

Analysis of Reporting Verbs in *Harry Potter and the Philosopher's Stone* by J. K. Rowling: Syntactic and Semantic Approach

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Abstract—The syntagmatic relations of reporting verbs and the semantic manifestation of these relations are discussed in this article. We describe five positioning types of the author's comment related to direct speech and calculate the absolute and relative frequency of each of them. We also study the means of expressing subjects and their possible positions in reporting clauses; furthermore, we describe the grammatical forms of reporting verbs, the past simple being overwhelmingly predominant. We especially focus on the semantic nature of reporting verbs with their division into semantic groups. We also analyse different approaches to the issue of direct speech being considered as a direct object of a reporting verb. Our analysis of examples indicates that direct speech is not a direct object of a reporting verb. In addition, we examine the direct and optional objects of reporting verbs and characterise the prepositions of optional objects. Adverbs used as reporting verb modifiers are classified according to their meanings. Adverbial phrases, prepositional phrases and -ing clauses, modifying reporting verbs, are analysed and their structure, syntactic functions, and meanings are described.

Index Terms—reporting verb, reporting clause, the author's comment, direct object, adjunct

I. INTRODUCTION

While reading a work of literature, the reader neither sees the speaker, their movements, facial expressions, the people to whom the speech is addressed, nor hears how the words are pronounced. The character's direct speech consists of (1) their words placed between quotation marks that provide the reader with information on what was said, and (2) the author's comment that gives information on who said these words, to whom the words were said, in what voice the phrase was pronounced, how the person looked, and what they were doing at the moment of speaking. Thus, by using such comment, the author allows the reader to visualise people with their feelings, emotions, and inner world, to distinguish between the characters, and to see the background of the situation.

Reporting verbs are usually verbs of speech or thought representation, which are used for reporting what someone has said. A reporting clause is a clause that includes a reporting verb. In (1a) *whispered* is a reporting verb, whereas *Harry whispered* is a reporting clause. The author's comment is a whole comment on direct speech. It may coincide with a reporting clause, see (1a), or consist of several clauses, one of which is reporting, see (1b).

(1) a. 'See?' *Harry whispered* (Rowling, 2001, p. 154).

b. 'You can keep it,' *said Harry, laughing at how pleased Ron was* (Rowling, 2001, p. 147).

The aim of the article is threefold: to research reporting verbs in *Harry Potter and the Philosopher's Stone* by J.K. Rowling, to analyse the syntactic relations of these verbs, and to examine the lexical meaning of the parts of syntactic structures with reporting verbs.

The questions raised in this article are focused on the following aspects:

1. The tense forms of reporting verbs in fiction

2. The placement of the author's comment in the sentences containing direct speech
3. The description of the syntactic relations of reporting verbs
4. The description of the lexical meaning of the elements of syntactic structures with reporting verbs

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Reporting verbs have been studied as a means of creating a fictional personality (Segundo, 2017), conducting a contrastive analysis of their use (Pálková 2012; Yılmaz & Ertürk, 2017), investigating their use in research articles and academic writing (Barghamadi, 2021; Hyland, 2002; Ibrahimova, 2016; Manan, 2014; Shaw, 1992; Thomas & Hawes, 1994; Thompson & Yiyun, 1991), and examining the peculiarities of their translation (Mastropierro, 2020). Our research is devoted to the syntactic characteristics of reporting verbs in fiction.

Language has a linear structure; thus, understanding the rules of syntax is important for utterance generation and comprehension. However, these linear structures exist only to convey some meaning. Hence, the analysis of semantic meaning of parts of syntactic structures is not of less importance. How predictable is syntax and to what extent does it dictate the choice of lexical units to the author? Noël (2002) explains what he refers to as 'semantic extremism':

Syntax without semantics? No syntax without semantics: in the course of half a century the pendulum of modern linguistics has completed its swing. After a few decades of syntax with as little meaning as possible in the third quarter of the 20th century, it has since become fashionable to adhere to the creed that literally everything in syntax is meaningful and that the linguist's task is to elucidate the meaning of form within a — so-called "functional", as opposed to "formal" — theoretical model that coherently links up syntax and semantics (p. 73).

Karamysheva (2017, pp. 20–21) argues that only meaningful word combinations on the framework of communication can be considered as the object of syntax. Valency and complementation theories are the framework we have selected to analyse the extent of the predictability of meaning from form in English verb patterns. Thus, we need to clarify the terms first.

Trask (1993, p. 296) provides both a narrow explanation of valency, focusing on the verb (no wonder, as the verb is considered to be the central element of a sentence and the major determinant of its structure (Faulhaber, 2011, p. 3), and a wider reading:

1. The number of arguments for which a particular verb subcategorises
2. More generally, the subcategorisation requirements of any lexical item

Crystal (2008, p. 507) enumerates various terms describing the number of dependent elements of the verb. The phrase (2a) has a one-actant verb (the verb has a valency of 1, is monovalent or monadic), whereas the phrase (2b) uses a two-actant verb (the verb has a valency of 2, is bivalent or dyadic); meanwhile, the phrase (2c) shows an example of a three-actant verb (the verb has a valency of 3, is trivalent, polyvalent or polyadic). Some verbs may have zero valency or be aivalent, see (2d).

