

**UNIVERSITY OF DIYALA**

**BASIC SENTENCE PATTERNS  
IN  
CLASSIC CHILDREN'S STORIES**

**A THESIS  
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REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER  
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# ***Chapter One***

## ***Introduction***

### **1.1 The Problem and Its Significance**

Children's literature is a basic branch of literature that plays an effective role in the formation of child's thinking and behaviour especially if it is invested correctly and reasonably . Through literary works written for children some essential and desirable goals can be achieved such as edification , admonition , and instruction all mixed with the sweetness of entertainment . Linguistically , the main characteristics of children's literature are the simplicity of language and the direct presentation of ideas and messages . These are necessarily required to meet the child's comprehensive faculty .

This study is generally concerned with the grammatical simplicity of children's literature language and specifically with the investigation and analysis of the basic sentence patterns ( henceforth BSPs ) used in classic<sup>1</sup> children's stories ( henceforth CCSs ) . It aims at determining the frequency of the occurrence of each BSP in order to know whether there are degrees of diversity in the occurrences . Then the most , less , and the least ( or rarely ) frequent BSPs used in CCSs will be identified statistically and accordingly the essentialities of the patterns will be specified . The study also tries to present syntactic and semantic justifications for the findings arrived at .

### **1.2 Hypotheses**

It is hypothesized that :

- 1- all the basic sentence patterns ( seven BSPs ) are used in these stories ,
- 2- there are obvious degrees of diversity in the uses of these patterns, and

- 3- the grammatical simplicity of a pattern determines largely and wholly the frequency and in turn the essentiality of the pattern in the stories .

### 1.3 Aims of the Study

The study aims at :

- 1- examining the occurrence of BSPs in CCSs ,
- 2- showing in systematic and statistical ways the frequency of occurrence of each BSP in a selection of CCSs ,
- 3- specifying the most , less , and the least frequent BSPs and in turn their essentialities in CCSs , and
- 4- presenting syntactic and semantic justifications for the results.

### 1.4 Limits of the Study

For the purpose of investigation and analysis , the present study makes use of twenty four selected classic stories<sup>2</sup> which represent four best-known and outstanding collections of CCSs written or rewritten for children . These collections are *Tales from the Arabian Nights* , *Tales of Ancient Greece* , *Tales from Shakespeare* , and *Andersen's Fairy Tales* .

These works are characterized by the popularity among both children and adults alike , their remarkable cultural and literary status , and their important edificational , instructional and entertaining significances .

### 1.5 Grammatical Model

This thesis depends mainly on *A Comprehensive Grammar Of The English Language* (1985) by Randolph Quirk , Sidney Greenbaum , Geoffrey Leech , and Jan Svartvik as the theoretical framework of the investigation and analysis . Quirk et al ., (1985 ) devise a model of BSPs that involves seven patterns represented by

the functional elements .A.S. Hornby's *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (2000) is taken also as a major reference in identifying the verb class or subclass in the selected sentences .

## 1-6 Procedures of the Study

To achieve the aims of the study , the following procedures are to be followed :

- 1- presenting a general theoretical survey of BSPs in English ,
- 2- shedding light briefly on the identification, historical background , and categories of children's literature ,
- 3- identifying the corpus of the study through :
  - a) selecting randomly six stories from each collection ,
  - b) selecting randomly and intentionally one page or sometimes two pages from each story , and
  - c) pinpointing 20 basic sentences in the selected page(s) ,
- 4- specifying the frequency of occurrence of each BSP in each CCS , group , and the whole sample statistically ,
- 5- determining the most , less , and the least frequent BSPs and in turn the essentiality of each BSP in the sample , and
- 6- discussing the results by presenting syntactic and semantic justifications for them .

## Notes to Chapter One

- 1- Holman ( 1979 , 7 : 24 ) states that the terms “ ‘classical ’ and especially ‘ classic’ may be applied to an object or period of excellence in any civilization”. In this study the term *classic* is applied to the first option . i.e. , an object of excellence and not to a period of time .

- 2- The titles of these stories are mentioned in Table ( 4-1 ) .

