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Confucius was asked by Tsze-li to what he would consider the first thing to be done if he were to administer the government of a nation. He replied:

"What is necessary is to rectify names... If names be not correct, language is not in accordance with the truth of things. If language be not in accordance with the truth of things, affairs cannot be carried on to success. When affairs cannot be carried on to success, properties and music do not flourish, punishments will not be properly awarded. When punishments are not properly awarded, the people do not know how to move hand or foot.

Therefore a superior man considers it necessary that the names he uses may be spoken appropriately, and also that what he speaks may be carried out appropriately. What the superior man requires, is just that in his words there may be nothing incorrect."
This is the first volume of a contrastive analysis of English and Vietnamese in the light of a combined tagmemic and transformational approach.

The next two volumes are planned to consist of a Vietnamese grammar, and a contrastive study of English and Vietnamese as the basis for a linguistically oriented technique of teaching English grammar and patterned practice to speakers of Vietnamese, and vice versa.

The subsequent volumes will constitute a study of the phonologies of the two languages and an analysis of them as the theoretical background for the teaching of English pronunciation to Vietnamese, and of Vietnamese pronunciation to English speakers.

All these volumes are in advanced stages of preparation and will appear in the foreseeable future.

S.A. Wurm
Editor
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It was through my former teachers, particularly Professors Albert H. Marckwardt, Robert Lado, Harold V. King, James W. Downer, William J. Gedney, Bryce Van Syoc, Warren G. Yates, and Mr William T. Weir that I was first interested in linguistics and inspired to the study of teaching English as a foreign language. To all of them, I wish to express my appreciation for their teaching and advice during my graduate studies at the University of Michigan, or during my work with the South East Asian Regional English Project of the University.

It is a pleasure to acknowledge my indebtedness to numerous students, friends, and colleagues at the University of Saigon, the National Institute of Administration, the Vietnamese American Association and elsewhere. In particular, I extend my thanks to Professors Lê Văn Thọ, Phạm Biểu Tâm, and Trần Quang Đệ, Dr Hoàng Gia Linh, Dr Richard S. Pittman, and Dr Arthur Capell for their encouragement during the writing of this manuscript, and to Mrs Sally Sinisoff for her editorial comment and difficult job of typing the English Grammar volume.

To my parents, whose expectation, moral sacrifice, and prayers gave me the encouragement to keep writing this study, I express my reverence.

Canberra,
April 1966.

N. D. L.
GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1. The Vietnamese Language

Vietnamese, spoken by 24,000,000 people in the Indo-Chinese peninsula, is an Austro-Asiatic language. In the Republic of Vietnam, there are also Chinese spoken by 126,000 people, and Mon-Khmer languages spoken by 300,000 people. But Vietnamese is the standard official language to which national sentiment is strongly attached, and which makes use of a Roman alphabet created by Alexander of Rhodes in the seventeenth century. It has a sizable literature with a history of several centuries including poetry and religious works written in Chinese characters (Chữ Hán 字漢), Demotic characters (Chữ Nôm 字南) which are thought to be created in the fourteenth century by Hán Thuyên, or National (Roman) Alphabet (Chữ Quốc Ngữ 學國語).

Vietnamese is embedded in a national culture which, although deeply influenced by the Chinese Culture, is different from it.

Being now the medium of instruction in elementary, secondary, and higher educational institutions, Vietnamese is always increasing in new technical terms and morphological devices to cope with modern science and technology.


3 For further detail on minority group languages in Vietnam, see David D. Thomas, "Vietnam Minority Languages". May 1964, Summer Institute of Linguistics in Vietnam, unpublished.


5 The Faculty of Science of the University of Saigon has been preparing a dictionary of technical and scientific terms in Vietnamese.
2. French and English in Vietnam

Vietnamese high-school students are required to learn two foreign languages, the first one for seven years, and the second one for three years. The increase in the number of students learning French or English as first foreign language is as follows:6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic Years</th>
<th>Public High-Schools</th>
<th>Private High-Schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>French</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1958-1959</td>
<td>34,774</td>
<td>18,412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1959-1960</td>
<td>35,516</td>
<td>27,058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960-1961</td>
<td>42,009</td>
<td>32,414</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961-1962</td>
<td>50,324</td>
<td>36,556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962-1963</td>
<td>57,996</td>
<td>40,753</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963-1964</td>
<td>65,853</td>
<td>46,753</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

French, which used to be an official language in the country, still has a higher total number of students enrolled. Meanwhile, English, because of its increasing role in international communication, has a higher ratio of increase of enrolments. The ratio of increase of enrolments has been over 90% for French and over 154% for English in public high-schools in the past six years.

This process proves Alf Sommerfelt's statement to be correct:

"Until our time, French had the lead... In our time, however, the overwhelming influence comes from English because of the leading part the British Commonwealth and the United States play in the modern world... In the view of the development which is going on under our eyes, English ought to be adopted as the main language."7

3. Foreign Language Learning and National Development8

Because of the "role of language as a cultural institution",9 the

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value of foreign language learning in the general education of a people is undeniable.

Besides this vital interest to Vietnam to keep abreast of modern international culture, the use of one or more languages of wider communication by a larger segment of its population is an important factor in the economic, social, and educational development of the nation. There are at least two communication needs to be recognized here: transmission of science and technology, and international communication.

Science and Technology: There are urgent needs for the country to have access to the scientific, technical, and economic knowledge of the modern world.

International Communication: Vietnam wishes to enter the international scene and establish effective channels of communication with other nations.

4. Foreign Language Programmes and Linguistics


Since then, throughout the Intensive Language Program of the American Council of Learned Societies during World War II, the Army Language Section, the Army Specialized Training Program: Language and Area Section, the Foreign Language and Area Programs of the Provost Marshal General's Office of the Department of the Army, and the recent developments in language teaching manifested by the Cornell Language Program, the Foreign Service Institute of the State Department, the Institute of Languages and Linguistics of Georgetown University, the English Language Institute of the University of Michigan, etc., a new concept of applying modern linguistics to the teaching of foreign languages could be applied in the teaching of foreign languages could be applied in the teaching of foreign languages could be applied in the teaching of foreign languages could be applied in the teaching of foreign languages could be applied in the teaching of foreign

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11 For further detail on the history of applied linguistics during the period under discussion, see, for examples:  
languages has been developed in the United States. This concept of applied linguistics has been systematized mainly by Charles C. Fries, and Robert Lado.

The central idea of this concept is the "importance of the native language in foreign language learning". Each language has its own sound system and grammatical structure. The foreign language learner has already learned a native language extensively enough to grasp and express a variety of experience and he can never again be in the same position as a child learning his own language. He tends to transfer the phonological and grammatical systems of his native language to the foreign language to be learned. This transfer creates a phenomenon of interference, or deviation from the norms of either language which occurs in his speech while he is switching from one language code to another.

This concept of applied linguistics has been carried out in Vietnam in the last few years by the South-East Asian Regional English Project (SEAREP), a University of Michigan-United States Operations Missions Contract, in the training of English teachers at the Faculty of Pedagogy, University of Saigon. The final written results were a set of three text books for intensive courses in English, all of them rewritten by the present author. In broad lines, the writing of these books was deeply influenced by the Lado-Fries series of English text books for Latin American students, and based upon an intuitive but

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14 David W. Reed, Robert Lado, Yao Shen, "The Importance of the Native Language in Foreign Language Learning", in *Selected Articles from Language Learning*, Series I, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1953, pp. 121-127.


not stated linguistically oriented comparison of English and Vietnamese. 18

5. The Present Study

Representative of the recognition of the development of a methodology for the application of the findings of linguistics to the teaching of foreign languages are the facts that the United States Office of Education, under the National Defence Education Act of September 2, 1958, specified the analysis for language teaching in Foreign Language Institutes, and contracted with linguists for an Anthology of Applied Linguistics for the use in the Institutes, and with the Center of Applied Linguistics of the Modern Language Association of America for the development of linguistic contrastive analyses. So far, a series of contrastive studies describing the similarities and differences between English and each of the five languages most commonly taught in the United States (French, German, Italian, Russian and Spanish) have been published or are being prepared. 19

Because of its methodological importance to the teaching of English to Vietnamese speakers, and of Vietnamese to English speakers, the present contrastive analysis of English and Vietnamese grammar and phonology has proved to be necessary.

As it has been said a short while ago, one of the major problems in the learning of a second language is the interference caused by the structural differences between the language to be learned and the language of the learner. Consequently, a contrastive analysis of the two languages will point out learning and teaching problems, and will constitute the basis for the preparation of scientifically oriented instructional materials, the planning of courses according to the relative degrees of difficulties of learning problems, and the development of classroom techniques.

In terms of linguistic theoretical implications, this contrastive analysis is a tentative combination of two leading, if not the two

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leading linguistic theories of the last decade, Tagmemics and Transformational Grammar; it is also an application of the tagmemic model to the preparation of substitution, and development drills, and of the transformational model to the preparation of transformational drills in grammar and pattern practice lessons.

Nevertheless, at the same time, this study, concerned only with the grammatical structures and the sound systems of the two languages, cannot be considered complete for the preparation of text books of either language for native speakers of the other language, seeing that:

"The fundamental purpose or objective of all foreign language teaching is to achieve an understanding as complete as possible between people of different linguistic backgrounds."20

Thus, the present study must be followed by a careful contrastive analysis of the culture or cultures of the English speaking people, and the Vietnamese culture to point out cultural differences, i.e. cultural teaching and learning problems, as Albert H. Marckwardt says:

"Just so, it may be reasonably maintained that contrastive cultural analyses are equally important in terms of language study."21

The fact that language is closely related to culture has been pointed out by many a linguist, among them Edward Sapir,22 Benjamin Lee Whorf,23 and Kenneth L. Pike, who says:

"In sum, then, we may say that the linguist wishes to dis-


"We see and hear otherwise experience very largely as we do because the language habits of our community predispose certain choices of interpretation." - p.162.

23 Benjamin Lee Whorf, in Collected Papers on Metalinguistics, Washington D.C., 1952, defines language as:

"...the thought world... the microcosm that each man carries about within himself by which he measures and understands what he can of the macrocosm." - p.36.
cover the structure of language behavior, and obtains its structuring only in reference to that larger behavior field, and relative to the structural units of that larger field, the linguist must on occasion refer to that larger field in order to get access to that frame of reference within which the linguistic units obtain part of their definition."24

Since the meanings expressed in a language are largely behaviourally (or culturally) determined, one cannot understand a language fully without understanding at least the distinct cultural meanings expressed through it. Thus, the foreign language student cannot go far into the language to be learned without facing differences in cultural meanings. He needs to have a substantial knowledge of specific facts concerning the culture, some understanding of the main patterns of thought, beliefs, traditions, appreciation of the values that account for the way the people live and behave, and be able to recognize the significance of the accomplishments of the people.

In learning a foreign culture, the student tends also to transfer the patterns of his native culture to the culture to be learned, both on the production level and on the reception level, as Robert Lado says:

"The student learns the target culture not from scratch as he learned his native one, but with the experience, meanings, and habits of his native culture influencing him at every step. The native-culture experience will facilitate learning those patterns that are sufficiently similar to the function satisfactorily when transferred. The native-culture experiences will interfere with those cultural patterns and meanings that are not equatable with similar ones or that are partly similar but function differently in the target culture."25

In conclusion, a contrastive cultural study is also of greatest importance to the programming of an English or Vietnamese language course for native speakers of the other language.

6. The Choice of Dialects

The purpose of this study is to make a contrastive analysis of English and Vietnamese for pedagogical applications, and not to make a linguistic geography survey of a country. Therefore it is necessary to choose a particular dialect of English, and a particular dialect of Vietnamese, as Zellig S. Harris says:

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"The universe of discourse for a descriptive linguistic investigation is a single language or dialect.

These investigations are carried out for the speech of a particular person, or one community of dialectically identical persons, at a time."

Both in English and Vietnamese, there are not many serious grammatical differences among different standard dialects, but there are a few phonological differences. Thus the choice of dialects matters only in the phonological analyses.

The two dialects chosen for contrastive analysis are: Midwest Standard American English, and Standard Saigon Vietnamese.

6.1. Midwest Standard American English (MSAE)

The problem of choosing which linguistic form should be learned or taught for active production of English when many forms are employed in approximately equivalent manners by different native speakers of the language must be considered in the preparation of text books where, for convenience, materials are centered about a single dialect.

While it is pertinent for advanced students to be exposed to British English, Australian English, New Zealand English, etc., MSAE is chosen for this study, and assumed to be the dialect that the Vietnamese student observes in his elementary study of the language. The reasons for this choice are:

(1) Since a student of a second language will try to speak like the informant or informants who are used as models, MSAE is chosen because it is much more easily observable in Vietnam than any other English dialect;

(2) MSAE, a standard colloquial speech, is mutually intelligible with other dialects;

(3) MSAE, like other standard dialects of English, has social, cultural, and literary prestige;

(4) MSAE has reliable sources of linguistic information, such as descriptive grammars, dictionaries, etc.

6.2. Standard Saigon Vietnamese (SSV)

Since Vietnamese native speakers of the three main dialects of Vietnamese (Hanoi, Hue, Saigon dialects) are present in any English classroom in Vietnam, it is obviously unrealistic, for the purpose of

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27 For an introduction to Vietnamese pronunciation, the Vietnamese writing system and dialect variations, see Lawrence C. Thompson, *A Vietnamese Grammar*. University of Washington Press, Seattle, 1965, pp.3-104.
teaching English in the country, to choose just one dialect of Vietnamese for contrastive analysis while neglecting the other two. The three dialects differ from one another in their phonological systems, mainly in their intonation patterns, but they are perfectly mutually intelligible. An arbitrary choice of SSV, which has the greatest number of speakers in the Republic of Vietnam, has been made here. Nevertheless, as far as teaching and learning problems of English pronunciation are concerned, only the English phonemes which have their equivalents in the Vietnamese phonological common core \(^{28}\) of the three main dialects are considered easy for Vietnamese students. Problems for speakers of any particular Vietnamese dialect are considered as problems for Vietnamese speakers in general, although in practical situations, the sounds considered as difficult may not be problems for speakers of any one particular dialect because in every day contact, speakers of a particular dialect have picked up phonemes of another dialect.

All the arguments given so far have centered about the purpose of teaching English to Vietnamese speakers. Reasons should also be given for this choice of dialects for the purpose of teaching Vietnamese to English speakers.

Considered now as the dialect to be learned by English speakers, SSV, which is a standard dialect like the other two main dialects, was chosen even more arbitrarily than MSAE was chosen as the dialect for Vietnamese students to learn. This arbitrary choice has nevertheless some practical reasons: being the native dialect of the author, SSV can be described by him with greater accuracy.

Likewise, this contrastive analysis is intended to discover teaching and learning problems for English speakers. Thus, it is obviously unrealistic to choose just one dialect of English for comparison. In order to compensate for this arbitrary choice, Vietnamese pronunciation difficulties for speakers of other English dialects (especially British and Australian dialects) will be also presented in the Part on Vietnamese pronunciation for English.

7. Kenneth L. Pike's Philosophy of Language Adopted \(^{29}\)


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\(^{29}\) Some points in this short discussion have been borrowed from John C. Crawford, *Totontepec Mixe Phonotagmatics*. Summer Institute of Linguistics, Norma, Oklahoma, 1963.
There are four characteristics of Pike's philosophy of language and model for language structure which are basic to this presentation. The brief discussion of these four points made here is not meant to summarize Pike's Language. It is only to show the direction that this study will take, and what the major linguistic, and especially extra-linguistic considerations will be which will have to be taken into account for a scientific programming of the teaching of two quite different languages, both in terms of linguistic structural patterns and overall behavioural matrices. The four characteristics, which are closely inter-related, are: (1) Language is viewed as behaviour; (2) Language is hierarchically ordered; (3) Language consists of emic units; (4) Language is tri-modally structured.

7.1. Language is Viewed as Behaviour

Language is not a self-contained system; the behaviour aspects are closely related to linguistic aspects. It is viewed by Pike as being only one part of a larger totality of structured human behaviour. On the one hand, language is inextricably mixed with other aspects of this behavioural totality, and on the other hand, language behaviour constitutes a significant part of this total human behaviour. Consequently, language can only be considered as being in relation to other aspects of the totality of structured human behaviour.

In the light of Pike's statement that language must be viewed as behaviour, some remarks on Vietnamese linguistic behaviour and English linguistic behaviour will be given here. These very brief remarks are only to explain the existence of linguistic difficulties (for speakers of one language to learn the other language) due to the interference of the two different linguistic behaviours.

7.1.1. Vietnamese Linguistic Behaviour

Vietnamese is an uninflectional and, at least phonologically speaking, monosyllabic language. That means that there are only two syntactic and morphological devices in Vietnamese: the use of word order, and the use of function words.30

This limited number of grammatical devices in Vietnamese is closely related to and characteristic of the Vietnamese linguistic behaviour, which would seem to be governed by two behavioural laws: the law of indeterminacy; and the law of simplicity.