- (2) a. *Philippe left.*
- b. *Philippe called John.*
- c. *Phillipe lent John some money.*
- d. *It rains.*

Scientists believe that valency is important for language description and is beneficial for learning languages (Gao & Liu, 2019; Herbst, 1999; Herbst et al., 2004; Zhao & Jiang, 2020).

Herbst and Schüller (2008, p. 108) define valency as the capacity of a lexical unit to open lexical slots that can or must be filled with a complement. Complements pertain to 'the formal realisations of valency slot' (Herbst, 2014, p. 124).

Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1169) exclude subject (unless it is extraposed) from complementation, whereas Downing and Locke (2006, p. 36) exclude subject and object, arguing that complements are not participants of the events but are required syntactically and semantically. According to Huddleston and Pullum (2016, pp. 216–217), subject, object, and a predicative complement are complements of verbs. The scientists subdivide predicative complements into complex-intransitive and complex-transitive, which Downing and Locke (2006, p. 64) denote as a subject complement and an object complement, respectively. In (3a) the adjective *tall* is a subject (complex-intransitive) complement and in (3b) the adjective *angry* is an object (complex-transitive) complement.

- (3) a. *He is tall.*
- b. *You are making me angry.*

Radford (2004, p. 329) defines a complement clause as a clause that is a complement of a word. In (4) the clause *that she would help* is a complement of the verb *expected*; hence, it is a complement clause.

- (4) *He never expected that she would help.*

Verbs may be of several types that require different elements; thus, we usually speak of verb complementation patterns. The following types of verbs make the patterns:

- transitive verbs of three kinds: monotransitive, ditransitive, and complex-transitive
- intransitive verbs
- copulas

Quirk et al. (1985, pp. 53–54) propose several definitions. Transitive verbs are verbs that require an object. They can be (1) monotransitive (subject – verb - direct object pattern), see (5a); (2) ditransitive (subject – verb - indirect object - direct object pattern), see (5b); or (3) complex-transitive (subject – verb - direct object - complement pattern), see (5c); subject – verb - direct object - adverbial pattern, see (5d).

Intransitive verbs do not need to be followed by any obligatory elements, as they form the subject–verb pattern, see (5e).

Copular verbs, which can also be referred to as copulative, equative, intensive, or linking, are followed by a subject complement (subject – verb - complement pattern), see (5f) or an adverbial (subject – verb - adverbial pattern), see (5g).

- (5) a. *She likes fruit.*
 b. *The host offered the girl a glass of wine.*
 c. *My friend considers this movie too boring.*
 d. *You should drink all the syrup at once.*
 e. *They left.*
 f. *The situation got better.*
 g. *He was upstairs.*

Verbs in their different meanings may follow different patterns. For instance, the transitive verb *made* in (6a) becomes an intransitive one in (6b). Therefore, it is more accurate to say that verbs have transitive and intransitive use.

- (6) a. *He made a mistake.*
 b. *The man made towards the exit.*

Adverbial modifiers may act as complements and as adjuncts. Fischer (1997, p. 45) offers an explanation based on two sentences. Sentence (7a) has a complement *in Paris*, which is specific for the verb *lives* (it has a special semantic relation to it and cannot be separated from it). The same adverbial in (7b) is an adjunct, as it can be easily separated from the verb: *He fell in love. It was in Paris that he fell in love.*

- (7) a. *He lives in Paris.*
 b. *He fell in love in Paris.*

In traditional grammar subordinate clauses are classified through the concepts of a noun, adjective, and adverb clauses. Berk (1999, pp. 227–284) subdivides subordinate clauses into nominal, clauses as adjective complements, relative clauses (postnominal modification constructions), and adverbial clauses. Casagrande (2018, pp. 147–155) distinguishes nominal clauses, relative, adverbial and comparative clauses. Miller (2002, pp. 63–67) subdivides subordinate clauses into complement clauses (the author stresses that these clauses were traditionally defined as noun clauses), relative and adverbial clauses. Aarts (2001) does not consider adverbial clauses as a class of subordinate clauses. Huddleston and Pullum (2016, p. 62) claim that functional parallels between word classes and subordinate clauses do not make a solid foundation for the classification of clauses. The scientists differentiate relative, comparative, and content clauses. Furthermore, the scholars consider most traditional adverbial clauses as prepositional phrases (PPs) containing a preposition as a head of a PP (*before, because, as, when, whenever, while*) and a content clause as a complement. We adhere to this position.

III. METHODS

This research is based on analysis of the author's comment in sentences containing direct speech in the book *Harry Potter and the Philosopher's Stone* by J.K. Rowling. The book has been selected for the research due to a sufficient number of direct speech examples accompanied by the author's comment. The wide range of reporting verbs provides an opportunity to study syntactic structures with different reporting verbs and to draw conclusions about the syntactic peculiarities of certain verbs and the syntactic patterns of these verbs in general.

We conducted our research through a continuous sampling method for retrieving reporting verbs and their syntactic patterns. A total of 2,272 examples of direct speech have been studied, of which 1,126 are unaccompanied by the author's comment and 1,146 are used with such comment. Of 1,146 examples we have one where two reporting clauses are used in one sentence, see (8e). Thus, we have 1,147 examples of reporting clauses use for our study.

