; Fukada 1986; Green 2004/2006). Often the affected individual is the subject as in (2.a; 2.b), but it can be any contextually salient legal person, including, but not limited to, the speaker, or addressee, as in (2.c; 2.d):

- (2) a. He was interrogated for three hours.
b. He was awarded a Pulitzer Prize for that photograph.
c. The evidence was destroyed in the fire.
d. This idea has been attacked as simplistic and naïve.

The effect can be negative, as in (2.a), or positive, as in (2.b); only the details of the context in which the sentence is uttered could tell us which it is in (2.c). The jarring effect of (3.a) is attributable to the fact that the referent of a term is clearly affected, but the construction does not represent that term as a subject (cf. 3.b)

- (3) a. #A car hit your dog, but he's OK now.
b. Your dog was hit by a car this afternoon, but he's OK now.

In the cases (ex. 1, 2, 3) that are the focus of this study, the connection and divergences between the active and passive voices in terms of “what is old/known” and “what is new/unknown” have specific prearrangements exhibiting a differences in presuppositionally backgrounded information.

For Ward and Birner (2004: 171), felicitous inversion in English depends on the discourse – status of the information represented by the preposed and postposed constituents. According to Birner (1994), the most common distribution of information is for the preposed constituent to represent discourse – old information while the postposed constituent represents discourse – new information, as in the example below:

- (4) We have complimentary soft drinks, coffee, Sanka, tea and milk. Also complimentary is red and white wine. We have cocktails available for \$2.00.

For Ward and Birner (2004:171), the preposed Adj P “also complimentary” represents information previously evoked in the discourse, while the postposed “red and white wine” is new to the discourse. Moreover, information that was merely inferable (Prince 1981) behaved as discourse-old, occurring in the same range of contexts as explicitly evoked information. Finally, the analysed data showed that among discourse-old information, that which has been mentioned more recently in general is treated as more familiar, in the sense of being more salient, than that which has been mentioned less recently.

It is not the case, however, that the preposed constituent need always be discourse-old, or that the postposed constituent be discourse-new. The semantic or pragmatic constraint on argument reversal disallows only a preposed constituent being less familiar in the discourse than the postponed constituent. Felicity is possible when both constituents represent discourse-old information. However, in these cases the preposed element is consistently the more recently mentioned of the two, as in (5):

- (5) Each of the characters is the centrepiece of a book, dool and clothing collection. The story of each character is told in a series of six slim books, ... and in late 1989 a series of activity kits was introduced for retail sale. Complementing the relatively affordable books are the dolls, one for each fictional heroine and each with a comparably pricey historically accurate wardrobe and accessories.

Here, as ward and Birner (2004:171-172) argue, although “the dolls” have been evoked in the prior discourse (i.e, the very first sentence’s discourse-new information), they have been evoked less recently than the books. But “discourse-new information” and “the rheme”, in certain cases, can display serious mismatching in the sense that even discourse-old information can be made more prominent and function as “the discourse-motivated” information which also comes under the “shelter” of the “rheme”.

The authors also state that like argument-reversing constructions in general, “by” phrase passives are constrained in that the syntactic subject must not represent newer information within the discourse than does the NP in the “by-phrase” (Ibid:169; Birner 1996).e.g.

- (6) The major's present term of office expires January 1. He will be succeeded by Ivan Allen Jr....

In referring to the preverbal NP in a “by-phrase” passive (e.g. “he” in 6) as the syntactic subject, and to the post-verbal NP (e.g. Ivan Allen Jr.) as the “by-phrase” NP, we break with the tradition of calling the “by-phrase” NP an agent and the construction itself an “agentive passive” (e.g. Siewierska 1984). Such terminology is misleading given that in many cases the “by-phrase” NP does not act as a semantic agent (in the sense of Fillmore 1968). In (6), for example, “Ivan Allen Jr.” is not an agent. This type of passivization requires that its syntactic subject represent information that is at least familiar within the discourse as that represented by the “by-phrase” NP. Thus, when the information status of the relevant NPs is reversed, infelicity results, consider (7) which is the argument-reversed version of (6):

- (7) Ivan Allen Jr. will take office January 1. #The major will be succeeded by him.