## ***Chapter Two***

### ***Theoretical Background***

#### **2.1 The Sentence**

It is surprising that grammarians , who have offered innumerable definitions of the sentence , do not agree on a comprehensive and satisfactory one on what Leech et al., ( 2001 : 463 ) consider “ the largest structural unit in terms of what the grammar of a language is organized.” Most of these linguistic definitions of the sentence show the influence of Leonard Bloomfield who pointed to the structural autonomy or independence of the notion of sentence ; it is “ not included by virtue of any grammatical construction in any larger linguistic forms” ( Crystal , 2003 : 414 ) .

Here are the most recognizable definitions which are largely related to the present study :

#### **1- The Traditional / Notional Definition**

A sentence is “ the expression of a complete thought ” (Fries, 1952 : 9 ; Eckersley and Eckersley , 1960 : 318 ; and Palmer , 1971 : 71 ) . This definition is known by its vague characterization , i.e. , it does not specify exactly what a complete thought is .

#### **2- The Practical / Formal Definition**

A sentence is a “ string of words beginning with a capital letter and ending with a full stop” ( Fires , 1952 :9 ; Greenbaum , 1991 : 11 ; and Parrott , 2001 : 251 ) . This practical definition is related only to written statements and ignores completely spoken language and other types of sentence , e.g :

(2-1) Children are innocent .

### 3- The Phonological Definition

A sentence is “ any stretch of speech between silence and one of the two terminals ( falling Pitch ) / ↘ / and ( rising Pitch ) / ↗ / , or any stretch between two such terminals” (Sledd , 1959 : 167 ) . This definition is considered weak since it defines a sentence in terms of sound only regardless of its written form , and sometimes intonation is not easily heard , e.g:

( 2.2 ) We wish them peaceful life . ↘  
 ( 2-2 )a Do you wish them peaceful life ? ↗

### 4- The Logical Definition

Strang (1971:73) and Greenbaum (1991:22) define a sentence logically as being consisted of a complete subject ( henceforth **S** ) and a complete predicate ( henceforth **Pred** ) . These two parts have internal but no external grammatical relations and they have semantic relationship since **Pred** expresses something about **S** , e.g :

<u>S</u>	<u>Pred</u>
(2-1) Children	are innocent .
(2-2) We	wish them peaceful life .
(2-2) The beautiful birds	are flying highly .

All the above definitions share an important defect that they do not account for what is called ‘ *sentence fragments* ’ – very normal and common structures used to express different senses , e.g: *good night* , *congratulations* , *thanks* , *fire* , etc.

### 5- The Structural Definition

Quirk et al., (1985 : 42 ) and Carnie ( 2002 : 27 ) argue that “ a sentence consists of one or more clauses , which consist of one or more phrases , which consist of one or more words , which consist

of one or more morphemes .” This definition represents the grammatical hierarchy beginning with the smallest structural unit , i.e. , morpheme , and ending with the largest structural grammatical unit , i.e. , sentence . Therefore , Crystal ( 2003 : 414 ) describes it as “ the detailed structural descriptions of contemporary linguistic analysis .” The structural definition admits that a sentence fragment that consists of only one morpheme (e.g: *thanks*) is a complete sentence .

In assertion to what has been mentioned at the beginning of this section no one of these five definitions satisfy grammarians in explaining what the term ‘ *sentence*’ means . But this study will be satisfied with them and concentrate on the notion of the sentence that is involved in these definitions , i.e. , a sentence is that which expresses a complete thought , begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop , is pronounced with final falling intonation , consists of a complete **S** and a complete **Pred** and both constitute only one independent clause .

## 2.2 Sentence and Some Notions

### 2.2.1 Sentence Grammaticality

Greenbaum ( 1991 : 12 ) , Haegeman & Gueron ( 1999 : 17-8 ) and Glauner ( 2002 : Ch : 12 , p: 1 ) argue that whenever a sentence is formed according to the general rules of internal grammar of the speaker’s language it is considered grammatical ; and a sentence that is not formed according to these rules is ungrammatical . Most grammarians believe that the determination of the sentence grammaticality depends mainly on the native speaker’s intuition . But Glauner (ibid) presents another way of determining sentence grammaticality , that is “ *Noguchi tag question test*” which attributed to *Rei Noguchi* , the author of *Grammar and the Teaching of Writing : Limits and Possibilities* (1991 ) . According to this test a sentence that can have a tag question ( auxiliary + pronoun ) will be grammatical , e.g :

(2-4) The children are playing joyfully in the park ,aren’t they ?