Law of Indeterminacy. The Vietnamese language is said to be governed by the law of indeterminacy in the sense that Vietnamese Sentences, both Minor and Major Sentence Types, are not necessarily self-sufficient units, but they can, and usually do, rely on larger linguistic,

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or extra-linguistic matrices which explain or complete their meaning. What is assumed to be known is not repeated in the actual Sentence units. In other words, Vietnamese Sentences are usually contextually Dependent Sentences.

This law of indeterminacy explains also the frequent use of Minor Sentences in a Vietnamese discourse. For example:

A student, coming back from his examinations, looks at his anxious parents and says:

Khó 'difficult' = What I have had as tests were quite difficult.

or: Đúng 'alright' = I have done my examinations well.

or: Đỗ quá 'too bad' = It was too bad. My papers were too bad.

These Minor Sentences comprise or express a number of different notions.

These same Minor Sentences exist also in English, but they must be more numerous in Vietnamese because in Vietnamese, many nucleus Clause level tagmemes are optional while in English the same tagmemes are obligatory, for examples the Subject tagmeme, or the Direct Object tagmeme in full Transitive Clause Types31 (see Chapters on English and on Vietnamese Clause Types). For examples:

In English, as an answer to the question "When did you buy this book?", the following Sentence

I bought it yesterday.

In Vietnamese, the following Sentence may be uttered:

Mua hôm qua, literally 'buy day past'.

The Subject tagmeme I, and the Object tagmeme It are obligatory in English, but optional in Vietnamese.

This law of indeterminacy governs also Major Sentence Types in Vietnamese. As an example of this contextual dependence of Major Sentence Types, the following Sentence can be understood in different ways according to the larger linguistic, or extra-linguistic matrices:

Nó về tôi về +Falling Intonation

He returns I return

The Sentence may mean, according to different contexts:

If he goes home, I'll go home too.

When he goes home, I'll go home too.

Every time he goes home, I go home too.

Because he is going home, I am going home too.

31 Lawrence C. Thompson interprets the optional character of the Subject and Direct Object tagmemes in Vietnamese in these terms: "These considerations also suggest that subject and object as presumed universals need careful amendment. It appears that there are syntactic structures (like that of Vietnamese) in which these categories scarcely exist at all; their equivalents appear rather as elements of a modification-and-reference subsystem." - p.618, "Nuclear Models in Vietnamese immediate-constituent analysis", *Language* 41.4: 610-618 (1965).
Because he went home, I went home too.

Since he might be going home, I am going home now, etc.

Law of Simplicity. The Vietnamese language is said to be governed by the law of simplicity in the sense it tends to use simple constructions, and compound constructions, rather than to use complex constructions. On the sentence level for example, Vietnamese Sentences do not usually have Extra Dependent Introducers such as "bởi vì 'because', khi 'when', and consequently, they do not have a complex internal structure of Clause within Clause. They are more usually Compound Sentences containing successive Clauses which can be coordinated or not. In these Compound Sentences, the different Cause-Effect, Supposition-Consequence, Time-Relativity, etc. relationships will be expressed loosely by Independent Clause Coordinators.

Thus, the Vietnamese Language is said to be governed by the law of simplicity because, instead of using pyramiding structures of constructions within constructions, it tends to use lengthy but simple coordinate successive constructions.

As an example of this law of simplicity, the two facts are stated in their chronological order rather than logical order (i.e. Time-Situation dependence versus government) relationships in the following Major Independent Compound Sentence:

Nó về nhà thì (nó) gặp một người khách
he return house then he meet one person visitor
(When he returned home, he met a visitor.)

The two facts of 'going home' and 'meeting a visitor' are stated in their chronological order rather than in the circumstantial Time situation of the first fact, and the government by the second fact.

This law of simplicity does not mean that there are no Complex Sentence Types with their internal structures composed of pyramiding structures of Clauses within Clauses. It just means that Complex structures are used only when there is a strong pressure for precision (cf. Chapter V of Vietnamese Grammar).

7.1.2. English Linguistic Behaviour

English is an inflectional and polysyllabic language. That means that there are more than two syntactic and morphological devices in English. The use of word order, function words, and inflections.

This relative abundance of grammatical devices in English reflects the English linguistic behaviour, which can be characterized by the law of precision.

English is said to be governed by the law of precision in the sense that even what is assumed to be known is usually repeated in actual Sentence units. Following are some illustrations of this law of precision: In Clause matrices, the repetition of nucleus Subject, and Object tagmemes is obligatory when these Clauses constitute separate
Sentences. Secondary notions of Tense, Concordance, Aspects, etc., are most of the time expressed in Sentences. Clause level relations of Cause-Effect, Supposition-Consequence, etc., are expressed with Complex Sentence structures of Clauses within Clauses.

7.2. Language is Hierarchically Ordered

Language, according to Pike's theory, consists of units of significant layerings and not merely of sequences of units put together like beads on a string. The higher units are partly, but not entirely, determined in terms of lower layered units of which they are composed. The lower units, moreover, occur only in structurally relevant positions within higher layered units in the hierarchy.

There are three different hierarchies in language, the phonological, the lexical, and the tagmemic hierarchies. 32

(1) The phonological hierarchy builds up through a pyramiding succession of units, phonemes to syllables, syllables to stress groups, stress groups to pause groups, pause groups to emic breath groups, etc.

In the phonology discussion of this study, many phonological levels will not be dealt with because they are not very relevant to a contrastive analysis.

(2) The lexical hierarchy consists of pyramiding succession of units, morphemes to words, words to phrases, phrases to clauses, clauses to sentences, etc.

(3) The hierarchy of tagmemic units consists of a pyramiding succession of units labelled as "slot-class correlate" (Pike, Language, Chapter 7). These consist of an emic slot, which is a meaningful position in the next higher layer of structure, with a class of items which form the filler class of that slot. The units which constitute the membership of the filler class are morphemic units. The occurrence of these units constitutes the occurrence of the tagmemic unit. The filler classes of morphemic level tagmemes are usually morphemes; the filler classes of word level tagmemes are usually words.

Other higher level tagmemes are phrase level tagmemes, clause level tagmemes, sentence level tagmemes, etc. 33

32 John C. Crawford, in his Totontepec Mixe Phonotagmemics, op.cit., sets up four hierarchies instead of three: the phonemic, the phonotagmemic, the lexical, and the tagmemic hierarchy.

33 Pike, in his "On tagmemes Née Gram(m)emes," I.J.A.L. 24, 273-279 (1958), defines the tagmeme as: "A tagmeme in my view has one of its basic characteristics a correlation between a functional slot and a morpheme (or morpheme sequence, etc.) distribution class". (continued on page xx)
The present study deals with a contrastive analysis of only two hierarchical aspects of English and Vietnamese, namely phonology and grammar. It leaves out on purpose the third hierarchical aspect of language, lexicon, because there is nothing in common between English lexicon and Vietnamese lexicon to justify the necessity of a contrastive analysis. Nevertheless the present study must be accompanied by a highly sophisticated dictionary of English for the programming of an English course for Vietnamese, and likewise, a highly sophisticated dictionary of Vietnamese for the programming of a Vietnamese course for English. For, as Robert E. Longacre says:

"To describe a language exhaustively (a task as yet seriously attempted by no-one), three volumes are needed: a phonological statement, a grammatical statement, and a highly sophisticated dictionary."\(^34\)

7.3. Language Consists of Emic Units

Language units are not considered as physical entities per se, but as relevant parts of a structured system or systems. Such structurally relevant parts are termed "emic" in the sense they are in relation to a total structure of a language. They are meaningful, i.e. they are parts of a functioning culturally significant system.

7.4. Language is Trimodally Structured

Each linguistic unit is described in terms of three modes: the feature, the manifestation, and the distribution mode.

The feature mode is comprised of identificational-contrastive components or features which delimit each unit from other units of the same level or of different levels.

The manifestation mode deals with varying occurrences of a unit.

The distribution mode is concerned with the distribution of the unit in question in significant slots in larger units, and in a less

\(^33\) (continued from previous page)

However, certain differences in the usage of the term tagmeme should be pointed out here. In Pike's theory, the tagmeme is the minimum unit of the grammatical hierarchy; all other higher level units in the grammatical hierarchy will be called "hypertagmemes". In this study, the word tagmeme is used in a larger sense, meaning any grammatical emic unit at any level in the grammatical hierarchy concerned. This concept of tagmemes at various ascending levels was developed by Longacre, in his "String Constituent Analysis", *Language* 36, 63-88 (1960), and tested by Velma S. Pickett, *Hierarchical Structure of Isthmus Zapotec* (=Language Dissertation No.56). Baltimore, 1960.

important degree, in the distribution within the unit itself of smaller units. (John C. Crawford, in op. cit., does not consider the criteria of the distribution within the unit itself of smaller units as relevant to the distribution mode of an emic unit because the same distribution of smaller emic units constitutes the manifestation mode of the unit already.)

So far, the three phonological, tagmemic, and lexical hierarchies, and the three modes (feature mode, manifestation mode, and distribution mode) have been discussed separately. But in Pike's theory, there is a close mode-hierarchy interrelationship. There is no space here for a lengthy discussion of this mode-hierarchy interrelationship which, for example, is reflected in the modal structure of a syntagmeme (construction)\(^{35}\) whose feature mode is constituted in units in the lexical hierarchy, whose manifestation mode in units of the phonological hierarchy, and whose distribution mode in units of the tagmemic hierarchy.

8. Presentation in this Study

As its subtitle conveys, this study is a Tagmemic and Transformational Approach to the Teaching of English Grammatical Structure and Sound System to Vietnamese Speakers, and Vietnamese Grammatical Structure and Sound System to English Speakers. It has two Parts: the Grammar Part, and the Phonology Part.


Similarly, the Phonology Part deals also with English Phonology, Vietnamese Phonology, English Sound System for Vietnamese, and Vietnamese Sound System for English. Nevertheless, for a better contrastive presentation, these four descriptive and contrastive aspects of consideration are not separate here, but they are regrouped in the sections on Consonants (the Consonants of English, the Consonants of Vietnamese, English Consonants for Vietnamese, and Vietnamese Consonants for English), Vowels (the Vowels of English, etc.), and Intonation.

Since the discovery procedures for the different Parts, or even for the different Sections are usually at variance with each other, different Introductions to the discovery procedures for each Part, or sometimes even for each Section, will be given when it is necessary to do so.

\(^{35}\) The term Syntagmeme is replaced by the term Hypertagmeme by Robert E. Longacre in his "String Constituent Analysis", op. cit., without any change in the underlying theory.
Charles F. Hockett, in his "Two Models of Grammatical Description", finds that there is partial translatability between two models of grammatical description that he defines item and arrangement, and item and process. He concludes his article by looking towards an eventual reintegration of the two models in these words:

"We must have more experimentation, as much with a model as with the other - and with the devising of further models too, for that matter - looking towards an eventual reintegration into a single more nearly satisfactory model, but not forcing that reintegration until we are ready for it."

The first volume of Pike's *Language* came out in the same year as Hockett's article. The following year (1955), Noam Chomsky's thesis *The Logical Structure of Linguistic Theory* came out at M.I.T. Since then, both the item and arrangement model (under the form of tagmemics) and the item and process model (under the form of transformational grammar) have been extensively experimented and developed.

William G. Moulton, in his "What is Structural Drill?", points out that tagmemics can be served as the theoretical foundation for the writing of grammatical substitution drills in foreign language teaching, and that transformational grammar can be served as the theoretical foundation for the writing of transformational drills. Inspired by Moulton's article, the present author makes an attempt in this study to combine the two models of grammatical description for an analysis of English grammar and Vietnamese grammar, as well as for presenting the teaching and learning problems of English grammar for Vietnamese, and of Vietnamese grammar for English. He is pleased to see, in reading Simon Belasco's article, "Tagmemics and Transformational Grammar in Linguistic Analysis", that Belasco demonstrates that "one need not

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supersedes the other", p.14 (meaning either tagmemics or transformational grammar need not supersedes the other). Now, if "one need not supersede the other", then a combination of the two has a good chance to be at least pedagogically applicable.

1. Tagmemic Procedure and Theory

As it was said earlier, the theory of language on which this study is based has been developed by Kenneth L. Pike in his *Language in Relation to a Unified Theory of the Structure of Human Behavior*. This theory offers an excellent methodology for contrastive analysis because it postulates patterning as being central to human behaviour. It is a model to present linguistic patterns in straightforward and summary fashion. Such patterns when systematically described for one language may be contrasted with patterns described for another language. Thanks to the notion of hierarchy in language in the theory, such patterns described for two languages can be contrasted on clear-cut levels of consideration, such as Sentence level, Clause level, Phrase level, etc. Furthermore, the notion of tagmeme as slot plus filler-class permits to see whether patterns of two languages differ in their tagmemes (i.e. patterns in one language have some tagmemes that patterns in the other do not), or just in the filler-classes of their tagmemes (i.e. patterns in two languages contain the same functional slots, but the slots are filled by a different number of distribution-subclasses).

For practical grammar discovery procedures, Robert E. Longacre's grammar discovery procedures stated in his *Grammar discovery Procedures* are used with some theoretical modifications as follows:

Firstly, concerning the scope of analysis, the word level analysis is purposely omitted in this study, because since Vietnamese has no inflections or derivations, there is no point in giving a contrastive analysis on the word level. Nevertheless, in English grammar, word level compulsory grammatical categories (for examples case, gender, person-number, etc.) are stated.

Secondly, Phrase level tagmemes are not analyzed for their own sake but as fillers of Clause level slots. The result of this way of presenting is that Phrase level tagmemes are presented in the discussion of internal structures of Clause level tagmemes. For example, the Verb Phrase is presented in the section on the Clause level Predicate tagmeme. This way of presenting is more accurate because, for example, in the analysis of the Noun Phrase as an alternate distribution-subclass of the Clause level Subject filler class, and again if necessary as an alternate distribution-subclass of the Clause level Attributive filler class, it becomes evident that a Noun Phrase can be different when it fills a Subject slot or an Attributive slot. Example: a Determiner is obligatory in a Noun Phrase filling a Subject
slot, but it is omitted in a Noun Phrase filling an Attributive slot —

*The president was acclaimed.*

*John was elected president.*

(For further detail on presentation, see Chapter 3 in each Grammar.)

Thirdly, Longacre's requirements for the distinction of two syntagmemes as:

"For two patterns (syntagmemes) to be in contrast they must have more than one structural difference between them; at least one of these differences must involve the nuclei of the syntagmemes".

op. cit. p.18, seem rather difficult to be met when it is to contrast two syntagmemes in Vi"etnamese.

As a matter of fact, Vietnamese, being an uninflectonal language, can rely only upon two grammatical devices, word order, and functional words. This limited number of grammatical devices means that sometimes two different syntagmemes have only one structural difference, or even none. In the latter case, it is possible to find only non-formal differences such as (a) differing transform potential, (b) differing potential of internal expansion, (c) different syntactic meaning, i.e. it is sometimes necessary to rely upon the native speaker's intuition.

It is not necessary to give examples of such cases here, because in the Vietnamese Grammar, wherever Longacre's requirements for the distinction of two syntagmemes are not met, there is always a short theoretical explication defending the differentiation of the syntagmemes.

Even in English, which can make use of more grammatical devices than Vietnamese (word order, function words, inflectional and derivational suffixes), there is also a need to rely upon the native speaker's intuition rather than to require more than one structural difference in the differentiation of two syntagmemes.

Longacre himself, while discussing Noam Chomsky's paper "The Logical Basis of Linguistic Theory" at the Ninth Congress of Linguists, handles the ambiguity in the sentence:

*I don't approve of his drinking*

"by setting up two contrasting total formulae both of which may have homophonous minimum manifestations:

+Possessive +Gerund +Object

+Possessive +Adjective +Nominal". 4

Thus, it is sufficient to say simply that there may be more of these kinds of homophonous manifestations of contrasting formulae in Vietnamese than in English; then, less formalism is sometimes permitted in the discovering of syntagmemes in Vietnamese.

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2. Transformational Grammar and Grammatical Matrix Theory

Grammatical patterns of a language comprise a system; they are interrelated. There are two ways to show relations among patterns. Both of these ways are incorporated to some degree in this study.

The first way to show relations among grammatical patterns to be discussed here is grammatical matrix theory. The theory, developed by Kenneth L. Pike, offers a way of showing relations between constructions in general (sentences, clauses, phrases, etc.) by conceptualizing them as charted together in various dimensions. It is applied in the present paper in the charting of Sentence Types and Clause Types of both English and Vietnamese (cf. Chapters II, and V in each Grammar).