Statistical methods have been used for calculating the absolute and relative frequency of (1) the author's comment position in sentences with direct speech; (2) grammatical forms of reporting verbs; (3) most often used reporting verbs in the text; and (3) a reporting verb + an adverb (adverbs) syntactic pattern.

Through the semantic analysis method, we have examined the semantic meaning of reporting verbs and their objects and adjuncts, namely adverbs, PPs, and participles I.

Distributional analysis has been performed for classifying (1) syntactic structures with reporting verbs and (2) reporting verbs and their objects and adjuncts (adverbs, PPs, and participles I) according to their semantic meanings.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Position of the Author's Comment in Sentences Containing Direct Speech

The author's comment is used (1) at the end of the sentence that has direct speech, see (8a); (2) at the beginning of the sentence containing direct speech, see (8b); (3) in the middle of the sentence that contains direct speech, see (8c); (4)

at the beginning and at the end of the sentence containing direct speech, see (8d); and (5) in the middle and at the end of the sentence with direct speech, see (8e). In (8e) two reporting verbs are used in one sentence, namely *said* and *added*.

- (8) a. *'I suppose so', said Mrs Dursley stiffly* (Rowling, 2001, p. 11).
 b. *When they had left the shop, he said, 'Hagrid, what's Quidditch?'* (Rowling, 2001, p. 61).
 c. *'She hasn't got much time,' he added quickly, 'you know, with five of us.'* (Rowling, 2001, p. 76).
 d. *Then, none of them looking at each other, they all said 'Thanks', and hurried off to get plates* (Rowling, 2001, p. 132).
 e. *'I'll be back at dawn,' said Filch, 'for what's left of them,' he added nastily, and he turned and started back towards the castle, his lamp bobbing away in the darkness* (Rowling, 2001, p. 182).

Table 1 shows the absolute and relative frequency for the author's comment used in different positions.

TABLE 1
ABSOLUTE AND RELATIVE FREQUENCY FOR THE AUTHOR'S COMMENT USED IN DIFFERENT POSITIONS IN THE SENTENCES CONTAINING DIRECT SPEECH (FOR 1,146 EXAMPLES)

Position of the author's comment in the sentences containing direct speech	Absolute frequency	Relative frequency (%)
At the end	991	86.47
In the middle	89	7.77
At the beginning	59	5.15
At the beginning and at the end	6	0.52
In the middle and at the end	1	0.09

The results of the research show that most of the author's comment examples (86.47%) are situated at the end of the sentences with direct speech. Such placement may be explained by the fact that in fiction, the main attention is drawn to the characters' direct speech and the author's comment accompanies it. In this manner, the plot becomes more vivid and the dialogues more real.

B. Means of Expressing Subjects in Reporting Clauses

A reporting verb requires a subject that usually denotes human agents. The subject is often a name of the speaker, see (9f), or a personal pronoun, see (9j). In some cases, the subject of a reporting clause may be a common noun. In (9a) the subject is expressed by a noun phrase (NP) that consists of a determiner and a common noun. In (9b) the subject of the reporting clause is expressed by a fused-head NP, where the head is a determiner and the common noun *twins* is a part of a complement PP. Sometimes, when the speaker is out of sight of the interlocutor, the subject can be expressed by the noun *voice* that is an example of metonymy. The word *voice* can be a head of the NP with an adjective modifier: *a thin voice, a loud voice, a sharp voice*, and so on, see (9c). The subject of a reporting clause can denote aliens or animals (real, mythological, imagined, see (9d)). At other times, the subject of a reporting clause denotes inanimate nouns in real life, which are personified in a work of literature, see (9e). In (9m) the subject of a reporting clause is expressed by an NP that consists of the head *Chaser* and the appositive *Angelina Johnson* as a modifier. In (9n) the subject is expressed by an NP where *Persy* is a head and *the Prefect* is a modifier in the appositive position to *Persy*. In (9o) the subject is an NP that contains a head *Pansy Parkinson* and a supplemented appositive *a hard-faced Slytherin girl*. If a reporting clause precedes direct speech, then the subject of the reporting clause is always used before the predicate, see (9e) and (9f). If a reporting clause is used in the middle of the sentence with direct speech or at the end of it, and the subject of the reporting clause is expressed by a noun or an NP, then a reporting verb either precedes the subject, see (9a)–(9d), (9g), (9h), or follows it, as in (9i), the latter construction being less frequent. If the subject of a reporting clause is expressed by a personal pronoun, then the predicate of this clause always follows the subject regardless of the reporting clause position in the sentence, see (9j)–(9l).

- (9) a. *'Budge up, yeah great lump,' said the strange* (Rowling, 2001, p. 39).
 b. *'What's that?' said one of the twins suddenly, pointing at Harry's lightning scar* (Rowling, 2001, p. 71).
 c. *'Move along now,' said a sharp voice* (Rowling, 2001, p. 87).
 d. *'Are you all right?' said the centaur, pulling Harry to his feet* (Rowling, 2001, p. 187).
 e. *Harry crossed his fingers under the table and a second later the hat had shouted, 'GRIFFINDOR!'* (Rowling, 2001, p. 91).
 f. *Uncle Vernon said sharply, 'Don't touch anything he gives you, Dudley'* (Rowling, 2001, p. 41).
 g. *'I shall see you soon, I expect, Professor McGonagall,' said Dumbledore, nodding to her* (Rowling, 2001, p. 17).
 h. *'I want to read it,' said Harry furiously, 'as it's mine'* (Rowling, 2001, p. 31).
 i. *'Have you got your own broom?' the boy went on* (Rowling, 2001, p. 60).
 j. *'Good luck, Harry,' he murmured* (Rowling, 2001, p. 18).
 k. *He chuckled and muttered, 'I should have known'* (Rowling, 2001, p. 12).
 l. *'See,' he explained to Aunt Petunia through a mouthful of nails, 'if they can't deliver them they'll just give up'* (Rowling, 2001, p. 34).
 m. *'And women,' said Chaser Angelina Johnson* (Rowling, 2001, p. 136).
 n. *'Oh, shut up, said Persy the Prefect* (Rowling, 2001, p. 72).