The subject “he” in (6) represents discourse-old information, while the “by-phrase” NP, Ivan Allen Jr. represents discourse-new information, which is in full harmony with the word-order principle dictated by the semantico-pragmatic potential of the passive voice. Accordingly, the sentence is felicitous in (6), on the other hand, the syntactic subject, “the major”, represents discourse-new information while the NP in the “by-phrase”, “him” represents discourse-old information, and the passive is infelicitous. Thus, the subject NP in a “by-phrase” passive must not represent less familiar information within the discourse than does the NP within the “by-phrase”. Ward and Birner (2004:170) argue that like “by-phrase” passives, the logical subject of inversion appears in postverbal position while some other, canonically postverbal, constituent appears in preverbal position. As with preposing, any phrasal constituent can be preposed via inversion, as in the examples below:

- (8) He, the publisher, is twenty-six. Born in Hungary, he emigrated to Canada after the revolution. He is as informal as the others. On his lapel is a large “Jesus loves you” Buffon; on his feet, sneakers...

Inversion in the 3rd sentence emphasizes the underlined parts as a real new information to denote which the authors use the term “logical subject”, whose

interpretation in both logical and linguistic literature is “what is spoken about while the “Logical predicate” is always identified with “new information” told about the “logical subject”. Birner (1994) also states that “the most common distribution of information is for the preposed constituent to represent discourse-old information while the postposed constituent represents discourse-new information “which in fact is nothing but to remain blind to the other factors such as “context” and “semantic” devices, if not to mention how the notions “discourse-new” and “discourse-old” types of information have been identified with “topic-comment” pair, on the one hand, and “theme-rheme” division, on the other, the evidence to which is the example below used by the authors:

- (9) Along US route 6, oversale motels run by the national chains have started to supplant the quaint, traditional transients’ cottages. Typical of these new giants is the Sheraton Ocean Park at Eastham, which boasts an indoor swimming pool with cabanas in a tropic like setting.

The underlined sentence (by the authors) display show the sentence-initial and preverbal adjective (phrase) can contribute to the subject-predicate full inversion. Leading to usual “theme/rheme” division based not on the newness, but on the actualized of prominence – made meaning of the inverted, i.e. post verbal subject group of the sentence (“the Sheraton Ocean Park of Eastham,...)

The other example also proves the “power” of the post-verbal word-order in expressing the rhematic information:

- (10) She’s a nice woman, isn’t she? Also a nice woman is our next guest.

In fact, the underlined sentence due to the emphasis “suggested” by “also”, wholly has become the “cradle” of the discourse-motivated information consisting of the “evaluative” (“a nice woman”) part and the NP (our next guest) which is the “source” of this assertion.

We have analysed several opinions (no matter we share them or don’t) concerning how word order principle (both its marked and unmarked cases), i.e., how preposing places a constituent to the left of its canonical position, where it is constrained to represent old information and how postposing of the subject NP to the right of its canonical position constrains it to represent new or discourse-motivated information.

For Culicover and Jackendoff (2005:86), “movement occurs when a feature is not licensed in a particular position”. The feature (or the constituent that bears it) moves, subject to some constraints, until it reaches a position in which it is licensed. Linear order results from the movement of various constituents to positions where their features are licensed and moving to these positions imposes some essential “burden” on those constituents.

In other words, inverting the traditional positions of subject or object NPs, we impose our intentional or purposive “values” on them and thus make them express the so-called discourse-motivated information no matter they denote familiar or new information, they having been mentioned recently, long ago or less recently. Possibility of moving sentence elements to different positions brings us close to the proposition that language is variable and it is this flexibility which allows us to make one and the same structure work much better and more productively. Consider two languages, one of which is SOV (e.g. Turkish) and the one of which is SVO (e.g. English). On the assumption of the uniformity principle (assuming logical rightward branching), both should be SVO. If SVO is derived by movement of O(bject) to have some feature licensed, it is unclear why this movement should not occur in the SVO language which would of course predict that there are no pure SVO or SOV languages. The answer, anticipated by Pollack (who sought to situate the difference in the “strength” of the inflectional morphology) is that all branching is binary (Kayne 1994) and the binding facts suggest generally that an antecedent can only bind a variable to its right, within the minimal clause that contains both of them. So the binding facts, binding theory and the binary branching assumption together support the hypothesis that branching in the English VP is downward and to the right, as proposed by Larson (1988). If branching is to the right, linear order correlates with C-command (Culicover and Jackendoff 2005:82). The example of SOV / SVO variation shows that if a feature (e.g. branching, flexibility, expansion, reduction, etc.) is weak, it cannot be licensed at a point in the derivation that serves as input to the communication process, since otherwise SVO languages would also be SOV. Since by uniformity all features must be licensed at some point in a derivation (of linguistic ordering in accord with different ways of thinking in different groups of languages, if not in each separate language), licensing without apparent movement is therefore done through the so-called “covert” movement.