The second way is transformational grammar, which is not immiscible with tagmemics. In fact, Pike himself says:

"... so it would seem possible that if tagmemics and transform grammar are both developed far enough, that they could come to the point of complete overlap."6

There is even no need to justify the introduction of transformational grammar to the analysis in this paper, but just to quote from Noam Chomsky:

"The motivation for adding transformational rules to grammar is quite clear. There are certain sentences (in fact, simple declarative active sentences with no complex noun or verb phrases - or, to be more precise, the terminal strings underlying these) that can be generated by a constituent structure grammar in quite a natural way. There are others (e.g. passive, questions, sentences with discontinuous phrases and complex phrases that embed sentence transforms) that cannot be generated in an economic and natural way by a constituent structure grammar, but that are systematically related to sentences of simpler structure. Transformations that are constructed to express this relation can thus materially simplify the grammar when used to generate more complex sentences and their structural descriptions from already generated simpler ones."7

---


The insertion into a tagmemic framework of a transformational model from which notion of transformations and rewrite rules is adapted, requires some theoretical modifications to the model. Following are the differences between the original transformational model and its adapted form used here. It is understood that the following discussion is not a criticism nor an evaluation of transformational grammar.

Firstly, there is a difference in the postulation of grammatical hierarchical levels of consideration.

The transformational model, while defining grammar as a sentence generating device which is able to produce all and only grammatical sentences of a language by means of various kinds of rules for rewriting elements, begins necessarily with the element Sentence\(^8\) and works down through various levels to the phonemic level\(^9\) or beyond (to the level of distinctive features).\(^{10}\)

In this study, since "In essence, the clause posits a situation in miniature (whether asserting, questioning, commanding, or equating)"\(^{11}\) the grammatical procedures start with Clause level syntagmemes (Clause Types) rather than with Sentence level syntagmemes. A result of this is that grammatical transforms (transformations) can operate at any level of the grammatical hierarchy, and do not have to be embedded in overall sentence matrices. Thus, for examples, on the Clause level, a Yes-No Interrogative Transform can be applied to any Clause Type of the Independent Declarative Clause Class to derive an Independent Yes-No Interrogative Clause Type (cf. Chapter II in each Grammar), or in the Phrase a Negative (don't) Transform or a Negative Auxiliary (or Modal) Transform can be applied to an Affirmative Verb Phrase in English to derive a Negative (don't) Verb Phrase or a Negative Auxiliary (or Modal) Verb Phrase (see Section 3.1. in each Grammar).

In postulating Clause level syntagmemes, or Phrase level syntagmemes as possible matrices for transformations, there is no need any more to make a distinction between Singularly Transformations and Generalized Transformations\(^{12}\) (which is necessary in transformational grammar to make a distinction between Complex Sentences - that, in transformational grammar terms, have more than one Phrase-Structure


\(^{10}\) For a model of distinctive feature analysis in phonology, see, for example, Roman Jakobson and Morris Halle, *Fundamentals of Language*. Mouton and Co., 1956.

\(^{11}\) Robert E. Longacre, *Grammar Discovery Procedures*, p.35.

tree in their derivational history - and Simple Sentences - whose derivational history includes only one Phrase-Structure tree - because our transformations operate now on a different grammatical hierarchical level than the Sentence level. Then, on the Sentence level, the classification of Sentences into Simple, Compound, and Complex Sentence Types is based upon the number and nature of Clause Types they contain (cf. Chapter V in each Grammar).

Secondly, there is a different usage of the term kernel on the early form of Transformational Grammar\textsuperscript{13} and here. The term has a larger meaning here in two ways.

In *Syntactic Structures*, Chomsky defines kernel sentences as "the set of sentences that are produced when we apply obligatory transformations to the kernel strings of the (phrase structure) grammar", p.45. In other words, there are no kernel strings in other grammatical hierarchical levels except in the Sentence level, and there are no kernel strings that have undergone an optional transformation.

The term kernel as used here has a larger meaning in the first way in the sense that there can be kernel strings or structures on any grammatical hierarchical level. A kernel is any structure to which a Transform (transformation) can be applied. Thus, for examples, on the Clause level, an Independent Declarative Clause Type is the kernel structure to which the Yes-No Interrogative Transform can be applied to derive an Independent Yes-No Interrogative Clause Type, or an Affirmative Verb Phrase is the kernel structure to which a Negative (don’t) Transform, or a Negative Auxiliary (or Modal) Transform can be applied to derive a Negative Verb Phrase in English.

The term kernel as used here has a larger meaning in the second way in the sense that it means a basis for transformation: a kernel structure can have undergone optional transformations (Chomsky’s types of optional transformations).\textsuperscript{14} As an illustration, the following Independent Declarative Clause "he went to Sydney" is the kernel structure to which the Yes-No Interrogative Transform is applied to derive the Independent Yes-No Interrogative Clause "did he go to Sydney", which in its turn is the kernel structure to which the Extra Interrogative Transform is applied to derive the Independent Extra Interrogative Clause "when did he go to Sydney"\textsuperscript{15} (cf. Chapter II in

\textsuperscript{13} Paul Schachter, in his "Kernel and Non-Kernel Sentences in Transformational Grammar", in Horace G. Lunt (ed.), op.cit., pp.692-696, demonstrates the relative triviality of the distinction made between kernel and non-kernel sentences in early models of Transformational Grammar.

\textsuperscript{14} Noam Chomsky, *Syntactic Structures*, pp.45ff.

\textsuperscript{15} Zellig S. Harris, in his "Co-occurrence and Transformation in Linguistic Structure", *Language*, 33.293-340 (1957), stresses that any sentence in the language may be used as the basis for transformation. In a sense, the transformational model adapted in the present study is closer to Harris’s theory than to Chomsky’s in the definition of kernel structures.
Thirdly, seeing that in learning English or Vietnamese as a foreign language, one has to master the intonation pattern of the language, and since the ultimate purpose of the present study is for pedagogical applications, intonation is considered here as an important component of Sentences. Consequently, it is stated in structural formulae of Sentence Types in this study, while it is not stated in transformational grammar.  

Fourthly, and last in the list, since a statement in terms of item and process needs an adequate statement of item units before the process can be most effectively implied, the grammatical model here attempted differs from current transformational grammar by setting up the item units, namely tagmemes at all grammatical hierarchical levels. This postulation of item units for a generative grammar is urged by Pike in these terms:

"At some point, it would seem, transform grammar needs a further unit to be identified and transformed. It is our belief that the tagmeme, or something very much like it in structure, is needed for this purpose in transform grammar."  

(For overall statements on the postulation of tagmemes on different grammatical levels and Phrase-Structure representations, see Appendices in each Grammar.)

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16 Robert P. Stockwell, in his "The Place of Intonation in a Generative Grammar of English", *Language*, 36.3 pp. 360-367, does the pioneering work to incorporate intonation into generative grammars. His first generative rule is \( S \rightarrow \text{Nuc.} + \text{IP} \) (Intonation Pattern), and his second rule is \( \text{Nuc.} \rightarrow \text{NP} + \text{VP} \) (Chomsky's \( S \rightarrow \text{NP} + \text{VP} \)).

17 I am indebted to Dr Robert E. Longacre for informing me that my combined tagmemic and transformational approach is very parallel to his own in "Transformational Parameters in Tagmemic Field Structures", *Georgetown Monograph Series*, volume reporting the Round Table held in March 1965, pp. 43-58. In the article, he says: "Tagmemics can gain many valuable insights from transformational grammar. Transformational grammar could learn some things from tagmemics as well: more explicit functional orientation; use of function-set notation to clarify transformation rules; and sufficient attention to field structures to fit transformations in adequate context", p. 58. For examples of "transformational parameters", see Chapters 2 in both my English Grammar, and Vietnamese Grammar.

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preface</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgements</td>
<td>vi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Introduction</td>
<td>vii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to the grammar discovery procedures adopted</td>
<td>xxii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special Signs and Abbreviations</td>
<td>xlii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Chapter 1: Independent Declarative Clause Types</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.0. Introductory</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1. Classification</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2. Clause Classes and Pertinent Remarks</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.1. Selection of the form of the Predicate</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.2. The Passive Transitive Clause Class</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.2a. The Passive Transform</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3. Independent Declarative Clause Types in Detail</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.0. Introductory</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.0.1. Minimum Nucleus Formulae</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.0.2. Expanded Maximum Formulae</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.1. Independent Declarative Clause Type 1: Active Intransitive Declarative Clause Type</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.2. Independent Declarative Clause Type 2: Active Single Transitive Declarative Clause Type</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.3. Independent Declarative Clause Type 3: Active Double Transitive Declarative Clause Type</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.3a. The Indirect Object Transform</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.4. Independent Declarative Clause Type 4: Active Attributive Transitive Declarative Clause Type</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.5. Independent Declarative Clause Type 5: Passive Single Transitive Declarative Clause Type</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.6. Independent Declarative Clause Type 6: Passive Double Transitive Declarative Clause Type</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.7. Independent Declarative Clause Type 7: Passive Attributive Transitive Declarative Clause Type</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.8. Independent Declarative Clause Type 8: Equational Declarative Clause Type</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.9. Independent Declarative Clause Type 9: (there) Stative Declarative Clause Type</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.10. Independent Declarative Clause Type 10: (it) Stative Declarative Clause Type</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.3.10a. Some other uses of the obligatory nucleus Logical Subject (It) 20

Chapter 2: CLAUSE CLASSES 21
2.0. Classification 21
2.1. Clause Classes in Detail 24
2.1.0. Introductory 24
2.1.1. (Independent) Declarative Clause Class 24
2.1.2. (Independent) Imperative Clause Class 25
2.1.3. (Independent) Yes-No Interrogative Clause Class 25
2.1.3a. The Yes-No Transform 28
2.1.4. (Independent) Interrogative Subject Clause Class 28
2.1.4a. The Interrogative Subject Transform 28
2.1.4b. The obligatory nucleus Interrogative Subject tagmeme 28
2.1.5. (Independent) Interrogative Non-Subject Clause Class 30
2.1.5a. The Non-Subject Interrogative Transform 30
2.1.5b. The obligatory nucleus Interrogative Non-Subject tagmeme 30

2.1.5b.1. Alternate division-subclass Interrogative Direct Object tagmeme 32
2.1.5b.2. Alternate division-subclass Interrogative Indirect Object tagmeme 32
2.1.5b.2a. Note on the Indirect Object Introducer (to) 32
2.1.5b.3. Alternate division-subclass Interrogative Attributive tagmeme 32
2.1.5b.4. Alternate division-subclass Interrogative Equational Complement tagmeme 33
2.1.5b.5. Alternate division-subclass Interrogative Stative Subject tagmeme 33
2.1.5b.6. Alternate division-subclass Interrogative Stative Complement tagmeme 33

2.1.6. (Independent) Extra Interrogative Clause Class 34
2.1.6a. The Interrogative Addition Transform 34
2.1.6b. The obligatory nucleus Interrogative Clause Introducer 34
2.1.7. Dependent Subject Clause Class 36
2.1.7a. The Dependent Subject Transform 36
2.1.7b. Obligatory nucleus Dependent Subject tagmeme 36
2.1.8. Dependent Non-Subject Clause Class 36
2.1.8a. The Non-Subject Dependent Transform 39
2.1.8b. The optional nucleus Dependent Non-Subject tagmeme 39
2.1.8b.1. Alternate division-subclass Dependent Direct Object tagmeme 39
2.1.8b.2. Alternate division-subclass Dependent Indirect Object tagmeme 39
2.1.8b.2a. Note on the Indirect Object Introducer (to) 40
2.1.8b.3. Alternate division-subclass Dependent Equational Complement tagmeme

2.1.9. Dependent Relative Clause Class

2.1.9a. The Relative Dependent Transform

2.1.9b. The optional nucleus Dependent Relative Clause Introducer

2.1.10. Extra Dependent Clause Class

2.1.10a. The Dependent Addition Transform

2.1.10b. Obligatory Dependent Clause Introducer tagmeme

2.2. The ten complete Clause Classes and their Transforms

2.3. The 87 complete Clause Types

Chapter 3: INTERNAL STRUCTURES OF CLAUSE LEVEL TAGMEMES

3.0. Introductory

3.1. Nucleus Clause level tagmemes

3.1.0. Introductory

3.1.1. The obligatory nucleus Predicate tagmeme

3.1.1.1. Internal Structure of the Verb Phrase Hyperclass

3.1.1.1.1. Close-knit Active Verb Phrase

3.1.1.1.2. Close-knit Passive Verb Phrase

3.1.1.1.3. Close-knit Negated Declarative Verb Phrases

3.1.1.1.3.1. The alternate division-subclass Negated Declarative (don't) Verb Phrase

3.1.1.1.3.2. The alternate division-subclass Negated Declarative (n't) Verb Phrase

3.1.1.1.3.2a. Note on the form (n't)

3.1.1.1.4. Close-knit Interrogative Verb Phrases

3.1.1.1.4.1. The alternate division-subclass Interrogative (do) Verb Phrase

3.1.1.1.4.1a. Negation of the Interrogative (do) Verb Phrase

3.1.1.1.4.2. The alternate division-subclass Interrogative Modal (or Auxiliary) Verb Phrase

3.1.1.1.4.2a. Negation of the Interrogative Modal (or Auxiliary) Verb Phrase

3.1.1.1.5. Verb Phrase Substitutes

3.1.1.1.5.1. The alternate division-subclass Substitute (do) Phrase

3.1.1.1.5a. Negation of the Substitute (do) Phrase

3.1.1.1.5.2. The alternate division-subclass Substitute Modal (or Auxiliary) Phrase

3.1.1.1.6. The optional satellite Delimiter tagmeme

3.1.1.2. Verb stem classes, division-subclasses, and co-occurrence-subclasses

3.1.1.2.1. The Intransitive Verb stem class

3.1.1.2.1.1. The Intransitive Verb stem's alternate division-subclass
3.1.1.2.1.2. The Intransitive Verb stem<sub>prep</sub> alternate division-subclass

3.1.1.2.1.2. The Single Transitive Verb stem class

3.1.1.2.1.2.1. The Single Transitive Verb stem<sub>s</sub> alternate division-subclass

3.1.1.2.1.2.1.1. The Single Transitive Verb stem<sub>s1</sub> co-occurrence-subclass

3.1.1.2.1.2.1.2. The Single Transitive Verb stem<sub>s2</sub> co-occurrence-subclass

3.1.1.2.1.2.1.3. The Single Transitive Verb stem<sub>s3</sub> co-occurrence-subclass

3.1.1.2.1.2.1.4. The Single Transitive Verb stem<sub>s4</sub> co-occurrence-subclass

3.1.1.2.1.2.1.5. The Single Transitive Verb stem<sub>s5</sub> co-occurrence-subclass

3.1.1.2.1.2.1.6. The Single Transitive Verb stem<sub>s6</sub> co-occurrence-subclass

3.1.1.2.1.2.1.7. The Single Transitive Verb stem<sub>s7</sub> co-occurrence-subclass

3.1.1.2.1.2.1.8. The Single Transitive Verb stem<sub>s8</sub> co-occurrence-subclass

3.1.1.2.1.2.1.9. The Single Transitive Verb stem<sub>s9</sub> co-occurrence-subclass

3.1.1.2.1.2.1.10. The Single Transitive Verb stem<sub>s10</sub> co-occurrence-subclass

3.1.1.2.1.2.1.11. The Single Transitive Verb stem<sub>s11</sub> co-occurrence-subclass

3.1.1.2.1.2.1.12. The Single Transitive Verb stem<sub>s12</sub> co-occurrence-subclass

3.1.1.2.1.2.2. The Single Transitive Verb stem<sub>prep</sub> alternate division-subclass

3.1.1.2.1.2.2.1. The Single Transitive Verb stem<sub>prep1</sub> co-occurrence-subclass

3.1.1.2.1.2.2.2. The Single Transitive Verb stem<sub>prep2</sub> co-occurrence-subclass

3.1.1.2.1.2.3. The Double Transitive Verb stem class

3.1.1.2.1.2.3.1. The Double Transitive Verb stem<sub>n</sub> alternate division-subclass

3.1.1.2.1.2.3.1.1. The Double Transitive Verb stem<sub>n1</sub> co-occurrence-subclass

3.1.1.2.1.2.3.1.2. The Double Transitive Verb stem<sub>n2</sub> co-occurrence-subclass

3.1.1.2.1.2.3.1.3. The Double Transitive Verb stem<sub>n3</sub> co-occurrence-subclass

3.1.1.2.1.2.3.2. The Double Transitive Verb stem<sub>v</sub> alternate division-subclass
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.3.2.1</td>
<td>The Double Transitive Verb stem(v_1) co-occurrence-subclass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.3.2a</td>
<td>Note on the Double Transitive Clause Type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.3.2.2</td>
<td>The Double Transitive Verb stem(v_2) co-occurrence-subclass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.3.2.3</td>
<td>The Double Transitive Verb stem(v_3) co-occurrence-subclass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.4</td>
<td>The Attributive Transitive Verb stem class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.4.1</td>
<td>The Attributive Transitive Verb stem(_{\text{part}}) co-occurrence-subclass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.4.2</td>
<td>The Attributive Transitive Verb stem(_{\text{adj}}) co-occurrence-subclass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.4.3</td>
<td>The Attributive Transitive Verb stem(_n) co-occurrence-subclass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.5</td>
<td>The Equational Verb stem class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.5.1</td>
<td>The Equational Intransitive Verb stem alternate distribution-subclass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.5.1.1</td>
<td>The Equational Intransitive Verb stem(_{\text{part}}) co-occurrence-subclass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.5.1.2</td>
<td>The Equational Intransitive Verb stem(_{\text{adj}}) co-occurrence-subclass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.5.1.3</td>
<td>The Equational Intransitive Verb stem(_n) co-occurrence-subclass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.5.2</td>
<td>The Semi-Auxiliary stem alternate distribution-subclass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.5.2.1</td>
<td>The Semi-Auxiliary stem(_{\text{adj}}) co-occurrence-subclass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.5.2.2</td>
<td>The Semi-Auxiliary stem(_{\text{adj}}) co-occurrence-subclass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.5.3</td>
<td>The Auxiliary ((be)) stem alternate distribution-subclass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.6</td>
<td>The Auxiliary ((be)) stem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2</td>
<td>The obligatory nucleus Subject tagmeme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1</td>
<td>The Noun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1</td>
<td>The Noun Noun Phrase alternate division-subclass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1</td>
<td>The Common Noun Noun-Count Phrase alternate division-subclass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1.1</td>
<td>The Common Noun Noun-Count Singular Phrase co-occurrence-subclass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1.2</td>
<td>The Common Noun Noun-Count Plural Phrase co-occurrence-subclass</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.1.2.1.1.1.2. The Common Noun-Mass Phrase alternate division-subclass