- o. 'Ooh, sticking up for Longbottom?' said Pansy Parkinson, a hard-faced Slytherin girl (Rowling, 2001, p. 110).

C. Grammatical Forms of Reporting Verbs in the Text

In most cases, reporting verbs are used in past simple, see (9a). In some cases, they are used in other forms: past perfect, see (10a); past continuous, see (10b); infinitive, see (10c) and (10d); participle I, see (10e); or gerund, see (10f).

- (10) a. 'In the car crash when your parents died,' she had said (Rowling, 2001, p. 20).
 b. 'Slytherin in possession,' Lee Jordan was saying (Rowling, 2001, p. 138).
 c. 'Broken wrist,' Harry heard her mutter (Rowling, 2001, p. 110).
 d. He glared at them all as if to say, 'Or else' (Rowling, 2001, p. 136).
 e. Everybody seemed to know Hagrid; they waved and smiled at him, and the barman reached for a glass, saying, 'The usual, Hagrid?' (Rowling, 2001, p. 54).
 f. He wasn't a very good player and they kept shouting different bits of advice at him, which was confusing: 'Don't send me there, can't you see his knight? Send him, we can afford to lose him' (Rowling, 2001, p. 147).

Table 2 shows the absolute and relative frequency of reporting verb grammatical forms use (for 1,147 examples).

TABLE 2
 GRAMMATICAL FORMS OF REPORTING VERBS IN THE TEXT (FOR 1,147 EXAMPLES)

Grammatical forms	Absolute frequency	Relative frequency (%)
Past simple	1,117	97.38
Past perfect	4	0.35
Past continuous	8	0.70
Infinitive	13	1.13
Participle I	3	0.26
Gerund	2	0.18

As shown in Table 2, most reporting verbs are used in the past simple tense, which can be explained by the fact that the events of the story occurred in the past. Furthermore, past simple is not a complex analytical form that would slow down the dialogue reading and, as a result, the plot development. However, the use of other verb forms is the evidence that reporting verbs may be used in other forms depending on the communicative aim of the reporting clause.

D. Reporting Verbs and Their Meanings

We have found reporting verbs in the text denoting speaking, reading, and thinking. The verbs are presented below in alphabetical order.

Add, admit, advise, agree, ask, bark, bellow, blurt out, boom, breathe, burst out, call, call up, choke, chorus, command, confess, croak, cry, cut in, demand, explain, falter, gasp, groan, growl, grumble, grunt, hiss, howl, inform, invent, lie, moan, mouth, mumble, murmur, mutter, observe, order, pant, pipe, plead, puff, put in, read, recite, reel off, remind, repeat, roar, rumble, say, scream, screech, shout, shriek, sigh, snap, snap back, snarl, sneer, sob, sound, spit, speak, splutter, squawk, squeak, squeal, stammer, storm, suggest, tell, think, thunder, urge, wail, warn, wheedle, wheeze, whine, whisper, wonder, yell.

The reporting verbs may also denote the phase of speaking: *begin, finish, go on.*

Some reporting verbs indicate different acts that accompany speaking: *chortle, explode, hear, laugh, press on, smile.*

Some verbs used in reporting clauses have neither the meaning of speaking nor the same denoting 'to speak', but they are a part of the phrase that has a semantic element of speaking. These phrases are as follows: *were his first verbs, she was almost speechless, came an angry voice, came Malfoy's cold drawl, (he) put on a high tone.*

Most reporting verbs denote speaking. The verb *to say* is most frequently used (absolute frequency: 746 for 1,147 examples; relative frequency: 65.03%). The second most frequently used reporting verb in the text is *to ask* (absolute frequency: 40 for 1,147 examples; relative frequency: 3.49%). Such high frequency of the reporting verbs *to say* and *to ask* may be explained by their neutral meaning that can be easily specified by adding adverbs.

E. Reporting Verb + Object Patterns

The next question we have studied is whether direct speech can be considered as a direct object of a reporting verb. Some scholars claim that direct speech is a constituent of object function (Brown et al., 2005, p. 39). According to these scientists, sentences with direct speech can be transformed into sentences with indirect speech with *that* complement clauses or *if/whether*, or *wh*-complement clauses. Structure subject – predicate – direct speech has the same structure as subject – predicate – direct object, in which direct speech can fill the slot of the direct object. The sentence in (11a) has the same configuration as the sentence in (11b), where *it* is a direct object. The slot of *it* can be filled by direct speech. The sentence in (11a) can also be transformed into sentence (11c) with a *that* complement clause.

