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EDITORIAL

Spectrum 6.0: Bridging Disciplines for Sustainable Development

The Sixth International Conference on New Frontiers in Engineering, Science, Law, Management, Humanities, and Social Sciences (INFES 6.0-2024) stands as a beacon for innovation and interdisciplinary collaboration, gathering scholars, practitioners, and thought leaders across diverse fields. This event not only represents a convergence of knowledge but also serves as a platform to address the most pressing global challenges, from technological advancements to sustainable development.

In an age defined by rapid digital transformation and social complexities, INFES 6.0-2024 brings together experts from fields as varied as engineering, science, law, management, humanities, and social sciences. This cross-disciplinary approach reflects the interconnected nature of today's challenges. Whether it's climate change, ethical implications of AI, or the evolving landscape of global governance, these issues demand holistic, integrated solutions that transcend traditional



boundaries. INFES 6.0 encourages discourse on critical issues that span multiple disciplines, fostering a spirit of collaboration and innovation essential for real-world impact.

A Platform for Future-Oriented Innovation

One of the defining features of INFES 6.0-2024 is its focus on exploring “new frontiers.” Each discipline has its unique perspective on emerging trends and innovations, and this conference invites participants to push these boundaries. Engineering and scientific advancements, for instance, are often the driving forces behind technological progress, but without a grounding in ethical, legal, and social frameworks, their full potential cannot be realized. By integrating perspectives from law and social sciences, INFES 6.0 provides a well-rounded view that aids in creating sustainable, responsible innovations.

Empowering Global Voices and Diverse Perspectives

In keeping with its mission to be a truly international platform, INFES 6.0 encourages participation from a diverse pool of contributors, giving equal space to researchers, practitioners, and students. This inclusivity is critical, as the most innovative ideas often emerge from collaborative exchanges among people



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with varying backgrounds and expertise. With discussions ranging from legal policy and corporate management to engineering challenges and social impact research, participants gain a unique opportunity to consider new viewpoints, fostering broader understanding and richer insights.

Tackling Real-World Problems through Collaborative Solutions

One of the core goals of INFES 6.0-2024 is to bridge the gap between academia and industry. In today's fast-paced environment, where academic discoveries quickly translate into market applications, the importance of these connections cannot be overstated. By bringing together stakeholders from academia, industry, and government, the conference stimulates dialogue and partnerships that are pivotal for translating research into practical solutions. These collaborations can address urgent issues such as climate adaptation, resource management, and the ethical implications of emerging technologies.

A Commitment to Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

Sustainability is a key focus of INFES 6.0-2024, aligning itself with the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The conference themes, discussions, and



presentations reflect a commitment to sustainable development in every discipline. By promoting responsible and ethical research practices, INFES 6.0 not only addresses the “what” and “how” of innovation but also the “why,” ensuring that advancements serve the broader goal of enhancing human welfare and protecting our planet.

Conclusion: The Way Forward

INFES 6.0-2024 is not just an academic conference; it is a movement toward a more interconnected and sustainable future. As we look forward to the discussions, collaborations, and breakthroughs that this event will undoubtedly generate, we remain hopeful that the conference will inspire participants to push the boundaries of their respective fields and collaborate toward common goals. By bridging engineering, science, law, management, humanities, and social sciences, INFES 6.0-2024 embodies the spirit of interdisciplinary innovation required to navigate the complexities of our modern world. This conference is a step forward, bringing together the brightest minds to shape a future that is sustainable, equitable, and progressive for all.

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16. Word Classes In English - Grammatical Categories.

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Abstract: It is now known that the basic sentence consists of a Noun Phrase (functioning as subject) followed by a Verb Phrase (functioning as predicate) (Burton-Roberts, 2016, p.65). There are several examples of VPs, though very little has been said about them. This chapter deals with the general structure (the immediate constituents) of the VP half of the basic sentence. As these VPs illustrate, categories may appear in the VP, including Noun Phrases. Within the VP, however, NPs have different functions. It's these different functions of NP and other categories of phrases that are going to be mentioned here. There are two kinds of verb in English: lexical and auxiliary (Burton-Roberts, 2016, p.65). Lexical verbs are the ones that belong to the indefinitely large general vocabulary of the language (e.g. run, eat, seem, explain, recycle, shatter, prepare,



depend). Auxiliary verbs, by contrast, are a special and very restricted set of verbs. The clear ones are: be, have, and do (which can also be lexical) and can/could, will/would, shall/should, may/might, must, and need. All mentioned verbs will be precisely defined in this paper.