If we assume uniform binary branching and a cross linguistically uniform interface with semantics, it follows that linear order must be derived entirely through movement, and various formal or meaningful factors must then require or prevent movement of a given constituent in a given language in a definite sentence pattern. In the case of apparent optionality of movement (especially typical for fleective languages), it must be presumed that the given flexibility is optionally “strong”-as in English, or “weak” as in Russian).

Cinque (1999) goes even further and emerges the idea of deriving linear order from hierarchical structure to its logical conclusion (i.e., the way of thinking). He demonstrates how linear order can be correlated with hierarchical structure to a high degree or precision, if for every element that appears in the linear order there is a functional head in the tree (Remember the hierarchical classification of parts of speech by O. Jespersen and the derivational categorical grammar constructed by Jespersen and Adjukewitz and developed by Bar-Hillel). Cinque also claims that there are word order universals of adverbs that can be characterized in terms of a fixed hierarchy of functional heads. This assumption, in fact, revives the “universal base hypothesis” discussed occasionally in the late 1960s (e.g. fillmore 1968:1; Bach 1968:91)

Discussing three possible moves within a sentential frame, Postal (2004: ch.6) suggests that the derivational character of MP (minimalist Program, i.e., presence of obligatory elements to make a sentence a complete unit) requires sentences to be built up from a fixed lexical basis, which, in fact, directly controls and regulates the extent of the word-order inversion. He observes that a constraint based approach does not suffer from this principle: some contexts simply do not constraint their contents of the language, but rather allow “Leakage” (Cf. Culicover and Jackendoff 2005: 90).

Approaching the formulation and communicative potential as well as position changeability of direct and indirect objects in terms of the syntax-semantics interface linguists display different and even controversial opinions. This situation is largely due to their role in constructing a sentence and the importance of the information the express as an element of thematic or a rhematic section. e.g. “Somebody gave Bill a sandwich” unproblematically yields a passive for ditransitives, as in “Bill was given a sandwich (by-agent)” and this rule also leaves open the possibility “of a third

grammatical function, which by virtue of the rebracketing becomes the second grammatical function (i.e., that of the grammatical subject) and is therefore realized for something different from the first grammatical function, which, in turn, leads to differences on the semantic and communicative levels. With this in mind, the view that the indirect object is higher than the direct object in the grammatical function (of) hierarchy is not entirely uncontroversial. In the Keenan-Comrie Accessibility Hierarchy (1977) the indirect object is lower than the direct object since relativization of indirect object entails relativization of direct object, but not vice versa. In the obliqueness Hierarchy (Pollard and Sag 1987), object 1 (the direct object) is higher than object 2 (an indirect object). A similar hierarchy is assumed in LFG. On the other hand, in the Thematic Hierarchy of Jackendoff (1990), the Recipients/Beneficiary (which is the typical indirect object) is higher than the theme (which is typical direct object), which, in turn, is higher than a spatial Goal (e.g. I put the tag on the table; my bus to Ankara leaves at 5 p.m. tomorrow).

Finally, Kayne (1984) treats the indirect object as syntactically superior to the direct object. A similar approach is found in Larson (1988).

What all these opinions display is that none of these treatments of the passive does not “start” with an active and “derive” a passive. There are just alternative ways of linking certain GF tiers (i.e., levels) with syntax and semantics. The active is of course more broadly applicable and involves less structure on the GF tier, so it is certainly the default, but that does not give and sort of derivational priority in any particular sentence.

