ABSTRACT FOR A THESIS ON
A COMPARISON OF SLOTFILLING IN
ENGLISH, FRENCH, GERMAN, AND SLOVAK
KERNEL SENTENCES

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There are no other effective ways to understand the nature of any sentence pattern in any language other than to perceive what is meant by the nature of slotfilling. In a particular language, a further understanding of the system of slotfilling—the word-order—is achieved by comparison of two or more languages through their particular grouping of words.

There are slots to the left and to the right of the simple subject. There are slots to the left and to the right of the verb—as a single word—in any sentence pattern of the nature of a basic or kernel sentence.

These slots—or positions—reveal what can be understood as syntax in a basic sentence. When a total arrangement of slots is revealed, a keen understanding of the way the mind works in revelation through language and its representation(s) often results.

These slots from left to right in a sentence reveal for nearly all cases predeterminers, determiners, post-determiners, adjectivals, nounals, the simple subject,
the adverb, the prepositional phrase, the modals, have+en, be+ing, the verb, the verb completer, and concluding adverbials.

It is probable that individuals possess a potentially higher vocabulary which is revealed when slotfilling is known or used. When the slots in the sentence and their natures are demonstrated as to their mutual sequence, the vocabulary items are made plain and readily used.

Parts of speech in slotfilling, with the exception of the unique (N-1)—or the pure nounal slot—operate by function rather than by structure. A detailed consideration of the functions of each slot and its fillers is the central descriptive focus of this thesis. Since a language as such is different and unique from language in general, it is not surprising that there will be distinctions among certain languages; there will also be similarities. The comparing and contrasting among the different languages will relate to those within the writer's experience: English, French, German, and Slovak.

Missing from slotfilling consideration are certain adjective(al) subslots. Not enough research has been done with adjectives referring to the senses and to direction. However, seven of the main subclasses are considered in the
thesis. Again, the thesis is essentially descriptive, although certain interpretations must be invited from the data.

Among the interpretations invited are speculations as to why different languages do vary as to position before and after the noun and verb, and as to why adjectives and adverbs do differ with regard to their own sequence.

It must be assumed that the order of the slots and the nature of the slots and their subslots must ultimately be viewed as reflecting the nature of thinking, feeling, and sensing for each language. Comparative analyses and syntheses are valuable in that much cognitive value comes from the learning in terms of elements which are both similar and dissimilar.
Accepted by the faculty of the School of Humanities, Morehead State University, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Master of Arts Degree.

[Signature]
Director of Thesis

Master's Committee: [Signature], Chairman

[Signature]

April 17, 1976
A COMPARISON OF SLOTFILLING IN
ENGLISH, FRENCH, GERMAN, AND SLOVAK KERNEL SENTENCES

A THESIS
Presented to
the Faculty of the Graduate School
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In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts

by
Anna Magura
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CHAPTER I
NATURE OF SLOTFILLING

To communicate, to express oneself, or to commune in oneself is done in human existence by means of the ability to utter words, by the ability of "la parole" (the term coined by de Saussure, the Swiss linguist). These words are grouped in certain ways familiar to a group of people, living in a family, a community, or a nation. The individuals' interrelative understanding is brought about by the language they speak and understand.

As grammars of languages point out, the main means of mutual understanding among people is carried in and by a smallest logical communicative structure--the sentence. A sentence "then" is a major and highly important unit of the ability to utter words of the speech. A sentence consists of an orderly-arranged sequence of words, or word order. The elements in a sentence, words carrying the meaning in them necessary for communication, are grouped in such a way that their communicative strength and value are dynamic and clear.

Because of the necessity of general order and accepted mutual pattern in speech, the observance of word order prompts us to consider the importance of "slotfilling" in a sentence: slotfilling means filling places in the
English sentence to the right of the simple subject and to the left of the simple subject, and to the right of the verb and to the left of the verb.

The most significant approaches to the relation of sentence parts to one another and to the whole of expressed ideas and to the communicative function and value of the sentence and to its nature are those which show the nature of slotfilling and the operation of slotfilling.

Additional insight into the sphere of word order, or slotfilling, and into the nature of the sentence structure is brought about by revealing how different languages operate through slotfilling. Do difference in positions of the sentence elements have an impact on their communicative strength and clearness?

Surely the slotfilling as such opens the door to speculation about reasons for the existence of various word modifiers that fill, mandatorily or optionally, slots in a sentence and then add new information to the meaning carried by the sentence. We touch here this part of grammar that is called "syntax" because slotfilling is primarily a matter of syntax. Syntax, or word order, is a masterful combination of language's phonetical and morphological resources. It is of utmost importance in rhetorics and literature of the language. Syntax also represents the grammatically-correct arranging of sentence slots in any given language. By
"grammatically-correct arranging of words", we mean the identifiable relationship of structural signs in an utterance that constitutes a meaningful communication, such as:

My school is new.
Every state elects its representatives.
The rose in the vase looks lovely.
Some birds fly south.

These structural signs, traditionally called "parts of speech", occupy particular slots in a sentence. They constitute a system which will be examined in this thesis from the point of view of their syntactic functions and especially in terms of the places of the slots to the left and to the right of the noun, and to the left and the right of the verb. H. A. Gleason indicates the word order as being "...the most fundamental of structural markers. Yet it is one which is easily overlooked and minimized."¹

For example, in English the element that is to function as a subject is placed before the element functioning as a predicative verb, which precedes the element that is to function as an object. The fourth place in a simple sentence belongs generally to the element functioning as an optional adverb. Where some work has been done in the area of distributing words in a sentence--slotfilling--reference is made to it in this opening chapter.

Work Done in the Field

An effort is being made in this thesis to compare and contrast the four languages—English, French, German, and Slovak—in their characteristic way of structuring the simple sentences by slots in them. Linguistic work of this kind has been carried on from the late nineteenth-century Europe to the recent times. European linguists are now joined by American linguists (H. A. Gleason, Owen Thomas, Charles Fries, Paul Roberts, W. Nelson Francis, and Archibald A. Hill). The comparative linguistic attempts stress description and comparison of phonetics, morphology, and grammatical structure of languages. At first, the field was examined with respect to historical development of languages and to changes that occurred in them through the centuries.

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2H. A. Gleason, *op. cit.*


Research led to the discovery of the common ancestral language—Sanskrit. Greek, Latin, Old Germanic, and Old Slavic tongues developed from Sanskrit and live today in phonetically, morphologically, and structurally-altered form. They are spoken in nearly all of Europe, India, and Southwestern Asia; therefore, their unwritten parent tongue is called "Indo-European". Greek and Latin are among the first languages that had been preserved in their "standard" written form that differed greatly from the "vulgar" language which had been used freely by non-educated people of the time. The "standard-written form" mentioned here is for the purpose of illustrating that kind of linguistical "descriptive" and "prescriptive" work which existed for centuries, starting with the Sanskrit Grammar written in the fourth century B.C.

Grammarians thus describe the condition of the written word. So to speak, they prescribe the correct usage of the language, even though the spoken language of the masses in the country may differ considerably from the written language. Thus, grammarians observe the written word because, as Mario Pei says in his Story of the Language, "...the written word, remaining as a permanent record, is worthy of greater consideration than the fleeting spoken word."\(^8\) Consequently, there must be no objection to writing

grammars of any existing language because an authoritative and common norm guide and a generally-accepted law in a language must exist for unified mutual understandability and intelligibility.

Another reason for the grammars is to offer a learner of an unknown language a reliable and generally-accepted source for acquiring it. The experience of learning a foreign language leads us to believe that it is quite natural to seek existing grammars and to compare through them the two languages—one's own and the one to be learned.

There is at least one strong indication in recent times that comparison and contrasting of different tongues are being done as an unconscious human wish to communicate with and to understand all mankind. Can man discover one common language "inter-language" by narrowing and by eradicating differences among them to construct what Pei calls a "democratic, all-embracing tongue that will be favored by the world masses?"\(^9\)

Whatever the reasons, languages are being compared. The comparison is done as a description of constructional patterns in the language as practiced by linguists of several European linguistic schools (Prague School and Copenhagen School) and by American structuralists

\(^9\)Pei, *op. cit.*, p. 424.
The most valuable work closely related to the nature of this thesis is done by the linguists of the "Prague School".

The periodical, *Brno Studies in English*, (Volume Four, Praha, 1964) carries an article of Eva Dvořáková called "On the English and Czech Situational Adverbs in Functional Sentence Perspective"; and in the same periodical (Volume One, Praha, 1959) Jan Firbas handles comparatively the verb in "Thoughts on Comparative Function of the Verb in English, German, and Czech". Vilém Mathesius of the same school originated study of comparative word order in his "Ze srovnávacích studií slovosledných". These articles point out very distinctly that word order as such has


11Fries, op. cit.

12Roberts, op. cit.


has strong influence on the communicative dynamism of the sentence. Consulted also were the Bibliography of Contrastive Linguistics, MLA International Bibliography, Grammatical Structures of English and Spanish, of English and French, of English and German, edited by the Center of Applied Linguistics in Washington, D.C.

The evidence of comparing and contrasting structure of languages points mainly to European linguists' analyzing predominantly the three linguistic branches of the Indo-European parent tongue. H. A. Gleason in his Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics describes work done in contrastive linguistics. He also touches on the significance of existing variables of word order and position of sentence constituents. American linguists such as Noam Chomsky, (Syntactic Structures); Charles Fries, (The Structure of English); Paul Roberts, (Patterns of English); Archibald Hill, (Introduction to Linguistic Structures); Leonard Bloomfield, (Language); and others) analyze the English language structurally, whereas European scientists often compare English with the modern European languages and try to answer the question of the variety of word grouping in a certain way.

In this thesis, then, the attempt is being made to look into the nature of the slotfilling system of the English sentences and to compare English, French, German, and Slovak
"kernel" sentences (definition is below) with respect to mandatory or optional positions of their main constituents: subject-verb-direct object-(optional indirect object)-(optional adverbial).

After intensive and thorough investigation to discover the work of the exact nature of this thesis, the writer has discovered that comparison and contrast with respect to slotfilling in the kernel sentences of these four languages are not available in English or in any other language.

Purpose of the Thesis

This thesis, then, demonstrates the nature of slotfilling and shows slotfilling differences among languages such as English, French, German, and Slovak. The differences in filling sentence slots in these languages will be observed from the point of view of a kernel-non-emotive sentence (the sentences that do not express agitation, command, etc.), and not from the "transformational" point of view (explained on the next page).

A "kernel" sentence means—virtually in all languages—a sentence which cannot be broken down any further or farther as a communicative means and thus becomes a starting point of communication. Any variation from a kernel sentence as to order Nom + V + VC + (Adv) indicates a transformation.
For the purpose of this thesis the order for slotfilling will be such as to avoid the transformations of the negative, the interrogative, the compound or the complex transformations. The transformation of the sentence means as Robert B. Lees says:

"Now a sentence is regarded not simply as made up of various constituents, themselves in turn expansions of underlying phrase-type formatives, but it is viewed as "derived from" some other underlying sentence by a process guide different from expansion of phrase-types."\(^\text{16}\)

However, the adjective will be included in this thesis, as the position varies in different languages. The adjective exerts significant pressure in adding new information to the meaning of a sentence; thus it strengthens and accomplishes its desired communicative effectiveness. As well, certain adverbials in different slots will also appear in this treatment of slotfilling because the position of adverbs has strong influence on the communicative force of the sentence. Specifically, adverbs appearing at the beginning of it slow down the flow of communication; whereas positioned at the end, they basically strengthen it, adding new information which fact signifies the important function of the adverb positional value for communication. The purposes of this thesis are at this point nearly explicit.

Substantially, the purposes are to show what elements can constitute a sentence which contains at least a complete subject, a verb, a verb completer, and an optional adverbial in several languages, as compared with or contrasted to English sentences having those elements just indicated. The purposes contain mentioning the slots which may be filled in a sentence having the items indicated. Since English and some other languages are "strong" and to a considerable extent fixed as to the order or syntax, the nature of the order with respect to slots is detailed and discussed. The significance of the filling or not filling the slots will be commented upon with respect to English and the other languages detailed in this thesis.

The final purpose is that of providing comparison and contrast in some semantic detail among languages cited. There is no attempt made in this thesis to speculate on the reasons for differences of slotfilling, but merely to illustrate and observe the state of being in basic distribution of the sentence elements.

Definitions

We are interested primarily in grammatical function and coherence of words grouped in a sentence, filling slots which when properly arranged carry the meaningful communicative strength. Functions of slots are defined in
terms of the places to the left and to the right of a noun and to the left and right of a verb. Traditionally, we consider a sentence to be constructed from these two most important linguistic elements. The noun chosen for demonstrating slotfilling is that which represents the simple subject.

There are four other kinds of nouns: the direct-object noun, the indirect-object noun, the object of preposition noun, and the appositive noun: they are not discussed in this thesis. The reason they are not discussed in detail is that these nouns have the same comparable slots to their left and to their right. Further, the most significant slotfilling is that which indicates what can stand to the left and to the right of the simple subject. As one moves in filling slots to the left and/or to the right of the simple subject or of the verb, there are certain "slots" and places which are optional or obligatory as to their being subclasses for the content of each major slot. At this point, definitions for the statements made in this thesis are essential.

An English sentence is considered here to be a word or a group of words ending in the fade-out of the voice on a fade-fall or fade-rise basis. A word in English is defined as a morpheme or a group of phonemes carrying, in context, primary stress and having at least one vowel.
The four basic sentence patterns on which the slotfilling is based are set out for the purpose of this thesis. The four patterns predicated here are the "to be" pattern, the transitive pattern, and the whole-part (or copulative, or linking, or state-of-being) pattern, and the intransitive pattern.

"Nominal\textsuperscript{1}" is considered to stand for the subject of any sentence, a "verb completer" for the Vbe sentence pattern, or the "verb completer" for a whole-part, copulative, linking or state-of-being verb.

"Nominal\textsuperscript{2}" represents Pattern II or the direct object pattern. This pattern is found in the following subclasses: where the verb is a single word, where the verb has a preposition following the verb, and where this noun or nounal behaves as the indirect object.

"Nominal\textsuperscript{3}" represents the nounal of a sentence with a direct object where the nounal is an indirect object.

"Nominal\textsuperscript{4}" stands for the object of preposition.

"Nominal\textsuperscript{5}" stands for the appositive.

