UNIVERSITY OF DIYALA

BASIC SENTENCE PATTERNS IN CLASSIC CHILDREN'S STORIES

A THESIS

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BY

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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 classic¹ 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 stories² 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) / \checkmark / and (rising Pitch) / \checkmark /, 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:

| S | Pred |
|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| | • |
| (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 ?

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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 . <u>as an answer to</u> Where do you live ? -Yes . <u>as an answer to</u> 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 \searrow

2- Interrogatives (or Questions)

These are used chiefly to request information . Structurally , they usually require S – operator ¹ 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?¹ 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.

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. :

| S | Pred |
|-----------------|--|
| (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*,

(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

and *Adverbial* (henceforth O, C, and A respectively). The final three elements (O, C, and A) are grouped under the term "Complementation²" 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 elements³

| 1- | Subject | | S |
|----|--------------------------|--|----------|
| 2- | Verb | | V |
| 3- | Object | -direct object -indirect object | Od Oi |
| | 4-Complement | subject complementobject complement | Cs Co |
| | 5-Adverbial ⁴ | -subject-related Adverbial -object– related Adverbial | As Ao |

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) \cdot
- (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 <i>Mary</i> invite John? |
|----------|-------------------------------------|
| (2-30) b | Invite John ! |
| (2-30) c | John is invited (by <i>Mary</i>). |

3-S determines the following items :

(i) The form of ${\bf V}$,i.e. , ${\bf S}$ requires a number concord with ${\bf V}$

(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 Cs 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) | <i>They</i> 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.

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 معنًى 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 اساسيته 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 كبير وشامل في تقرير تكرار النمط
 ومن ثم أساسيته في هذه القصص .

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