We conceptualize the passive both in terms of (a) how a GF-tier maps onto syntax (i.e., from the point of sentences production) and (b) how one encounters a passive verb form in syntax from the point of discourse-function, and how it calls for a GF-tier with the extra bracketing, so that the surface subject maps onto the second-ranked grammatical function, which, conversely, moves into a different level from the standpoint of discourse-function. So like the rest of the interface rules, the passive is inherently indirectional.

For Culicover and Jackendoff (2005:155), CS (clause structure) is divided into two semi-independent tiers, one of which is the propositional structure while the second,

apart from the propositional ties, is the information structure, the breakdown of the utterance in terms of new and old information.

For them, “The bear chased the Lion” describes an event of chasing in which “the bear” is “the chaser” and the lion is “chase” (Ibid: 155). The propositional structure (in fact, identified with the semantic structure) is [chase (bear, Lion)]. We can leave these roles in fact but change the information structure by using various focusing and topicalizing constructions; as in (11a-b):

- (11) a. The bear/chased the Lion.
- b. It was the bear that chased the lion.
- c. Who chased the lion was the bear.
- d. What the bear did was chase the lion.
- e. What happened to the lion was the bear chased him.

This multidimensional choice of old and new/discourse-motivated information is parallel to the grammatical word order relations in 11 (a, d), while in 11 (b), 11(c) and 11(d) the mentioned divisions are different: For discourse new/motivated function, 11(b) has employed both “it-cleft” and inverted word order, while 11(c) has applied the “wh-cleft” to denote discourse –known in- formation and the sentence final position for the discourse new/ motivated information. The things in 11(e) are much more complicated, since the whole proposition from 11(a) serves to denote the discourse-new/-motivated information.

For Huddleston (1984: 448), there is a tendency for definite NPs to precede indefinites, for NPs expressing “given” material to precede those expressing “new” material. Thus, the normal preference for “Jill ran into the street and a passing car knocked her down” illustrates factors such as (a) subjectless use of the passive voice followed by “by-car” functioning as the discourse-motivated information, while (b) accounts for different subjects of two independent clauses, each with its own “given”- “discourse-motivated” information divisions provided by the monotonous active voice word-order principle. Huddleston argues that many departures from the basic order are motivated solely by thematic factors. In, for example, thematic fronting, some element is moved to the front of the clause, into pre-subject position (1984:454):

(12) The revised edition I haven't yet read.

Thematic fronting may be accompanied by the displacement of the subject to post-operator position or to post-VP, generally clause-final, position, as in (13):

(13) a. Only then did I realise my mistake.

b. More important had been the moral objections.

The effect of thematic fronting is to assign greater importance to the element concerned than it would typically have in an unmarked construction. The role called “topicalization” in many cases allows the reading: the fronted element can be thought of as corresponding to the topic (i.e., given); it is very plausible to explain (12) as being about the revised edition while the rest part functions as the discourse-motivated or actualized information (Ibid:455).

Postponement to post-VP position, for him, also accompanies thematic fronting-typically of a predicative complement, or a locative as in “over the hill appeared a convoy of enemy troops.”

The effect of the postponement is to give greater importance to the subject than it would have if it were sandwiched between the fronted element and the VP (“Over the hill a convoy of enemy troops appeared”), or to put it another way, to give greater prominence (i.e., to make the subject NP the discourse-motivated information) to the subject than to the VP. He also argues that it is virtually impossible if the subject is a personal pronoun, whose referent will be given and compares the above with “away he ran” where “away” has been made more prominent by fronting, showing to the suddenness of the action performed by him. Often the past-verbal subject functions as the locus of new information – and hence in an example like “closely related to the latter are certain species found in Indonesia; with the fronted PC (Predicative Complement) containing the anaphorically cohesive “the latter”, the reversal of the syntactically basic order yields the informationally unmarked order of given followed by new.

The principle which places heavy element at the end allows to move an object to final position over various kinds of complement or adjunct. But this rule holds for long and complex objects e.g:

(14) They brought in the second suspect

Now we would like simply to draw attention to the communicative potential of the relative clause. In “it was Ed who broke the window”, the content of the underlined relative clause is given, while the new information is associated with the highlighted “it-cleft”, which carries the main stress. This sentence is likely to be used in a context where it is given that someone broke the window, and the new information is that someone was Ed, which can also be verified by the presuppositional analysis:

Someone broke the window.