3.1.2.1.1.1. La. Optional satellite tagmemes of the Common Noun Phrase

3.1.2.1.1.1. la. 1. The optional satellite Pre-Determiner tagmeme

3.1.2.1.1.1. la. 2. The optional satellite Ordinal tagmeme

3.1.2.1.1.1. la. 3. The optional satellite Numeral tagmeme

3.1.2.1.1.1. la. 4. The optional satellite Modifier 1 tagmeme

3.1.2.1.1.1a. 4. 1. The alternate distribution-subclass

Adjective Phrase

3.1.2.1.1.1a. 4. 1a. The Adjective stem class

3.1.2.1.1.1a. 4. 2. The alternate distribution-subclass

Verb (-en) Phrase

3.1.2.1.1.1a. 4. 3. The alternate distribution-subclass

Verb (-ing) Phrase

3.1.2.1.1.1a. 5. The optional satellite Modifier 2 tagmeme

3.1.2.1.1.1a. 6. The optional satellite Post-Modifier tagmeme

3.1.2.1.1.1a. 6. 1. The alternate distribution-subclass

Complex Modifier 1

3.1.2.1.1.1a. 6. 2. The alternate distribution-subclass

Location Adverb Phrase

3.1.2.1.1.1a. 6. 3. The alternate distribution-subclass

Location Relator Axis Phrase

3.1.2.1.1.1a. 6. 4. The alternate distribution-subclass Noun Phrase

3.1.2.1.1.1a. 6. 5. The alternate distribution-subclass (to) Verb Phrase

3.1.2.1.1.1a. 6. 6. The alternate distribution-subclass

Appositive Phrase

3.1.2.1.1.1a. 6. 7. The alternate distribution-subclass Reflexive Pronoun

3.1.2.1.1.1a. 6. 8. The alternate distribution-subclass Dependent Clause

3.1.2.1.1.2. The Proper Noun Phrase alternate division-subclass

3.1.2.1.1.2. 1. The Personal Proper Noun Phrase co-occurrence-subclass

3.1.2.1.1.2. 2. The Non-Personal Proper Noun Phrase alternate division-subclass

3.1.2.1.1.2. 2. 1. The Non-Personal Proper Noun Phrase co-occurrence-subclass

3.1.2.1.1.2. 2. 2. The co-occurrence-subclass Non-Personal Proper Noun Phrase
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.2. The Nominalized Adjective Phrase alternate</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>division-subclass</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.2a. The Nominalized Adjective Phrase alternate</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>division-subclass</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.3. The Nominalized Verb(_{-\epsilon n}) Phrase alternate</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>division-subclass</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.4. The Nominalized Verb(_{-\epsilon i ng}) Phrase alternate</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>division-subclass</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.4a. Note on the Nominalized Verb(_{-\epsilon i ng}) Phrase</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.2. The Pronoun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.2.1. The Personal Subject Pronoun Phrase alternate</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>division-subclass</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.2.2. The Indeterminate Pronoun Phrase alternate</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>division-subclass</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.2.3. The Demonstrative Pronoun Phrase alternate</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>division-subclass</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.2.4. The Possessive Pronoun Phrase alternate</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>division-subclass</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.2.5. The Possessive Case Phrase alternate</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>division-subclass</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.3. The Relator Axis Phrase alternate distribution-subclass</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.4. The Verb Phrase alternate distribution-subclass</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.4.1. The ((to)) Verb Phrase alternate distribution-subclass</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.4.2. The Verb(_{-\epsilon i ng}) Phrase alternate</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>division-subclass</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.5. The Dependent Clause alternate distribution-subclass</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.6. The Defective Clause distribution-subclass</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.3. The obligatory nucleus Direct Object tagmeeme</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.3.1. Noun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.3.2. The Pronoun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.3.2.1. The Personal Object Pronoun Phrase alternate</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>division-subclass</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.3.3. Adverb Phrase alternate distribution-subclass</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.3.4. The Verb Phrase alternate distribution-subclass</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.3.5. The Dependent Clause alternate distribution-subclass</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.3.5.1. The Declarative Dependent Clause Type alternate</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>division-subclass</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.3.5.2. The Subjunctive Dependent Relative Clause</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alternate distribution-subclass</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.3.6. The Defective Clause alternate distribution-subclass</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.4. The obligatory nucleus Indirect Object tagmeeme</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.4.1. The Noun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.4.2. The Pronoun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.4.3. The Dependent Clause alternate distribution-subclass</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.1.5. The obligatory nucleus Attributive tagmeme

3.1.5.1. The Noun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.5.1.1. The Noun Phrase alternate division-subclass

3.1.5.1.2. The Attributive Noun Phrase alternate division-subclass

3.1.5.2. The Adjective Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.5.3. The Verb(_en) Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.6. The obligatory nucleus Equational Complement tagmeme

3.1.6.1. The Noun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.6.2. The Pronoun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.6.3. The Adjective Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.6.4. The Verb(_en) Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.6.5. The Verb Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.6.6. The Location Adverb Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.6.7. The Location Relator Axis Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.6.8. The Dependent Clause alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.6.9. The Defective Clause alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.7. The obligatory nucleus Stative Subject tagmeme

3.1.7.1. The Noun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.7.2. The Pronoun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.7.3. The Dependent Clause distribution-subclass

3.1.8. The obligatory nucleus Stative Complement tagmeme

3.1.8.1. The Noun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.8.2. The Pronoun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.8.3. The alternate distribution-subclass Dependent Clause

3.1.9. The optional nucleus Agent tagmeme

3.1.9.1. The Noun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.9.2. The Pronoun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.9.3. The Dependent Clause alternate distribution-subclass

3.2. Optional satellite Clause level tagmemes

3.2.0. Introductory

3.2.1. The optional satellite Indirect Object tagmeme

3.2.2. The optional satellite Accompaniment tagmeme

3.2.3. The optional satellite Benefactor tagmeme

3.2.4. The optional satellite Instrument tagmeme - see Addendum, page xli

3.2.4.1. The alternate division-subclass Instrument Relator Axis Phrase 1

3.2.4.2. The alternate division-subclass Instrument Relator Axis Phrase 2

3.2.5. The optional satellite Time tagmeme

3.2.5.1. The alternate distribution-subclass Time Adverb Phrase
3.2.5.1.1. The co-occurrence-subclass Time Adverb Phrase 1 122
3.2.5.1.2. The co-occurrence-subclass Time Adverb Phrase 2 123
3.2.5.1.3. The co-occurrence-subclass Time Adverb Phrase 3 123
3.2.5.2. The alternate distribution-subclass Time Location 123
3.2.5.3. The alternate distribution-subclass Extra
Dependent Time Clause 123
3.2.6. The optional satellite Frequency tagmeme 124
3.2.6.1. The alternate distribution-subclass Frequency
Adverb Phrase 124
3.2.6.2. The alternate distribution-subclass Frequency
Noun Phrase 125
3.2.6.3. The alternate distribution-subclass Frequency
Location 125
3.2.7. The optional satellite Location-Direction tagmeme 126
3.2.7.1. The alternate distribution-subclass Location
Adverb Phrase 126
3.2.7.2. The alternate distribution-subclass Location
Relator Axis Phrase 126
3.2.7.3. The alternate distribution-subclass Extra Dependent
Location Clause 126
3.2.8. The optional satellite Manner tagmeme 127
3.2.8.1. The alternate distribution-subclass Manner Adverb
Phrase 127
3.2.8.2. The alternate distribution-subclass Manner Relator
Axis Phrase 128
3.2.9. The optional satellite Purpose tagmeme 128
3.2.9.1. The alternate distribution-subclass Purpose Relator
Axis Phrase 1 128
3.2.9.2. The alternate distribution-subclass Purpose Relator
Axis Phrase 2 129
3.2.9.3. The alternate distribution-subclass Extra Dependent
Purpose Clause 129
3.2.10. The optional satellite Cause tagmeme 130
3.2.10.1. The alternate distribution-subclass Cause Relator
Axis Phrase 130
3.2.10.2. The alternate distribution-subclass Extra
Dependent Cause Clause 130
3.2a. Emphasized Place of an optional satellite Clause level
tagmeme 130
3.2b. The optional satellite Clause level tagmeme ordering 131

Chapter 4: LINKING TAGMEMES AND CROSS-LEVEL CONSTRUCTIONS 133
4.0. Introductory 133
4.1. The Coordinator tagmeme 133
4.1.1. The alternate division-subclass Single Coordinator 133
4.1.2. The alternate division-subclass Double Coordinator 134
4.2. The Comparative tagmeme 134
4.2.1. The alternate division-subclass Equality Comparative tagmeme 134
4.2.2. The alternate division-subclass Superiority Comparative tagmeme 135
4.2.3. The alternate division-subclass Inferiority Comparative tagmeme 135
4.3. The Resultative tagmeme 136
4.3.1. The alternate division-subclass Resultative 1 tagmeme 136
4.3.2. The alternate division-subclass Resultative 2 tagmeme 137
4.3.3. The alternate division-subclass Resultative 3 tagmeme 137

Chapter 5: ENGLISH SENTENCE TYPES AND SENTENCE LEVEL STRUCTURES 139
5.0. Introductory 139
5.0.1. Classification 139
5.1. Major Independent Sentence Types 140
5.1.1. Simple Major Independent Sentence Types 140
5.1.1.1. Simple Major Independent Sentence Type 1. Simple Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 140
5.1.1.2. Simple Major Independent Sentence Type 2: Simple Major Independent Interrogative Sentence Type 141
5.1.1.2.1. Simple Major Independent Sentence Type 2.1.: Simple Major Independent Yes-No Interrogative Sentence Type 141
5.1.1.2.2. Simple Major Independent Sentence Type 2.2.: Simple Major Independent Information Interrogative Sentence Type 141
5.1.1.3. Simple Major Independent Sentence Type 3: Simple Major Independent Imperative Sentence Type 144
5.1.2. Compound Major Independent Sentence Types 144
5.1.3. Complex Major Independent Sentence Types 145
5.1.4. The Compound Major Independent Echo Interrogative Sentence Type 146
5.1.5. The Complex Major Independent Suppositional Sentence Type 147
5.2. Major Dependent Sentence Types 148
5.2.1. Major Dependent Sequence Sentence Types 148
5.2.2. Major Dependent Parentheses Sentence Types 148
5.2.3. Major Dependent Short Response Sentence Types 149

Appendix: OUTLINE OF GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURES IN ENGLISH 151
1.1. Simple Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 152
1.2. Simple Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 153
1.3. Simple Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 154
1.4. Simple Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 155
1.5. Simple Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 156
1.6. Simple Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 157
1.7. Simple Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 158
1.8. Simple Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 159
1.9. Simple Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 160
1.10. Simple Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 161
2. Simple Major Independent Yes-No Interrogative Sentence Type 162
3.1. Simple Major Independent Information Interrogative Sentence Type 163
3.2. Simple Major Independent Information Interrogative Sentence Type 164
3.3. Simple Major Independent Information Interrogative Sentence Type 165
4. Simple Major Independent Imperative Sentence Type 166
5. Compound Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 167
6.1. Complex Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 168
6.2. Complex Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 169
6.3. Complex Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 170
7. Compound Major Independent Echo Interrogative Sentence Type 171

REFERENCES 173

SUMMARY TABLES -
Summary Table I: Independent Declarative Clause Class I 2
Summary Table II: Classification of the ten Clause Classes into more global Classes 22
Summary Table III: Independent Declarative, Yes-No Interrogative, and Imperative Clause Classes 1, 2, 3 26
Examples reflecting Summary Table III 27
Summary Table IV: Independent Interrogative Subject Clause Class 4 29
Summary Table V: Independent Interrogative Non-Subject Clause Class 5 31
Summary Table VI: Independent Extra Interrogative Clause Class 6 35
Summary Table VII: Dependent Subject Clause Class 7 37
Summary Table VIII: Dependent Non-Subject Clause Class 8 38
Summary Table IX: Dependent Relative Clause Class 9 41
Summary Table X: Extra Dependent Clause Class 10 43
Summary Table XI: The six Independent Clause Classes and their Transforms 45
Summary Table XII: The four Dependent Clause Classes and their Transforms from the kernel Independent Declarative Clause Class

Summary Table XIII: The 87 English Complete Clause Types

Summary Table XIV: The Verbal Hyperclass

Summary Table XV: The optional satellite Clause level tagmeme ordering

Summary Table XVI: Major Independent Sentence Types
Examples reflecting Summary Table XVI

ADDENDUM
Addendum

Page 121 -

Insert, between 3.2.3. and 3.2.4.1:

3.2.4. \( \text{IR} \text{Ax-Phr}_1 \) \( \text{IR} \text{Ax-Phr}_2 \), the optional satellite Instrument tagmeme.

FILLERS: the optional satellite Instrument slot is filled by a composite filler class including two alternate division-subclasses: Instrument Relator Axis Phrase 1; Instrument Relator Axis Phrase 2.
Special Signs and Abbreviations

The following different signs are used in this paper:

The plus sign, +, indicates the obligatory nature of the tagmeme.
The plus or minus sign, ±, indicates that the tagmeme is optional.
A tagmeme is indicated in the formula by: +Slot[Filler].
Alternate forms of composite fillers which represent different
distribution-subclasses are enclosed in angular braces, < >, thus: +Slot(Filler). If the attention is being focussed on
only one of the distribution-subclass fillers of a Slot, an
abbreviated formula such as +Slot<Filler> is used.
Braces { } enclose a composite morpheme-hypermorpheme class of
subclass fillers divided on the basis of internal composition,
but united as one filler on the basis of the structural unity of
its members and their function as members of a unit distribution-
subclass.
Parentheses ( ) are used to mark the internal structure of a Phrase;
thus: +Phrase(+Filler +Filler).
The arrow indicates that one of the fillers of a Phrase
has been removed to another position. The arrow
indicates that the two fillers are optional, but if one occurs,
the other one must occur as well. The arrow
indicates that either of the two fillers occurs but not both in the same
time.
The following abbreviations are used:
A - Accompaniment; Act - Active; Adj - Adjective; Adv - Adverb;
Aff - Affirmative; Ag - Agent; Ap - Appositive; Art - Article; Aux -
Auxiliary; Ax - Axis; B - Benefactor; C - Cause; c - count; C1 -
Clause; Co - Complement; Com - Common; Comp - Comparative; Compd -
Compound; Compx - Complex; Coord - Coordinate; D - Direct; Db -
Double; Decl - Declarative; Def - Definite; Defe - Defective; Del -
Delimiter; Dem - Demonstrative; Dep - Dependent; Det - Determiner;
Eq - Equational; Equal - Equality; F - Frequency; Fall - Falling; H -
Head; I - Instrument; I - Indirect; Imp - Imperative; In - Intonation;
Indef - Indefinite; Indet - Indeterminate; Inf - Infinitive; Infer -
 Inferior; Infor - Information; Intens - Intensifier; Inter - Interro-
gative; Introd - Introducer; L - Location; M - Manner; m - mass;
MAJ - Major; MO - Modal; MOD - Modifier; N - Noun; NEG - Negative; NU - Numerical; O - Object; ORD - Ordinal; P - Purpose; PART - Participle; PPA - Passive; PCE - Particle; PERS - Personal; PHR - Phrase; PL or PL - Plural; PN - Pronoun; POS - Possessive; POSTMOD - Post-Modifier; PR - Predicate; PREC - Preciser; PRED - Pre-Determiner; PREP - Preposition; PROP - Proper; QUANT - Quantitative; REFL - Reflexive; REL - Relative, Relator; RESP - Response; RESULT - Resultative; S - Subject; SG - Single; SIM - Simple; SING - Singular; ST - Stative; SUBJUNCT - Subjunctive; SUBST - Substitute; SUP - Suplative; SUPP - Suppositional; T - Time; TENSE - Tense; TR - Transitive; V - Verb; X - Extra.
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A Combined Tagmemic and Transformational Approach

by

Nguyễn Đặng Liêm

A CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH
AND VIETNAMESE

Vol. 1

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The first printing of this number appeared as Linguistic Circle of Canberra Publications Series C, Books, No.3.
Confucius was asked by Tsze-Iü what he would consider the first thing to be done if he were to administer the government of a nation. He replied:

"What is necessary is to rectify names... If names be not correct, language is not in accordance with the truth of things. If language be not in accordance with the truth of things, affairs cannot be carried on to success. When affairs cannot be carried on to success, properties and music do not flourish, punishments will not be properly awarded. When punishments are not properly awarded, the people do not know how to move hand or foot.