If the tag question does not work this indicates that the sentence is ungrammatical as shown by the above asterisk , e.g :

\* The children the park in playing .

\* The children playing in the park .

## 2.2.2 Irregular and Non- Sentences

In the previous two sections , the yardstick of identifying the regular sentences has been explained ; that is , they must consist of two parts : **S** and **Pred** , and be formed according to the general rules of the speaker's grammar . Greenbaum ( 1991 : 13 ) and Glauner ( 2002 : ch : 12 , P : 1 ) state that sentences that do not conform to these two conditions will be :

- 1- either *irregular sentences* that are viewed as directly derivable in their interpretations from regular sentences , such sentences are called *sentence fragments* , e.g :

-In London . as an answer to Where do you live ?

-Yes . as an answer to Are you a teacher ?

- 2- or *non-sentences* that cannot be analyzed grammatically as regular sentences , but they may be perfectly normal in usage such as social expression ( e.g : *Hallo* ) , labels ( e.g : *Pure Lemon Juice* ) , notices ( e.g : *No Smoking* ) , etc.

## 2.3 Classification of Sentences

### 2.3.1 Semantic Classification of Sentences

Gleason (1965 : 317 ) , Quirk et al. , ( 1985 : 78 ) , Shaw ( 1986 : 33-4 ) , among others , classify sentences semantically into four types :

- 1- **Declaratives ( or Statements )**

These sentences are used chiefly to convey information . They are pronounced with a final falling intonation and written with a



capital letter at the beginning and a full stop at the end . Declaratives are the most common and basic sentences in which **S** is always present and normally precedes the verb ( henceforth **V** ) , e.g. :

( 2-5 ) Love is blind . ↘

## 2- Interrogatives ( or Questions )

These are used chiefly to request information . Structurally , they usually require **S** – operator <sup>1</sup> inversion . Quirk et al . , ( 1985 : 806 ) divide questions into three main kinds according to the type of answer they require :

(i) Yes/ No questions that require only affirmation or rejection , e.g :

(2-6) A: Have you finished your work ? ↗  
B: Yes , I have .

(ii) Wh-Questions that require a reply supplying an item or items of information , e.g : .

(2-7) A: What is your job ? ↗  
B: My job is a teacher .

(iii) Alternative questions that require as a reply one of two or more options , e.g :

(2-8) Would you like to go for a walk or stay at home ? ↗

## 3- Imperatives ( or Commands )

These are used to make the hearer do something . Structurally , they lack overt **S** and begin with the base form of **V** referring to some future actions . They , like interrogatives , are not basic but transformations of declarative sentences , e.g :

(2-9) Help your friends !

#### 4- Exclamatives ( or Exclamatory)

These are used chiefly to express strong feeling and structurally they , like interrogatives , are introduced by *What* or *How* , without **S**- operator inversion , e.g :

(2-9)                      What beautiful birds fly !

### 2.3.2 Syntactic Classification of Sentences

Quirk et al. , ( 1985 : 78 ) , Nash ( 1986 : 20-1 ) , Haegeman and Gueron ( 1999 : 23 ) , among others , classify English sentences syntactically into four types :

#### 1. Simple Sentence

A simple sentence is the one that consists of only one independent clause that has no grammatical relationship with what precedes or follows it . According to the logical definition mentioned earlier a simple sentence ( independent or superordinate clause ) is composed of **S** and **Pred** that contains at least one finite **V** only , e.g :

(2-11) The clouds disappeared .

(2-12) The farmers made the land green .

Stageberg ( 1981 : 247-8 ) , Shaw ( 1986 : 34 ) , and Alexander ( 1988 : 9-10 ) state that simple sentences can be expanded without changing their basic grammatical structure as follows :

- (i)                      Modification : The use of modifiers to describe , limit , intensify , and / or add to the meaning of the sentence elements or to the whole sentence , e.g :

(2-13) The beautiful little girls are planting three kinds of different colourful flowers in the garden actively this moment .

- (ii)                     Coordination : Words or groups of words are joined together functioning as only an element in the sentence , e.g:

- (2-14) Music and poetry can open hearts but not purses .