- (11) a. 'I don't want more trouble,' he mumbled (Rowling, 2001, p. 160).
 b. He mumbled it.
 c. He mumbled that he didn't want more trouble.

Most reporting verbs under research may potentially form sentences according to patterns (11a), (11b), and (11c). Direct speech may take the slot of the direct object and be transformed into a complement *that* clause.

However, Huddleston and Pullum (2016, p. 1022) underscore the differences between NPs and *that*-clauses and conclude that content clause complements must be analysed independently of NPs. Vandelanotte (2008) confirms a standpoint that a reporting clause is not a direct object of direct speech. We also support this position with the following argumentation. Some verbs (*agree, groan, lie, moan, think, whine*) can be a part of patterns (11a) and (11c), but they cannot be a part of pattern (11b). They require PPs: *agree with something/somebody; groan about something; lie about something; moan about something; think of/about something/somebody; whine about something*.

Furthermore, the verbs *remind, warn, and inform* cannot be a part of pattern (11b) because they require PPs (*remind somebody of/about something/somebody, warn somebody about something, inform somebody on/about somebody/something*). Their difference from the group of the verbs above consists in the fact that they require a direct object (somebody), see (12a)–(12c).

- (12) a. *'This isn't football, Dean,' Ron reminded him* (Rowling, 2001, p. 138).
 b. *He reminded him of it.*
 c. *Ron reminded him (that) that wasn't football.*

Direct speech can take a slot of *it* in (12b). Thus, direct speech is not a direct object of the reporting verb *remind*. Berk (1999, p. 232) argues that *him* is a direct object in (12a)–(12c), and the *that* clause in (12c) is a complement of a verb.

The verbs *ask* and *wonder* can be a part of pattern (11a), see (13a). However, they cannot build pattern (11b) because they require a PP (*ask about somebody/something; ask for something; wonder about somebody/something*), see (13b). These verbs require *whether* or *if* before complementary content clauses, see (13c).

- (13) a. *'Could a werewolf be killing the unicorns?' Harry asked* (Rowling, 2001, p. 183).
 b. *Harry asked about it.*
 c. *Harry asked whether/if a werewolf could be killing the unicorns.*

The verbs *begin, go on, press on, smile, burst out, chortle, cut in, explode, laugh, and plead* can be reporting verbs in sentences with direct speech, see (14), but they cannot build sentences according to patterns (11b) and (11c).

- (14) *'Very well,' Snape cut in* (Rowling, 2001, p. 166).

Thus, not in all cases direct speech can fit in the slot of the direct object or be transformed into a complementary content clause. In other words, direct speech cannot be considered as a direct object of reporting verbs. Unless the reporting verbs have a direct object as in (12a)–(12c), we will describe them as having an intransitive use.

Some reporting verbs always require a direct object (*tell, remind, warn, inform, urge, order*). The verbs *ask* and *advise* may have a direct object, see (15a), or they can be used intransitively, see (15b).

- (15) a. *'What's this?' he asked Aunt Petunia* (Rowling, 2001, p. 29).
 b. *'How many days you got left until yer holidays?' Hagrid asked* (Rowling, 2001, p. 144).

A number of reporting verbs can be followed by an optional prepositional object that mentions the addressee. Here we have the case of reduced valency (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 94; Gelderen, 2011; Qi & Hua, 2021). The preposition *to* is most often used for introducing the addressee, see (16a). Another frequent preposition used in the text under research is *at*, see (16b).

- (16) a. *'So, we've just got to try on the hat!' Ron whispered to Harry* (Rowling, 2001, p. 89).
 b. *'Go to your cupboard – I mean, your bedroom,' he wheezed at Harry* (Rowling, 2001, p. 33).

Semantically, the preposition *to* introduces the addressee after a reporting verb with a neutral meaning and simply denotes that the speech is directed to a particular receiver. Meanwhile, the preposition *at* is used after reporting verbs that contain the same *to say something furiously*. Some verbs can potentially be used either with *to* or *at*, and the preposition changes the meaning of the verb. For example, (17a) means *to say something loudly to somebody* because the recipient may not hear the utterance pronounced more quietly. The phrase in (17b) means not only *to say something loudly to somebody* but also *to say it with anger*.

- (17) a. *to shout to somebody*
 b. *to shout at somebody*

The cases of addressees mentioned in the text after a prepositional object are not numerous, as it is usually clear from the context to whom the speech is addressed. For example, the verb *say* is used 746 times as a reporting verb in the text; it is followed by a prepositional object denoting the receiver of the speech in only six examples.

F. Use of Adverbs and Adverbial Phrases in Reporting Clauses

Reporting verbs are often followed by adverbs or adverbial phrase (AdvPs), see (18a). AdvPs are also often used after nouns that are subjects of reporting clauses, see (18b) and (18c).

Sometimes the sentence containing direct speech and the author's comment starts with an adverb, see (18d).

- (18) a. *'But why? What happened?' Harry asked urgently* (Rowling, 2001, p. 44).
 b. *'Give that here, Malfoy,' said Harry quietly* (Rowling, 2001, p. 110).
 c. *'We want to see Professor Dumbledore,' said Hermione, rather bravely, Harry and Ron thought* (Rowling, 2001, p. 194).
 d. *Then he shouted, 'There's another one! Mr H. Potter, The smallest Bedroom, 4 Privet Drive –'* (Rowling, 2001, p. 33).