Therefore a superior man considers it necessary that the names he uses may be spoken appropriately, and also that what he speaks may be carried out appropriately. What the superior man requires, is just that in his words there may be nothing incorrect."
This is the first volume of a contrastive analysis of English and Vietnamese in the light of a combined tagmemic and transformational approach.

The next two volumes are planned to consist of a Vietnamese grammar, and a contrastive study of English and Vietnamese as the basis for a linguistically oriented technique of teaching English grammar and patterned practice to speakers of Vietnamese, and vice versa.

The subsequent volumes will constitute a study of the phonologies of the two languages and an analysis of them as the theoretical background for the teaching of English pronunciation to Vietnamese, and of Vietnamese pronunciation to English speakers.

All these volumes are in advanced stages of preparation and will appear in the foreseeable future.

S.A. Wurm
Editor
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Canberra,
April 1966.  

N. D. L.
GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1. The Vietnamese Language

Vietnamese, spoken by 24,000,000 people in the Indo-Chinese peninsula, is an Austro-Asiatic language. In the Republic of Vietnam, there are also Chinese spoken by 126,000 people, and Mon-Khmer languages spoken by 300,000 people. But Vietnamese is the standard official language to which national sentiment is strongly attached, and which makes use of a Roman alphabet created by Alexander of Rhodes in the seventeenth century. It has a sizable literature with a history of several centuries including poetry and religious works written in Chinese characters (Chữ Hán 字漢), Demotic characters (Chữ Nôm 字南) which are thought to be created in the fourteenth century by Hàn Thuyen, or National (Roman) Alphabet (Chữ Quốc Ngữ 字國語).

Vietnamese is embedded in a national culture which, although deeply influenced by the Chinese Culture, is different from it.

Being now the medium of instruction in elementary, secondary, and higher educational institutions, Vietnamese is always increasing in new technical terms and morphological devices to cope with modern science and technology.

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3 For further detail on minority group languages in Vietnam, see David D. Thomas, "Vietnam Minority Languages". May 1964, Summer Institute of Linguistics in Vietnam, unpublished.


5 The Faculty of Science of the University of Saigon has been preparing a dictionary of technical and scientific terms in Vietnamese.
2. French and English in Vietnam

Vietnamese high-school students are required to learn two foreign languages, the first one for seven years, and the second one for three years. The increase in the number of students learning French or English as first foreign language is as follows:6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic Years</th>
<th>Public High-Schools</th>
<th>Private High-Schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>French</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1958-1959</td>
<td>34,774</td>
<td>18,412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1959-1960</td>
<td>35,516</td>
<td>27,058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960-1961</td>
<td>42,009</td>
<td>32,414</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961-1962</td>
<td>50,324</td>
<td>36,556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962-1963</td>
<td>57,996</td>
<td>40,753</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963-1964</td>
<td>65,853</td>
<td>46,753</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

French, which used to be an official language in the country, still has a higher total number of students enrolled. Meanwhile, English, because of its increasing role in international communication, has a higher ratio of increase of enrolments. The ratio of increase of enrolments has been over 90% for French and over 154% for English in public high-schools in the past six years.

This process proves Alf Sommerfelt's statement to be correct:

"Until our time, French had the lead... In our time, however, the overwhelming influence comes from English because of the leading part the British Commonwealth and the United States play in the modern world... In the view of the development which is going on under our eyes, English ought to be adopted as the main language."7

3. Foreign Language Learning and National Development8

Because of the "role of language as a cultural institution",9 the

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value of foreign language learning in the general education of a people is undeniable.

Besides this vital interest to Vietnam to keep abreast of modern international culture, the use of one or more languages of wider communication by a larger segment of its population is an important factor in the economic, social, and educational development of the nation. There are at least two communication needs to be recognized here: transmission of science and technology, and international communication.

Science and Technology: There are urgent needs for the country to have access to the scientific, technical, and economic knowledge of the modern world.

International Communication: Vietnam wishes to enter the international scene and establish effective channels of communication with other nations.

4. Foreign Language Programmes and Linguistics

Leonard Bloomfield discussed in 1933 the ways in which the findings of linguistics could be applied in his book *Language*, Chapter 28, "Applications and Outlook", pp. 496-510. 10

Since then, throughout the Intensive Language Program of the American Council of Learned Societies during World War II, the Army Language Section, the Army Specialized Training Program: Language and Area Section, the Foreign Language and Area Programs of the Provost Marshal General's Office of the Department of the Army, and the recent developments in language teaching manifested by the Cornell Language Program, the Foreign Service Institute of the State Department, the Institute of Languages and Linguistics of Georgetown University, the English Language Institute of the University of Michigan, 11 etc., a new concept of applying modern linguistics to the teaching of foreign

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11 For further detail on the history of applied linguistics during the period under discussion, see, for examples:
languages has been developed in the United States. This concept of applied linguistics has been systematized mainly by Charles C. Fries,\textsuperscript{12} and Robert Lado.\textsuperscript{13}

The central idea of this concept is the "importance of the native language in foreign language learning".\textsuperscript{14} Each language has its own sound system and grammatical structure. The foreign language learner has already learned a native language extensively enough to grasp and express a variety of experience and he can never again be in the same position as a child learning his own language. He tends to transfer the phonological and grammatical systems of his native language to the foreign language to be learned. This transfer creates a phenomenon of interference,\textsuperscript{15} or deviation from the norms of either language which occurs in his speech while he is switching from one language code to another.

This concept of applied linguistics has been carried out in Vietnam in the last few years by the South-East Asian Regional English Project (SEAREP), a University of Michigan-United States Operations Missions Contract, in the training of English teachers at the Faculty of Pedagogy, University of Saigon. The final written results were a set of three text books for intensive courses in English,\textsuperscript{16} all of them rewritten by the present author. In broad lines, the writing of these books was deeply influenced by the Lado-Fries series of English text books for Latin American students,\textsuperscript{17} and based upon an intuitive but

\begin{flushright}
\small
\textsuperscript{12} Charles C. Fries, \textit{Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language}. Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1945.
\textsuperscript{13} Robert Lado, \textit{Linguistics across Cultures}. Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1957.
\textsuperscript{14} David W. Reed, Robert Lado, Yao Shen, "The Importance of the Native Language in Foreign Language Learning", in \textit{Selected Articles from Language Learning}, Series I, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1953, pp. 121-127.
\textsuperscript{15} Uriel Weinreich, \textit{Language in Contact}, New York, 1953, p. 3.
\end{flushright}

5. The Present Study

Representative of the recognition of the development of a methodology for the application of the findings of linguistics to the teaching of foreign languages are the facts that the United States Office of Education, under the National Defence Education Act of September 2, 1958, specified the analysis for language teaching in Foreign Language Institutes, and contracted with linguists for an Anthology of Applied Linguistics for the use in the Institutes, and with the Center of Applied Linguistics of the Modern Language Association of America for the development of linguistic contrastive analyses. So far, a series of contrastive studies describing the similarities and differences between English and each of the five languages most commonly taught in the United States (French, German, Italian, Russian and Spanish) have been published or are being prepared.\footnote{Charles A. Ferguson, "General Introduction to the Series", in William G. Moulton, \textit{The Sounds of English and German}. University of Chicago Press, Chicago and London, 1962, pp.v-vi.}

Because of its methodological importance to the teaching of English to Vietnamese speakers, and of Vietnamese to English speakers, the present contrastive analysis of English and Vietnamese grammar and phonology has proved to be necessary.

As it has been said a short while ago, one of the major problems in the learning of a second language is the interference caused by the structural differences between the language to be learned and the language of the learner. Consequently, a contrastive analysis of the two languages will point out learning and teaching problems, and will constitute the basis for the preparation of scientifically oriented instructional materials, the planning of courses according to the relative degrees of difficulties of learning problems, and the development of classroom techniques.

In terms of linguistic theoretical implications, this contrastive analysis is a tentative combination of two leading, if not the two...
leading linguistic theories of the last decade, Tagmemics and Transformational Grammar; it is also an application of the tagmemic model to the preparation of substitution, and development drills, and of the transformational model to the preparation of transformational drills in grammar and pattern practice lessons.

Nevertheless, at the same time, this study, concerned only with the grammatical structures and the sound systems of the two languages, cannot be considered complete for the preparation of textbooks of either language for native speakers of the other language, seeing that:

"The fundamental purpose or objective of all foreign language teaching is to achieve an understanding as complete as possible between people of different linguistic backgrounds."20

Thus, the present study must be followed by a careful contrastive analysis of the culture or cultures of the English speaking people, and the Vietnamese culture to point out cultural differences, i.e. cultural teaching and learning problems, as Albert H. Marckwardt says:

"Just so, it may be reasonably maintained that contrastive cultural analyses are equally important in terms of language study."21

The fact that language is closely related to culture has been pointed out by many a linguist, among them Edward Sapir,22 Benjamin Lee Whorf,23 and Kenneth L. Pike, who says:

"In sum, then, we may say that the linguist wishes to dis-

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"We see and hear otherwise experience very largely as we do because the language habits of our community predispose certain choices of interpretation." - p.162.

23 Benjamin Lee Whorf, in Collected Papers on Metalinguistics, Washington D.C., 1952, defines language as:

"...the thought world... the microcosm that each man carries about within himself by which he measures and understands what he can of the macrocosm." - p.36.
cover the structure of language behavior, and obtains its structuring only in reference to that larger behavior field, and relative to the structural units of that larger field, the linguist must on occasion refer to that larger field in order to get access to that frame of reference within which the linguistic units obtain part of their definition."

Since the meanings expressed in a language are largely behaviourally (or culturally) determined, one cannot understand a language fully without understanding at least the distinct cultural meanings expressed through it. Thus, the foreign language student cannot go far into the language to be learned without facing differences in cultural meanings. He needs to have a substantial knowledge of specific facts concerning the culture, some understanding of the main patterns of thought, beliefs, traditions, appreciation of the values that account for the way the people live and behave, and be able to recognize the significance of the accomplishments of the people.

In learning a foreign culture, the student tends also to transfer the patterns of his native culture to the culture to be learned, both on the production level and on the reception level, as Robert Lado says:

"The student learns the target culture not from scratch as he learned his native one, but with the experience, meanings, and habits of his native culture influencing him at every step. The native-culture experience will facilitate learning those patterns that are sufficiently similar to the function satisfactorily when transferred. The native-culture experiences will interfere with those cultural patterns and meanings that are not equatable with similar ones or that are partly similar but function differently in the target culture."

In conclusion, a contrastive cultural study is also of greatest importance to the programming of an English or Vietnamese language course for native speakers of the other language.

6. The Choice of Dialects

The purpose of this study is to make a contrastive analysis of English and Vietnamese for pedagogical applications, and not to make a linguistic geography survey of a country. Therefore it is necessary to choose a particular dialect of English, and a particular dialect of Vietnamese, as Zellig S. Harris says:

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"The universe of discourse for a descriptive linguistic investigation is a single language or dialect.

These investigations are carried out for the speech of a particular person, or one community of dialectically identical persons, at a time."26

Both in English and Vietnamese, there are not many serious grammatical differences among different standard dialects, but there are a few phonological differences. Thus the choice of dialects matters only in the phonological analyses.

The two dialects chosen for contrastive analysis are: Midwest Standard American English, and Standard Saigon Vietnamese.

6.1. Midwest Standard American English (MSAE)

The problem of choosing which linguistic form should be learned or taught for active production of English when many forms are employed in approximately equivalent manners by different native speakers of the language must be considered in the preparation of text books where, for convenience, materials are centered about a single dialect.

While it is pertinent for advanced students to be exposed to British English, Australian English, New Zealand English, etc., MSAE is chosen for this study, and assumed to be the dialect that the Vietnamese student observes in his elementary study of the language. The reasons for this choice are:

(1) Since a student of a second language will try to speak like the informant or informants who are used as models, MSAE is chosen because it is much more easily observable in Vietnam than any other English dialect;

(2) MSAE, a standard colloquial speech, is mutually intelligible with other dialects;

(3) MSAE, like other standard dialects of English, has social, cultural, and literary prestige;

(4) MSAE has reliable sources of linguistic information, such as descriptive grammars, dictionaries, etc.

6.2. Standard Saigon Vietnamese (SSV)

Since Vietnamese native speakers of the three main dialects of Vietnamese (Hanoi, Hue, Saigon dialects)27 are present in any English classroom in Vietnam, it is obviously unrealistic, for the purpose of


27 For an introduction to Vietnamese pronunciation, the Vietnamese writing system and dialect variations, see Lawrence C. Thompson, A Vietnamese Grammar. University of Washington Press, Seattle, 1965, pp.3-104.
teaching English in the country, to choose just one dialect of Vietnamese for contrastive analysis while neglecting the other two. The three dialects differ from one another in their phonological systems, mainly in their intonation patterns, but they are perfectly mutually intelligible. An arbitrary choice of SSV, which has the greatest number of speakers in the Republic of Vietnam, has been made here. Nevertheless, as far as teaching and learning problems of English pronunciation are concerned, only the English phonemes which have their equivalents in the Vietnamese phonological common core of the three main dialects are considered easy for Vietnamese students. Problems for speakers of any particular Vietnamese dialect are considered as problems for Vietnamese speakers in general, although in practical situations, the sounds considered as difficult may not be problems for speakers of any one particular dialect because in every day contact, speakers of a particular dialect have picked up phonemes of another dialect.

All the arguments given so far have centered about the purpose of teaching English to Vietnamese speakers. Reasons should also be given for this choice of dialects for the purpose of teaching Vietnamese to English speakers.

Considered now as the dialect to be learned by English speakers, SSV, which is a standard dialect like the other two main dialects, was chosen even more arbitrarily than MSAE was chosen as the dialect for Vietnamese students to learn. This arbitrary choice has nevertheless some practical reasons: being the native dialect of the author, SSV can be described by him with greater accuracy.

Likewise, this contrastive analysis is intended to discover teaching and learning problems for English speakers. Thus, it is obviously unrealistic to choose just one dialect of English for comparison. In order to compensate for this arbitrary choice, Vietnamese pronunciation difficulties for speakers of other English dialects (especially British and Australian dialects) will be also presented in the Part on Vietnamese pronunciation for English.

7. Kenneth L. Pike's Philosophy of Language Adopted


29 Some points in this short discussion have been borrowed from John C. Crawford, Totontepec Mixe Phonotagmanics. Summer Institute of Linguistics, Norma, Oklahoma, 1963.
There are four characteristics of Pike's philosophy of language and model for language structure which are basic to this presentation. The brief discussion of these four points made here is not meant to summarize Pike's *Language*. It is only to show the direction that this study will take, and what the major linguistic, and especially extra-linguistic considerations will be which will have to be taken into account for a scientific programming of the teaching of two quite different languages, both in terms of linguistic structural patterns and overall behavioural matrices. The four characteristics, which are closely inter-related, are: (1) Language is viewed as behaviour; (2) Language is hierarchically ordered; (3) Language consists of emic units; (4) Language is tri-modally structured.

7.1. Language is Viewed as Behaviour

Language is not a self-contained system; the behaviour aspects are closely related to linguistic aspects. It is viewed by Pike as being only one part of a larger totality of structured human behaviour. On the one hand, language is inextricably mixed with other aspects of this behavioural totality, and on the other hand, language behaviour constitutes a significant part of this total human behaviour. Consequently, language can only be considered as being in relation to other aspects of the totality of structured human behaviour.

In the light of Pike's statement that language must be viewed as behaviour, some remarks on Vietnamese linguistic behaviour and English linguistic behaviour will be given here. These very brief remarks are only to explain the existence of linguistic difficulties (for speakers of one language to learn the other language) due to the interference of the two different linguistic behaviours.

7.1.1. Vietnamese Linguistic Behaviour

Vietnamese is an uninflectional and, at least phonologically speaking, monosyllabic language. That means that there are only two syntactic and morphological devices in Vietnamese: the use of word order, and the use of function words. 30

This limited number of grammatical devices in Vietnamese is closely related to and characteristic of the Vietnamese linguistic behaviour, which would seem to be governed by two behavioural laws: the law of indeterminacy; and the law of simplicity.