Keywords: grammatical categories, verbs, auxiliary verbs, sentence constituencies

Word Classes- Grammatical Categories

There are several examples of VPs, though very little has been said about them. This chapter deals with the general structure (the immediate constituents) of the VP half of the basic sentence. *Paddle, sunbathed beside a river, loves fish, hated the chips, dreads affectionate dogs, and seemed sad* are all VPs.

As these VPs illustrate, categories introduced in previous chapters may appear in the VP, including Noun Phrases. Within the VP, however, NPs have different functions. It's these different functions of NP and other categories of phrases that are going to be mentioned here. **A First Look At Verbs:** The one constituent that a Verb Phrase (VP) must contain is a verb (V). VPs are centred on V. There are two kinds of verb in English: **lexical and auxiliary** (Burton-Roberts, 2016,p.65). **Lexical verbs** are the ones that belong to the indefinitely large general vocabulary of the language (*e.g. run, eat, seem, explain, recycle, shatter, prepare, depend*). **Auxiliary verbs**, by contrast, are a special and very restricted set of verbs. The clear ones are: **be, have, and do (which can also be lexical) and can/could,**



will/would, shall/should, may/might, must, and need. A full VP must contain a lexical verb and it may contain auxiliary verbs. In the following, the lexical verbs are in bold and the auxiliary verbs are in italics.

- [1a] Nina **plays** the piano.
 [1b] Nina **played** the piano.
 [2] Andej *is* **explaining** his generalisation.
 [3] Maria *should have* **recycled** those bottles.
 [4] Tim *may have been* **preparing** his lecture.

Lexical verbs are easily identified by their morphological (i.e. their word-form) possibilities. They are words that take some if not all of the verbal inflections **-s, -ing, -ed, -en**. For example: *plays, playing, played and writes, writing, written*. In VPs containing only a lexical verb, that verb will always carry a present or past meaning. In fact, present and past are explicitly marked in the first example above: in *Nina plays the piano* - play carries the present tense inflection -s and in *Nina played the piano* - it carries the past tense inflection, -ed. More often than not, though, the present tense is not explicitly marked (though it's understood). A general point to note in identifying categories – one that applies particularly to verbs – **is that words can belong to more than one category**. For example, *interest* is certainly a verb: cf. *interests, interesting, interested*. It's a verb in example *Millie's hair interested him*. But both interest and interests can also be nouns (singular and plural respectively) as in . Its great architectural interest did not strike him immediately. John's interests are rather



eccentric. A very interesting plan was proposed. He wasn't very interested in the bean production. Here *interesting and interested* can be adjectives. Notice in passing that the adjectives *interesting and interested* are gradable and so can be modified by *very*. By contrast, no verb can be modified by *very*: *Millie's hair very interested him.* Her hair was very interesting him. THE COMPLEMENTS OF LEXICAL VERBS: This chapter is concerned with the functional relations between lexical verbs and other constituents that appear in the basic Verb Phrase. Let's look at the function of *affectionate cats* in the sentence: *Tim dreads affectionate cats.* The VP is *dreads affectionate cats*, and *dreads* is the verb. We decided that the relation between the V (*dreads*) and the NP (*affectionate cats*) is a head-complement relation. It's a two-way (mutual) dependency between the verb (as head) and the NP (its complement). The use of *dreads* without a following NP is ungrammatical as a sentence, and so is the use of the NP without *dreads*: *Tim dreads. *Tim affectionate cats. But not all lexical verbs do require a following NP. If we change the verb *from dread to sunbathed*, for example, we get a different pattern of grammaticality: *Tim sunbathed affectionate cats. Tim sunbathed. While *dread* must take an NP, *sunbathe* cannot take an NP. So, the presence of the NP depends not just on there being a verb present but, more importantly, on what sort of verb it is. *Dread* and *sunbathe* are examples of two general sorts – or sub-categories – of lexical verb. Lexical verbs are sub-categorised according to what other elements must appear with them in the VP. In other words, they are