Greenbaum (1996, p. 146) distinguishes three functions of adverbs: conjuncts, disjuncts, and adjuncts. Quirk et al. (1985, pp. 439–441) subdivide the syntactical functions of adverbs into adjuncts, subjuncts, disjuncts, and conjuncts. Huddleston and Pullum (2016, pp. 575–577) describe the linear position of adverbs and AdvPs in different clauses. The linguists also divide adverbs into verb phrase-oriented (VP-oriented) and clause-oriented adverbs.

A total of 211 of 1,147 examples of reporting verbs (18.40%) are modified by adverbs or AdvPs in the text. In this use, adverbs and AdvPs are adjuncts. Adverbs provide more information about the feelings and emotions of the speaker and their voice characteristics, and they may also show the speaker's character traits. Furthermore, they give information about the time or duration of speech, or serial order. Most VP-oriented adverbs are manner adverbs. We have subdivided **manner** adverbs into adverbs denoting **emotions**: *angrily, anxiously, bitterly, blankly, blissfully, breathlessly, brightly, calmly, casually, cheerfully, coldly, coolly, crossly, darkly, desperately, dully, excitedly, feverishly, fiercely, frantically, furiously, gleefully, gloomily, grimly, grumpily, half-heartedly, happily, impatiently, irritably, miserably, nervously, sadly, shortly, wildly*; **feelings**: *airily, dramatically, dreamily, heavily, hotly, importantly, mysteriously, proudly, ruefully, sleepily*; **character traits**: *awkwardly, bravely, carelessly, curiously, enviously, gruffly, kindly, pompously, reasonably, sniffily*; **cognitive characteristics of speech**: *crisply, delicately, eagerly, firmly, flatly, fondly, greasily, grudgingly, hopefully, idly, impressively, plainly, simply, stupidly, thoughtfully, timidly, uncertainly, urgently*; **voice characteristics**: *aloud, briskly, faintly, gently, loudly, quickly, quietly, sharply, shrilly, silkily, slowly, smoothly, softly, stiffly, thickly*; **adverbs denoting the fact of speaking with somebody else**: *together*; **in a final manner**: *finally*; **in an unexpected manner**: *suddenly*.

Aside from manner adverbs, we also have some examples of VP-oriented adverbs such as **temporal location**: *later*; **aspectuality**: *just, still*; **serial-order adverbs**: *again*; **degree**: *rather, as, quite, more*.

We have also found **clause-oriented connective adverbs** such as *finally, instead, and then*. Clause-oriented adverbs are used only if the author's comment precedes direct speech.

The adverb *finally* is used in one example as a verb-oriented manner adverb, see (19a), and as a clause-oriented connective adverb in other examples, see (19b).

- (19) a. *'What do they think they're doing, keeping a thing like that locked up in a school?'* said Ron finally (Rowling, 2001, p. 218).
 b. *Finally he said, 'Now, don't be offended or anything, but neither of you are that good at chess –'* (Rowling, 2001, p. 204).

In most examples, a reporting clause has one adverb, see (20a). If a reporting clause has more than one adverb, they usually belong to different types, see (20b). A clause-oriented connective adverb *then* is used in the front position, and a manner adverb *slowly* is used in the end position.

- (20) a. *'Hagrid!'* said Harry loudly (Rowling, 2001, p. 49).
 b. *Then he said slowly, 'It shows us what we want ... whatever we want ...'* (Rowling, 2001, p. 157).

In (18c) *rather bravely* is an AdvP where the degree adverb *rather* modifies the manner adverb *bravely*. In (21a) the AdvP consists of a degree adverb *more* that functions as a marker of an analytic comparative construction, a manner adverb *bravely* and a comparative clause *than he felt* functioning as an indirect complement in the structure of the AdvP. *Than he felt* is an indirect complement because it is licensed not by the head of the AdvP *bravely* but by the modifier *more*.

In (21b) the AdvP consists of a manner adverb *casually*, a modifier *as*, and an indirect complement *as he could*, expressed by a PP. The first *as* in the construction is a degree adverb and the second *as* is a preposition. Example (21b) also contains a clause-oriented connective adverb *instead*. In (21c) the reporting clause contains a manner adverb *loudly* and an AdvP *a few minutes later* that consists of a temporal location adverb *later* that is the head of the AdvP, and an NP *a few minutes* that modifies the adverb *later*.

- (21) a. *'Unless you get out now,'* said Harry, *more bravely than he felt* (Rowling, 2001, p. 82).
 b. *Instead he said, as casually as he could, 'Their son – he'd be about Dudley's age now, wouldn't he?'* (Rowling, 2001, p. 11).
 c. *'You know how I think they choose people for the Gryffindor team?'* said Malfoy loudly *a few minutes later, as Snape awarded Hufflepuff another penalty for no reason at all* (Rowling, 2001, p. 163).

G. Reporting Verb + PP Patterns

Reporting verbs can be modified by PPs, see (22). *In a hoarse voice* is a PP, modifying the reporting verb *said*. *In* is the head of the phrase and *a hoarse voice* is an NP complement. PPs in (22)–(23s) are in brackets.