Law of Indeterminacy. The Vietnamese language is said to be governed by the law of indeterminacy in the sense that Vietnamese Sentences, both Minor and Major Sentence Types, are not necessarily self-sufficient units, but they can, and usually do, rely on larger linguistic

or extra-linguistic matrices which explain or complete their meaning. What is assumed to be known is not repeated in the actual sentence units. In other words, Vietnamese sentences are usually contextually dependent sentences.

This law of indeterminacy explains also the frequent use of minor sentences in a Vietnamese discourse. For example:

A student, coming back from his examinations, looks at his anxious parents and says:

Khó 'difficult' = What I have had as tests were quite difficult.
or: Ươc 'alright' = I have done my examinations well.
or: Đỷ quá 'too bad' = It was too bad. My papers were too bad.

These minor sentences comprise or express a number of different notions.

These same minor sentences exist also in English, but they must be more numerous in Vietnamese because in Vietnamese, many nucleus clause level tagmemes are optional while in English the same tagmemes are obligatory, for example, the subject tagmeme, or the direct object tagmeme in full transitive clause types31 (see Chapters on English and on Vietnamese clause types). For examples:

In English, as an answer to the question "When did you buy this book?", the following sentence

I bought it yesterday.

In Vietnamese, the following sentence may be uttered:

Mua hôm qua, literally 'buy day past'.

The subject tagmeme I, and the object tagmeme It are obligatory in English, but optional in Vietnamese.

This law of indeterminacy governs also major sentence types in Vietnamese. As an example of this contextual dependence of major sentence types, the following sentence can be understood in different ways according to the larger linguistic, or extra-linguistic matrices:

Nó về lôi về +Falling Intonation

He returns I return

The sentence may mean, according to different contexts:

If he goes home, I'll go home too.

When he goes home, I'll go home too.

Every time he goes home, I go home too.

Because he is going home, I am going home too.

31 Lawrence C. Thompson interprets the optional character of the subject and direct object tagmemes in Vietnamese in these terms: "These considerations also suggest that subject and object as presumed universals need careful amendment. It appears that there are syntactic structures (like that of Vietnamese) in which these categories scarcely exist at all; their equivalents appear rather as elements of a modification-and-reference subsystem." - p.618, "Nuclear Models in Vietnamese immediate-constituent analysis", Language 41.4:610-618 (1965).
Because he went home, I went home too.
Since he might be going home, I am going home now, etc.

Law of Simplicity. The Vietnamese language is said to be governed by the law of simplicity in the sense it tends to use simple constructions, and compound constructions, rather than to use complex constructions. On the sentence level for example, Vietnamese Sentences do not usually have Extra Dependent Introducers such as bởi vì 'because', khi 'when', and consequently, they do not have a complex internal structure of Clause within Clause. They are more usually Compound Sentences containing successive Clauses which can be coordinated or not. In these Compound Sentences, the different Cause-Effect, Supposition-Consequence, Time-Relativity, etc. relationships will be expressed loosely by Independent Clause Coordinators.

Thus, the Vietnamese Language is said to be governed by the law of simplicity because, instead of using pyramiding structures of constructions within constructions, it tends to use lengthy but simple coordinate successive constructions.

As an example of this law of simplicity, the two facts are stated in their chronological order rather than logical order (i.e. Time-Situation dependence versus government) relationships in the following Major Independent Compound Sentence:

Nó về nhà thì (nó) gặp một người khách
(When he returned home, he met a visitor.)

The two facts of 'going home' and 'meeting a visitor' are stated in their chronological order rather than in the circumstantial Time situation of the first fact, and the government by the second fact.

This law of simplicity does not mean that there are no Complex Sentence Types with their internal structures composed of pyramiding structures of Clauses within Clauses. It just means that Complex structures are used only when there is a strong pressure for precision (cf. Chapter V of Vietnamese Grammar).

7.1.2. English Linguistic Behaviour

English is an inflectional and polysyllabic language. That means that there are more than two syntactic and morphological devices in English: the use of word order, function words, and inflections.

This relative abundance of grammatical devices in English reflects the English linguistic behaviour, which can be characterized by the law of precision.

English is said to be governed by the law of precision in the sense that even what is assumed to be known is usually repeated in actual Sentence units. Following are some illustrations of this law of precision: In Clause matrices, the repetition of nucleus Subject, and Object tagmemes is obligatory when these Clauses constitute separate
Sentences. Secondary notions of Tense, Concordance, Aspects, etc., are most of the time expressed in Sentences. Clause level relations of Cause-Effect, Supposition-Consequence, etc., are expressed with Complex Sentence structures of Clauses within Clauses.

7.2. Language is Hierarchically Ordered

Language, according to Pike's theory, consists of units of significant layerings and not merely of sequences of units put together like beads on a string. The higher units are partly, but not entirely, determined in terms of lower layered units of which they are composed. The lower units, moreover, occur only in structurally relevant positions within higher layered units in the hierarchy.

There are three different hierarchies in language, the phonological, the lexical, and the tagmemic hierarchies.32

(1) The phonological hierarchy builds up through a pyramiding succession of units, phonemes to syllables, syllables to stress groups, stress groups to pause groups, pause groups to emic breath groups, etc.

In the phonology discussion of this study, many phonological levels will not be dealt with because they are not very relevant to a contrastive analysis.

(2) The lexical hierarchy consists of pyramiding succession of units, morphemes to words, words to phrases, phrases to clauses, clauses to sentences, etc.

(3) The hierarchy of tagmemic units consists of a pyramiding succession of units labelled as "slot-class correlate" (Pike, Language, Chapter 7). These consist of an emic slot, which is a meaningful position in the next higher layer of structure, with a class of items which form the filler class of that slot. The units which constitute the membership of the filler class are morphemic units. The occurrence of these units constitutes the occurrence of the tagmemic unit. The filler classes of morphemic level tagmemes are usually morphemes; the filler classes of word level tagmemes are usually words.

Other higher level tagmemes are phrase level tagmemes, clause level tagmemes, sentence level tagmemes, etc.33

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32 John C. Crawford, in his Totontepec Mixe Phonotagmemics, op. cit., sets up four hierarchies instead of three: the phonemic, the phonotagmemic, the lexical, and the tagmemic hierarchy.

33 Pike, in his "On tagmemes Née Gram(m)emes," I.J.A.L. 24, 273-279 (1958), defines the tagmeme as: "A tagmeme in my view has one of its basic characteristics a correlation between a functional slot and a morpheme (or morpheme sequence, etc.) distribution class". (continued on page xx)
The present study deals with a contrastive analysis of only two hierarchical aspects of English and Vietnamese, namely phonology and grammar. It leaves out on purpose the third hierarchical aspect of language, lexicon, because there is nothing in common between English lexicon and Vietnamese lexicon to justify the necessity of a contrastive analysis. Nevertheless the present study must be accompanied by a highly sophisticated dictionary of English for the programming of an English course for Vietnamese, and likewise, a highly sophisticated dictionary of Vietnamese for the programming of a Vietnamese course for English. For, as Robert E. Longacre says:

"To describe a language exhaustively (a task as yet seriously attempted by no-one), three volumes are needed: a phonological statement, a grammatical statement, and a highly sophisticated dictionary."34

7.3. Language Consists of Emic Units

Language units are not considered as physical entities per se, but as relevant parts of a structured system or systems. Such structurally relevant parts are termed "emic" in the sense they are in relation to a total structure of a language. They are meaningful, i.e. they are parts of a functioning culturally significant system.

7.4. Language is Trimodally Structured

Each linguistic unit is described in terms of three modes: the feature, the manifestation, and the distribution mode.

The feature mode is comprised of identificational-contrastive components or features which delimit each unit from other units of the same level or of different levels.

The manifestation mode deals with varying occurrences of a unit.

The distribution mode is concerned with the distribution of the unit in question in significant slots in larger units, and in a less

33 (continued from previous page)

...
important degree, in the distribution within the unit itself of smaller units. (John C. Crawford, in op. cit., does not consider the criteria of the distribution within the unit itself of smaller units as relevant to the distribution mode of an emic unit because the same distribution of smaller emic units constitutes the manifestation mode of the unit already.)

So far, the three phonological, tagmemic, and lexical hierarchies, and the three modes (feature mode, manifestation mode, and distribution mode) have been discussed separately. But in Pike's theory, there is a close mode-hierarchy interrelationship. There is no space here for a lengthy discussion of this mode-hierarchy interrelationship which, for example, is reflected in the modal structure of a syntagmeme (construction) whose feature mode is constituted in units in the lexical hierarchy, whose manifestation mode in units of the phonological hierarchy, and whose distribution mode in units of the tagmemic hierarchy.

8. Presentation in this Study

As its subtitle conveys, this study is a Tagmemic and Transformational Approach to the Teaching of English Grammatical Structure and Sound System to Vietnamese Speakers, and Vietnamese Grammatical Structure and Sound System to English Speakers. It has two Parts: the Grammar Part, and the Phonology Part.


Similarly, the Phonology Part deals also with English Phonology, Vietnamese Phonology, English Sound System for Vietnamese, and Vietnamese Sound System for English. Nevertheless, for a better contrastive presentation, these four descriptive and contrastive aspects of consideration are not separate here, but they are regrouped in the sections on Consonants (the Consonants of English, the Consonants of Vietnamese, English Consonants for Vietnamese, and Vietnamese Consonants for English), Vowels (the Vowels of English, etc.), and Intonation.

Since the discovery procedures for the different Parts, or even for the different Sections are usually at variance with each other, different Introductions to the discovery procedures for each Part, or sometimes even for each Section, will be given when it is necessary to do so.

35 The term Syntagmeme is replaced by the term Hypertagmeme by Robert E. Longacre in his "String Constituent Analysis", op. cit., without any change in the underlying theory.
INTRODUCTION TO THE GRAMMAR DISCOVERY PROCEDURES ADOPTED

Charles F. Hockett, in his "Two Models of Grammatical Description", finds that there is partial translatability between two models of grammatical description that he defines item and arrangement, and item and process. He concludes his article by looking towards an eventual reintegration of the two models in these words:

"We must have more experimentation, as much with a model as with the other - and with the devising of further models too, for that matter - looking towards an eventual reintegration into a single more nearly satisfactory model, but not forcing that reintegration until we are ready for it."

The first volume of Pike's Language came out in the same year as Hockett's article. The following year (1955), Noam Chomsky's thesis The Logical Structure of Linguistic Theory came out at M.I.T. Since then, both the item and arrangement model (under the form of tagmemics) and the item and process model (under the form of transformational grammar) have been extensively experimented and developed.

William G. Moulton, in his "What is Structural Drill?", points out that tagmemics can be served as the theoretical foundation for the writing of grammatical substitution drills in foreign language teaching, and that transformational grammar can be served as the theoretical foundation for the writing of transformational drills. Inspired by Moulton's article, the present author makes an attempt in this study to combine the two models of grammatical description for an analysis of English grammar and Vietnamese grammar, as well as for presenting the teaching and learning problems of English grammar for Vietnamese, and of Vietnamese grammar for English. He is pleased to see, in reading Simon Belasco's article, "Tagmemics and Transformational Grammar in Linguistic Analysis", that Belasco demonstrates that "one need not


supersedes the other", p.14 (meaning either tagmemics or transformational grammar need not supersede the other). Now, if "one need not supersede the other", then a combination of the two has a good chance to be at least pedagogically applicable.

1. Tagmemic Procedure and Theory

As it was said earlier, the theory of language on which this study is based has been developed by Kenneth L. Pike in his Language in Relation to a Unified Theory of the Structure of Human Behavior. This theory offers an excellent methodology for contrastive analysis because it postulates patterning as being central to human behavior. It is a model to present linguistic patterns in straightforward and summary fashion. Such patterns when systematically described for one language may be contrasted with patterns described for another language. Thanks to the notion of hierarchy in language in the theory, such patterns described for two languages can be contrasted on clear-cut levels of consideration, such as Sentence level, Clause level, Phrase level, etc. Furthermore, the notion of tagmeme as slot plus filler-class permits to see whether patterns of two languages differ in their tagmemes (i.e. patterns in one language have some tagmemes that patterns in the other do not), or just in the filler-classes of their tagmemes (i.e. patterns in two languages contain the same functional slots, but the slots are filled by a different number of distribution-subclasses).

For practical grammar discovery procedures, Robert E. Longacre's grammar discovery procedures stated in his Grammar discovery Procedures are used with some theoretical modifications as follows:

Firstly, concerning the scope of analysis, the word level analysis is purposely omitted in this study, because since Vietnamese has no inflections or derivations, there is no point in giving a contrastive analysis on the word level. Nevertheless, in English grammar, word level compulsory grammatical categories (for examples case, gender, person-number, etc.) are stated.

Secondly, Phrase level tagmemes are not analyzed for their own sake but as fillers of Clause level slots. The result of this way of presenting is that Phrase level tagmemes are presented in the discussion of internal structures of Clause level tagmemes. For example, the Verb Phrase is presented in the section on the Clause level Predicate tagmeme. This way of presenting is more accurate because, for example, in the analysis of the Noun Phrase as an alternate distribution-subclass of the Clause level Subject filler class, and again if necessary as an alternate distribution-subclass of the Clause level Attributive filler class, it becomes evident that a Noun Phrase can be different when it fills a Subject slot or an Attributive slot. Example: a Determiner is obligatory in a Noun Phrase filling a Subject
slot, but it is omitted in a Noun Phrase filling an Attributive slot -

The president was acclaimed.

John was elected president.

(For further detail on presentation, see Chapter 3 in each Grammar.)

Thirdly, Longacre's requirements for the distinction of two syntagmemes as:

"For two patterns (syntagmemes) to be in contrast they
must have more than one structural difference between
them; at least one of these differences must involve the
nuclei of the syntagmemes".

op.cit. p.18, seem rather difficult to be met when it is to contrast
two syntagmemes in Vietnamese.

As a matter of fact, Vietnamese, being an uninflectional language,
can rely only upon two grammatical devices, word order, and functional
words. This limited number of grammatical devices means that some-
times two different syntagmemes have only one structural difference,
or even none. In the latter case, it is possible to find only non-
formal differences such as (a) differing transform potential, (b) dif-
fering potential of internal expansion, (c) different syntactic mean-
ing, i.e. it is sometimes necessary to rely upon the native speaker's
intuition.

It is not necessary to give examples of such cases here, because in
the Vietnamese Grammar, wherever Longacre's requirements for the dis-
tinction of two syntagmemes are not met, there is always a short
theoretical explication defending the differentiation of the syn-
tagmemes.

Even in English, which can make use of more grammatical devices
than Vietnamese (word order, function words, inflectional and deri-
vational suffixes), there is also a need to rely upon the native
speaker's intuition rather than to require more than one structural
difference in the differentiation of two syntagmemes.

Longacre himself, while discussing Noam Chomsky's paper "The
Logical Basis of Linguistic Theory" at the Ninth Congress of Lin-
guists, handles the ambiguity in the sentence:

I don't approve of his drinking

"by setting up two contrasting total formulae both of

which may have homophonous minimum manifestations:

+Possessive +Gerund +Object

+Possessive +Adjective +Nominal". 4

Thus, it is sufficient to say simply that there may be more of
these kinds of homophonous manifestations of contrasting formulae in
Vietnamese than in English; then, less formalism is sometimes per-
mitted in the discovering of syntagmemes in Vietnamese.

2. Transformational Grammar and Grammatical Matrix Theory

Grammatical patterns of a language comprise a system; they are interrelated. There are two ways to show relations among patterns. Both of these ways are incorporated to some degree in this study.

The first way to show relations among grammatical patterns to be discussed here is grammatical matrix theory. The theory, developed by Kenneth L. Pike, offers a way of showing relations between constructions in general (sentences, clauses, phrases, etc.) by conceptualizing them as charted together in various dimensions. It is applied in the present paper in the charting of Sentence Types and Clause Types of both English and Vietnamese (cf. Chapters II, and V in each Grammar).

The second way is transformational grammar, which is not immiscible with tagmemics. In fact, Pike himself says:

"... so it would seem possible that if tagmemics and transform grammar are both developed far enough, that they could come to the point of complete overlap."

There is even no need to justify the introduction of transformational grammar to the analysis in this paper, but just to quote from Noam Chomsky:

"The motivation for adding transformational rules to grammar is quite clear. There are certain sentences (in fact, simple declarative active sentences with no complex noun or verb phrases - or, to be more precise, the terminal strings underlying these) that can be generated by a constituent structure grammar in quite a natural way. There are others (e.g. passive, questions, sentences with discontinuous phrases and complex phrases that embed sentence transforms) that cannot be generated in an economic and natural way by a constituent structure grammar, but that are systematically related to sentences of simpler structure. Transformations that are constructed to express this relation can thus materially simplify the grammar when used to generate more complex sentences and their structural descriptions from already generated simpler ones."