The "simple subject" is defined as that word or synthetized word cluster that is a noun or a word used as a noun. Parentheses ( ) indicate "optional". Lack of parentheses stand for "mandatory" or for "essential". Minus as "-" means "to the left of". Plus as "+" stands for "to the right of". Braces as "\{\}" indicate "take one and only one".
"Adjectival" stands for "used as an adjective".
"Adverbial" stands for "used as an adverb". Other essential terms must also be considered.
"Verb Completer" stands for that which must complete each verb in each of the four basic sentence patterns.
"Regular Determiner" stands for that which must come before each noun or nounal. To the left of the "Regular Determiner" are the "Preregular Determiners" and their slots. To the right of the "Regular Determiner" is the major slot and subslots for the "Postregular Determiners".

The Pattern I of the sentence has Nominal\textsuperscript{1} + Verb\textsubscript{be} + Verb Completer + (Adv.(ial)). The verb consists of eight forms: "be", "is", "am", "are", "was", "were", "been", and "being". The verb completer is called the "predicate". The predicate holds three options: Nominal\textsuperscript{1}, Adjective(ial), or Loc(ational).

The Pattern II has Nominal\textsuperscript{1} + V\textsubscript{t} + Verb Completer + (Adv.(ial)). There the Nominal\textsuperscript{2} is a direct object.

The Pattern III has Nominal\textsuperscript{1} + V\textsubscript{wp} (wp=whole-part), copulative, state-of-being, linking + Verb Completer + (Adv.(ial)). VC stands for Verb Completer, and Nom stands for Nominal.

The Pattern IV has Nom\textsuperscript{1} + V\textsubscript{1} + VC + (Adv.(ial)). In this pattern the VC is represented by "∅" - or null.
In a further arbitrary way, the following abbreviations or symbols represent terms used in slotfilling:

"SS" stands for Simple Subject.
"Art" stands for Article.
"Dem" stands for Demonstrative.
"Behart" stands for Behaving as an article.
"Poss" stands for Possessive.
"Gen" stands for Genitive.
"PrDet" stands for Preregular Determiners.
"RDet" stands for Regular Determiners.
"PstRDet" stands for Postregular Determiners.
"VP" stands for Verb Phrase.
"VM" stands for Verb Markers used in place of Verb helpers.
"Have+en" stands for the sign of the past participle and for "have", "has" and "had".
"Modals" stand for the following term content: may, can, shall, will, might, would, should, must, ought (to), need (to), dare (to), and do.
"Nounal" means all words used as nouns.
"Nominal" = nounal = noun.

These definitions, terms, and notations are those which indicate the treatment of slotfilling for this specific thesis.

Procedure

The thesis contains six chapters. The first chapter deals with explanations as they pertain to the nature of slotfilling, to a statement of work done in the field, to the purposes of the thesis, to definitions of terminology to be used in it, and to abbreviations of definitions, to terms and notations. Finally, the first chapter describes procedure to be followed in the work.

There are many slots in the sentence to be filled. Many elements can fill these slots. For the sake of
systematic progression, the four basic sentence patterns in English will serve as foundation to build for the discussion. The appropriately chosen English sentences are translated to French, German, and Slovak languages and difference among them as to their word order are commented upon. It is to be pointed out that all these other languages have the same kind of sentence patterns.

Chapter Two discusses the Pattern I sentence—Nom + Verb<sub>be</sub> + VC + (Adv.(ial)). The slot of the SS (simple subject), the slots to the left of it, and all eight forms of the verb "to be" are filled. Three optional positions of the predicate are also handled.

Chapter Three contains the slotfilling of the Pattern II sentence—Nom<sub>1</sub> + V<sub>t</sub> + VC + (Adv.(ial)). The slots to the right of the SS are filled; verb is used in all tenses (Tn); and, Nom<sub>2</sub> (direct object) is compared in the four languages.

Chapter Four analyzes and compares slotfilling of the Pattern III sentence—Nom<sub>1</sub> + V<sub>wp</sub>, copulative, state-of-being, linking + VC + (Adv.). In this chapter the adjective is especially handled because of its optional existence in a structure of a sentence. Also, as to the occupying slots in a sentence, languages differ greatly in placing adjectives before or after nouns, and after verbs as predicates.
Chapter Five discusses the Pattern IV sentence--Nom\textsuperscript{1} + \( V_1 \) + (Adv.(ial)). In this chapter, the adverb is given special treatment (as it is in all languages always optional) and affects especially the normal rhythm of expression and utterance of the sentence.

Chapter Six summarizes a final evaluation of the work in terms of value of the comparative analysis as to behavior in structuring simple sentences.
CHAPTER II
SLOTFILLING SYSTEM

Before we start comparing the possibilities of expansion of the basic or kernel sentences in the four languages, the plan of mandatory or optional arrangement of the modifiers must be presented. The plan is called the "slotfilling" system. It shows how the two main parts of the basic or standard or kernel sentence may be expanded or "transformed" by added nouns or nounals, adjectives or adjectivals, or adverbs or adverbials. The two main parts of the sentence are the noun phrase and the verb phrase as expressed by \#S#→ NP + VP. The core of the noun phrase is the simple subject which may be expressed by a nounal, adjectival, verbal, or adverbial. When modified by these words, the simple subject is called the complete subject (CS). The core of the verb phrase is the verb which also can be conveniently modified. We call these modifications or expansions of the main elements of the basic sentence "transformation". This kind of transformation means altering the position of words within the basic sentence; for example, moving an adverbial from the fourth position to the first one. It must be distinguished from the transformation that comes from using the negative, the interrogative, or the imperative. The transformation relevant to this thesis deals with enriching
sentence elements by other words in order to add more information to what we have initially.

The simple subject—that key term which indicates the very nature of the sentence—as SS becomes the complete subject when certain slots to its left and right are filled. The complete subject can go five slots to the left of SS and two slots to the right of SS.

The slotfilling system presented here is that of the English language, but one which basically applies to all four languages concerned. (The differences are in arranging the expanding words which are called by some linguists "determiners",\(^{17}\) "determinatives",\(^ {18}\) or simple modifiers.) We will refer to them as "determiners". Predeterminers are words standing before the regular determiner which is the article-definite or indéfinite—or postregular determiners standing after the regular determiner. (Their abbreviations are given in the first chapter.)

In the slotfilling system the slots to the left of the simple subject (SS) are these:

\[
\text{PreRD}et-(SS-5) \quad \text{RD}et-SS-4 \quad \text{PstRD}et-(SS-3) \quad \text{Adj}1-(SS-2) \\
\text{Pure N (SS-1)}
\]


\(^{18}\text{Hill, op. cit., p. 230.}\)
PreRDet-(SS-5)

all
only
both
just
even

RDet has five subslots:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SS-4 Ø</th>
<th>SS-4 Art</th>
<th>SS-4 Dem</th>
<th>SS-4 Gen or Poss</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ø</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>this</td>
<td>my</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>an</td>
<td>that</td>
<td>your</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the</td>
<td>these</td>
<td>our</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>those</td>
<td>his, her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>its, their</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>John's</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SS-4 Behart

any
every
each
some
several
many a
such a

Read: Behart=Behaving as article

PstRDet-(SS-3)

(SS-3 Ord) (SS-3 Ord) (SS-3 Int) (SS-3 C & S)

first one terribly more
second two pretty most
third many so fewer
next few too lesser
last
final

Read: C=Comparative, S=Superlative
### Adj1-(SS-2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(SS-2 Vb)</th>
<th>(SS-2 Value)</th>
<th>(SS-2 Age)</th>
<th>(SS-2 Size)</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sleeping</td>
<td>good</td>
<td>recent</td>
<td>large</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>screaming</td>
<td>cruel</td>
<td>young</td>
<td>small</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>written</td>
<td>lovely</td>
<td>ripe</td>
<td>enormous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lost</td>
<td>envious</td>
<td>modern</td>
<td>tiny</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>destroyed</td>
<td>just</td>
<td>ancient</td>
<td>macroscopic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>wonderful</td>
<td>mature</td>
<td>Gargantuan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(SS-2 Shape)</th>
<th>(SS-2 Color)</th>
<th>(SS-2 PrAdj)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>oblong</td>
<td>violet</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>triangular</td>
<td>yellow</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>square</td>
<td>greenish</td>
<td>Swiss</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>round</td>
<td>white</td>
<td>Kentuckian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spheric</td>
<td>brown</td>
<td>Slovak</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion of slot (SS-2) is included in the Chapter Four because the wealth of adjectives in the English sentence needs full discussion.

### (SS-1) Pure Noun

This slot is reserved for the "Pure Noun" or "genuine noun"\(^{19}\) which is a noun by structure and a noun by function: "tennis shoes", "stone wall", "leather belt", etc. and its place is immediately before a SS.

### SS--Simple Subject

The simple subject is a nominal stripped of its attributes. It need not be a noun by structure, but must

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\(^{19}\)Hill, *op. cit.*, p. 262.
be used as a noun and as a subject. The subject is an obligatory slotfiller. If no pure noun before the simple subject exists, the slot must be filled by the definite or indefinite article SS-4 Art or by $\emptyset$. In Slovak the slot of SS expressed by a pronoun must not be filled.

Slots to the right of the SS

(SS+1)-Adverbs

upwards
downstairs
off
underneath
around here

(SS+2)-Prepositional Phrase

near the forest
by the creek
around the corner
in the drawer

These two positions are optional. They are recursive: they can be run again.

The second of the main two parts of the sentence is the Verb Phrase. The verb phrase consists of the verb, its optional auxiliaries, a verb completer, and an optional adverb; furthermore, in the sentence of the order which has a subject, a verb, a verb completer, and an optional adverb, there must be tense which is not time but measurement of time. The Tense (abbr. Tn) indicated by the verb is the mandatory slotfiller.

Slots to the left of the verb-V

(V-3) Modals Auxiliaries

may
can
shall
will
must

might
could.
should
would
ought (to)

(V-2) Have+en

has
have
had

(Sign of the past participle)
(V-1) Being

be been vbe am being
is are
was were

V-Verbs

(V+1) Verb Completer

V\text{be} is completed by
a. Nominall
b. Adjectival
c. Location

(V+2)

V\text{t} is completed by
Nominal^2 - direct object

V\text{wp} or copulative or
state-of-being or
linking is completed by
Nominall, Adjectival, or
Location

Slots to the right of the verb-V

In the English, French, and German languages, if (V-3) is filled, it indicates the tense; if (V-2) is filled and not (V-3), then (V-2) indicates the tense; if (V-1) is filled, then it indicates the tense, not V; finally, the single verb is a sign of the tense. In Slovak all the verbs in all the tenses are so-called Sentence-Words\textsuperscript{20} indicating that subject and predicate form together one word. (Slovak: Som = I am, je suis, ich bin) Other signs of other tenses in Slovak will be discussed as the situation for the proper comparison arises.

\textsuperscript{20}Bloomfield, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 172.
In the process of actual slotfilling in the kernel sentences of English, French, German, and Slovak, Prague School's position that the word order depends on grammatical and functional importance and coherence of the sentence members, and that in English and to the certain degree in German, words are bound together following grammatical principle will be demonstrated; whereas, French and Slovak follow natural and somewhat free connection of the sentence constituents. This free connection depends on the expressive strength of the utterance as a whole. By "expressive strength" we mean that while the speaker has considerable liberty to exchange sentence members, he does it in order to stress this element and to bring into focus this element which he considers to be important for his communication. For example: Som matka, Matka som, Som dobrá matka, Dobrá matka som, Matka dobrá som = I am a mother, Mother I am, I am a good mother, A good mother am I, As a mother, I am good, respectively. Every one of these utterances is correct grammatically and usable in the Slovak language. It would seem that there can not be much evidence of any kind as to the behavior of elements in a kernel sentence, but even in such a simple grammatical construction, coherence of elements shows a reasonable pattern in determining differences among languages. Chomsky in *Syntactic Structures* notes that:
"When we apply only obligatory transformations in the generation of a given sentence, we call the resulting sentence a kernel sentence. Further investigation would show that in the phrase structure of the grammar we can also extract a skeleton of obligatory rules that must be applied whenever we reach them in the process of generating a sentence."21

The kernel sentence carries in itself basic signs of overall construction of any given language.

Our task in this Second Chapter is that of a contextual description and comparison of the word order in the kernel sentence of four languages: English, French, German, and Slovak. Described and compared will be Sentence Pattern I, containing V_{be} and a Predicate. This predicate must hold within itself at least one of the following options: a noun or nounal, an adjective or adjectival, or an adverb of location. These three verb completers in the Sentence Pattern I are called the Predicate Noun (or Nominative) because it is always in the Subjective-Nominative Case in all concerned languages, the Predicate Adjective which describes the subject but stands after the verb, and the Adverb or Adverbial, generally specifying position.

Sentence Pattern I--Nom^1 + V_{be} + VC + (Adv1) is examined in such a way that attention is focused first on the simple subject, then on the verb "to be", and,

21 Chomsky, op. cit., pp. 46-47.
finally on the verb completers.

All four languages have verb completers of the same kind:

a. Predicate Noun
b. Predicate Adjective
c. Adverb (usually denoting position)

**English Sentences- Pattern I-a.:**

1. I am a teacher.
   I was a teacher.
   I have been a teacher.
   I shall be a teacher.
   I can be a teacher.
   I am being a teacher.

2. You are a teacher. (You were, You have been, You had been, You will be, You are being, You can be)

3. He is a teacher. (He was, He has been, He had been, He will be, He is being, He can be)

4. We are teachers. (We were, We have been, We had been, We shall be, We can be, We are being)

5. You are teachers. (You were, You have been, You had been, You will be, You can be, You are being)

6. They are teachers. (They were, They have been, They had been, They will be, They can be, They are being)

The man is a teacher. The men are teachers.

**French Sentences- Pattern I-a.:**

1. Je suis instituteur.
   J'étais instituteur.
   J'ai été instituteur.
   J'avais été instituteur.
Je serai instituteur.
Je peux être instituteur.

2. Tu es instituteur. (Tu étais, Tu as été, Tu avais été, Tu seras, Tu peux être)

3. Il est instituteur. (Il était, Il a été, Il avait été, Il sera, Il peut être)

4. Nous sommes instituteurs. (Nous étions, Nous avons été, Nous avions été, Nous serons, Nous pouvons être)

5. Vous êtes instituteurs. (Vous étiez, Vous avez été, Vous aviez été, Vous serez, Vous pouvez être)

6. Ils sont instituteurs. (Ils étaient, Ils ont été, Ils avaient été, Ils seront, Ils peuvent être)

L'homme est instituteur. Les hommes sont instituteurs.