That someone was x (unknown)

That X was or = Ed (new)

The negating of the proposition cannot change the presuppositionally backgrounded information and the order of its components. So in “it wasn’t Ed who broke with window”, the principal clause selects freely for polarity, so that the presupposed information “someone broke the window” functions as given, while the new information is negative – that someone wasn’t Ed”.

However, the content of the relative clause is by no means given. Thus in “a doctor is a person who has been trained in medicine”, the relative clause will contain new information without providing which the sentence can in no way be considered complete even syntactically.

The information in the relevant clause is new when (i) the highlighted element of the principle is often anaphoric or its referent otherwise given, especially when the relative element is a part of the nucleus, rather than an adjunct of time, place or the like.

It was my father whom I loved most.

(ii). When the information of the relative clause is the core element of the principal clause without which the sentence won’t be a sentence. e.g.

(15) This is the person whom I can completely rely on.

“The person” in the principal clause is unlikely to be used with the content of the new information since it has been mentioned previously or is introduced at the moment; in this case “the person” would rather clearly be the topic and express “givenness” at the same time provide a cohesive effect similar to that achieved by thematic fronting. What the use of the relative clause shows is that it can hardly be considered as given to be presented in this way. If, both semantically and syntactically, is an indispensable and indivisible part of the sentence and contains the discourse new information.

As Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman state, word-order focus can be defined as the movement of a constituent into a position in the sentence where we would not ordinarily expect to find it and for them, the reasons for employing word-order focus are discourse constraints (e.g. given – new information principle), the expression of counter expectancy, contrast, or emphasis (1983: 404). The two instance of adverbial fronting in terms of the examples below are analysed as follows:

(16) a. Into the house John ran.

b. Into the house ran John.

The (a) version seems to signal discourse emphasis or contrast of the initial adverbial element, whereas the (b) version appears to give focus to the delayed subject of the sentence, i.e., the subject NP has been selected by the writer or speaker to go counter to the expectations of the listener or reader (=not anyone else but John). A pilot study by Gary (1974) also supports (though in part) the counter – to – expectation interpretation with regard to such delayed subjects.

The other examples of fronted constructions pointed out by Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman are;

Present participle fronting:

17. Sitting at the kitchen table was our missing uncle.

Past participle fronting:

18. Hidden in the cellar were several barrels of wine.

Comparative fronting:

19. More important than what he did was what he said.

Negated constituent fronting:

20. Under no circumstances will they leave the country.

While Gary provides evidence that present and past participle fronting also may signal counter expectancy, he does not feel that fronting of comparative or negated constituents carries the same semantico – pragmatic information. We feel that the first three instances of fronted constituents put focus on the postposed constituents (i.e., the subject NPs), while the fronting of negated constituents (of course, under the pressure of “no circumstances”) focuses on the negation expressed and gives it special emphasis, but in both cases the effect of fronting is emphasis of the discourse-motivated information. While the relevance of the frontings in (17), (18) and (19) are due to the inverted – word- order principle, the negated fronting of (20) is the direct result of the semantic “interference”, which, “blocking” the heavy sentence final principle, has strengthened the counter expectancy and “won the struggle” against the grammatical factors.

For Biber et al (2011:398), the six grammatical devices used to manipulate word order make a clause better fit its context, while the four major discourse factors provide understanding how those six choices influence word order:

- Information flow: given v.new information
- Focus and emphasis, including end-focus and double focus
- Contrast
- Weight, including end-weight and balance of weight

The typical word order, as they argue, is to start with given information and move to new. This order of information makes it easier for receivers to understand, because the clause starts with something that is familiar. Biber et al state that fronting is relatively rare in English, and it is almost always in declarative main clauses. Fronted object (“This I do not understand”), fronted nominal other than object (“whether Nancy was there or not, she could not be certain), fronted predicatives (“Far more serious were the severe head injuries”), fronted non-finite constructions (“Waiting

below was Michael Sam”), fronting in dependent clauses that use “as” or “though” (“Try as she might to make to make it otherwise”) and fronting in exclamation (“Such a gift he had for gesture...”) are given among the major types of fronting (Biber et al 2011:398-412) But how they contribute to information flow (expect their having a cohesive function and use of fronting of exclamation for irony or sarcasm) has been ignored completely.