The simple sentence without any kind of expansion will be the core of the present study in examining BSPs theoretically in [ 2-7] later .

## 2- Compound Sentence

A compound sentence consists of two or more equal status simple sentences joined together by *coordinating* conjunctions (e.g: *and* , *but* , etc.) or *correlative* conjunctions ( e.g : *either ...or* , *neither ... nor* , etc. ) , or *semi-colon* ( ; ) ( Greenbaum , 1991 : 14, and Glauner , 2002 : ch:15 , P : 1 ) , e.g :

- (2-15 ) Mary watches TV *and* her children play in the garden .  
 (2-16 ) The visitor *either* speaks French , *or* understands it .  
 (2-17) We fished all the day ; we got only this little fish .

## 2- Complex Sentence

A complex sentence consists of two unequal status simple sentences one of them is the independent ( or superordinate ) clause and the other is the dependent ( or subordinate ) clause functioning as an element of the independent clause . Complex sentences are frequently used in written language and usually formed by using *subordinators* ( e.g : *that* , *when* , *if* , *as* , etc. ) or without them , e.g :

- (2-18) That he will stay with his family *is great* .  
 (2-19) *They asked their father* to take them to the zoo .  
 (2-20 ) *You can borrow my car* if you need it .

## 2. Compound-Complex Sentence

A compound-complex sentence consists of two or more coordinate independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses functioning as elements of the independent clauses , e.g :

- (2-21) The duck is a flat-footed animal and it swims when

it wants to .

- (2-22) The racing car went out control and hit the barrier several times before it came to stop on a grassy bank.

## 2.4 Simple Sentence Structure

It has been mentioned previously that the core of this study is the simple sentences , so this section will focus on the internal structure of these sentences . Traditionally , a sentence is divided into two major parts : **S** and **Pred** . The former defines the topic of the sentence , i.e. , it names what the user of the language is thinking of or talking about , and the latter makes an assertion or a statement about the former ( Quirk et al. , 1985 : 78-9 ; Leech and Svartvik , 1994 : 26 ; and Thakur , 1998 : 105 ) , e.g. :

<u><b>S</b></u>	<u><b>Pred</b></u>
(2-23) Mary	arrived lately to home yesterday .
(2-24) The boys	are playing football in the playground .
(2-25) She	becomes a teacher after four years of studying.

Crystal ( 2003 : 366 ) sums up this semantic relationship between **S** and **Pred** in two words, “ topic / comment” or “ given/ new” . All the grammarians agree that **Pred** is more essential and complex than **S** since it contains the most important element in the sentence , that is **V** which enables **Pred** to stand alone with meaningful content as in imperatives ( e.g : *Go ahead !* ) . And semantically , **Pred** carries the new and important information about the topic , that is , **S**. Although this twofold distinction in the sentence analysis is made by traditional grammars , it is still common nowadays .

Other approaches make a further consideration of the simple sentence structure in distinguishing **S** from a series of other functional elements of structure which are : **V**, *Object* , *Complement* ,

and *Adverbial* ( henceforth **O** , **C** , and **A** respectively ) . The final three elements ( **O** , **C** , and **A** ) are grouped under the term “ Complementation <sup>2</sup>” that is needed to complete the sense of **V** , so its presence or absence is wholly and largely determined by **V** of the sentence .

Consequently , English sentence structure can be analyzed into five functional elements and each one of the final three elements is classified into two sorts ( Quirk et al , 1985 : 79 ) :

### Sentence elements <sup>3</sup>

1-	Subject		<b>S</b>
2-	Verb		<b>V</b>
3-	Object	-direct object	<b>Od</b>
		-indirect object	<b>Oi</b>
4-	Complement	- subject complement	<b>Cs</b>
		- object complement	<b>Co</b>
5-	Adverbial <sup>4</sup>	-subject-related Adverbial	<b>As</b>
		-object-related Adverbial	<b>Ao</b>

Here are seven examples identifying the presence of the above seven functional elements with eliminating optional **A** :

- (2-23) Mary ( **S** ) arrived ( **V** ) .
- (2-24) The parents ( **S** ) are making ( **V** ) a party ( **Od** ) .
- (2-25) She ( **S** ) becomes ( **V** ) a nurse ( **Cs** ) .
- (2-26) Her friends ( **S** ) are ( **V** ) there ( **As** ) .
- (2-27) They( **S** ) give ( **V** ) her ( **Oi** ) beautiful flowers ( **Od** ) .
- (2-28) The people ( **S** ) consider ( **V** ) Mary ( **Od** ) angelic ( **Co** ) .
- (2-29) Her mother ( **S** ) puts ( **V** ) the flowers ( **Od** ) in the vase ( **Ao** ) .