The slot before a predicate noun in French is Ø just the opposite of English. However, the rule applies only when nationality, profession, or religion of the subject is designated. The same rule goes for German. The verb phrase "I am being"—the English Progressive Present Tense cannot be expressed in French nor in German, and in Slovak by imperfective verb.

German Sentences Pattern I-a.:

1. Ich bin Lehrer.
   Ich war Lehrer.
   Ich bin Lehrer gewesen.
   Ich war Lehrer gewesen.
   Ich werde Lehrer sein.
   Ich kann Lehrer sein.
2. Du bist Lehrer. (Du warst, Du bist...gewesen, Du warst...Lehrer...gewesen, Du wirst...sein...Du kannst...sein)

3. Er ist Lehrer. (Er war, Er ist...gewesen, Er war...gewesen, Er wird...sein Er kann...sein)

4. Wir sind Lehrer. (Wir waren, Wir sind...gewesen, Wir waren...gewesen, Wir werden...sein, Wir können...sein)

5. Ihr seid Lehrer. (Ihr wart, Ihr seid...gewesen, Ihr wart...gewesen, Ihr werdet...sein, Ihr könnt...sein)

6. Sie sind Lehrer. (Sie waren, Sie sind...gewesen, Sie waren...gewesen, Sie werden...sein, Sie können...sein)

Der Mann ist Lehrer. Die Männer sind Lehrer.

In case of compound tenses in German where the past participle or the infinitive is required, these past participles and infinitives move to the end of the kernel sentences.

Slovak Sentences-Pattern I-a.:

1. (Ja) som učitel'.
   (Ja) som bol učiteľ. Bol som učiteľ.
   (Ja) som bol býval učiteľ. Bol som býval učiteľ.
   (Ja) budem učiteľ. Budem učiteľ.
   (Ja) môžem byť učiteľom. Môžem byť učiteľom.

2. (Ty) si učiteľ'.
   (Ty si bol-Bol si, Ty si bol býval-Bol si býval, Ty budeš-Budeš, Ty môžeš byť-Môžeš byť)

3. (On) je učiteľ'. Je učiteľ'.
4. (My) sme učitelia. Sme učitelia.
   (My sme boli-Boli sme, My sme boli bývali-Boli sme bývali, My budeme-Budeme, My môžeme byt-Môžeme byť)

5. (Vy) ste učitelia. Ste učitelia.
   (Vy ste boli-Boli ste, Vy ste boli bývali-Bývali ste, Vy budete-Budete, Vy môžete byť-Môžete byť)

6. (Oni) su učitelia. Su učitelia.
   (Oni boli-Boli, Oni boli bývali-Boli bývali, Oni budú-Budú, Oni môžu byť-Môžu byť)

   Muž je učitel. Mužovia sú učitelia.

At this point, three circumstances must be brought to attention:

a. Sentence-Word commented upon on p. 23...
b. When the modal is used in a Slovak sentence, the Predicate Nominative must become the Instrumental Case.
c. When the subject is a Pronoun, the word order changes, and the Sentence-Word is at the beginning of the utterance.

   (Ja som bol-Bol som, Ja som prisiel-Prisiel som-
    I came, I have come)

The Slovak language retained from the Indo-European the seven cases, as well as no obligatory definite or indefinite articles of any kind; its verbs do not require subject-pronouns, and have only one ending -l, -la (for masculine and feminine subject) for the past tense. In order to express action in the past or action that
happened before another past action, the role is given to prefixes and internal morphological changes in verbs. There are only two compound forms of the Slovak verb to indicate past tense:

1. Bgl som = I was, I have been
   Isiel som = I was going, Prišiel som = I have come, I came

2. Bol som byval = I had been
   Bol som prišiel = I had come

The future tense may be formed also with the help of an auxiliary, if the verb is imperfective: which means expressing continual or repeated action: Budem íst" = I will be going.

Moreover, the slot before the predicate noun may be filled by the adjective or by any other determiner accompanying a noun. Slotfilling of the noun phrase will appear at the end of this Second Chapter. However, when the adjective is present before the predicate noun, the slot for the article must be filled in French and in German, not in Slovak: I am a good teacher = Je suis un bon instituteur, Ich bin ein guter Lehrer, but: Som dobrý učitel.

English Sentences-Pattern I-b.:

1. I am sick
2. The boy is happy.

French:

1. Je suis malade.
2. Le garçon est heureux.
All four languages fill the slots of predicate adjective similarly: the slot before the predicate adjective may be filled only by the intensifier, or by the comparative and the superlative. The slot after the predicate adjective is optionally filled by an adverbial. The four languages behave in much the same way.

**English:**  
*Intensifier before the Predicate Adjective*  
1. I am very, terribly, pretty, so, too, quite, rather, a bit sick.  
2. The boy is very...sick.

**French:**  
1. Je suis très, terriblement, bien, si, assez, aussi, trop, plutôt, un peu malade.  
2. Le garçon est très...heureux.

**German:**  
1. Ich bin sehr, furchtbar, ziemlich, so, zu, ganz, ein wenig krank.  
2. Der Knabe ist sehr....glücklich.
German and Slovak prefer to place the adverb before the adjective: "Ich bin heute krank", "Som dnes chorý" =
"I am sick today". If there is a combination of the adverb and prepositional phrase in the sentence, the English and French place the adverb before the adjective and the prepositional phrase after it: "I am always sick in the car"; "Je suis toujours malade dans l'auto". German and Slovak handle the situation as follows: "Ich bin in dem Wagen immer krank"; "Som v aute vždy chorý". Slovak has still more liberty: "Som vždy v aute chorý"—time before place.

In the case of the compound tense, German places the past participle or the infinitive last in the sentence: "Ich bin in dem Wagen immer krank gewesen"—"Ich werde in dem Wagen immer krank sein".

Slots Completing the Subject

The subject in the sentence is that word or group of words that tell us what we are talking about that helps us to make an assertion. The subject represented by one word is the Simple Subject. This simple subject (SS) may be a noun or another part of speech; namely, the adjective, the pronoun, the verb, or the adverb.

The simple subject consists of a single word; occasionally it may have more than one word:
My children are away.
We must work very hard.
The guilty is found.
No is my answer.
My fifty-five are the best.
New York is a name of a large city.

Usually, the subject is represented by the noun.
The traditional definition of the noun is that it is a part of speech that stands for persons, places, things, ideas, events, and institutions. Another definition says that a noun is that word which is preceded by the article: "a", "an", in English; "le", "la", in French; "der", "die", "das", in German; and, Ø article in Slovak. This latter definition does not stand because the adjective also can have a determiner-article. Without making value-judgements of many existing noun definitions, we will accept the traditional one as it is so interpreted in grammars of languages with which we are concerned.

The simple subjects presented by nouns were already introduced at the beginning of this chapter. They were accompanied by the definite articles which have a function of Regular Determiners, which stand before the noun, and which are obligatory slotfillers in all compared languages except Slovak.

SS Represented by the Adjective

The definition of the adjective in the traditional way states that the adjective is a part of speech which
is joined to the noun in order to express its quality or to describe it. However, the adjective does not always have to be joined to the noun; it may itself take a function and also a form of the noun and, consequently, the function of the subject.

**English Sentences: Adjectives as SS**

1. (The) Clean is beautiful.
2. The guilty must be found.

**French:**

1. Le propre est beau.
2. Le coupable doit être trouvé.

**German:**

1. Das Saubere ist schön.
2. Der Schuldige muss gefunden werden.

**Slovak:**

1. Čisté je pekné.
2. Vinný musí byť najdený.

The four languages behave similarly in substituting the noun by the adjective as a SS. However, English, French, and German nominalize the used adjective.

**SS Expressed by the Pronoun**

The pronoun as a part of speech represents a noun or an adjective. It was presented at the beginning of
this Chapter functioning as a SS.

SS Expressed by the Verb

**English Sentences: Verb as SS**

1. Running is dangerous.
2. Cooking can be enjoyable.

**French:**

1. Courir est dangereux.
2. Cuisiner peut être amusant.

French has no Verbal Noun-Gerund as such used as a SS structurally; a Gerund is a present participle in English whose equivalent is found in other concerned languages. "Courir" and "cuisiner" are infinitives in function of a SS.

**German:**

1. Das Rennen ist gefährlich.
2. Das Kochen kann angenehm sein.

In German also the infinitive is in function of a SS. However, the infinitive is made into a noun by adding an article before it.

**Slovak:**

1. Behanie je nebezpečné.
2. Varenie môže byť príjemné.
"Behanie" and "Varenie" are verbal nouns and correspond to English gerunds.

SS Represented by an Adverb

The following example reveals the possibility of having an adverb as the subject before "to be". However, to make the adverb of any kind the subject is to have an awkward construction or a transformation. Strictly speaking, the "" about "yes" indicates transformation.

English:
1. "Yes" is an affirmative reply.

French:
1. "Oui" est une réplique affirmative.

German:
1. "Ja" ist eine bejahende Erwiderung.

Slovak:
1. "Áno" je kladná odpoved'.

The slots of the simple subject which is the main part of the noun phrase are at this point illustrated in all four languages. We will now proceed to furnish examples for the seven places modifying the simple subject and comment on the existing differences.
(SS-1) Slot Filled by a Noun

This slot in English is filled by a pure noun which is a noun by structure and by function. The (SS-1) pure noun slot is optional. The function of a pure noun is not that of an adjective because it does not describe, but rather expresses its relationship to the subject-noun in terms of "part of", "belongs to", and "is made of".

English Slot: (SS-1):
1. The city park is near the lake.
2. The glass door is open.

In the examples, "city" shows relationship; "belongs to" and "glass" means "is made of".

French:
1. Le parc de ville est près du lac.
2. La porte de verre est ouverte.

French does not fill the slot before the noun by a noun, but instead the noun follows the subject and is connected to it by the preposition "de" or "à". Grévisse calls it "Le complément déterminatif", and its function is that of expressing various relationships of the subject and its determiner which may correspond to different determiners in English:

"Mon idée à moi" = "My idea"  
"Un homme d'esprit" = "A witty man"  (SS-2)  
"La perte d'un ami" = "The loss of a friend"  (SS-4)  
"La chasse à tigre" = "Tiger hunt"  (SS-1)

**German:**

1. Der Stadtpark ist neben dem See.
2. Die Glastür ist offen.

The German (SS-1) is always a part of the subject, forming one compound word with it: "Das Glashaus" = "glass house"; "Der Silberfuchs" = "silver fox"; "Der Kirchturm" = "church steeple". As a consequence, this slot as such does not exist in German.

**Slovak (SS-1):**

1. Mestský park je pri jazere.
2. Sklenené dvere sú otvorené.

The Slovak (SS-1) is filled by the adjective which adjectives are set out in terms of "part of", "belongs to", "is part of":

"Mestský" = "belongs to the city"  
"Sklenené" = "is made of"

The English "stone pile" or "church steeple" is expressed in Slovak by way of the Genitive Partitive which means that something is "part" or "belongs to" something. The Genitive Partitive, a remnant from Latin, corresponds with the English prepositional phrase of "of + noun":
"Stone pile" = "hromada kamenov", "church steeple" = "veša kostola", where "kamenov" and "kostola" are genitives. In reality the French (SS-1) is also expressed by the genitive partitive: "Les tas de pierres" = "stone pile", and "Le clocher de l'église" = "church steeple".

German and English thus resolved and eliminated complicated questions of the genitive partitive, as well as very difficult decisions about the kinds of prepositions to be used in front.

Filling of the Slot SS-4

The Slot (SS-2) is left out at this time. We continue further with the completing places to the left of SS in order to show how it may be enriched by more modifiers or determiners.

In English, French, and German every nounal must have an obligatory determiner—SS-4, called the "regular determiner": it has five subclasses. Any of these five kinds must accompany the nounal.

The most important of them is the "article", which appears as a definite article or as an indefinite article: the definite is "the" and the indefinite is "a", and "an". Even though the articles perform only grammatical functions, the name "definite" suggests that as a determiner it limits or determines that the nounal is one grammatical
element, and not the other. It also refers to a specific item or items and can be used with so-called "count nouns" in English. Count nouns represent things we think of as being found in units that can be counted.

The indefinite article-determiner stands before the nounal meaning "any" or "one" - "anyone". If there is a $\emptyset$ determiner in English or in German, that means that the noun it modifies is a "mass" noun denoting things (materials, solids, gases, and abstracts). We think of these as not being found in separate units. They have to be measured rather than counted. Furthermore, the article stands for all the qualities that the noun or nounal may possess. It does not look at any specific quality. French and German use articles more than English. Slovak used none. There is, however, considerable differences in their usage; thus, it is impossible to exhaust all the details in this paper. English and French act differently especially in placing the articles before count nouns and mass nouns:

**French: Count Nouns**

Le femme est inconstante.
Des tables sont dans la salle de séjour.
L'homme est un être raisonnable.
Les jeunes sont gais.

**English: Count Nouns**

Woman is changeable.
Tables are in the living room.
Man is a thinking being.
Young people are joyful.
Water is cold.
Bread is good with meals.
I eat bread with every meal.
He drinks beer.

Before mass nouns, French uses the so-called "genitive partitive" with articles "de la" for the feminine gender, "du" for the masculine gender, and "des" for plural masculine and feminine. In a few instances, as before a predicate nominative, or in apposition, the article is omitted. In some fixed expressions such as "avoir raison", "sans souci", and "avec plaisir" articles are not employed. Unlike the case of English, some infinitives used as nouns have articles; proper nouns modified by adjectives use articles (le pauvre Jean = poor John); names of countries are preceded by articles also: (La Russie, L'Amérique, Le Canada, etc.). French prepositional phrases like "à l'école" = "in school", "pour le petit déjeuner" = "for breakfast", "dans la rue Saint Michel" = "on Saint Michel Street"; and, among others, French is more dependent on articles than English is.

Still more differences exist between the German and English languages in the usage of articles than in the case of French. For example, those of feminine gender (as a rule the names of countries are neuter in German), must
have an article, "in der Schweiz" = "in Switzerland", "aus den Niederlanden" = "from the Netherlands". If a modifier is present, an article must be used: "in dem schönen England" = "in beautiful England". Unlike English, the definite article is used with reference to the seasons, months of the year, and days of the week: "Der Frühling ist gekommen" = "Spring is here", "Am Samstag haben wir keine Schule" = "We have no school on Saturdays", "Im Juli", where am=an dem and im=in dem are contractions of the preposition and the definite article. In some cases in German the article is required, whereas in English it is not:

in der Schule = in school
in die Kirche = in (to) church
in der Friedrichstrasse = on Frederick Street
Das Mittagessen ist fertig. = Dinner is ready.
Das Leben ist kurz. = Life is short.
Der Mensch ist sterblich. = Man is mortal.
zum Beispiel = for example
zum Schluss = in conclusion
mit der Post = by mail
mit dem Wagen = by car
in der Nacht = at night (and so on.)