In both corpus and experimental studied, Arnold et al (2000) claims to find out that both newness and heaviness play an essential role in determining the choice of the difransitive over dative construction, where heaviness is defined by number of words, and newness by lack of previous mention in the discourse (see also Given 1979, 1984; Dryer 1986; Thompson 1990). These generalizations simply that the reciprocal argument must be topical (i.e., known information), not focal (i.e., new or discourse – motivated information):

(21) She (Subj) kicked (v) him (O₁ – topical) the ball (O₂ – focal)

The idea that ditransitive constraints the recipient argument to be non-focal may ultimately help clarify how the ditransitive construction interacts with long -distance dependency constructions and the passive construction in English. In terms of this approach, as Goldberg (2004:433) states, the recipient argument of the ditransitive cannot appear in a long- distanced dependency relation; e.g.

(22) ? ? Who did Chris give the book?

(23) ? # It is that girl that Chris gave the book

Whereas the patient argument can appear in the cases as:

(24) What did Pat give Chris?

(25) It is that book that Pat gave Chris.

Conversely, the recipient argument can passivise, as in

(26) Pat was given the book by Chris

(27) ?? The book was given Pat by Chris.

For Erteschik-Shir (1979), these facts can be explained by appealing to the difference in discourse function of the two arguments and the two types of constructions. Long-distance dependency constructions typically require that the fronted element be focused. Thus, the infelicitous sentences (22) and (23) result, she argues, from a clash in information structure: the recipient argument which is constrained to being topical, cannot appear as the subject of a passive, because subjecthood is compatible with topicality.

This account is quite provocative in that (a) it predicts that the recipient argument can appear as the dependent element in a topicalization construction, therefore, topicalization (due to their having already been topical in the discourse) of the recipient argument of the ditransitive should present no clash, and (b) this argument can hold unless there is an intensifying or specifying semantic means. Consider the acceptable example below:

(28) She had an idea for a project. She is going to use three groups of mice. One, She'll feed them mouse chow, just the regular stuff they make for mice. Another she'll feed them veggies. And the third, She'll feed junk food (Prince 1997:129). Here "the third", for both Goldberg (2004:434) and Erteschik-Shir 1998) is clearly topical in that it refers to the last of the three groups of mice under discussion and stands in the farthest distance from "the three groups of mice" in sentence 2. In its given state it does not present a clash of discourse constraints to topicalize this recipient argument, and as predicted, the sentence is acceptable. But can this type of discourse – based explanation be effective if we add a semantically effective constraint as "only" to "the third group"? But strengthening and, in fact, emphasizing the role of the third group, makes "the third group" the discourse –motivated constituent, while "She'll feed junk food" is constrained to function as the discourse – given information, since the importance of any discourse element from the point of information status should be compatible with the intention of presentation and the interplay of language levels in the organization flow, which in itself assumes once more that language always offers more than one possibility for structuring our arguments in an appropriate hierarchy, no matter how detached they are from the central idea. The other reason is: discourse-new/-motivated elements must be expressed, which follows from the fact that they are not predictable: they must be expressed in order to be identified. On the other hand, there is a clear motivation from conversational pragmatics for using fronting for

strengthening and converting a previously known or expected information into a discourse – motivated one.



Conclusion

This study was set out to explore the concept of word order and information structure in English. It, also, has sought to know why English follows a rigid word order and to explain the syntactic and semantic function of the sentences constituents. It has offered an evaluative statement of the inversion and what are the characteristic of the inverted word order in English.

One of the most noteworthy issues to consider is to note that all languages are arranged to similar uses methods in the human society in which they are spoken. SOV and SVO word order patterns are the most widespread among the languages of the world. The proportion of speakers of languages with the following patterns (SVO, VSO, VOS, and OSV) reaches to more than 50 % of the world's population ratio. Thus, these patterns of the word order variants are very common.