sub-categorised in terms of what complements they demand. Just because an NP cannot follow the V *sunbathe* doesn't mean that nothing can follow the V in the VP. We have seen, for example, that the PP *beside a river* can. But this PP can't be the complement of *sunbathe* because it is not required to complete the meaning of the VP. What shows is that the verb *sunbathed* functions as a complete VP in its own right. *Beside a river* just gives extra – optional – information. If we omit it, we're still left with a complete VP. So, in the VP *sunbathed beside a river*, the PP is a modifier, not a complement. The fact that a PP can follow *sunbathe* can't therefore be used to sub-categorise the verb. All VPs can include (optional) modification by a PP. Notice, for example, that a PP can be added after *dreads* affectionate cats: *Tim dreads affectionate cats in the hay-fever season*. So, *dread* and *sunbathe* are distinguished by the obligatory presence or absence of a following NP but not by the (optional) presence or absence of a following PP. In this chapter we concentrate just on the complements of the verb. This is another sense in which the VPs discussed here are 'basic VPs'. Taking just the first two examples, note the following pattern of grammaticality: *Max died*. **Max made*. **Max died Bill*. *Max made a noise*. *Die* clearly belongs to the same sub-category as *sunbathe*, as do *sleep* and *laugh*: none of these verbs allows a following NP. But *make* clearly belongs with *dread*, as do *inspect*, *spot*, and *throw*: these demand a following NP. *Play*, on the other hand, belongs to both sub-categories, with different meanings: *The children played*. *Max played the tuba*. *Paddle*,



reflect, break, and relax are further verbs that belong to both subcategories. The two sub-categories discussed above are not the only ones. This chapter deals with six sub-categories of lexical verbs (Burton-Roberts, 2016, p.68): **(1)** transitive,

(2) intransitive,

(3) ditransitive,

(4) intensive,

(5) complex transitive,

(6) prepositional.

Transitive Verbs: A transitive verb is one which requires a single Noun Phrase to complement it. Of the verbs considered above, then, *dread, make, spot, throw, and inspect* are transitive verbs.

The NP that complements a transitive verb is said to function (more specifically) as its direct object. So, in *Tim dreads affectionate cats*, the NP within the VP (*affectionate cats*) is complementing the transitive verb *dread* as its direct object. Notice that, where an NP functioning as the direct object of a verb is a pronoun, it has a special form. This form is called the objective case (more traditionally, ‘accusative case’). Thus the direct object pronouns in the objective case are grammatical in the first example, but the corresponding pronouns in the **subjective** (traditionally, ‘nominative’) case in



Tim dreads {
 me
 her
 him
 us
 them

second example are ungrammatical:

**Tim dreads {
 I
 she
 he
 we
 they

Figure 6.1 Direct object pronouns and personal pronouns (Burton-Roberts, 2016, p.69)

When the form of an NP is determined by its complement relation with another constituent, it is said to be governed by that other constituent (in this case, the verb). Notice that this goes for NPs complementing prepositions in PPs as well. The preposition governs the NP, demanding that it appear in the objective case: for *him* vs. *for *he*, *against them* vs. **against they*.

You and *it* are the only pronouns that don't have a special distinct form in the objective case. Since the V and the NP are in a functional relationship, the NP needs to be represented as a sister of the V (and therefore as a daughter of the VP) as in example blow:

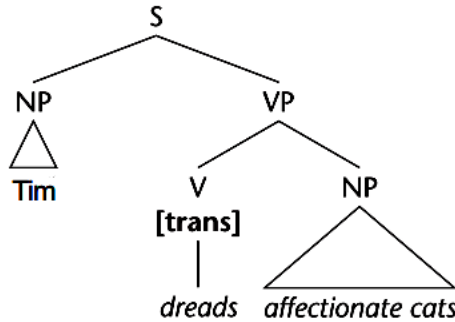


Figure 6.2 Example of tree diagram (Burton-Roberts, 2016, p.69) In this example we’ve added to the V node the extra label ‘[trans]’, short for ‘transitive’. This extra label is called a feature, and it simply sub-categorises the verb as being transitive. This sub-categorisation feature is needed in order to specify the function of the following NP in terms of the phrase marker itself. Thus, when an NP is the connector of a V bearing the [trans] feature, we know that the NP is functioning as direct object. The point of this feature will become clearer when we will deal with other sub-categories of verbs and the other functions associated with them.

INTRANSITIVE VERBS

An intransitive verb is one that does not require any further constituent as a sister in the VP. ‘INtransitive’ means ‘has (and needs) no complement’. *Sleep, die, laugh and sigh* (and play on one interpretation) are intransitive verbs. Since an intransitive verb requires no further element to form a complete predicate, an intransitive verb counts as a complete VP in its own right. So a very



simple sentence like *Omar sighed* is represented as in example. Note the [intrans] feature on the V node.

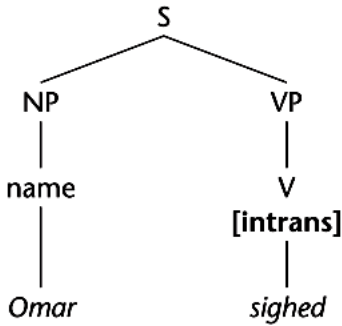


Figure 6.3 Example of tree diagram (Burton-Roberts, 2016, p.70)

DITRANSITIVE VERBS: Ditransitive verbs require TWO NPs as complements. The classic example of a ditransitive verb is *give*. Others are *send and buy*.