There may be no article in German, but there is one in English:

Sein Vater ist Arzt. = His father is a doctor.
Ich habe hundert Bücher. = I have a hundred books.

In German, the definite article is translated by the indefinite article "a" in English:
There is a lack of articles in Slovak. The definiteness or indefiniteness is expressed mainly by demonstratives. The comparison and contrasting of the subslots of SS-4 is discussed in the rest of the chapter.

Other regular determiners are demonstrative adjectives SS-4 Dem, genitives or possessives SS-4 Gen or Poss, and a few expressions behaving as articles SS-4 Behart. All of these regular determiners may replace the article. They are called by linguists "limiting" adjectives or "determinative" adjectives. They limit or determine the particular detail or relationship of the SS. The regular determiners are called "limiting" adjectives, because they cannot stand all by themselves. They must accompany the nounal or the adjectival functioning as SS. Some of them, however, must modify the singular nounal (a, an, each, every, this, that, etc.); some stand only before the plural (these, those, some, several); some stand before the singular or plural (the, all possessives and genitives). The members of SS-4 Behart are called in grammar also "indefinite adjectives", which are really pseudo-articles, as they do not permit another article to join them before the nounal or adjectival.

All the preregular, regular, and postregular determiners exist in all concerned languages, and all of them occupy...
the slots before the SS. Unlike English, all the three languages are inflectional: the determiners agree in number and gender with the nounals and adjectivals they modify. But their order in the sentence is similar to English. However, in Slovak the regular determiner SS-4 Behart behaves differently from the other three languages. It is classified in the Slovak grammar as an indefinite adjective and, compared to English, it enhances both the SS-4 Behart and the (SS-5) PreRDet elements.

The English SS-4 Behart "each", "every", "some", "several", "many a", "many", "few" translated to French are "chaque", "quelque", "plusieurs", respectively. In German they are expressed as "jeder", "derjenige", "einige", "mehrere", "mancher", "manche", "solcher", "wenige", and changing their endings according to the modified nounals. Slovak "každý", "nejaký", "dajaký", "mnohy", "níjaký", "niekoľkí", which are translations of the mentioned English SS-4 Behart, are in the same category as English (SS-5): "all", "only", "both", "just" = "všetok", "sám", "obidva", "len" (adverb) respectively.

**English SS-4 Dem**
 This house. That house. These houses. Those houses.

**French:**
German:

Slovak:
Ten (to) dom. Tamten dom. Té (to) domy. Tamtie domy.

English SS-4 Poss or Gen:
My child. (your, his, her, its, our, your, their, John's)

French:
Mon enfant. (ton, son, notre, votre, leur, de Jean)

German:
Mein Kind. (dein, sein, ihr, sein, unser, euer, ihr, Johanns)

Slovak:
Moje dieťa. (tvoje, jeho, jej, jeho, naše, vaše, ich, Jankove)

Genitives are English-John's, French-de Jean, German-Johanns, and Slovak-jeho, jej, jeho, ich, Jankove. Unlike the other three languages concerned, SS-4 Behart may stand in Slovak before SS-4 Dem or the SS-4 Poss or Gen.

One may say:
Nejaký ten človek. = (Literally) Any this man.
Každé moje dieťa. = Every my child.
Mnohí jeho priatelia. = Many his friends or Several his friends.

These English equivalencies are unnatural. In English and
in the other two languages the prepositional phrase must follow if SS-4 Dem or SS-4 Poss or Gen is to be placed after SS-4 Behart: "Any of these men", "Every child of mine", "Many of his friends", and "Several of his friends".

In French, it must be: Quelques de ces hommes. Chaque enfant à moi. Plusieurs de ses amis. Plusieurs d'entre ses amis.

In German: Einige von diesen Männern. Jedes von meinen Kindern. Manche von seinen Freunden. Mehrere von seinen Freunden. Thus we may say that the subslot SS-4 Behart does not figure in the Slovak language, but is inserted into the category of (SS-5) PreRDet.

Preregular Determiners (SS-5)

The fifth place before the nounal is taken optionally by expressions like "all", "only", "both", "just", "even", and so on.

**French:** "tout", "seul", "les deux", "juste(ment)", "même".

**German:** "all", "selbst", "die beiden", "gerade", "genau".

**Slovak:** "všetok", "sám", "oba", "práve", "celkom".

**English:** All my money. Only the richest. Both these students.

**French:** Tout mon argent. Seuls les plus riches. Les deux de ces étudiants.

**Slovak:** Všetky moje peniaze. Len najbohatší ľudia. Len tí dvaja študenti.
German: All mein Geld. Selbst die Reichsten. Beide diese Studenten.

Postregular Determiners (SS-3)

The postregular determiners have four subclasses: ordinals, cardinals, intensifiers, and comparatives and superlatives. We are not compelled to use these four slots; they are optional. If we do, they are in the order designated, and their sequence is very rigid. We may use more than one of them in the third slot to the left of the nounal. They also may not be the same part of speech; some of them are adjectives; some of them are pronouns; and some are adverbs: "at least" is a noun. (Their division is presented at the beginning of the Chapter II.)

The following examples are constructed in such a way that they include all five kinds of determiners that may stand before the nounal (SS). A few descriptive adjectives are used also in order to illustrate the use of intensifiers and comparatives and superlatives in all four languages:

English Sentences:

1. Only every fourth house is red.
2. Just these first few apples are a bit tasty.
3. The final two very long chapters are much more interesting.
4. The two quite studious boys are the best students.
5. All the very important books are on these several shelves.
6. My fifteenth rather enjoyable birthday was most successful.
7. Only my best students will be praised.
8. Only the most savage animals must be in the strongest cages.
French Sentences: (Translated from English)

1. Seule la quatrième maison est rouge.
2. Justement ces quelques premières pommes sont un peu moins savoureuses.
3. Les deux derniers, très longs chapitres sont beaucoup plus intéressants.
4. Les deux garçons bien diligents sont les meilleurs étudiants.
5. Tous les livres de grand importance (or qui sont très importants) sont posés sur ces plusieurs étagères.
6. Mon quinzième, très aimable anniversaire était le mieux réussi.
7. Seuls mes meilleurs étudiants seront loués.
8. Seuls les animaux les plus sauvages doivent rester dans les cages les plus fortes.

From these very few examples, we see that French does not combine several determiners in front of the SS; this fact refers to the descriptive adjective that in French generally follows the nounal that it modifies. Furthermore, in French, the (SS-3 C & S) "more", "most", "fewer", "much", can be attached to the nounal by the preposition "de":

Plus de lait. La plupart des gens. Moins d'étudiants.

German or Slovak has no connective preposition like that of the Genitive Partitive: Mehr Milch. Die meisten Leute. Wenigere Studenten. Viel Mut.

"studentov", "odvahy" are Genitive Partitives, but are denoted by the genitive ending, not by the preposition.

**German Sentences:** (Translated from English)

1. Selbst jedes vierte Haus ist rot.
2. Gerade diese ersten wenige Apfel sind ein wenig schmackhaft.
3. Die letzten zwei, sehr langen Kapitel sind viel begreiflicher.
4. Die zwei, ganz fleissigen Knaben sind die besten Studenten.
5. Alle sehr wichtigen Bücher befinden sich auf diesen mehreren (einzelnem) Regalen.
6. Mein fünfzehnter, ziemlich angenehmer Geburtstag war am glücklichsten.
8. Allein die wildesten Tiere müssen in den stärksten Käfigen sein.

German places all determiners before the SS, allowing for some grammatical inflectional endings.

**Slovak Sentences:** (Translated from English)

1. Len každý štvrtý dom je červený.
2. Práve len tie prvé niekoľko jablka sú troška chutné.
3. Posledné dva, veľmi dlhé odstavce sú omnoho zaujímavejšie.
4. Dvaja celkom usilovní chlapci sú najlepší študenti.
5. Všetky veľmi dôležité knihy sú na tých niekoľkých poličkach.
8. Len najdivokejšie zvieratá musí byť v najsilnejších klietkach.

Slovak has no difficulty and no complication in placing all the possible determiners before the SS. All comparatives are formed in Slovak by the suffix -ší, -šia, -šie, and superlatives by the prefix naj-, added to the comparative
Some exceptions refer to a few adjectives such as "dobrý", "zlý", "malý", "velký" = "good", "bad", "small", "big" respectively. These adjectives are irregularly formed in their comparative and superlative degrees in all Indo-European languages.
CHAPTER III
VERBS IN SLOTFILLING

In the second chapter we have completed demonstrations as to how the four languages are similar, or as to how they have differences in case the SS is expanded by the preregular determiners, regular determiners, and postregular determiners. The SS may be further modified by the adverb which fills the place directly to the right of the SS: (SS+1). The second place to the right of the SS is filled by the prepositional phrase, and its sign is (SS+2). Both of these places are filled optionally. (The adverb--the filler of the first position after the SS--is discussed in the fifth chapter of this thesis).

The second place is occupied by the prepositional phrase, a word cluster containing a preposition and a nounal. The phrase so constructed may express time-when; place-where; manner-how; and cause-why the actor--SS acted. Prepositions are parts of speech that are so structured as to stand before the nounals to create the situations just indicated. But not all the words that have morphological structure similar to that of prepositions are actually carrying a function of prepositions: for example, in the sentence "He brought in the child"--the word "in" is an adverb and a part of the transitive verb of the Sentence Pattern II--subject + verb + direct object + optional adverb. The following
transformation of the sentence helps to prove the point:
"He brought in the child, but not He brought in or He
brought the child".

Prepositions are numerous in all our four languages
because they seem to be easier to use than the historical
inflections that existed in the old languages. Unlike
English and French, German and Slovak still keep and observe
endings in the cases that prepositions govern, thus forming
the prepositional phrases which may be used to modify the
SS.

It is not necessary to fill the two slots to the right
of the SS already mentioned--(SS+1) (adverb) and (SS+2)
(prepositional phrase). They may be alternated and
repeated because the adverbs and adverbials (prepositional
phrases) have in all four languages an almost unlimited
freedom of movement. They may be also accumulated, and
only consideration for style and comprehension hinder such
a piling-up as in: "The man down there in a car by the bank
on the corner."

**In French** it looks thus: L'homme là-bas, dans l'auto,
prés de la banque au coin de
la rue.

**In German:** Der Mann da drüben in dem Wagen,
neben der Bank an der Ecke.
In Slovak:
Ten chlap tam v aute pri banke na rohu ulice.

The ambiguity and confusion of meaning of the sentence are apparent when it is translated from one language to another one. Such a sentence may be grammatical, but surely is unnatural in every language. Compare the situation of these two slots in a more acceptable and natural way:

**English:** My friend upstairs in the room...
The trees here by the river...

**French:** Mon ami en haut dans la chambre...
Les arbres ici près de la rivière...

**German:** Mein Freund oben in dem Zimmer...
Die Bäume hier neben dem Fluss...

**Slovak:** Moj priatel hore v izbe...
Stromy tu pri rieke...

All four languages fill the two slots in the same manner. These two slots may be left out altogether.

We are now at the point of having completed the possible expansion or modification of the SS to the left of it by filling five places from which only one SS-4 RDet article is mandatory. We have shown that the two places to the right of the SS may be filled also. Such a process of modification of the nounal tends to bring knowledge about some fact or circumstance in which the subject may find itself. The range of this information as we move adding or selecting modifiers from the left to right or closer to the subject makes the subject more and more specific.
Filling Slots of the Verb Phrase

The verb is defined in a traditional way as a part of speech which expresses action, state of being, or condition of the subject, or it unites the attribute with the subject. The verb thus accompanied by its auxiliaries and its completers forms a "verb phrase". The verb phrase is all that is not the complete subject; it may be called "predicate" or "verb cluster". The first visible part of the verb phrase is the verb and its auxiliaries or verb markers which are to the left of the main verb itself. This verb which we mark "V" must indicate the tense (Tn). Tense is not time, but tense designates the location of action or state of action as taking place in the present, past, or future. Jespersen says:

"It is important to keep the two concepts time and tense strictly apart. The former is common to all mankind and is independent in language; the latter varies from language to language and is the linguistic expression of time-relations, so far as these are indicated in verb forms." 23

Specifying tense by some markers occurs just after the completion of the complete subject and just with the beginning of the verb phrase. The tense slot is obligatory in the sentence and is indicated by the first part of the verb phrase standing immediately after the complete subject-to its right.

The verb which is the core of the verb phrase may have three subslots standing to the left of it: (V-3), (V-2), and (V-1). The leftmost slot for the verb is filled by modals that may indicate the present tense (clock-time) as "may", "can", "will", and "shall". The indicators of the past tense are "might", "could", "would", and "should". The other modals are "must", "need (to)", "ought (to)", and "have to"; all of them imply not only tense, but also ability, possibility, permission, and necessity, respectively.

The second slot (V-2) with three markers "has", "had", and "have", is designated as (have + en), or the sign of the past participle. This slot is reserved to form two compound past tenses that are a grammatical instrument to mark time-relation of two actions in the past. The present perfect tense is a compound from the auxiliary followed by the past participle to express an action that started at some point in the past and has moved up to present time. The past perfect contains the auxiliary "had" and past participle and expresses the action completed before another action in the past. The third slot before the verb is marked (V-1) or (be + ing), and here we are at the point of the present participle. This slot is filled by the words: "am", "is", "are", "was", "be", "were", "been", and "being". The slot of the main verb is obligatory. In the sentence
scheme, we mark it "V". So far we have shown that the obligatory slots in the sentence are SS-4 Art or $\emptyset + SS + V$. But the verb must have a completer even if it is a $\emptyset$. Null--$\emptyset$--indicates that the position is not visibly filled, that there is nothing, a void. However, it also carries the meaning: "that nothing needs to be there; all is complete for that time and place". Thus, the tabular statement of the sentence arrangement is SS-4 Art or $\emptyset + SS + V + VC$ or $\emptyset$.

The preceding informative introduction brings us to comparison of the Sentence Pattern II in the four languages. This pattern is set up as SS + V + VC. "VC" here stands for direct object. "V" stands for the transitive verb.