Based on what have been explained in this study, word order, as a syntactic level, indicates the order of the syntactic parts or constituents in various languages and how several languages employ various orders. It concerns with the way of division of words and states which words, phrases or clauses can appear in which place in a sentence. It plays an essential role in determining the meanings are expressed in other languages by inflections. In summary, the basic word consists of three major constituents subject, verb, and objects. English has a rigid word order because word order is 90 % of English grammar. The rigid word order is more important in written than in spoken language. Specifically speaking, the rigid word order in English means that English uses the word order to determine the grammatical function in a sentence. English follows rigid word order because the moving of any word or a phrase to a different place in a sentence can sometimes result in a dramatic difference in meaning. Accordingly, the meaning of the sentence depends on the word order. There is another key point concerning the rigidity of the word order in English that modern English follows the order of (actor- action – goal) that is the actor is the starting- point of the clause, whereas the goal is the ending – point. In this study, according to some data that have been examined, I conclude that English resembles the verb-initial language, in which they share the features, from these characteristic that the preposition precedes the noun and the construction of the comparative follow the order of

(adjective + marker of compression + standard of compression). In addition to these features, the adverbials of subordinators occur at the beginning of the subordinate clause. With regard to the position of the genitive in English, we have two constructions, in the first the genitive comes before the noun and in the second one, the noun precedes the genitive.

One may see that, unlike English, there are languages that have flexible word order such as German and Spanish, i.e. English lacks the inflection which is common in flexible word order languages which are helpful to encoding data for the case of topic and focus. Furthermore, English is a Germanic-based language. Its syntax follows the form of German language, where it has morphological endings and it loses the case, gender, and other inflectional endings. It, unlike, Turkish language in which Turkish language uses affixes in the beginning, middle, and ends of words, it is an agglutinative language. The structure of Turkish language is varying more than English in which the prepositions of direction, location in English are created in Turkish through affixes, Turkish language able to put much more into a sentence but English cannot.

In this study, several important points have been tackled. One of these points is the two grammatical classes "Noun" and "Verb". These two grammatical classes reflect our structuring of the world as we experience it into two basic types of conceptual units: things and relations. The things are the nouns and the relations are the verbs. In simple, we refer to the things as entities. Precisely speaking, our knowledge structure consists of entities and predicates. The predicates represent states, events, and action which they related to the nominal concepts (entities). The sentence may be containing more than one entity, which called participant. Generally speaking, most of the sentences consist of two participants; the first is a subject which precedes the second participant (object). The hierarchical order of every sentence links the subject of the sentence to the verb phrase, and the predicate of the verb phrase to the object. One can easily notice that through this explanation of the predicate is the bridge that links the two participants of the clause. More clearly, each sentence has a situation which is an action consists of two participants or more, the first is the instigator of an action which is termed as subject or (agent) and the second one is the entity affected by this action and described as the object or the (patient). In

addition to the participants and the predicates, there are other elements, for instance, there are the setting which provides information such as where and when the event happened, why it happened and the condition under which it happened. The setting elements are optional in the structure of the sentence. The adjuncts are the setting elements in the sentence and they are temporal and circumstantial setting. Through what has been previously mentioned, we conclude that the linguistic counterpart of the cognitive situation concept is grammatical unit known as the sentence. The situation consists of relation, two or more participants, in addition to the setting elements, it is an act of communication, where it occurs within a speech condition shared by speaker and hearer. On the other hand, in addition to the subject, predicate, and the complements, the sentence contains the adjuncts which they are optional setting elements.

This study focused on the various types of inversion in English. In the discussing of the inversion, two factors have been taken into consideration: the syntactic complexity and the information status of the word order variation. Each inverted construction was classified either as the preposing constituent or postposing constituent; the study showed that the use of postposing in inverted constructions is heavier than the preposing one. The information structure, on the other hand, was described on the basis of given and new information. I concluded that the postposed constituent contained less known information than the preposed one.

In sum, this study was an attempt to trace the historical overview of the Prague school. As a matter of fact, this school differs from other trends of structural linguistics by concentrating on the semantic functions of language units and on the pragmatic aspects of the use of language and of its varieties. Most of the scholars from this school treated language as a tool that serves a function and adapted to the corresponding needs of human communication. They pointed to the sentence structure in accordance with the pragmatic level, in which they referred to the concepts of topic – focus. This division based on the given and new information.

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