It is obvious in the above examples that **S** and **V** are constant elements present in all simple declarative sentences, whereas the presence of other elements is various according to the requirement of **V**.

## 2.5 Syntactic and Semantic Characteristics of Sentence Elements

### 2.5.1 Subject

Quirk et al.,(1985 : 725) and Leech and Svartvik ( 1994 : 325 ) mention the main syntactic characteristics of **S** in the following points:

- 1- **S** is normally realized by a noun phrase ( henceforth N ) or a dependent clause with nominal function , e.g:

(2-30) *Mary / She / The young lady*  
invites John .

(2-31) *That he always helps others / Helping others* is a good deed .

- 2- **S** normally precedes **V** in declarative sentences and immediately follows the operator in questions ( except 4 below ) , but it is absent grammatically-not semantically- in imperatives . In passive voice **S** is postponed finally and converted into a prepositional phrase ( henceforth Prep. P ) introduced by the preposition ( henceforth Prep. ) *by* , e.g:

(2-30) a Does *Mary* invite John ?

(2-30) b Invite John !

(2-30) c John is invited ( by *Mary* ) .

3-**S** determines the following items :

- (i) The form of **V** ,i.e. , **S** requires a number concord with **V**

(e.g: I am / work .. , Mary is / works .. , They are / *work* )

(ii) The form of **O**d if it is a reflexive pronoun , e.g:

(2-32) *She* enjoys *herself* .

(2-33) *The boys* imagine *themselves* pilots .

(iii) The number and person of **C**s when the latter is N .

(2-34) *Mary* is *my sister* .

(2-35) *Mary and Jane* are *my sisters* .

3. **S** can be identified by asking questions introduced by *Who* or *What* according to its type , e.g:

(2-30)d *Who* invites John ?

(2-31)a *What* is a good deed ?

4. Greenbaum ( 1991 : 34 ) specifies the most typical semantic roles of **S** as follows :

(i) agentive (2.36) *They* are working .

(ii) identified (2-37) *John* is my best friend .

(iii) characterized (2-38) *The garden* looks beautiful .

## 2.5.2 Verb

Although Hornby (1976 : 1 ) indicates that there is no useful or adequate definition of the term **V** , Strunk and White ( 2000 : 92 ) define it as being “ a word or group of words that expresses the action or the state of being of the subject ”.Quirk et al., (1985 :62,96) and Crystal ( 2003 : 490 ) state the following main characteristics of **V** :

1-V is the most essential element in the sentence since it presents in all types of regular sentences and determines wholly and largely the occurrence of other elements ( a part from **S** ) and in turn provides a distinction among BSPs .

2-**V** in regular sentences must be realized by a finite verb phrase showing tense , mood , aspect , and voice . These categories are expressed by the following five inflectional forms :

- (i) Base form ( e.g : *work* , *build* , *write* , *put* , *etc.* ) expresses present simple tense with the 1st or 2nd person **S** , and mood ( future sense ) when it is preceded by a modal auxiliary ( e.g : *will* , *would* , *can* , *etc.* ) .
- (ii) –S form ( e.g : *works* , *builds* , *writes* , *puts* , *etc.* ) expresses present simple tense with 3rd person singular **S** .
- (iii) –Ed form ( e.g : *worked* , *built* , *wrote* , *put* , *etc.* ) expresses simple past tense .
- (iv) –Ing form ( e.g : *working* , *building* , *writing* , *putting* , *etc.* ) expresses progressive aspect when it is preceded by one form of the primary auxiliary **Be** .
- (v) –Ed (or –En) form ( e.g : *worked* , *built* , *written* , *put* , *etc.* ) when it is preceded by one form of the primary auxiliary **Have** .