There are three aspects of the transitive verb:

1. direct object standing after the verb—one word
2. direct object after a verb + preposition
   (called "particle" by Roberts in English Syntax)\(^{24}\)
3. direct object after a verb

Our task presently is to bring into focus the use of the verb—transitive verb—and its behavior and position in the basic sentence in the four languages concerned. The verb stands in English between its subject and its complement—in this case the direct object. In the other three languages, it generally stands also medially. This transitive verb

\(^{24}\)Roberts, *op. cit.*, p. 163.
consisting of only one word must carry the tense. Its completer is a nounal or nominal (Nom\(^2\)) and is in the accusative or objective case. Grévisse calls this verb "le verb transitif direct"\(^{25}\) because it expresses the action coming out of the subject and passing directly to the object without any preposition connection.

Slots of "V" and (V+1) in the Present

**English:**
1. I see the house.
2. You buy the hat.
3. He, she, it eats breakfast.
4. We read a book.
5. You write the letter.
6. They prepare a speech.
7. Parents protect their children.

These simple sentences in the present tense are so constructed as to show differences in verb endings from these in English, as we will translate and compare them with the other three languages. Present tense expresses "...a point without dimension..." in words of Jespersen.\(^{26}\)

**French:**
1. Je vois la maison.
2. Tu achètes le chapeau.
3. Il, Elle mange le petit déjeuner.
4. Nous lisons un livre.
5. Vous écrivez une lettre.
6. Ils, Elles préparent le discours.
7. Les parents protègent leurs enfants.

\(^{25}\)Grévisse, *op. cit.*, p. 524.

German:

1. Ich sehe das Haus.
3. Er, sie, es ist das Frühstück.
4. Wir lesen ein Buch.
5. Ihr schreibt einen Brief.
7. Die Eltern schützen ihre Kinder.

German indicates the objective case (accusative case) by endings that distinguish the gender and number of the nounal.

Slovak:

1. Vidím dom.
2. Kupuješ klobúk.
3. Je raňajky.
5. Píšete list.
6. Pripravujú reč.
7. Rodičia chrania svoje deti.

As was already mentioned before, Slovak must not express the pronoun-subject. The direct object has accusative endings and occupies the place immediately after the verb.

The slot of the direct object standing next to the predicator to its right and denoted by (V+1) has the same position in all four languages. Moreover, structurally it is always a nounal and as such may be expanded and modified in order to amplify its meaning. German and Slovak have considerable freedom in transforming these sentences by transposition. For example, in the utterance "Der Mann sieht das Haus", a German may say "Das Haus sieht der Mann" and a Slovak "Dom vidí muž", but an American can not say
"The house sees the man" or a Frenchman can not say "La maison voit le monsieur".

Slots of "V" and (V+1) in the Simple Past

The simple past tense indicates the completion of the act performed in the past without any connection with the present or with the before-past. The verb that designates such an action consists of a simple word except in Slovak where the simple past can be expressed two ways: The simple form follows the noun subject, and the compound form follows the pronominal subject. Further, if the pronominal subject is absent, the compound form is inverted. The direct objects follow the verb.

English:
1. I saw the house--Je vis la maison--Ich sah das Haus--Videl som dom or Ja som videl dom (inverted compound form)
2. My friend bought several shirts--Mon ami acheta plusieurs chemises--Mein Freund kaufte mehrere Hemde--Môj priateľ kúpil viaceré košeľe.

Again transposition can be achieved with considerable freedom in German and Slovak.

Slots of "V" and (V+1) in the Future Tense

The future tense expresses an action performed in the future or we may say, it expresses the posteriority of an
action with relation to the moment of the subject speaking. In English, German, and in some instances in Slovak, the future tense is formed from the auxiliary and an infinitive form of the main verb. The French retained the one-form Latin-like future tense. English future tense consists of the modals "shall" or "will" plus an infinitive, and the usage of these two modals causes much controversy in American English. The standard language prescribes "shall" for the first person and "will" for the others. Colloquial American English uses mainly "I'll"; from that expression it can not be inferred which one is used. Through centuries, though, English and German had been affected by the analytical process in the long development; these two languages formed the future tense by more convenient descriptive forms in order to convey an intended action.

The German future tense is also a verb phrase consisting of the helper verb "werden" plus an infinitive. The meaning of the verb "werden" suggests change from the present state to another one in the future: for example, "Aus ihm wird nichts." = "He will not amount to much." "Wird's bald?" = "Will it soon be ready?" or "Es wird Zeit." = "It will soon be time."

The Slovak future tense has a compound form if the imperfective verb is in question as "Budem písat" = "I shall
write", but the perfective verb forms the future only using one word as "Napíšem" = "I shall write (and finish writing)." The helping verb "budem" is in reality the future tense form of the verb "to be", "I shall be". Thus we may assume that the imperfective Slovak "Budem-píšat" corresponds with the English, "I shall be writing", rather than "I shall write."

Only the French retained the Latin way of forming the future tense by one one word construction; but, in reality, even the French future tense is historically a contraction of Latin "habere" + infinitive. Thus "cantare + habeo" (present indicative of habere) = "I have to sing" changed into "cantare + aio (-ai)" fused in the pre-literary period into "chanterai". However, the Slovak seemingly one-word future tense is also a compound of a prefix + verb: "napíšem" = na + píšem.

Thus far we have come to the conclusion that the scheme of the declarative affirmative English sentence in the future tense is (V-3) + V + V+1 (direct object); German is (V-1) + V+1 + V; Slovak is (V-1) + V + V+1; and French is V + V+1. But there are still some peculiarities among these four languages as compared to one another in word order of the future tense:
English:

1. I shall see you. I shall see the student.
2. You will see me.
3. Father will buy a suit.

French:

2. Tu me verras.
3. La père achètera un complet.

French is contrasted with English in that it transposes the pronominal direct object placing it before the verb.

German:

1. Ich werde dich sehen. Ich werde den Studenten sehen.
2. Du wirst mich sehen.
3. Der Vater wird einen Anzug kaufen.

German places the direct object between the auxiliary and the infinitive. The infinitive, however, moves to the end of the utterance, no matter how many words may modify the direct object.

Slovak:

2. Budeš ma vidieť.
3. Otec kúpi oblek.

Slovak also places the pronominal object between the auxiliary and infinitive, but not before the nominal. In case of the perfective future tense, the pronominal direct object stands before the verb, if the subject is expressed: "Ja ťa
uvidím" = "I shall see you." The same happens if the verb is imperfective and the subject is present: "Ja ťa budem sprevádzat", "Matka ťa bude sprevádzat" = "I shall accompany you", "Mother will accompany you" respectively.

Filling (V-1) Slot

In the English declarative affirmative sentence, all forms of the helping verb "to be" may stand nearest to the verb. This slot is "unique", because it expresses the stretch in time of a represented action by having a form of a verb phrase \( V_{be} \) + present participle. We call this verb phrase "unique" as it enriches the English language in precise and subtle description of an action that may be in progress or in continuation. This kind of "present progressive" or "past progressive" does not exist in any of the languages concerned. Slovak approaches this state in denoting distinction of actions as continuing or as being in progress by its imperfective forms of verbs. The French imperfect tense expresses a continual, repeated action in the past. German has no such tense. In order to express the continual, the habitual, or action in progress, German uses a number of appropriate adverbials: for example, German "Ich sage das schon lange" = "I have been saying that for a long time". (In German present tense, in English present perfect) "Wir machen eine Reise nach Deutschland nächstes
Jahr" = "We will be travelling (or will travel, shall travel) next year to Germany"... Thus the slot (V-1) can not be filled in the other three languages.

(V-2) Slot

The (V-2) slot is filled in English by the present tense of the helping verb "to have" and, followed by the past participle of the verb carrying meaning, forms a verb phrase. Such a verbal phrase is grammatically called "present perfect tense" to which name some grammarians object.\(^2\) This phrase reports an action that has occurred before the present time but one which may still continue up to the moment of speaking. The scheme of the simple sentence having such a verbal phrase (V-2) + V (have+en) + V+1 (d.o.).

English examples number among them:

1. I have washed this dog of mine.
2. Storm has destroyed many trees.
3. We have stopped him in front of the school.

French:

1. J'ai lavé ce chien à moi.
2. L'orage a détruit beaucoup d'arbres.
3. Nous l'avons arrêté en face de l'école.

French transposes the pronominal object before the helping

verb. The scheme of the French sentence is NP + V+1
(pronominal d.o.) + (V-2) + V (have+en) + (advl).

German:
1. Ich habe diesen Hund von mir gewaschen.
2. Das Gewitter hat viele Bäume demoliert.
3. Wir haben ihn vor der Schule aufgehalten.

German moves the past participle to the end of the sentence.
The formula is: VP + (V-2) + V+1 + (advl) + V (have+en).

Slovak:
1. Umyl som ťoho môjho psa.
2. Búrka zničila mnohé stromy.

The Slovak helping verb is in the present perfect tense
"byť" = "to be" and "to have" as in the other three languages
in case the verb is transitive. The pronominal direct
object follows the verbal phrase if the subject of the
first and second person is not expressed, but stands between
the helping verb and past participle, if the subject is
present. "Som" and "sme" are helping verbs and "umyl" and
"zastavili" are participles. In Example 2, "zničila" is
simple past tense. The formula is: VP + (V-2) + (have+en) + V+1 + (advl). The verbal phrase having (V-2) in itself
exists in all four languages, but German and Slovak use
it to express rather the action completed in the past.
This slot (V-2) is filled by the simple past form of the auxiliary verb "to have" which when followed by the past participle of any transitive structures the "past perfect tense". This verbal phrase represents the action that had occurred before another action in the past or which had happened a very long time ago. This definition applies to all four languages.

**English:**
1. We had already visited him.
2. The army had occupied our beautiful city.

**French:**
1. Nous l'avions déjà visité.
2. L'armée avait occupé notre jolie ville.

**German:**
1. Wir hatten ihn schon besucht.
2. Die Armee hatte unsere schöne Stadt in Besitz genommen.

**Slovak:**
1. My sme ho už boli navštívili.
2. Armáda bola obsadila naše pekné mesto.

The pronominal direct object stands in English after the verbal phrase: in French, it precedes the helping verb; and in German and Slovak, it follows the helping verb. This phenomenon has probably to do with the rhythm of the
utterance, as well as with the stress of the importance of the new information added by words used in communication. Furthermore, we have not introduced in these verbal phrases the French and German helping verbs "to be" = "être" and "sein" because we deal only with the transitive verbs that take in these two languages "avoir" and "haben" corresponding to the English "to have".

(V-3) Slot

The (V-3) slot just like the (V-2) and the (V-1) is optional. (V-3) slot is reserved for modals that carry tense. In English, modals are not treated as verbs since they each have only one form, and we classify them only by their function and position in the sentence. They may precede any infinitive or infinitive phrase (past infinitive) marked by "to" or unmarked. They are, however, treated like verbs in the other three languages concerned.

The modal "will", unlike the verb "to will" which expresses volition, will, and occasionally habitual action, is used to form in English the "pure future" and "...has come to denote nothing but futurity."28 The same applies to "shall" that is used to carry a meaning of obligation or necessity, but in modern usage it became an auxiliary to form the future tense for the first person singular and

plural in Standard English. It gives in to "will" which stands for the second and third person singular and plural.

The past tense of "will" is "would" which lost its primary meaning of volition and is used in English to express condition, wish, probability, politeness, or habitual action. "Should" - the past tense of "shall" has also lost its meaning of obligation and is used presently to denote an implied but weakened obligation, or advice, admonition, or uncertainty in condition. "Ought (to)" expresses duty and is the past tense of "owe". "Must (have to)" means necessity. English modals "will" or "shall" or "want" are in French "vouloir"; "can" and "may" are "pouvoir"; "ought (to)" and "must" are "devoir". German modals as "dürfen" = "may"; "können" = "can", "may"; "mögen" = "like", "may"; "müssen" = "must"; "sollen" = "should"; "wollen" = "want" or "will"; and Slovak "may" or "should" = "smieť"; "will" = "chceť"; "can" = "môžem"; "ought (to)" or "must" = "musím" are followed in the present tense by infinitives in all four languages.

**English:**

1. I want to ask many questions.
2. The cat can drink all its milk.
3. Our parents may visit your son at the university.
4. You must finish such a work.

**French:**

1. Je veux poser beaucoup de questions.
2. Le chat peut boire tout son lait.
3. Nos parents peuvent visiter votre fils à l'université.
4. Tu dois finir tel travail.

**German:**

1. Ich will viele Fragen stellen.
2. Die Katze kann all seine Milch trinken.
3. Unsere Eltern mögen Ihren Sohn auf der Universität besuchen.
4. Du musst solche Arbeit fertigmachen.

**Slovak:**

1. Ja chcem položiť mnohé otázky.
2. Mačka môže vypíť všetko jej mlieko.
3. Nasi rodičia môžu navštíviť vášho syna na univerzite.
4. Ty musis dokončiť takú robotu.

The English past tense of modals may be equivalent to the indicatives in the past, but most likely they are translated by subjunctives or conditional moods in the three languages concerned. English "would", "could", and "had to" may be used in the indicative mood and are translated as such into the other three languages.

**English sentences in the indicative:**

1. The girls would sing a song every day.

The action in this particular sentence is felt to be repeated and is translated by the French, German, and Slovak imperfect tense of the main verb in the sentence.

**French:**

1. Les filles chantaient une chanson chaque jour.
German:
1. Die Mädchen sangen ein Lied jeden Tag.

Slovak:
1. Dievčatá spievali pieseň každý den.

However, "would" in the meaning "wanted" is in French, "vouloir"; in German, "wollen"; and in Slovak, "choeli". These expressions denote volition and thus a mood of a speaker. "Wanted", "could", and "had to" may be followed by the present infinitive or a past infinitive in English.

English:
1. We wanted to see our new school.
2. Workers could finish the house this summer.
3. He had to buy a new typewriter.

French:
1. Nous voulions voir notre nouvelle école.
2. Les ouvriers pouvaient finir la maison cet été.
3. Il a dû acheter une nouvelle machine à écrire.

German:
1. Wir wollten unsere neue Schule sehen.
2. Die Arbeiter konnten diesen Sommer das Haus fertigmachen.
3. Er musste eine neue Schreibmaschine kaufen.

Slovak:
1. My sme chceli vidieť našu novú školu.
2. Robotníci mohli skončiť dom toho leta.
3. On musel kúpiť nový písací stroj.

The following examples illustrate the speaker's attitude
to the state of affairs which the utterance represents.

**English:**
1. You would want to write the letter.
2. He should express his ideas.
3. The teacher might ask you something.
4. I would visit them now.
5. We ought to earn much money.
6. The child would have to repeat the answer.