---


The insertion into a tagmemic framework of a transformational model from which notion of transformations and rewrite rules is adapted, requires some theoretical modifications to the model. Following are the differences between the original transformational model and its adapted form used here. It is understood that the following discussion is not a criticism nor an evaluation of transformational grammar.

Firstly, there is a difference in the postulation of grammatical hierarchical levels of consideration.

The transformational model, while defining grammar as a sentence generating device which is able to produce all and only grammatical sentences of a language by means of various kinds of rules for rewriting elements, begins necessarily with the element Sentence and works down through various levels to the phonemic level or beyond (to the level of distinctive features).

In this study, since "In essence, the clause posits a situation in miniature (whether asserting, questioning, commanding, or equating)" the grammatical procedures start with Clause level syntagmemes (Clause Types) rather than with Sentence level syntagmemes. A result of this is that grammatical transforms (transformations) can operate at any level of the grammatical hierarchy, and do not have to be embedded in overall sentence matrices. Thus, for examples, on the Clause level, a Yes-No Interrogative Transform can be applied to any Clause Type of the Independent Declarative Clause Class to derive an Independent Yes-No Interrogative Clause Type (cf. Chapter II in each Grammar), or in the Phrase a Negative (don't) Transform or a Negative Auxiliary (or Modal) Transform can be applied to an Affirmative Verb Phrase in English to derive a Negative (don't) Verb Phrase or a Negative Auxiliary (or Modal) Verb Phrase (see Section 3.1. in each Grammar).

In postulating Clause level syntagmemes, or Phrase level syntagmemes as possible matrices for transformations, there is no need any more to make a distinction between Singularly Transformations and Generalized Transformations (which is necessary in transformational grammar to make a distinction between Complex Sentences - that, in transformational grammar terms, have more than one Phrase-Structure

---

10 For a model of distinctive feature analysis in phonology, see, for example, Roman Jakobson and Morris Halle, *Fundamentals of Language*. Mouton and Co., 1956.
tree in their derivational history - and Simple Sentences - whose derivational history includes only one Phrase-Structure tree - because our transformations operate now on a different grammatical hierarchical level than the Sentence level. Then, on the Sentence level, the classification of Sentences into Simple, Compound, and Complex Sentence Types is based upon the number and nature of Clause Types they contain (cf. Chapter V in each Grammar).

Secondly, there is a different usage of the term kernel on the early form of Transformational Grammar\textsuperscript{13} and here. The term has a larger meaning here in two ways.

In *Syntactic Structures*, Chomsky defines kernel sentences as "the set of sentences that are produced when we apply obligatory transformations to the kernel strings of the (phrase structure) grammar", p.45. In other words, there are no kernel strings in other grammatical hierarchical levels except in the Sentence level, and there are no kernel strings that have undergone an optional transformation.

The term kernel as used here has a larger meaning in the first way in the sense that there can be kernel strings or structures on any grammatical hierarchical level. A kernel is any structure to which a Transform (transformation) can be applied. Thus, for examples, on the Clause level, an Independent Declarative Clause Type is the kernel structure to which the Yes-No Interrogative Transform can be applied to derive an Independent Yes-No Interrogative Clause Type, or an Affirmative Verb Phrase is the kernel structure to which a Negative (don't) Transform, or a Negative Auxiliary (or Modal) Transform can be applied to derive a Negative Verb Phrase in English.

The term kernel as used here has a larger meaning in the second way in the sense that it means a basis for transformation: a kernel structure can have undergone optional transformations (Chomsky's types of optional transformations).\textsuperscript{14} As an illustration, the following Independent Declarative Clause "he went to Sydney" is the kernel structure to which the Yes-No Interrogative Transform is applied to derive the Independent Yes-No Interrogative Clause "did he go to Sydney", which in its turn is the kernel structure to which the Extra Interrogative Transform is applied to derive the Independent Extra Interrogative Clause "when did he go to Sydney"\textsuperscript{15} (cf. Chapter II in

\textsuperscript{13} Paul Schachter, in his "Kernel and Non-Kernel Sentences in Transformational Grammar", in Horace G. Lunt (ed.), op.cit., pp.692-696, demonstrates the relative triviality of the distinction made between kernel and non-kernel sentences in early models of Transformational Grammar.

\textsuperscript{14} Noam Chomsky, *Syntactic Structures*, pp.45ff.

\textsuperscript{15} Zellig S. Harris, in his "Co-occurrence and Transformation in Linguistic Structure", *Language*, 33.293-340 (1957), stresses that any sentence in the language may be used as the basis for transformation. In a sense, the transformational model adapted in the present study is closer to Harris's theory than to Chomsky's in the definition of kernel structures.
each Grammar).

Thirdly, seeing that in learning English or Vietnamese as a foreign language, one has to master the intonation pattern of the language, and since the ultimate purpose of the present study is for pedagogical applications, intonation is considered here as an important component of Sentences. Consequently, it is stated in structural formulae of Sentence Types in this study, while it is not stated in transformational grammar.\(^{16}\)

Fourthly, and last in the list, since a statement in terms of item and process needs an adequate statement of item units before the process can be most effectively implied, the grammatical model here attempted differs from current transformational grammar by setting up the item units, namely tagmemes at all grammatical hierarchical levels.\(^{17}\) This postulation of item units for a generative grammar is urged by Pike in these terms:

"At some point, it would seem, transform grammar needs a further unit to be identified and transformed. It is our belief that the tagmeme, or something very much like it in structure, is needed for this purpose in transform grammar."\(^{18}\)

(For overall statements on the postulation of tagmemes on different grammatical levels and Phrase-Structure representations, see Appendices in each Grammar.)

\(^{16}\) Robert P. Stockwell, in his "The Place of Intonation in a Generative Grammar of English", *Language*, 36.3 pp. 360-367, does the pioneering work to incorporate intonation into generative grammars. His first generative rule is \( S \rightarrow \text{Nuc.} + \text{IP} \) (Intonation Pattern), and his second rule is \( \text{Nuc.} \rightarrow \text{NP} + \text{VP} \) (Chomsky's \( S \rightarrow \text{NP} + \text{VP} \)).

\(^{17}\) I am indebted to Dr Robert E. Longacre for informing me that my combined tagmemic and transformational approach is very parallel to his own in "Transformational Parameters in Tagmemic Field Structures", *Georgetown Monograph Series*, volume reporting the Round Table held in March 1965, pp. 43-58. In the article, he says: "Tagmemics can gain many valuable insights from transformational grammar. Transformational grammar could learn some things from tagmemics as well: more explicit functional orientation; use of function-set notation to clarify transformation rules; and sufficient attention to field structures to fit transformations in adequate context", p. 58. For examples of "transformational parameters", see Chapters 2 in both my English Grammar, and Vietnamese Grammar.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PREFACE</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</td>
<td>vi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GENERAL INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>vii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTRODUCTION TO THE GRAMMAR DISCOVERY PROCEDURES ADOPTED</td>
<td>xxii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPECIAL SIGNS AND ABBREVIATIONS</td>
<td>xlii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 1: INDEPENDENT DECLARATIVE CLAUSE TYPES</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.0. Introductory</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1. Classification</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2. Clause Classes and Pertinent Remarks</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.1. Selection of the form of the Predicate</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.2. The Passive Transitive Clause Class</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.2a. The Passive Transform</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3. Independent Declarative Clause Types in Detail</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.0. Introductory</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.0.1. Minimum Nucleus Formulae</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.0.2. Expanded Maximum Formulae</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.1. Independent Declarative Clause Type 1: Active In-transitive Declarative Clause Type</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.2. Independent Declarative Clause Type 2: Active Single Transitive Declarative Clause Type</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.3. Independent Declarative Clause Type 3: Active Double Transitive Declarative Clause Type</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.3a. The Indirect Object Transform</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.4. Independent Declarative Clause Type 4: Active Attributive Transitive Declarative Clause Type</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.5. Independent Declarative Clause Type 5: Passive Single Transitive Declarative Clause Type</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.6. Independent Declarative Clause Type 6: Passive Double Transitive Declarative Clause Type</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.7. Independent Declarative Clause Type 7: Passive Attributive Transitive Declarative Clause Type</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.8. Independent Declarative Clause Type 8: Equational Declarative Clause Type</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.9. Independent Declarative Clause Type 9: <em>(there)</em> Stative Declarative Clause Type</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.10. Independent Declarative Clause Type 10: <em>(it)</em> Stative Declarative Clause Type</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.3.10a. Some other uses of the obligatory nucleus Logical Subject (It)

Chapter 2: CLAUSE CLASSES

2.0. Classification

2.1. Clause Classes in Detail

2.1.0. Introductory

2.1.1. (Independent) Declarative Clause Class

2.1.2. (Independent) Imperative Clause Class

2.1.3. (Independent) Yes-No Interrogative Clause Class

2.1.3a. The Yes-No Transform

2.1.4. (Independent) Interrogative Subject Clause Class

2.1.4a. The Interrogative Subject Transform

2.1.4b. The obligatory nucleus Interrogative Subject tagmeme

2.1.5. (Independent) Interrogative Non-Subject Clause Class

2.1.5a. The Non-Subject Interrogative Transform

2.1.5b. The obligatory nucleus Interrogative Non-Subject tagmeme

2.1.5b.1. Alternate division-subclass Interrogative Direct Object tagmeme

2.1.5b.2. Alternate division-subclass Interrogative Indirect Object tagmeme

2.1.5b.2a. Note on the Indirect Object Introducer (to)

2.1.5b.3. Alternate division-subclass Interrogative Attributive tagmeme

2.1.5b.4. Alternate division-subclass Interrogative Equational Complement tagmeme

2.1.5b.5. Alternate division-subclass Interrogative Stative Subject tagmeme

2.1.5b.6. Alternate division-subclass Interrogative Stative Complement tagmeme

2.1.6. (Independent) Extra Interrogative Clause Class

2.1.6a. The Interrogative Addition Transform

2.1.6b. The obligatory nucleus Interrogative Clause Introducer

2.1.7. Dependent Subject Clause Class

2.1.7a. The Dependent Subject Transform

2.1.7b. Obligatory nucleus Dependent Subject tagmeme

2.1.8. Dependent Non-Subject Clause Class

2.1.8a. The Non-Subject Dependent Transform

2.1.8b. The optional nucleus Dependent Non-Subject tagmeme

2.1.8b.1. Alternate division-subclass Dependent Direct Object tagmeme

2.1.8b.2. Alternate division-subclass Dependent Indirect Object tagmeme

2.1.8b.2a. Note on the Indirect Object Introducer (to)
2.1.8b.3. Alternate division-subclass Dependent Equational Complement tagmem

2.1.9. Dependent Relative Clause Class

2.1.9a. The Relative Dependent Transform

2.1.9b. The optional nucleus Dependent Relative Clause Introducer

2.1.10. Extra Dependent Clause Class

2.1.10a. The Dependent Addition Transform

2.1.10b. Obligatory Dependent Clause Introducer tagmem

2.2. The ten complete Clause Classes and their Transforms

2.3. The 87 complete Clause Types

Chapter 3: INTERNAL STRUCTURES OF CLAUSE LEVEL TAGMEMES

3.0. Introductory

3.1. Nucleus Clause level tagmemes

3.1.0. Introductory

3.1.1. The obligatory nucleus Predicate tagmem

3.1.1.1. Internal Structure of the Verb Phrase Hyperclass

3.1.1.1.1. Close-knit Active Verb Phrase

3.1.1.1.2. Close-knit Passive Verb Phrase

3.1.1.1.3. Close-knit Negated Declarative Verb Phrases

3.1.1.1.3.1. The alternate division-subclass Negated Declarative (don't) Verb Phrase

3.1.1.1.3.2. The alternate division-subclass Negated Declarative (n't) Verb Phrase

3.1.1.1.3.2a. Note on the form (n't)

3.1.1.1.4. Close-knit Interrogative Verb Phrases

3.1.1.1.4.1. The alternate division-subclass Interrogative (do) Verb Phrase

3.1.1.1.4.1a. Negation of the Interrogative (do) Verb Phrase

3.1.1.1.4.2. The alternate division-subclass Interrogative Modal (or Auxiliary) Verb Phrase

3.1.1.1.4.2a. Negation of the Interrogative Modal (or Auxiliary) Verb Phrase

3.1.1.1.5. Verb Phrase Substitutes

3.1.1.1.5.1. The alternate division-subclass Substitute (do) Phrase

3.1.1.1.5a. Negation of the Substitute (do) Phrase

3.1.1.1.5.2. The alternate division-subclass Substitute Modal (or Auxiliary) Phrase

3.1.1.1.6. The optional satellite Delimiter tagmem

3.1.1.2. Verb stem classes, division-subclasses, and co-occurrence-subclasses

3.1.1.2.1. The Intransitive Verb stem class

3.1.1.2.1.1. The Intransitive Verb stem's alternate division-subclass
<p>| 3.1.1.2.1.2. | The Intransitive Verb stem\textsuperscript{prep} alternate division-subclass | 64 |
| 3.1.1.2.2. | The Single Transitive Verb stem class | 64 |
| 3.1.1.2.2.1. | The Single Transitive Verb stem\textsubscript{s} alternate division-subclass | 64 |
| 3.1.1.2.2.1.1. | The Single Transitive Verb stem\textsubscript{s1} co-occurrence-subclass | 65 |
| 3.1.1.2.2.1.2. | The Single Transitive Verb stem\textsubscript{s2} co-occurrence-subclass | 65 |
| 3.1.1.2.2.1.3. | The Single Transitive Verb stem\textsubscript{s3} co-occurrence-subclass | 65 |
| 3.1.1.2.2.1.4. | The Single Transitive Verb stem\textsubscript{s4} co-occurrence-subclass | 66 |
| 3.1.1.2.2.1.5. | The Single Transitive Verb stem\textsubscript{s5} co-occurrence-subclass | 66 |
| 3.1.1.2.2.1.6. | The Single Transitive Verb stem\textsubscript{s6} co-occurrence-subclass | 66 |
| 3.1.1.2.2.1.7. | The Single Transitive Verb stem\textsubscript{s7} co-occurrence-subclass | 67 |
| 3.1.1.2.2.1.8. | The Single Transitive Verb stem\textsubscript{s8} co-occurrence-subclass | 67 |
| 3.1.1.2.2.1.9. | The Single Transitive Verb stem\textsubscript{s9} co-occurrence-subclass | 67 |
| 3.1.1.2.2.1.10. | The Single Transitive Verb stem\textsubscript{s10} co-occurrence-subclass | 68 |
| 3.1.1.2.2.1.11. | The Single Transitive Verb stem\textsubscript{s11} co-occurrence-subclass | 68 |
| 3.1.1.2.2.1.12. | The Single Transitive Verb stem\textsubscript{s12} co-occurrence-subclass | 69 |
| 3.1.1.2.2.2. | The Single Transitive Verb stem\textsuperscript{prep} alternate division-subclass | 69 |
| 3.1.1.2.2.2.1. | The Single Transitive Verb stem\textsuperscript{prep1} co-occurrence-subclass | 69 |
| 3.1.1.2.2.2.2. | The Single Transitive Verb stem\textsuperscript{prep2} co-occurrence-subclass | 69 |
| 3.1.1.2.3. | The Double Transitive Verb stem class | 70 |
| 3.1.1.2.3.1. | The Double Transitive Verb stem\textsubscript{n} alternate division-subclass | 70 |
| 3.1.1.2.3.1.1. | The Double Transitive Verb stem\textsubscript{n1} co-occurrence-subclass | 70 |
| 3.1.1.2.3.1.2. | The Double Transitive Verb stem\textsubscript{n2} co-occurrence-subclass | 71 |
| 3.1.1.2.3.1.3. | The Double Transitive Verb stem\textsubscript{n3} co-occurrence-subclass | 71 |
| 3.1.1.2.3.2. | The Double Transitive Verb stem\textsubscript{v} alternate division-subclass | 72 |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.3.2.1. The Double Transitive Verb stem(_v_1) co-occurrence-subclass</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.3.2a. Note on the Double Transitive Clause Type</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.3.2.2. The Double Transitive Verb stem(_v_2) co-occurrence-subclass</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.3.2.3. The Double Transitive Verb stem(_v_3) co-occurrence-subclass</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.4. The Attributive Transitive Verb stem class</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.4.1. The Attributive Transitive Verb stem(_{\text{part}}) co-occurrence-subclass</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.4.2. The Attributive Transitive Verb stem(_{\text{adj}}) co-occurrence-subclass</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.4.3. The Attributive Transitive Verb stem(_n) co-occurrence-subclass</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.5. The Equational Verb stem class</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.5.1. The Equational Intransitive Verb stem alternate distribution-subclass</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.5.1.1. The Equational Intransitive Verb stem(_{\text{part}}) co-occurrence-subclass</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.5.1.2. The Equational Intransitive Verb stem(_{\text{adj}}) co-occurrence-subclass</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.5.1.3. The Equational Intransitive Verb stem(_n) co-occurrence-subclass</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.5.2. The Semi-Auxiliary stem alternate distribution-subclass</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.5.2.1. The Semi-Auxiliary stem(_{\text{adj}}) co-occurrence-subclass</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.5.2.2. The Semi-Auxiliary stem(_{\text{adj}}) co-occurrence-subclass</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.5.3. The Auxiliary (be) stem alternate distribution-subclass</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1.2.6. The Auxiliary (be) stem</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2. The obligatory nucleus Subject tagmeme</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1. The Noun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1. The Noun(_{\text{Noun}}) Phrase alternate division-subclass</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1. The Common Noun(_{\text{Noun}}) Phrase alternate division-subclass</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1.1. The Common Noun(_{\text{Noun-Count}}) Phrase alternate division-subclass</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1.1.1. The Common Noun(_{\text{Noun-Count-Singular}}) Phrase co-occurrence-subclass</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1.1.2. The Common Noun(_{\text{Noun-Count-Plural}}) Phrase co-occurrence-subclass</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Section 3.1.2.1.1.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Common Noun Mass Phrase alternate division-subclass</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1a. The optional satellite Pre-Determiner tagmeme</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1a.2. The optional satellite Ordinal tagmeme</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1a.3. The optional satellite Numeral tagmeme</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1a.4. The optional satellite Modifier 1 tagmeme</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1a.4.1. The alternate distribution-subclass Adjective Phrase</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1a.4.1a. The Adjective stem class</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1a.4.2. The alternate distribution-subclass Verb (-en) Phrase</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1a.4.3. The alternate distribution-subclass Verb (-ing) Phrase</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1a.5. The optional satellite Modifier 2 tagmeme</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1a.6. The optional satellite Post-Modifier tagmeme</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1a.6.1. The alternate distribution-subclass Complex Modifier 1</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1a.6.2. The alternate distribution-subclass Location Adverb Phrase</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1a.6.3. The alternate distribution-subclass Location Relator Axis Phrase</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1a.6.4. The alternate distribution-subclass Noun Phrase</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1a.6.5. The alternate distribution-subclass (to) Verb Phrase</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1a.6.6. The alternate distribution-subclass Appositive Phrase</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1a.6.7. The alternate distribution-subclass Reflexive Pronoun</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.1a.6.8. The alternate distribution-subclass Dependent Clause</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.2. The Proper Noun Phrase alternate division-subclass</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.2.1. The Personal Proper Noun Phrase co-occurrence-subclass</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.2.2. The Non-Personal Proper Noun Phrase alternate division-subclass</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.2.2.1. The Non-Personal Proper Noun Phrase co-occurrence-subclass</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2.1.1.2.2.2. The co-occurrence-subclass Non-Personal Proper Noun Phrase</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.1.2.1.2. The Nominalized Adjective Phrase alternate division-subclass