The verb **Be** has eight inflectional forms ( *be* ; *am* , *is* , *are* ; *was* , *were* ; *being* ; *been* ) .

3- Greenbaum (1991:35 ) indicates that **V** can be sorted semantically into :

- (i) Stative **Vs** that introduce a quality attributed to **S** or a state of affairs ; they cannot have –Ing form (e.g : *know* ) .
- (ii) Dynamic **Vs** that introduce events ; they can have –Ing form ( e.g : *work* ) .



According to this semantic classification Alego ( 1974 : 24 ) sets up eight English BSPs ( See table 2-3 ).

4-Greenbaum and Quirk ( 1990 : 202 ) and Crystal ( 2003 : 274, 473) classify verbs syntactically into three types :

- (i) **Linking verbs** ( henceforth **V<sub>l</sub>** ) : This type includes a small list of verbs that carry little meaning . They are used as intensive links between **S** and **C<sub>s</sub>** . **V<sub>l</sub>** can be one of these verbs :
- a) The copular **Be** which is the most common **V<sub>l</sub>** .
  - b) Appearance and sensation verbs (e.g : **look, seem** , **feel**, etc.).
  - c) Resulting verbs ( e.g : **become** , **get** , **prove** , etc. ) .
- (ii) **Intransitive verbs** ( henceforth **V<sub>i</sub>** ) : These verbs can never take **O** and some of them need nothing except **S** to form meaningful sentences , so they are called “ pure” or “ normal” **V<sub>i</sub>** ( e.g: **rise** , **disappear** , etc.) Another subclass of **V<sub>i</sub>** includes these which need obligatory **A<sub>s</sub>** (e.g: **live** , **get** , **sell**<sup>5</sup> , etc. ) .
- (iii) **Transitive verbs** ( henceforth **V<sub>t</sub>** ) : This class includes thousands of verbs that require **O** and they are classified into three subclasses :
- a) **Monotransitive verbs** ( henceforth Mono-**V<sub>t</sub>** )( e.g: **build** , **enjoy** , etc. ) that need only **O<sub>d</sub>** .
  - b) **Ditransitive verbs** ( henceforth Di- **V<sub>t</sub>** ) ( e.g: **give** , **send** , etc. ) that need **O<sub>d</sub>** preceded normally by **O<sub>i</sub>** .
  - c) **Complex-transitive verbs** ( henceforth Comp-**V<sub>t</sub>**) (e.g: **elect** , **consider** , **put** , **treat** , etc. ) that need **O<sub>d</sub>** followed by either **C<sub>o</sub>** or **A<sub>o</sub>** .

Greenbaum and Quirk (1990 : 204 ) , Parrott ( 2000 : 264) , Leech et al. , ( 2001 : 269 ) argue that certain **V**s can belong to more than one **V** class ( or even subclass ) with the same sense or with various senses . This may lead to ambiguity in an determining the BSP of a sentence that has one of these multiple class membership **V**s . Examples of this type of **V**s with reference to their potential classes or subclasses are shown in the following table :

**Table ( 2-1)**  
**Multiple Class Membership of Verbs**

Class <b>V</b>	<b>V<sub>1</sub></b>	<b>V<sub>i</sub></b>		<b>V<sub>t</sub></b>		
		<b>V</b>	<b>V<sub>+As</sub></b>	Mono- <b>V<sub>t</sub></b>	Di- <b>V<sub>t</sub></b>	Comp- <b>V<sub>t</sub></b>
Get	/		/	/	/	/
Make	/			/	/	/
Look	/	/	/			
Grow	/	/		/		
Feel	/	/		/		/
Write		/		/	/	
Leave		/		/	/	/

( See 2-5-2)

### 2.5.3 Object

Strunk and White ( 2000 : 93 ) define **O** as “ a noun or pronoun that completes a prepositional phrase or the meaning of a transitive verb” . **O**s are classified into two sorts :

#### 1- Direct Object ( **Od** )

Alexander (1988 : 3) , Greenbaum and Quirk ( 1990 : 203-6), Thakur ( 1998 : 105-6) , among others , state the main syntactic characteristics of **Od** in the following points :

(i) **Od** is defined traditionally as “ a person or thing that is affected directly by the action expressed by the transitive verb ” ( Thakur , *ibid* ) .