Sara gave **Milan** *some bleach*.

The staff sent **the general** *a message*.

Max buys **his butler** *all necessary work-clothes*. In the examples the first complement (the NP in bold) functions, more specifically, as the indirect object of the ditransitive verb. Indirect objects are usually the recipients or beneficiaries of the action. The second complement NP (in italics) functions as the direct object – it has the same function as the NP that complements a transitive verb. Here’s a phrase marker for. Note the [ditrans] feature on V.

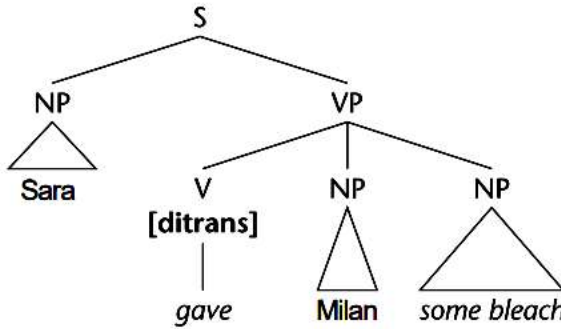


Figure 6.4 Example of tree diagram (Burton-Roberts, 2016, p.70) .The important thing to note about VPs consisting of a ditransitive verb complemented by two NPs is that they are systematically related to VPs in which the indirect object NP corresponds to a Prepositional Phrase (PP) in a position following the direct object. Let’s look the example: Sara gave some *bleach to Milan*.

The PPs that correspond in this way with indirect objects are always introduced by *either to* or *for*.

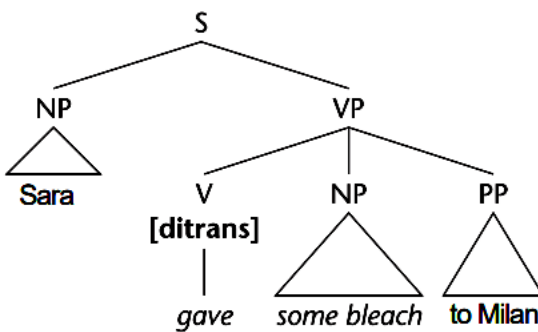


Figure 6.5 Example of tree diagram (Burton-Roberts, 2016, p.71). The PP corresponding to an indirect object NP has a special status.



With transitive verbs, when a PP follows the direct object NP, it's not part of the complementation of the verb but is an optional modifier.

However, in using a ditransitive verb such as *send*, we need to specify not only a sender (usually subject), and

(b) what is sent (usually the direct object), but also

(c) to whom it is sent (usually indirect object).

As mentioned, indirect objects can take the form of either an NP or a PP containing *to* or *for*. So PPs that correspond to indirect objects are part of the complementation of ditransitive verbs and need to be represented as sisters of V within the basic VP. The indirect object, then, is either (a) the first of two NP sisters of a V bearing a [ditrans] feature or (b) the PP which is a sister of a V bearing a [ditrans] feature. As for the direct object of a [ditrans] verb, it's either (a) the second NP sister of V or (b) the NP sister of V which has a following PP sister.

INTENSIVE VERBS: Intensive verbs require a single complement, which can take the form of an Adjective Phrase, a Noun Phrase or a Prepositional Phrase (Burton-Roberts, 2016, p.72). The most obvious and commonly used intensive verb is *be*. As the classic example of the intensive sub-category of verb, *be* is called 'the copula'.

Ed is rather *extravagant*. (AP)



Sigmund was an *auctioneer*. (NP) Oscar and the First Mate were *in the engine room*. (PP) The complement of an intensive verb functions (more specifically) as a predicative. (By the way, don't confuse this term with 'predicate'.) Other intensive verbs – i.e. other verbs taking a predicative as complement – are: *become, seem, appear, turn, remain, look, taste, feel, smell, sound*. When a verb is complemented just by an AP, you can be sure you're dealing with an intensive verb. This is because [intensive] is the only sub-category of verb that can take just an AP complement. The point is worth noting because, as mentioned, intensive verbs can be complemented by an NP or a PP and, when a verb is complemented by an NP, you're going to have to decide whether [V + NP] is an example of [transitive V + direct object] or an example of [intensive V + predicative]. Understanding the 'predicative' function involves understanding the difference between predicative and direct object. Let's give an explanation about this now. Compare: *Sigmund was an auctioneer*. and *Sigmund spotted an auctioneer*. In both, we have a verb complemented by an NP. In *Sigmund spotted an auctioneer* the verb is transitive, so the NP complement functions more specifically as direct object. As a direct object, the NP identifies an individual distinct from Sigmund (referred to by the subject NP Sigmund). In saying that Sigmund spotted an auctioneer, we mention two distinct individuals – Sigmund and the auctioneer – and say that the former spotted the latter. It is in the nature of spotting that it's a relation between two individuals: a spotter (subject) and a spottee (direct object). That's