3.1.2.1.2a. The Nominalized Adjective Phrase alternate division-subclass

3.1.2.1.3. The Nominalized Verb\(\langle -en\rangle\) Phrase alternate division-subclass

3.1.2.1.4. The Nominalized Verb\(\langle -ing\rangle\) Phrase alternate division-subclass

3.1.2.1.4a. Note on the Nominalized Verb\(\langle -ing\rangle\) Phrase

3.1.2.2. The Pronoun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.2.2.1. The Personal Subject Pronoun Phrase alternate division-subclass

3.1.2.2.2. The Indeterminate Pronoun Phrase alternate division-subclass

3.1.2.2.3. The Demonstrative Pronoun Phrase alternate division-subclass

3.1.2.2.4. The Possessive Pronoun Phrase alternate division-subclass

3.1.2.2.5. The Possessive Case Phrase alternate division-subclass

3.1.2.3. The Relator Axis Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.2.4. The Verb Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.2.4.1. The \(\langle to\rangle\) Verb Phrase alternate division-subclass

3.1.2.4.2. The Verb\(\langle -ing\rangle\) Phrase alternate division-subclass

3.1.2.5. The Dependent Clause alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.2.6. The Defective Clause distribution-subclass

3.1.3. The obligatory nucleus Direct Object tagmeme

3.1.3.1. Noun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.3.2. The Pronoun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.3.2.1. The Personal Object Pronoun Phrase alternate division-subclass

3.1.3.3. Adverb Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.3.4. The Verb Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.3.5. The Dependent Clause alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.3.5.1. The Declarative Dependent Clause Type alternate division-subclass

3.1.3.5.2. The Subjunctive Dependent Relative Clause alternate division-subclass

3.1.3.6. The Defective Clause alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.4. The obligatory nucleus Indirect Object tagmeme

3.1.4.1. The Noun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.4.2. The Pronoun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass

3.1.4.3. The Dependent Clause alternate distribution-subclass
3.1.5. The obligatory nucleus Attributive tagmeme
3.1.5.1. The Noun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass
3.1.5.1.1. The Noun Phrase alternate division-subclass
3.1.5.1.2. The Attributive Noun Phrase alternate division-subclass
3.1.5.2. The Adjective Phrase alternate distribution-subclass
3.1.5.3. The Verb(-en) Phrase alternate distribution-subclass
3.1.6. The obligatory nucleus Equational Complement tagmeme
3.1.6.1. The Noun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass
3.1.6.2. The Pronoun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass
3.1.6.3. The Adjective Phrase alternate distribution-subclass
3.1.6.4. The Verb(-en) Phrase alternate distribution-subclass
3.1.6.5. The Verb Phrase alternate distribution-subclass
3.1.6.6. The Location Adverb Phrase alternate distribution-subclass
3.1.6.7. The Location Relator Axis Phrase alternate distribution-subclass
3.1.6.8. The Dependent Clause alternate distribution-subclass
3.1.6.9. The Defective Clause alternate distribution-subclass
3.1.7. The obligatory nucleus Static Subject tagmeme
3.1.7.1. The Noun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass
3.1.7.2. The Pronoun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass
3.1.7.3. The Dependent Clause distribution-subclass
3.1.8. The obligatory nucleus Static Complement tagmeme
3.1.8.1. The Noun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass
3.1.8.2. The Pronoun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass
3.1.8.3. The alternate distribution-subclass Dependent Clause
3.1.9. The optional nucleus Agent tagmeme
3.1.9.1. The Noun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass
3.1.9.2. The Pronoun Phrase alternate distribution-subclass
3.1.9.3. The Dependent Clause alternate distribution-subclass
3.2. Optional satellite Clause level tagmemes
3.2.0. Introductory
3.2.1. The optional satellite Indirect Object tagmeme
3.2.2. The optional satellite Accompaniment tagmeme
3.2.3. The optional satellite Benefactor tagmeme
3.2.4. The optional satellite Instrument tagmeme - see Addendum, page xli
3.2.4.1. The alternate division-subclass Instrument Relator Axis Phrase 1
3.2.4.2. The alternate division-subclass Instrument Relator Axis Phrase 2
3.2.5. The optional satellite Time tagmeme
3.2.5.1. The alternate distribution-subclass Time Adverb Phrase
3.2.5.1.1. The co-occurrence-subclass Time Adverb Phrase

3.2.5.1.2. The co-occurrence-subclass Time Adverb Phrase

3.2.5.1.3. The co-occurrence-subclass Time Adverb Phrase

3.2.5.2. The alternate distribution-subclass Time Location

3.2.5.3. The alternate distribution-subclass Extra Dependent Time Clause

3.2.6. The optional satellite Frequency tagmeme

3.2.6.1. The alternate distribution-subclass Frequency Adverb Phrase

3.2.6.2. The alternate distribution-subclass Frequency Noun Phrase

3.2.6.3. The alternate distribution-subclass Frequency Location

3.2.7. The optional satellite Location-Direction tagmeme

3.2.7.1. The alternate distribution-subclass Location Adverb Phrase

3.2.7.2. The alternate distribution-subclass Location Relator Axis Phrase

3.2.7.3. The alternate distribution-subclass Extra Dependent Location Clause

3.2.8. The optional satellite Manner tagmeme

3.2.8.1. The alternate distribution-subclass Manner Adverb Phrase

3.2.8.2. The alternate distribution-subclass Manner Relator Axis Phrase

3.2.9. The optional satellite Purpose tagmeme

3.2.9.1. The alternate distribution-subclass Purpose Relator Axis Phrase

3.2.9.2. The alternate distribution-subclass Purpose Relator Axis Phrase

3.2.9.3. The alternate distribution-subclass Extra Dependent Purpose Clause

3.2.10. The optional satellite Cause tagmeme

3.2.10.1. The alternate distribution-subclass Cause Relator Axis Phrase

3.2.10.2. The alternate distribution-subclass Extra Dependent Cause Clause

3.2a. Emphasized Place of an optional satellite Clause level tagmeme

3.2b. The optional satellite Clause level tagmeme ordering

Chapter 4: LINKING TAGMEMES AND CROSS-LEVEL CONSTRUCTIONS

4.0. Introductory

4.1. The Coordinator tagmeme

4.1.1. The alternate division-subclass Single Coordinator
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter 5: ENGLISH SENTENCE TYPES AND SENTENCE LEVEL STRUCTURES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.1.2.</td>
<td>The alternate division-subclass Double Coordinator</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.</td>
<td>The Comparative tagmeme</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.1.</td>
<td>The alternate division-subclass Equality Comparative tagmeme</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.2.</td>
<td>The alternate division-subclass Superiority Comparative tagmeme</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.3.</td>
<td>The alternate division-subclass Inferiority Comparative tagmeme</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3.</td>
<td>The Resultative tagmeme</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3.1.</td>
<td>The alternate division-subclass Resultative 1 tagmeme</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3.2.</td>
<td>The alternate division-subclass Resultative 2 tagmeme</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3.3.</td>
<td>The alternate division-subclass Resultative 3 tagmeme</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter 5: ENGLISH SENTENCE TYPES AND SENTENCE LEVEL STRUCTURES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.0.</td>
<td>Introductory</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.0.1.</td>
<td>Classification</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1.</td>
<td>Major Independent Sentence Types</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1.1.</td>
<td>Simple Major Independent Sentence Types</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1.1.1.</td>
<td>Simple Major Independent Sentence Type 1: Simple Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1.1.2.</td>
<td>Simple Major Independent Sentence Type 2: Simple Major Independent Interrogative Sentence Type</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1.1.2.1.</td>
<td>Simple Major Independent Sentence Type 2.1.: Simple Major Independent Yes-No Interrogative Sentence Type</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1.1.2.2.</td>
<td>Simple Major Independent Sentence Type 2.2.: Simple Major Independent Information Interrogative Sentence Type</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1.1.3.</td>
<td>Simple Major Independent Sentence Type 3: Simple Major Independent Imperative Sentence Type</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1.2.</td>
<td>Compound Major Independent Sentence Types</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1.3.</td>
<td>Complex Major Independent Sentence Types</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1.4.</td>
<td>The Compound Major Independent Echo Interrogative Sentence Type</td>
<td>146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1.5.</td>
<td>The Complex Major Independent Suppositional Sentence Type</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2.</td>
<td>Major Dependent Sentence Types</td>
<td>148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2.1.</td>
<td>Major Dependent Sequence Sentence Types</td>
<td>148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2.2.</td>
<td>Major Dependent Parentheses Sentence Types</td>
<td>148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2.3.</td>
<td>Major Dependent Short Response Sentence Types</td>
<td>149</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix: OUTLINE OF GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURES IN ENGLISH

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1.</td>
<td>Simple Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.</td>
<td>Simple Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.3. Simple Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 154
1.4. Simple Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 155
1.5. Simple Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 156
1.6. Simple Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 157
1.7. Simple Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 158
1.8. Simple Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 159
1.9. Simple Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 160
1.10. Simple Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 161
2. Simple Major Independent Yes-No Interrogative Sentence Type 162
3.1. Simple Major Independent Information Interrogative Sentence Type 163
3.2. Simple Major Independent Information Interrogative Sentence Type 164
3.3. Simple Major Independent Information Interrogative Sentence Type 165
4. Simple Major Independent Imperative Sentence Type 166
5. Compound Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 167
6.1. Complex Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 168
6.2. Complex Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 169
6.3. Complex Major Independent Declarative Sentence Type 170
7. Compound Major Independent Echo Interrogative Sentence Type 171

REFERENCES 173

SUMMARY TABLES -

Summary Table I: Independent Declarative Clause Class I 2
Summary Table II: Classification of the ten Clause Classes into more global Classes 22
Summary Table III: Independent Declarative, Yes-No Interrogative, and Imperative Clause Classes 1, 2, 3
Examples reflecting Summary Table III 26
Summary Table IV: Independent Interrogative Subject Clause Class 4 27
Summary Table V: Independent Interrogative Non-Subject Clause Class 5 29
Summary Table VI: Independent Extra Interrogative Clause Class 6 31
Summary Table VII: Dependent Subject Clause Class 7 35
Summary Table VIII: Dependent Non-Subject Clause Class 8 37
Summary Table IX: Dependent Relative Clause Class 9 38
Summary Table X: Extra Dependent Clause Class 10 41
Summary Table XI: The six Independent Clause Classes and their Transforms 43
Summary Table XII: The four Dependent Clause Classes and their Transforms from the kernel Independent Declarative Clause Class 46
Summary Table XIII: The 87 English Complete Clause Types 47
Summary Table XIV: The Verbal Hyperclass 49
Summary Table XV: The optional satellite Clause level tagmeme ordering 132
Summary Table XVI: Major Independent Sentence Types 142
Examples reflecting Summary Table XVI 143

ADDENDUM
Addendum

Page 121 -

Insert, between 3.2.3. and 3.2.4.1:

3.2.4. \( \{ \text{IRelAx-Phr}_1, \text{IRelAx-Phr}_2 \} \), the optional satellite Instrument tagmeme

FILLERS: the optional satellite Instrument slot is filled by a composite filler class including two alternate division-subclasses: Instrument Relator Axis Phrase 1; Instrument Relator Axis Phrase 2.
Special Signs and Abbreviations

The following different signs are used in this paper:

The plus sign, +, indicates the obligatory nature of the tagmeme.
The plus or minus sign, ±, indicates that the tagmeme is optional.
A tagmeme is indicated in the formula by: +Slot[Filler].

Alternate forms of composite fillers which represent different
distribution-subclasses are enclosed in angular braces, < >,
thus: +Slot<Filler>. If the attention is being focussed on
only one of the distribution-subclass fillers of a Slot, an
abbreviated formula such as +Slot<Filler> is used.

Braces { } enclose a composite morpheme-hypermorpheme class of
subclass fillers divided on the basis of internal composition,
but united as one filler on the basis of the structural unity of
its members and their function as members of a unit distribution-
subclass.

Parentheses ( ) are used to mark the internal structure of a Phrase;
thus: +Phrase(+Filler +Filler).

The arrow indicates that one of the fillers of a Phrase
has been removed to another position. The arrow indicates that the two fillers are optional, but if one occurs,
the other one must occur as well. The arrow indicates
that either of the two fillers occurs but not both in the same
time.

The following abbreviations are used:

A - Accompaniment; Act - Active; Adj - Adjective; Adv - Adverb;
Aff - Affirmative; Ag - Agent; Ap - Appositive; Art - Article; Aux -
Auxiliary; Ax - Axis; B - Benefactor; C - Cause; c - count; Cl -
Clause; Co - Complement; Com - Common; Comp - Comparative; Compd -
Compound; CompX - Complex; Coord - Coordinate; D - Direct; Db -
Double; Decl - Declarative; Def - Definite; DeFe - Defective; Del -
Delimiter; Dem - Demonstrative; Dep - Dependent; Det - Determiner;
Eq - Equational; Equal - Equality; F - Frequency; Fall - Falling; H -
Head; I - Instrument; I - Indirect; Imp - Imperative; In - Intonation;
Indef - Indefinite; Indet - Indeterminate; Inf - Infinitive; Infer -
 Inferior; Info - Information; Intens - Intensifier; Inter - Interro-
ogative; Introd - Introducer; L - Location; M - Manner; m - mass;
Ma j - Major; Mo - Modal; Mod - Modifier; N - Noun; Neg - Negative;
Nu - Numeral; O - Object; Ord - Ordinal; P - Purpose; Part - Parti-
ciple; Pas - Passive; Pcle - Particle; Pers - Personal; Phr - Phrase;
Pl or pl - Plural; Pn - Pronoun; Pos - Possessive; PostMod - Post-
Modifier; Pr - Predicate; Prec - Preciser; Predet - Pre-Determiner;
Prep - Preposition; Prop - Proper; Quant - Quantitative; Refl - Re-
flexive; Rel - Relative, Relator; Resp - Response; Result - Result-
ative; S - Subject; Sg - Single; Sim - Simple; sing - singular; St -
Stative; Subjunct - Subjunctive; Subst - Substitute; Sup - Super-
lative; Supp - Suppositional; T - Time; t - tense; Tr - Transitive;
V - Verb; X - Extra.