(ii) **Od** is realized by N or clause with nominal function , e.g:

(2-39) Mary helps *George / him /  
the old man /  
whoever needs help* .

(iii) **Od** occurs normally after Mono-**Vt** , or Comp-**Vt** followed by either **Co** or **Ao** , and it comes after Di-**Vt** and **Oi** , e.g:

(2-40) John writes ( his mother ) *a letter* .

(2-41) The football team chose *him* captain .

In passive voice , **Od** occurs initially as **S** of the corresponding passive sentence without a drastic meaning change , e.g:

(2-40)a *A letter* is written ( by John ) .

(iv) **Od** can be identified by one of the following ways :

a) Asking questions introduced by *What* or *Who (m)* , e.g:

(2-40)b *What* does he write ?

(2-41)a *Who(m)* did the football team vote captain ?

b) Using “ *something test* ” that is introduced by Glauner ( 2002 : ch: 7 , P: 2 ) who considers it a good way to test whether there is **Od** or not in sentences where only one nominal constituent usually follows **Vt** , e.g:

(2-40)c John writes *something* .

- (v) Greenbaum ( 1991 : 37 ) specifies the most typical semantic roles of **Od** as follows :

a- affected	(2-42)	The boy threw <i>the ball</i> .
b- resultant	(2-43)	Mary was writing <i>a paper</i> .

## 2- Indirect Object

Quirk et al. , ( 1985 : 726-7 ) , Thakur (1998 : 108 ) , Parrott ( 2000 : 259 ) specify the main characteristics of **O<sub>i</sub>** in the following points :

- (i) **O<sub>i</sub>** is defined traditionally as “ a person or thing that is affected indirectly by the action expressed by Di-**V<sub>t</sub>** .”
- (ii) **O<sub>i</sub>** , like **Od** , is normally realized by N or a clause with nominal function .
- (iii) **O<sub>i</sub>** occurs normally between Di-**V<sub>t</sub>** and **Od** , e.g:

(2-44) Mary gave *John / him / her husband*  
an expensive  
gift .

(2-45) I play *whoever wants* a game of chess .

If **O<sub>i</sub>** occurs after **Od** , it must be converted into Prep. P introduced by ( *to* , *for* , or occasionally *with* ) , thus **O<sub>i</sub>** -or more exactly N that realizes **O<sub>i</sub>**- will be **O** of Prep not of **V** , e.g:

(2-44)a Mary gave an expensive gift *to him* .

In passive voice **O<sub>i</sub>** , like **Od** , can occur initially as **S** of the corresponding passive sentence , e.g:

(2-44)b *John* was given an expensive gift ( by Mary ) .

- (iv) **O<sub>i</sub>** differs from **Od** in the following respects :

a- **Oi** is generally animate ( e.g: *John* ) while **Od** is inanimate (e.g: *an expensive gift* ) .

b- **Oi** is generally optional , while **Od** is obligatory ,  
e.g:

(2-44)c Mary gave an expensive gift .

(v) **Oi** can be identified by asking questions introduced by *Who(m)* or *What* accompanied with Prep (*to* , *for* , *etc.* ) The suitable Prep occurs either before *who(m)* or *what* or at the end of questions , e.g:

(2-44)d { *To who(m)* did Mary give an expensive gift ?  
*Who(m)* did Mary give an expensive gift *to* ?

(vi) Greenbaum (1991: 36 ) specifies the typical semantic role of **Oi** , that is ,“recipient” as it has been expressed in ( 2-44) and (2-45) . Quirk et al., ( 1985: 754 ) add another less frequent role , that is , “ affected ” , e.g:

(2-47) He gave *the door* a strong kick .

## 2.5.4 Complement

The narrowest sense of **C** involves two important grammatical elements : (1) Subject complement **Cs** and (2) Object complement **Co** . Quirk et al. , (1985 : 728-9 ) , Alexander (1988 : 5 ) , and Thakur ( 1998:111) state the main characteristics of **C** (**Cs** and **Co** ) in the following points :

(i) **C** is generally realized by N , that requires **S-V** concord , or adjective / adjectival phrase ( henceforth Adj ) .