**French:**
1. Tu voudrais écrire la lettre.
2. Il devrait exprimer son idée.
3. Le professeur pourrait te demander quelque chose.
4. Je pourrais les visiter maintenant.
5. Nous devrions gagner beaucoup d'argent.

**German:**
1. Du wolltest den Brief schreiben.
2. Er sollte seine Meinung aussprechen.
3. Der Lehrer dürfte dich etwas fragen.
4. Ich könnte sie jetzt besuchen.
5. Wir sollten viel Geld verdienen.
6. Das Kind müsste die Antwort wiederholen.

**Slovak:**
1. Ty by si mal chcieť písať list.
2. On by mal vyjašriť svoje myšlienky.
3. Učiteľ by sa tá mohol niečo opýtať.
5. My by sme mali zarobiť veľa peňazí.
6. Dieta by malo opakovať odpoved.

In English all these modals may be followed by a past infinitive. Only German, in a few instances, may behave the say way: for example,
He must have done it. = Er muss es getan haben.
You may possibly have misunderstood him. = Sie dürfen ihn missverstanden haben.

Otherwise, all the three languages use subjunctive or conditional moods of modal auxiliaries and present infinitives.

**English:**
1. You would have wanted to write the letter.
2. He should have expressed his ideas.
3. The teacher may have asked you something.
4. I could have visited them now.
5. We ought to have earned much more.
6. The child would have had to repeat the answer.

**French:**
1. Tu aurais voulu écrire la lettre.
2. Il aurait dû exprimer son idée.
3. Le professeur aurait pu te demander quelque chose.
4. J'aurais pu les visiter maintenant.
5. Nous aurions dû gagner beaucoup d'argent.

**German:**
1. Du hättest den Brief schreiben wollen, (or Du würdest den Brief geschrieben haben = You would have written the letter).
2. Er hätte seine Meinung aussprechen sollen.
3. Der Lehrer hätte dich etwas fragen dürfen (or Der Lehrer dürfte dich etwas gefragt haben):
4. Ich hätte ihn jetzt besuchen können.
5. Wir hätten viel Geld verdienen sollen.
6. Das Kind hätte die Antwort wiederholen müssen.

**Slovak:**
1. Vy by ste boli chceli napísať list.
2. On by bol mal vyjadriť svoje myšlienky.
3. Učiteľ by sa ta bol mohol opýtať niečo.
5. My by sme boli mali zarobiť veľa peňazí.
6. Dieta by bolo malo opakovat odpoved.

We have furnished purposely a considerable number of examples in order to be able to attest the (V-3) position of the modal auxiliary in the languages concerned. As was said at the beginning of their introduction, the modals in the three other languages are treated as members of the family of verbs because they take modal auxiliaries and have special forms of conditional mood.

Furthermore, the (V-3) slot of the modal in English is based on the progressive form of the main verb in the sentence, a phenomenon which does not exist in the other three languages discussed. "He should have been expressing his ideas" or "I could have been reading a German book" and naturally many more examples native only to English may be given, but none of them may be turned literally into another language that we are comparing with the English.

Thus we have come to the conclusion that only the English language may fill the (V-3) slot in the sentence.

(V+1) Slot - continued

At this point we have compared the "V" slot and its possible three slots to the left. We have supplied also the direct object to the verb which consisted of only one
word. But in the English language the verb may consist of the verb and a preposition, called also a particle, (adverb). Such words joining the verb are in, out, up, down, off, away, on, over, through, forth, etc. The position of the (V+1) slot is, however, not affected in any way. Is the situation the same for the other four languages?

**English:**

1. He brought in the sick boy.
2. Children drink up their milk.
3. I must turn off the light.
4. They like to read through the whole book.

**French:**

1. Il apporta dedans le garçon malade.
2. Les enfants ont fini de boire leur lait.
3. Je dois éteindre la lumière.
4. Ils aiment lire le livre jusqu'à la fin.

No such construction of the verb + preposition exists in French, and a simple form of the verb will suffice, supported by an adverb or some other verb that corresponds to the meaning of the English verb + preposition, to render the equivalent meaning from one language to another.

**German:**

1. Er hat den kranken Jungen hereingebbracht.
2. Die Kinder trinken ihre Milch aus.
3. Ich muss das Licht ausmachen.
4. Sie lesen gern das ganze Buch durch.
In German the prepositions are attached to the verb and are called "prefixes". These prefixes, if "separable", are detached in conjugation and stand at the end of the sentence.

Slovak:
1. Priniesol dnu chorého chlapca.
2. Deti vypijú ich mlieko.
4. Radi prečítajú celú knihu.

Slovak, like German, prefixes its verb in accordance with the necessary meaning; but, unlike German or English, never separates its prefixes from the verbs. These prefixes help in Slovak to form often perfective verbs from imperfective ones.

We are dealing with the transitive verbs having a direct object following generally the main verb without any connective. But there exist in all four languages also verbs which are considered to be transitive, even though their objects are connected to them by a preposition. They are numerous in every language concerned and Grévisse calls them "les verbes transitifs indirects". They differ in meaning, however, from language to language; and, if the same verb in one language asks for the preposition, it is not necessarily the same case in the other.

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29 Grévisse, op. cit., p. 524.
English:
1. This child obeys his parents.
2. He answers my question correctly.
3. I still think about our trip.
4. He is laughing at my accent.
5. All depends on the weather.

French:
1. Cet enfant obéit à ses parents.
2. Il répond correctement à ma question.
3. Je pense toujours à notre petit voyage.
4. Il se moque de mon accent.
5. Tout dépend du temps.

German:
1. Dieses Kind gehorcht seinen Eltern.
2. Er antwortet richtig auf meine Frage. (Er beantwortet meine Frage.)
3. Ich denke noch an unsere Reise.
4. Er lacht über meinen Akzent.
5. Alles kommt auf das Wetter an.

Slovak:
1. Toto dieťa poslucha svojich rodičov.
2. On odpovedá na moju otázku správne.
3. Ja este myslím na našu cestu.
4. On sa vysmieva z môjho prízvuku.
5. Všetko záleží na počasí.

These prepositional objects still fill the place after the verb in the simple sentence, occasionally being preceded by a short adverb.

Finally, the transitive verbs may have the indirect object as their part. In English, the indirect object stands after the verb without any connective particle such
as "to" or "for". Only French among all four languages places the indirect object after the direct object by way of attaching it with a preposition "à".

**English:**

1. Mother made the daughter a dress.
2. He always gives the students good grades.
3. The son thanked his father for money.
4. I surrender my place to him.

**French:**

1. La mère a fait la robe à sa fille.
2. Il donne toujours des bonnes notes aux étudiants.
3. Le fils avait remercié à son père pour l'argent.
4. Je lui cède ma place.

The pronominal indirect object stands in French before the verb.

**German:**

1. Die Mutter hat ihrer Tochter ein Kleid gemacht.
2. Er gibt den Studenten immer gute Noten.
3. Der Sohn hat dem Vater für das Geld gedankt.
4. Ich übergebe ihm meinen Platz.

**Slovak:**

1. Matka ušila dievčaťu šatky.
2. On vždy dáva študentom dobré známky.
4. Odovzdávam mu svoje miesto.

In French, unlike in other three languages, the indirect object follows the direct one, except for the pronominal which belongs to the verb by preceding it. Thus the slot
V+I occupies the same place in all four languages concerned.
CHAPTER IV
ADJECTIVES IN SLOTFILLING

This chapter handles the Sentence Scheme Pattern III, that is $SS + V_{cop} + VC$ (complement) $+ (Adv1)$. VC possibilities for this Sentence Pattern are the same as for a Sentence Pattern with the verb "to be"--that is a noun, adjective, or adverbial of location. At this time, filling slots of this Sentence Pattern, the attention is directed only to adjectives that stand in the English language two places to the left of SS as $(SS-2)$.

Thus, the adjective filling the slot after the copulative or linking verbs or state-of-being will be discussed only lightly when the special function of linking verbs is considered.

So far we have observed that from five places that may be filled by words to the left of the SS, only one $SS-4$ Art is obligatory in English, French, and German (with some exceptions), but not in Slovak. The adjective that fills the second place to the left of SS is denoted by $(SS-2)$ and is one of the kind of words that say whether the nounal--SS--is identified or unidentified, and whether it is possessed, indicated, demonstrated, quantified, enumerated, and compared. These kinds of adjectives (some of them are called "pronouns" by different linguists) are
"limiting" adjectives. The adjective says "everything" about the subject; that is, it "describes" the subject which is traditionally called the "descriptive adjective" and tells of the physical or other characteristics of the noun. It may express some kind of judgement or opinion or observation on the part of the speaker or writer. However, if there are several adjectives standing before a nounal, the first one may cancel out the impact or the effect of the succeeding adjectives.

Functionally, the adjective is pointing out, marking, or signaling some quality of the noun; or as Morsberger says,

"It may reasonably be held that the adjective is normally as important a speech element as its governing noun, in that it is the function of the adjective to define or give point and sharpness to what would otherwise be a vague general term."

Grévisse calls the adjective "qualificatif" because it is "...un mot que l'on joint au nom pour exprimer une qualité de l'être ou de l'objet nommé...", or the adjective may be also "nonqualificatif", "...ou pour introduire ce nom dans le discours." This latter is called by Grévisse "adjectif déterminatif". Adjectives may also be called

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31 Grévisse, op. cit., p. 227.
"modifying" or "predicate", but all these names point to the function that the adjectives perform in a language.

It is more difficult to define an adjective on the grounds of its structure: this goal is often undertaken by the modern linguists-transformationalists. They work to find the definition of a word that would be solely qualified to carry the role of a "pure" adjective. Thus the word that functions as an adjective in a language is tested for its uniqueness of form and function. As Owen Thomas says, "With very little elaboration, the discussion simply groups together, as adjectives, all lexical words that could replace the symbol Adj in sentences having the form Nom + be + Adj." Furthermore, in order to find the proper name, function and structure of the adjective, it is necessary to recognize adjectives that are "regular" (Thomas calls them "base") and those that are derived by transformation from other words, namely from nouns (childish, faulty, hopeful, manly) and from verbs (cooked, crying).

If we take a look into the situation of the adjectives in the other three languages in question—as it is our role to do so—we may conclude that functionally and structurally, adjectives are similar to the English adjectives. However,

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32 Thomas, op. cit., p. 152
33 Thomas, Ibid, p. 153
our main interest in this thesis is to pay attention to their place in the sentences, without speculating on the reasons of their particular positions in the four languages concerned.

In order to demonstrate that the French, German, and Slovak also make distinction between "base" and "derived" adjectives, we will furnish appropriate examples.

**Base Adjectives:**

**French:** grand, petit, bon, heureux, doux, pieux, muet, clair.

**German:** gross, klein, gut, süß, fromm, still, klar.

**Slovak:** veľký, malý, dobrý, šťastný, sladký, zbožný, tichý, svetlý.

**English:** big, small, good, happy, sweet, pious, mute, clear.

All these base adjectives may constitute a base to form nouns from them.

**Derived Adjectives:**

**English:** helpful, lowly, reddish, childish, working, baked.

**French:** utile, humble, roux, enfantile, travaillant, cuit.

**German:** nützlich, niedrig, rötlich, kindisch, arbeitend, gebacken.

**Slovak:** pomocný, skromný, červenavý, detský, pracujúci, pečený.

By translating the selected adjectives, base or derived, from English to the other three languages, we observe that their structure is not identical from language to language. The adjective may be considered base in English, and the
same one is derived in German (happy-glücklich). Slovak adjectives all appear to be derived from the nouns or the verbs. The "base" adjective in Slovak is "rád"; English is "glad"; French is "content"; and, German is "froh".

In the scheme of the basic sentence, there is no place for the modifying or descriptive adjective at all. But the non-use of the adjective is unthinkable in human communication because of many-sided, and often very needed and helpful information about the subject being discussed. Thus, we say that the adjective furnishes the means of qualifying, describing, or adding distinguishing marks to the subject. The simple, basic sentence is transformed; its SS becomes expanded.

As noted, the place of the adjective in the English sentence is two spaces to the left of the SS. That means that in the English language the adjective holds the pronominal position, and in this position it has the strongest communicative effect. The adjectives (we will not call them "descriptive", "qualificative", "modifying", nor "attributive") then stand in English before the nounal and are so distributed—if they occur in any number—as to designate or to point out the quality of the nounal in an arrangement from the more general to more specific. Consequently, at the slot (SS-2) which is the optional adjective or adjectival slot, the subslots or subclasses
from right to left are the proper adjectives, adjectives of color, adjectives of shape, adjectives of age, adjectives of size, adjectives of value, and adjectives from verbs behaving as adjectives. Other kinds of adjectives designating touch, taste, smell, sound, direction, motion and so on, which are used in the language, stand in position probably very much depending on the speaker's individual attitude or feeling about the element under discussion. But the seven above-mentioned subclasses occupy a set position with respect to each other, and these positions are somewhat inflexible in English, even though each major author uses adjectives in his own unique pattern. This fact that the writer is free to shift adjectives in his own way applies surely to all languages in question. The notion that the more specific the meaning carried by the adjective, the closer the adjective is to the noun as is represented by the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbal Adjective</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Size</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Shape</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>exciting</td>
<td>lovely</td>
<td>tiny</td>
<td>old</td>
<td>square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wounded</td>
<td>adorable</td>
<td>huge</td>
<td>ripe</td>
<td>oval</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rushing</td>
<td>kind</td>
<td>great</td>
<td>mature</td>
<td>round</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lost</td>
<td>mean</td>
<td>vast</td>
<td>ancient</td>
<td>curvy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appealing</td>
<td>selfish</td>
<td>small</td>
<td>young</td>
<td>oblong</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Color</th>
<th>Proper Adjective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>red</td>
<td>French</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>green</td>
<td>Italian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pinkish</td>
<td>Grecian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rosy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dark</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The adjectives that are located farthest from the noun tend to express the attitude of the speaker; whereas, those nearest to the noun describe the noun. It is often effective, however, to place the adjective after the noun and before the verb for poetic effects or for stressing the noun by "tagging" the noun. Consequently, the shifting of adjectives in the sentence involves stylistics, rhythm of the language, and even semantics. The special function of the adjective is its being used as an epithet. In this role, the adjective is shifted, serving the speaker to make his expression harmonious, rhythmical, or meaningful.