what makes spot a transitive verb. A moment's thought will show something quite different going on in *Sigmund was an auctioneer*. This sentence does not express a relation between two individuals. Here, with the intensive verb, only one individual is mentioned (by means of the subject Sigmund). The rest of the sentence (the VP) is used to characterise the subject. If this sentence can be said to express a relation at all, it's a relation between an individual and a property: the sentence expresses the idea that Sigmund has the property of being an auctioneer. Predicatives are used to attribute properties to the things or people referred to by other expressions. Unlike direct/indirect objects, they do not themselves refer to things or people. (Note that the reflexive pronoun himself in Max shaved himself does refer (to Max), so it's a direct object.) It is because intensive verbs only take predicatives that they can be complemented by Adjective Phrases: APs only ever identify properties. Also, (*Ed is rather extravagant.*) mentions Ed and simply attributes the property of extravagance to him. NPs, by contrast, can be used either to identify properties or to refer to individuals. This is why an NP can function either as predicative (complementing an intensive verb) or as direct object (complementing a transitive verb). Many of the intensive verbs listed above also belong to the transitive sub-category – but with a different meaning. This difference between transitive (+ direct object) and intensive (+ predicative) can be made quite vivid by contrasting the two meanings of such verbs. For each of the following decide whether the (italicised) complement NP is



complementing a transitive verb as direct object or complementing an intensive verb as predicative:

[1] Max turned *a subtle shade* of green. [2] Max turned *another* card. [3] Tarzan felt *a tap on his shoulder*. [4] Tarzan felt *a real idiot*. [5] The leopard-skin pillbox hat didn't become *her*. [6] The hat became *a very useful wastepaper basket*. [7] The captain sounds *an absolute tyrant*. [8] The captain sounded *the ship's horn*. The NPs are functioning as direct objects (complementing the verbs in their transitive senses) in [2], [3], [5], and [8]. They are functioning as predicatives (complementing the verbs in their intensive senses) in [1], [4], [6], and [7]. Notice that, in the latter cases, those NPs could be replaced by APs without changing the sense of the verb (green in [1], really idiotic in [4], ever more useful in [6], and absolutely tyrannical in [7]). We've said that predicatives are used to attribute properties to the things referred to by other expressions. We have seen that, in the case of intensive verbs, that other expression is always the subject. So, to be more specific about the function of the italicised complement expression in Ed is rather *extravagant*: it is a predicative; and more specifically yet, it is subject-predicative. In the next section, we'll be introducing object-predicatives. Let's now show more clearly what the point is of attaching a sub-categorisation feature to the V node. Without such a feature, *Ed is rather extravagant*. (AP), *Sigmund was an auctioneer*. (NP), *Oscar and the First Mate were in the engine room*. (PP)– and all the examples [1]–[8] – would receive exactly the same analysis. It is the distinction between the features, [intens]



and [trans] that distinguishes them as in the pictures below:

Prepositional verbs are called ‘prepositional’ because they can only be complemented by a PP. In this, they contrast with [intens] verbs, which can be complemented by NP, AP or PP. The [prep] subcategory of the verb is a bit of a ragbag. The fact is there just are verbs that require a PP as complement and don’t fit into any of the other subcategories.

Notice also that each [prep] verb generally demands that the head of that PP be one particular preposition – for example, we have *glance [at NP]*, *not *glance [to NP]*, and *refer [to NP]*, *not *refer [at NP]*. We have now looked at a six-way distinction among verbs and their associated sentence patterns. Not all verbs – and not all uses of all verbs – fit neatly into this classification or do so only with a certain amount of ingenuity on the part of the analyst. The distinctions given nevertheless provide an introduction to the topic of subcategorisation and, in discussing them, we’ve dealt with all the major constituent functions in VP and so with the sisters of V within the basic VP.

Conclusion

The following table shows the the word class in English – grammatical categories and gives an overview of these terms. English word order is quite rigid: it is usually a subject followed by a predicator and a complement. The only constituent that is moved around rather freely is the adverbial.

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