(ii) **Cs** normally occurs after **V1** that relates intensively **S** with **Cs**, while **Co** comes after **Od** which is related intensively to **Od** , e.g:

# خلاصة الرسالة الموسومة

## أنماط الجملة الأساسية في قصص الأطفال الكلاسيكية

يعد أغلب النحويين دراسة أنماط الجملة الأساسية واحداً من أهم المواضيع في أي تحليل منظم للغة . أن هذه الأنماط المحدودة العدد هي نماذج نحوية لمجموعة غير محدودة العدد من الجمل المنطوقة والمكتوبة ذات البنية الصحيحة . بمعنى آخر تشير هذه النماذج إلى الأنواع الأساسية للكلمات التي ترتبط بنيوياً بالجمل لكي تنقل معنى باللغة الإنكليزية .

أن هذه الدراسة محاولة لبحث وتحليل مدى استخدام أنماط الجملة الأساسية في لغة قصص الأطفال الكلاسيكية من أجل تحديد تكرار النمط ومن ثم أساسيته في تلك اللغة . لغرض تحقيق أهداف الدراسة تم التحقق من صحة الفرضيات الآتية :

- 1- أن جميع أنماط الجملة الأساسية تستعمل في هذه القصص .
- 2- هناك درجات تفاوت واضحة في استعمال هذه الأنماط .
- 3- تؤثر البساطة النحوية للنمط تأثيراً كبيراً وشاملاً في تقرير تكرار النمط ومن ثم أساسيته في هذه القصص .

من خلال تبني نموذج لأنماط الجملة الأساسية والتحليل الإحصائي للبيانات ، استنتجت هذه الدراسة أن النمط الأول ( فاعل + فعل ) والنمط الثاني ( فاعل + فعل + مفعول به ) هما الأكثر تكراراً وأساسيةً أتباعاً في قصص الأطفال الكلاسيكية . أما النمط الثالث ( فاعل + فعل + تكملة ) أقل تكراراً وأساسيةً وأن الجمل الوصفية أكثر عدداً من الجمل التعريفية . بينما الأنماط الأقل تكراراً أو التي استعملت بندرة فإنها الأقل أساسية وهي كالاتي

: النمط الرابع ( فاعل + فعل + ظرف ) ، والنمط الخامس ( فاعل + فعل + مفعول به غير مباشر + مفعول به مباشر ) ، والنمط السابع ( فاعل + فعل + مفعول به + ظرف ) والنمط السادس ( فاعل + فعل + مفعول به + تكملة ) . وقد دعمت هذه النتائج فرضيات الدراسة .

تتألف الدراسة الحالية من ستة فصول وملحق واحد . الفصل الأول هو المقدمة التي تعرف طبيعة المشكلة وأهميتها وتحدد الفرضيات وحدود الدراسة والأهداف والإجراءات ويعرض الفصل الثاني أنماط الجملة الأساسية نظرياً وعملياً من خلال معاينة تفصيلية مدعمة بالأمثلة ، ويتضمن الفصل الثالث موجزاً عاماً لأدب الأطفال وتاريخه وأنواعه . أما الفصل الرابع فيتعلق بتوضيح طريقة تعيين البيانات المأخوذة من أربع وعشرين قصة كلاسيكية للأطفال مختارة عشوائياً وقصدياً ، وتمثل هذه القصص أربعاً من أشهر وأروع المجموعات الأدبية المكتوبة أو التي أعيدت كتابتها للأطفال بشكل خاص . هذه المجموعات هي حكايات من الليالي العربية ( *Tales from Arabian Nights* ) وحكايات اليونان القديم ( *Tales of Ancient Greece* ) وحكايات من شكسبير ( *Tales from Shakespeare* ) وحكايات الجنيات لأندرسن ( *Andersen's Fairy Tales* ) . وفي هذا الفصل تم ذكر معايير اختيار النصوص مع المستويات التحليلية للدراسة . ويقدم الفصل الخامس تحليلاً للبيانات على شكل جداول وإحصاءات ، ويعرض كذلك مناقشات تفصيلية للنتائج . أما الفصل السادس فيتضمن الاستنتاجات التي خلصت إليها الدراسة وعدداً من التوصيات والمقترحات قدمتها الباحثة .