As we are nearing the task of comparing places of the adjective in the four languages, we observe that English depends heavily on adjectives. French and German concentrate more on the use and usage of the nouns and verbs. Slovak also uses very many adjectives which are adjectivalized nouns. We have mentioned this fact when filling (SS-1) pure noun slot. This slot is filled in all three languages by the noun, except in Slovak. We say "church steeple", "le clocher de l'église", "der Kirchturm", and "veža kostola". The last expression is more suitable when used as "kostolná veža" where "kostolná" is an adjective formed by adding the suffix -ný, -né, -ná, masculine, feminine, neuter, respectively to the noun "kostol". In this particular slot (SS-1) even English prefers the noun. It is valuable
to know the differences in the adjectival position and what results the position brings, not only when translation from language to language is concerned, but also when subtlety of style of the other language is sought to be understood. It is surely no easy matter, because the deciding factors in the choice of adjectival position depend on the rhythm, general balance of the sentence, as well as on the writer's individual conception of the particular value of the adjective.

Everything that has been written so far about the adjectives refers to the English language— their function, their structure, and their location in the simple sentence in case we expand it. We have said that the adjectives are defined on the basis of their function in the language, their being descriptive, or epithetical, their being attributive (after the verb "to be" and linking verbs), and their having more or less fixed position found in the second place which, in turn, has seven subclasses before the noun.

We have also mentioned that the adjectives that are formed from the verbs or from adjectives of abstract meaning stand farthest to the left of the noun.

At this point, we must say that the French and German or Slovak know the adjective as part of speech having similar functions to those the English adjective has.
Structurally it is often formed differently. However, as only its distribution in the sentence is pertinent to our thesis, we will discuss only that, and we will comment on existing differences as they arise.

Even though German and Slovak tend strongly to place the adjective in the prenominal position (except of course in the poetic, highly emotional language), French has its special way of placing it in the sentence. Also, in French there are adjectives whose prenominal or postnominal position is fixed. However, the rule says that the adjective in French follows the noun if it denotes the quality which differentiates the noun from other objects of the same case: L'école normale, le lait tiède, la femme savante. The adjective that precedes has the nature of the ornamental epithet: it denotes a quality essentially peculiar to the noun or looked upon as obvious; and it coalesces with the noun into one conception as in union with the noun. The following examples illustrate the point: Un méchant écrivain = a worthless writer, un écrivain méchant = an ill-natured author, Le pauvre malade = the poor sick man (expressing pity), le malade pauvre = the poor sick man (expressing poverty), Une folle fille = a madcap, une fille folle = a mad girl.

Furthermore, it must be said that the adjective in French normally follows the noun that it modifies, but a few of
the most common adjectives precede the noun; e.g. beau, bon, long, gentil, joli, court, grand, gros, mauvais, jeune, nouveau, vieux, etc. However, these common adjectives vary in meaning according to their position:

Une femme bonne = a kind, good-natured woman, une bonne femme = a good, nice woman; Un voyage court = a seemingly short journey, un court voyage = a journey taking a short time; Un homme jeune = looking or acting young man, une jeune homme = a young man (chronologically); Un film long (seeming long), un long film (lasting a long time). As a final thought concerning the position of adjectives in the French language, it seems that their distribution is much affected by the logic in the communication expression.

Before we give examples illustrating the position of the adjectives in the four languages concerned, we must repeat that Chapter IV handles the Sentence Pattern III in which figure copulative verbs. These copulative verbs are divided into five subclasses according to Thomas:

1. Verbs of the senses: feel, smell, taste, ...
2. Verbs of appearance: appear, look, seem, ...
3. Verbs of action: grow, turn, ...
4. become
5. stay and remain

All copulative verbs (linking or state-of-being) have one of the three possibilities of their complement. These

possibilities are the same as for the verb "to be". There must be a nounal, an adjectival, or a locational. However, "become" can be followed by the adverb of manner. It also can be followed readily by the nominal: "My brother became a teacher." (But not, "My brother grew a teacher.") Such copulative verbs exist in the three other languages and behave similarly as English do. The only difference seems to be in that French, German, and also Slovak have some of them in the "reflexive" form: English "feel" is "se sentir" in French, "sich fühlen" in German, and "cítit sa" in Slovak.

The following examples are "artificial"—the living or written language is not likely to have them in such a form. Nevertheless, they clearly illustrate and prove our point and are selected from the seven subclasses that occupy in English a prenominal position and have a fixed position with respect to each other.

**English:**

1. This lovely big young pinkish Japanese cherry tree looks lovely.
2. My wounded tiny old black dog grows restless.
3. Many small red very scented roses smell unusual.
4. The big stinky old Prague ham smells terrible.
5. This long-lasting extraordinary anxiety feels heavy on me.
6. Such a wretched tiny old woman became her companion.
7. Every honest young American citizen looks happy today.
8. Many exciting huge ancient religious temples remain attractive all the time.
9. All the modern big long black European cars stay in the factory.
We have included a few adjectives of smell ("scented", "stinky") and of taste ("sweet") to experiment with them. It seems they may be shifted according to the personal attitude, value judgement and opinion of the writer's (user's) to prefer such sensory adjectives. The third sentence may well be uttered: "Many very scented small red roses....", or the fourth one: "The big old stinky....".

**French:**

1. Ce joli grand jeune cerisier de Japon rose a l'air gracieux.
2. Mon petit vieux chien noir blessé devient agité.
3. Plusieurs petites, très parfumées roses rouges sentent extraordinaire.
4. Le grand vieux jambon de Prague puant sent terrible.
5. Cette prolongée, extraordinaire anxiété me touche gravement.
6. Une telle petite vielle femme infortunée est devenue sa compagne.
7. Chaque jeune honnête citoyen américain paraît heureux aujourd'hui.
8. Beaucoup d'excitants, énormes anciens temples religieux restent attractifs tout le temps.
9. Toutes les modernes grandes longues voitures européennes noires restent dans la fabrique.

Also, in French stand the adjectives that denote size, age, shape, and value before the noun; but, unlike English, the French adjectives of color and proper adjectives move behind the noun--first the proper adjective, then the color adjective. In the sixth sentence the vague "prolongée" and value adjective "extraordinaire" stand before the noun, but may be placed after it. In the same manner, the adjectives "jeune" and "honnête" can be shifted.
German:

1. Dieser wunderschöne grosse junge rötliche japanische Kirschbaum sieht lieblich aus.
2. Mein verwundeter winziger alter schwarzer Hund wird unruhig.
4. Der grosse, übel riechende Schinken aus Prague stinkt furchtbar.
5. Diese lang dauernde, ungewöhnliche Unruhe drückt auf mich.
7. Jeder aufrichtige junge amerikanische Staatsbürger sieht heute glücklich aus.
8. Viele erregende, riesige uralte religiöse Kirchen bleiben immer reizend.

German, like English, places all the adjectives before the noun.

Slovak:

1. Ten pekný veľký mladý, ružový japonský čerešňový strom vyzerá liehne.
2. Môj malý, poranéný starý pes stáva sa nepokojným.
3. Mnohé malé, červené, velmi vonavé ruže vonajú neobyčajne.
4. Veľká, smradľavé stará pražská šunka strašne smrdí.
5. Tá dlhotrvajúca, neobyčajná úzkost ma tvrdo tlačí.
6. Taká úbohá, malá stará žena stala sa jej spoločníčou.
8. Mnohé úchvatné, veľmi veľké, staré náboženské chrámy zostávajú stále príťažlivými.

All the modifying adjectives stand in the Slovak language before the noun. The difference of the Slovak lies in the complement of the copulative verb. Instead of the adjective as a complement, Slovak uses adverbials;
furthermore, if a complement is a noun, the noun is in the ablative case. After "become" = "stávat' sa", the adjective is also in the ablative case.

The above sentences handling several adjectives in the four languages concerned are very artificial and are not likely to be figured in such a form. However, they may exist, and only the question of the commas separating them from one another is differently-positioned in every language. This question of commas depends on the qualification of the adjectives and their definition as referring to their structure and function in the sentence.

As our task in this thesis is only to compare their position and not to deal with their particular definitions, we will not discuss this problem.
CHAPTER V
ADVERBS AND ADVERBIALS

The most numerous and the most complex class of sentence members is the adverb (single words) and the adverbial (derived from other parts of speech or prepositional phrases). They are not obligatory fillers in the sentence, but their presence in it is communicatively important because of valuable information that is furnished by them about certain other members of the sentence.

This Chapter V observes the location of adverbs and adverbials in the English Sentence Pattern IV which is transcribed $S--SS + V_1 + \emptyset + (Adv1)$ and compares their location in the three other languages concerned with that of the English sentence.

The Sentence Pattern IV with its intransitive verb has no visible word in the (V+1) position. Hence, the verb completer for this sentence pattern – and there must be one – is null or $\emptyset$. For example:

Trains arrive.
Trains arrive at the station.

In each case, the verb completer null or $\emptyset$ comes after "arrive". The second slot after the optional verb (V+2) may be filled by an adverb or adverbial (a single word, or a phrase, or a clause).
The functional definition of the adverb or adverbial lies in the word itself. "Adverb" - Latin "adverbium" suggests "something added to a verb". We may say that the action itself expressed by the verb in the sentence seldom satisfies the listener's or the reader's questions "when", "where", "why", "how", "in what circumstances", or "how frequently". Furthermore, the indication of time, or place, or cause, or of any other circumstance conveyed by the adverb is communicatively less important than the action itself, and if there is more information necessary about a verb, about the adjective, or about another adverb in the speech, the adverbial element offers the information. It readily provides the background of an action or of an existence: "Leaves fall". "Leaves fall slowly". "Leaves fall very slowly". "The fall of leaves is beautifully slow". Thus "slowly" modifies the verb, "very" modifies another adverb, and "beautifully" modifies the adjective.

Linguists generally define the adverb as a word ("invariable") which is joined to the verb, or to the adjective, or to another adverb as a modifier. The German definition in Deutsche Grammatik states also its position saying:

35Grévisse, op. cit., p. 182.
...Das Adverb steht als Satzglied bei Verben oder als Attribut bei Nomen, Pronomen, Adjektiven und anderen Adverbien. Als Attribut folgt das Adverb den Nomen und Pronomen, geht aber Adjektiven und anderen Adverbien voraus.\[36\]

There are such examples as the following:

1. Der Herr dort ist der Vater meines Freundes.
2. Du hier gehst jetzt.
3. Das Wetter ist heute warm.
4. Ich habe diese Arbeit schon sehr oft gemacht.

In German the adverb is considered to be a member of the sentence if it stands by the verb, but it is called an "attribute element" if it is joined to the adjective, the noun, or another adverb.

According to the above definition of an adverb, its position in a sentence seems structurally fixed in German. When translated to the other three languages, it shows some differences. The least difference appears in the Slovak translation of the above sentences:

1. Ten pari tam je otec môjho priateľa.
2. Ty tu, ideš teraz.
3. Počasie je dnes teplé.
4. Ja som tu prácu už velmi často urobil. (Or we leave out the pronominal subject, and we say: Už som tu prácu velmi často urobil.)

In the second sentence we have separated the adverb from the verb to avoid ambiguity. Without the comma, the meaning would be "You are going here now". But the German

meaning conveys "You who are here, you are going now".
Or the meaning of the sentence discussed may be made even clearer in Slovak when we say "Ty tu, ty ideš teraz".
This translation coincides with the English one "You here, you are going (or "go") now".

**English translation of the above sentences:**

1. The man there is the father of my friend.
2. You here, you are going now.
3. The weather is today warm. (Or "The weather is warm today".)
4. I have already done this work very often. (Or "I have done this work very often already".)

We replace in the fourth sentence the transitive verb by the intransitive one "I had come (here) already very often". In this position the adverb "already" seems to be appropriately placed, although "I had come very often already" is acceptable also, being at the final position.

In the French translation, the same sentences show still another difference concerning the place of the adverb:

1. Lemonsieur là-bas est le père de mon ami.
2. Toi-là, tu vas maintenant.
3. Il fait un temps chaud aujourd'hui. (Or "Il fait chaud aujourd'hui."
4. J'ai déjà fait ce travail très souvent. (Or "J'ai fait déjà ce travail très souvent", or "J'ai fait ce travail très souvent déjà".)

The French adverb has the tendency to move to the end of the sentence, but it may occur just as well at the beginning of it. However, the adverb or adverbial for that matter
starting the sentence shows the tendency to slow down the
natural, rhythmical flow of the pronounced utterance. This
reality applies to French and probably even to a greater
degree to English. The slowness of the rhythmical flow
is still more accentuated by the comma following the
adverbial. "Luckily, my mother came home." The French
equivalent is "Heureusement, ma mère est venue à la maison."
This adverbial and some others occurring at the end of the
sentence still would interfere with the rhythmical, un-
interrupted flow of the utterance because they would be
separated again by the comma from the rest of the other
sentence members. ("My mother came home, luckily." "Ma
mère est venue à la maison, heureusement.")

As for German and Slovak, it is not the same case. The
adverbial at the beginning position slows somewhat the flow
in the speech, but it is not so strongly felt as in the
other two languages. It may be because of the absence
of the comma in such a sentence:

German Sentence: Glücklicherweise ist meine Mutter nach
Hause gekommen.

Slovak Sentence: Na šťastie prišla moja matka domov.

Our assumption is that the finite verb moving in front of
the subject in such a case, furnishes the notion of the
immediate action which is expected by the hearer. The
action is logically more important in this particular case
than the other because of semantic meaning of the adverbial. The adverbial is slightly colored emotionally.

Because of the analytical trend in the English language, it seems that English uses fewer adverbs—single words—than German or Slovak does. The same fact is observed in French which is also a highly analytical language using several words to denote a notion that is in another language expressed by a single word:

**English:**
1. In the afternoon.
2. By letter.
3. In a friendly way.

**French:**
1. Dans l'après-midi.
2. Par la lettre.
3. Avec amitié.

**German:**
1. Nachmittags.
2. Brieflich.
3. Freundlich.

**Slovak:**
1. Poobede.
2. Listovne.
3. Priatelsky.

In order to avoid inconsistency in referring to "adverbs" as single words, or "adverbials" as compound adverbs or
derived from certain parts of speech, and finally, to prepositional phrases, we will refer to them as "adverbials". This name is preferred in modern linguistic treatises by grammarians in Europe and in America (Mathesius, Miko, Roberts, and Thomas).