- (22) *'Midnight on Saturday!'* he said [*in a hoarse voice*] (Rowling, 2001, p. 174).

We have found PPs, modifying reporting verbs, used in the following syntactical functions: (1) manner, see (22)–(23f); (2) path, see (23g); (3) goal, see (23h); (4) source, see (23i); (5) spatial location, see (23j); (6) temporal location, see (23k)–(23p); (7) speech act-related, see (23q); (8) purpose, see (23r); and (9) reason, see (23s).

PPs in the syntactical function of manner adjuncts often have the meaning of voice characteristics, see (22) and (23a); feelings and emotions, see (23b), (23c); facial expressions that accompany the speech, see (23d); sounds accompanying the speech, see (23e); and saying something in the manner of another action, see (23f).

- (23) a. *'Peeves,'* he said, [*in a hoarse whisper*], *'the Bloody Baron has his own reasons for being invisible'* (Rowling, 2001, p. 199).

- b. 'Yes, but not to us,' said Ron [in exasperation] (Rowling, 2001, p. 198).
- c. 'How did he get covered in blood?' asked Seamus [with great interest] (Rowling, 2001, p. 93).
- d. 'You shouldn't be inside on a day like this,' he said, [with an odd, twisted smile] (Rowling, 2001, p. 195).
- e. 'Oooooooh!' he said [with an evil cackle] (Rowling, 2001, p. 96).
- f. 'D-Defence Against the D-D-Dark Arts,' muttered Professor Quirrell, [as though he'd rather not think about it] (Rowling, p. 55).
- g. 'What did you say?' his aunt snapped [through the door] (Rowling, 2001, p. 20).
- h. 'He's lost his marbles,' Ron muttered [in Harry's ear] (Rowling, 2001, p. 172).
- i. 'Oy, pea-brain!' yelled Ron [from the other side of the chamber], and he threw a metal pipe at it (Rowling, 2001, p. 129).
- j. 'Stick out your right hand over your broom,' called Madam Hook [at the front], 'and say, "Up!"' (Rowling, 2001, p. 109).
- k. 'I ... don't ... want ... him ... t-t-to come! Dudley yelled [between huge pretend sobs] (Rowling, 2001, p. 22).
- l. 'Half past eleven,' Ron muttered [at last] (Rowling, 2001, p. 115).
- m. 'Little tyke,' chortled Mr Dursley [as he left the house] (Rowling, 2001, p. 8).
- n. 'There's a Ministry of Magic?' Harry asked [before he could stop himself] (Rowling, 2001, p. 51).
- o. 'Shake 'em off ... shake 'em off,' he would mutter [whenever he did this] (Rowling, 2001, p. 35).
- p. 'Mars is bright tonight,' Ronan repeated [while Hagrid watched him impatiently] (Rowling, 2001, p. 185).
- q. [At last], he said, 'The Forest hides many secrets' (Rowling, 2001, p. 185).
- r. 'Well done,' said Dumbledore quietly [so that only Harry could hear] (Rowling, 2001, p. 164).
- s. 'Unless you get out now,' said Harry, more bravely than he felt, [because Crabbe and Goyle were a lot bigger than him or Ron] (Rowling, 2001, p. 82).

All the PPs used in the novel consist of a preposition as the head of a phrase and an NP complement, see (22)–(23e), (23g)–(23l), (23q) or a complement content clause, see (23f), (23m–23p), (23r), (23s).

PPs usually follow the subject of a reporting clause or a reporting verb, see (23a)–(23p). PPs, modifying reporting verbs, can follow AdvPs, see (23r), (24). In (23q) a PP precedes a reporting clause, such cases being characteristic of examples in which direct speech follows the author's comment. One sentence may contain several PPs, see (24). Two PPs are used after the AdvP *pompously*. A PP *across Harry* functions as a direction, and the PP *as 'Zabini, Blaise' was made a Slytherin* functions as a temporal location.

- (24) 'Well done, Ron, excellent,' said Percy Weasley *pompously* [across Harry] [as 'Zabini, Blaise' was made a Slytherin] (Rowling, 2001, p. 91).

H. -Ing Clauses as Modifiers of Reporting Verbs

Reporting verbs are often modified by -ing clauses, see (25a). The -ing clause in (25a) is *looking around for another boat*. The clause does not have a subject, but the understood subject is *Harry*. In some cases, an -ing clause has its own subject, see (25b). The subject of the -ing clause in example (25b) is *his heart*. -Ing clauses may consist only of one -ing word (participle 1, see (25c)), but they usually contain more than one word, see (25a) and (25b).

- (25) a. 'How did you get here?' Harry asked, *looking around for another boat* (Rowling, 2001, p. 50).
 b. 'And there's Aunt Petunia knocking on the door,' Harry thought, *his heart sinking* (Rowling, 2001, p. 49).
 c. 'Hullo,' he said, *smiling* (Rowling, 2001, p. 193).