Adverbials are the optional element of the sentence, but, interestingly, they are present in nearly every uttered expression. Furthermore, in English and in French some adverbials are sometimes difficult to distinguish from the other complements of the verb; namely from the direct object. Consider the following:

**English:**
1. It happened **one evening**.
2. They visit us **every day**.
3. He goes **this way**.

**French:**
1. Cela s'est passé **un soir**.
2. Ils nous visitent **chaque jour**.
3. Il va **cette direction**.

**German:**
1. Es ist **eines Abends geschehen**.
2. Sie besuchen uns **jeden Tag**.
3. Er geht **seines Weges**.

**Slovak:**
1. Stalo sa to **jedného večera**. (Or... **raz večer**...-**raz** being an Adverb)
2. Navštěvujú nás každý den.
3. On ide' toutcestou.

Where English and French have formally the direct objective case (we may assume it from its position behind the verb, which is, structurally, the position of the direct object), German and Slovak express this adverbial structure by the "adverbial genitive" - "eines Abends", "seines Weges", or by the "adverbial accusative" - "jeden Tag". Slovak also has in these slots genitives or accusatives, but it may use still another case-instrumental-to express "where".

It is not easy to furnish many examples as the three above because the English adverbial ("direct object") would be often translated to the other three languages by the prepositional phrase or vice versa. French as constructions similar to English, having the "direct objective case" after the intransitive verb: like "courir le pays" = "to stroll about", "courir les rues" = "to run about", and "aller bon train" = "to go on at a good round pace"; however, it may be nearly surely assumed that German and Slovak have no such constructions. In such English constructions as "...to travel at high speed", even French expresses by the adverbial "très vite" or "avec une grande vitesse", German says "mit hoher Schnelligkeit" or "geschwind", and Slovak is "s veľkou rýchlostou", "veľkou rýchlostou".
(omitting preposition), and "velmi rýchlo" (adverbial).

All these examples show the verb being modified by the adverbial; however, the adverbial may modify the content of the whole sentence, as well as the adjectives and other adverbials.

So far we have discussed adverbials from the point of view of their equivalency from language to language concerned. Our task, however, is to compare the mandatory or optional slots they may occupy in the simple sentences of these languages. Nevertheless, we need to mention that in addition the traditional division of adverbs, linguists introduce names such as "sentence adverbials", "preverbs", "adverbs of location and time", "adverbs of manner", and "adverbs" like 'very', 'quite', and 'extremely', or "adverbs of frequency". Grévisse divides adverbs into seven groups - "adverbes de manière", "de quantité ou d'intensité", "de temps", "de lieu", "d'affirmation", "de négation", and "de doute". All names seem to point to the function of the adverbs.

We have already discussed the position (SS+1) and (SS+2): these two slots are filled by the adverbials

37 Thomas, op. cit., p. 126.
38 Roberts, op. cit., p. 91.
39 Grévisse, op. cit., p. 794.
modifying the SS and occupying the same position in the sentences of all four languages concerned. This position is after the nounal which is modified by them. But the function of the adverbial in the position after the nounal is to describe or to identify the nounal, not to refer to its existence, or state of being, or to its action. Such a function is carried on by the adverbial that says "when", "where", "how", "why", "how frequently", or "how intensely" the actor performed his action or existed.

In English there is a difference of position of the adverbials that relate to a sentence element-verb, adjective, or another adverb and the adverbials qualifying the content of the whole sentence. The adverbials relating to a sentence element are placed next to this sentence element. Only the adverbial modifying the verb as a rule does not separate the subject from the finite verb, but stands at the beginning or at the end of the sentence.

Here are English sentences in which the verb is modified:

1. Water boils rapidly.
2. This morning I was scared.

French translation:

1. L'eau bouillit rapidement.
2. Ce matin j'avais peur.
German translation:
1. Das Wasser kocht geschwind.
2. Heute morgen hatte ich Angst.

Slovak translation:
1. Voda vrie silno.
2. Dnes ráno som sa bal.

In all four languages the second sentence may place the adverbial at the end; but, the first one may have it at the beginning—only in German and only in Slovak may it be put between the subject and the verb (Voda silno vrie).

Still there exist in English the adverbials that separate the subject from the verb. They are adverbs expressing indefinite time: Thomas calls them "preverbs"; Roberts refers to them as "adverbs of frequency"—almost, always, seldom, frequently, usually, often, and so on. Mathesius thinks that the adverbials standing immediately "before the finite verb or before its participial component" relate to the content of the whole sentence. We note the following illustrations:

English:
1. He always speaks of them highly.
2. We have almost come late.
3. The school usually starts at eight.
4. This child has often fallen from the bed.

40 Thomas, op. cit., p. 162.
41 Roberts, op. cit., p. 91.
42 Mathesius, op. cit., p. 141.
French:

1. Il parle toujours d'eux en termes flatteurs.  
   (But: Il a toujours parlé d'eux...)
2. Nous avons presque failli arriver en retard.
3. L'école commence d'habitude à huit heures.
   (Or: Souvent cet enfant est tombé du lit.)

French never places the adverbial between the subject pronoun and the verb, but it is possible to place it after the helping verb and before the participle.

German:

1. Er spricht immer hochgradig von ihnen.
2. Wir sind beinahe spät gekommen.
3. Die Schule beginnt gewöhnlich um acht Uhr.

German likewise does not allow the adverbial to stand between the verb and its subject, only after the helping verb in compound tenses.

Slovak:

1. On vzdy hovori o nich s úctivostou.
   (Or: Vždy hovorí o nich s úctivostou.)
2. Ľakmer sme prišli pozdno.
3. Škola obyčajne začína o osmej.
   (Or: Škola začína obyčajne o osmej.)
4. Toto dieťa často spadlo s posteľa.

In Slovak "preverbs" fill the slot before the verbs, whether the verbs are figuring in simple or compound forms (...sme prišli).
We observe at this point that some of the "preverbs", also called "adverbs of frequency", may stand at the beginning or at the end of the sentences. If such is the case, they modify the content of the whole sentence and are most likely separated from the sentence by a comma. Adverbials that refer to the whole sentence are, for example, expressions like "probably", "luckily", "fortunately", "however", "furthermore", etc. We have mentioned them already as having a tendency to slow down the rhythm of the uttered sentence.

The word order in the English sentence is very much stabilized, being dictated by grammatical principle and coherence of the sentence members. Only the adverbial disturbs this natural order of the subject, verb, verb complement, and optional adverb. The adverbial has considerable freedom of movement in the sentence in all four languages concerned. The adverbials such as "really", "already", "soon", and "often" may be shifted very freely even in the English language. We may say:

Really, he is our friend.
He is our friend, really.
He really is our friend.
He is really our friend.

These above adverbials have the same freedom of movement (to stand in all four positions--at the beginning or the end of the sentence, before or after the finite verb) only
in the Slovak language. They cannot separate the finite verb from its pronominal subject, but they can follow the helping verbs in French and German.

So far, the adverbials used as illustrative examples are primary adverbials having form as single or simple words, or derived adverbials from adjectives by the ending -ly in English, -ment in French, -lich, -ig, -bar in German (they are in reality adjectives functioning as adverbials), and by endings -no, -ne, and -sky in Slovak. The form of many other adverbials may also result from joining two adverbs together (no-where, how-ever, further-more, more-over), or from prepositional phrases (to-day, to-morrow, out-side, up-stairs, after-noon, before-noon), which process of forming them exists in all other three languages.

All these adverbials, however they are formed, indicate the time, place, manner, cause, frequency and some other circumstances of the action or state of being conveyed by the verb in the sentence.

Probably most common of all adverbials are adverbials of manner. Also all adverbials may be expressed by prepositional phrases.

At this point, it is our feeling that the question of existence of adverbials in the four languages concerned and surely in all other languages is a complicated matter,
especially a question as to their position in the utterance. Their place in the language has surely very much to do with the speaker's or writer's attitude and intention in supplying information about the constituent in the sentence.

Until now, we have been translating the English sentences into the three other languages to illustrate the difference in the position with respect to other elements of the sentence, and we did not observe the position of the adverbials with respect to each other. There is surely a situation in communication when it is necessary to use more adverbials than one.

Not every kind of adverbial can occur in every sentence pattern as we have handled them; for example, the adverbial of manner but seldom that of time can figure in the Sentence Pattern "to be". However, all adverbials may stand at the end of the verb phrases. Adverbials of frequency most often are located before the verbs and directly after "be". Adverbials of manner stand before the verb, but adverbials of place never occur before the verb and adverbials of time seldom do. If there are several kinds of adverbials, some may occur at the beginning of the sentence and others at the end, after the verb.

In the English language, several adverbials in the sentence occupy the order in such a way that the adverbial
of place precedes the adverbial of manner, which, in turn, stands before that of frequency, and to the last place comes that of time. As we will demonstrate, this is not the case in French nor in German.

**English sentences:**

1. He will travel to Europe by plane very soon.
2. My father came home very tired today.
3. The children have been playing outside quietly almost an hour.
4. Usually we came to the opera late.
5. The students played in the gym because of bad weather yesterday.

**French sentences:**

1. Il va bientôt voyager en Europe par avion.
2. Mon père est venu aujourd'hui à la maison très fatigué. (Or: Aujourd'hui, mon père est venu à la maison très fatigué.)
3. Depuis presque une heure, les enfants jouent tranquillement dehors.
4. Nous sommes d'habitude venus tard à l'opéra.
5. Hier, les étudiants jouaient à cause du mauvais temps au gym.

French uses the several adverbials in the reverse order to that of English. It places the adverbials of time as early as possible, then adverbial phrase of place generally precedes that of manner.

**German sentences:**

1. Er fährt bald mit dem Flugzeug nach Europa.
3. Seit einer Stunde spielen die Kinder friedlich draußen.
4. Wir sind gewöhnlich in die Oper spät gekommen.
The position of several adverbials in German varies, but the adverbial of time precedes that of cause, or then follows the adverbial of manner and to the end comes that of place.

Slovak sentences:
1. On pocestuje do Europy lietadlom veľmi skoro.
2. Moj otec prišiel dnes domov veľmi unavený.
3. Deti sa hrajú vonku spokojne skoro hodinu.
4. Prichádzali sme do opery obyčajne neskoro.
5. Študenti hrali včera v telocviční pre zlé počasie.

The Slovak language, like English, places adverbials of place before the adverbials of manner, and then follow the adverbials of time. Only in the last sentence does time stand before place and before the cause. In the second sentence, there is also a difference from the English one in that time is before place, and then comes the adverbial of manner. It seems that the Slovak has the most freedom in distributing adverbials in the sentences.

In this chapter we have condensed as much as possible the vast material concerning the adverbials, bringing out the existing differences in four modern western languages.
CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY

The comparatively-described word order in the four modern languages of the Indo-European linguistic ancestry shows that they are similar in the sense of their sentential relations between, for example, the subject and the predicate, the subject and the object, the subject and its attribute, and the verb and its complements of various kinds. It is reasonable to say that every language in the world, even how "formless" it may seem, (as opposed to, for example, Latin grammatical forms, or any of the four languages discussed in this thesis) can be structured and must be structured on a fundamental syntactic relation of the words in the sentence, a sentence that symbolizes comprehensive thinking.

Words which are written or uttered symbols for concrete persons, things, animals, institutions, or for abstract names of emotions, feelings, thoughts, and which in addition are also symbols of concepts of activity or of existence, or of state-of-being of named persons, things, and animals are grouped in a certain order. The words that we are able to speak and to give an audible expression to are listed in a certain order: surely, they are related to each other. The relations are different in every
language, but only in a formal way, not in a substantial, psychological one. Structurally, in every language one must assess the actor and his action, and it is clear that as Edward Sapir in his book *Language* says,

"No language wholly fails to distinguish noun and verb, though in particular cases the nature of the distinction may be an elusive one. It is different with the other parts of speech. None of them is imperatively required for the life of language."\(^4\)

Such a statement suggests the insight into the structural behavior of languages and suggest further the necessity for studying languages from the comparative, word-order relation of the elements in the human speech symbolizing human thoughts.

How these words are attracted to one another and attached to one another should be studied in languages. The knowledge of a specific law peculiar to a language would probably not lead to creating a "common" or "international" language, but may help to understand better a foreign language or one's own language, for that matter. It may help to ease learning of languages.

This thesis is thus comparative and descriptive in nature. It describes the way of expanding and modifying the main sentence constituents: the subject, the verb, the verb completer, and the optional adverbial. Such a

comparative work suggest utility and also brings out interesting helpful facts about the difference in the positions of sentence constituents as placed beside each other in different languages.

The content is in a concise form; nevertheless, it illustrates that the two main mandatory parts of the sentence, the noun phrase and the verb phrase, may be expanded and modified by the parts of speech, and that the place of such modifiers may be obligatory or optional. There is a need to know that substantially the subject precedes the verb and that the slot after the verb is filled by a nounal functioning as the predicate noun or the direct object, or the indirect object, or the adjective, or the adverbial (depending on the kind of verb). This knowledge may assist the student not only in learning the foreign language but also in learning in his native tongue the difficult distinction between the subject-actor in the sentence and the other member which may be represented by a nounal. Furthermore, this thesis stresses the fact that the subject carrying a role of actor in the utterance stands before the finite verb even if modified by different mandatory or optional "determiners". The adverb or prepositional phrase in a function of the adverbial or both may be optionally located in two slots to the right of the subject: so positioned that the two are a part of the
complete subject, but their order is adverbial followed by a prepositional phrase.

If it is further shown that once the possible expansion of the subject has been presented, the verb then becomes the center of attention. It generally stands in the central position in the sentence, in Position II. Thus it becomes the starting point of the Verb Phrase.

Moreover, the slot after the verb is filled, depending on the kind of verb—by the predicate noun, or the predicate adjective, or the adverbial of location (for the verb "to be"), or by the direct object or the indirect object, or finally, by the adverbial. Such a procedure, the stressing of word order in the utterance, does simplify the difficulty in distinguishing between the subject and the direct object; this is a main problem in acquiring any language.

The English sentence is dependent on grammatical principle as concerning its word order as is the French sentence to a certain degree, but such is not the case in German or Slovak languages. These two latter languages display a considerable freedom in shifting the sentence constituents. This notion, however, does not hinder the learning of any of these languages. In reality, the task to master any of these languages is to become aware, from
the beginning, of the difference in forms of transformations—namely, the interrogative, negative, or imperative.

Furthermore, work of such a comparative and descriptive nature serves to illustrate that there is a similarity in a basic structure of the uttered thought among tongues, and that even the most elementary arrangement of the spoken or written language renders an active service to the essential aim of conveying meaning—the main purpose of human communication.

A considerable service would be made to the grammar of all languages generally and to each language specifically by moving the findings to a consideration of the cognitive or emotive reasons for why slots are filled in a certain order. Such a philosophical or psycholinguistical research is probably as inevitable as it is desirable.
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Articles