All these -ing clauses are used as adjuncts in the function of attendant circumstances. The participles of -ing clauses have the meaning of **movement**: *clapping, climbing, crouching, dancing, dashing, fiddling, hurrying, jumping, leading, leaning, leaping, nodding, patting, pulling, punching, pushing, putting, raising, rising, rubbing, scrambling, shaking, shovelling, shuffling, shutting, sitting down, slipping off, standing up, stretching out, stuffing back, tapping, tearing, throwing, thumping, turning, unfolding, unwrapping, walking, waving, wheeling, wringing*, and so on, see (26a), (26b), (26c). The group of participles denoting movement is the most numerous in the text. They may denote movement of the whole body, see (26a), or movement of a part/parts of the body, see (26b). The action of movement can be directed to another person, see (26c). Aside from participles denoting movement, we have distinguished participles with the meaning of **cognition**: *knowing, realising, remembering, wondering*, see (26d); **involuntary reaction of senses**: *feeling, noticing, watching*, see (26e); **voluntary reaction of senses**: *glancing at, looking around, looking (up) at, peering across, peering over, peering at, staring at*, see (26f); **desideration**: *hoping, wishing, daring*, see (26g); **transfer**: *handing, pointing, taking, giving, showing*, see (26h); **behavioural processes**: *breathing, panting, beaming, frowning, grinning, scowling, smiling, squinting, laughing*, see (26i); **having a look of**: *looking*, see (26j); **possessing**: *clutching, holding*, see (26k); **additional voice characteristics**: *sounding*, see (26l); **changing the state of the object**: *lighting*, see (26m); and **showing the process of change**: *getting, going*, see (26n).

- (26) a. 'Dumbledore?' he said, *dashing to the door to make sure* (Rowling, 2001, p. 163).
 b. 'Wingardium Leviosa!' he shouted, *waving his long arms like a windmill* (Rowling, 2001, p. 127).
 c. 'Percy!' hissed Ron, *pulling Harry behind a large stone griffin* (Rowling, 2001, p. 128).
 d. 'I don't know,' said Harry, *realising this for the first time* (Rowling, 2001, p. 68).
 e. 'No,' said Harry, *feeling more stupid by the minute* (Rowling, 2001, p. 60).

- f. 'Maybe Snape's found out how to get past him without asking Hagrid,' said Ron, looking up at the thousands of books surrounding them (Rowling, 2001, p. 180).
- g. 'Mmm,' said Harry, wishing he could say something more interesting (Rowling, 2001, p. 60).
- h. 'Starving,' said Harry, taking a large bite out of a pumpkin pasty (Rowling, 2001, p. 76).
- i. 'You can keep it,' said Harry, laughing at how pleased Ron was (Rowling, 2001, p. 147).
- j. 'Had to let that happen,' said Ron, looking shaken (Rowling, 2001, p. 205).
- k. 'What are these?' Harry asked Ron, holding up a pack of Chocolate Frogs (Rowling, 2001, pp. 76–77).
- l. 'Oh, sorry,' said the other, not sounding sorry at all (Rowling, 2001, p. 60).
- m. 'Follow me,' said Filch, lighting a lamp and leading them outside (Rowling, 2001, p. 181).
- n. 'All right, thirty-seven then,' said Dudley, going red in the face (Rowling, 2001, p. 21).

V. CONCLUSIONS

We have researched the position of the author's comment in sentences containing direct speech and have calculated the absolute and relative frequency of each position use. The author's comment can be used at the end of a sentence that has direct speech (relative frequency of 86.47%); in the middle of a sentence (relative frequency of 7.77%); at the beginning of a sentence (relative frequency of 5.15%); at the beginning and at the end of a sentence (relative frequency of 0.52%); and in the middle and at the end of a sentence with direct speech (relative frequency of 0.09%).

Subjects of reporting clauses may be expressed by nouns, personal pronouns, and different types of NPs: determiner – noun; (determiner) – adjective – noun; fused-head NPs; and NPs with appositives.

In most cases (relative frequency of 97.38%), reporting verbs are used in past simple. In some cases, reporting verbs can be used in other forms, for example, past perfect, past continuous, infinitive, participle I, and gerund.

Most reporting verbs denote speaking, the verb *to say* being the most frequently used. We have also encountered reporting verbs denoting thinking, reading, the phase of speaking, and different acts that accompany speaking. Some verbs used in reporting clauses have neither the meaning of speaking nor the same 'to speak', but they are a part of a phrase that has a semantic element of speaking (e.g., *came an angry voice*).

We have also focused on the question of whether direct speech can be regarded as a direct object of reporting verbs and have concluded that it cannot. Some reporting verbs are always used with a direct object (*tell, remind, warn, inform, urge, order*). The verbs *ask* and *advise* may have a direct object, or they can be used intransitively. Reporting verbs can also be used with an optional prepositional object, denoting an addressee.

Adverbs and AdvPs are used in reporting clauses as adjuncts, and they are subdivided into VP-oriented and clause-oriented adverbs, most VP-oriented adverbs being manner adverbs. VP-oriented adverbs such as temporal location, aspectuality, serial order, and degree are also used. We have noticed that clause-oriented connective adverbs are used only if the author's comment precedes direct speech.

Reporting verbs can be modified by PPs used in the following syntactical functions: manner, path, goal, source, spatial location, temporal location, speech act-related, purpose, and reason.

Reporting verbs are often modified by -ing clauses used in the function of attendant circumstances. The participles of -ing clauses have the meaning of movement, cognition, involuntary reaction of senses, voluntary reaction of senses, desideration, transfer, behavioural processes, having a look of, possessing, additional voice characteristics, changing the state of the object, and showing the process of change.

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