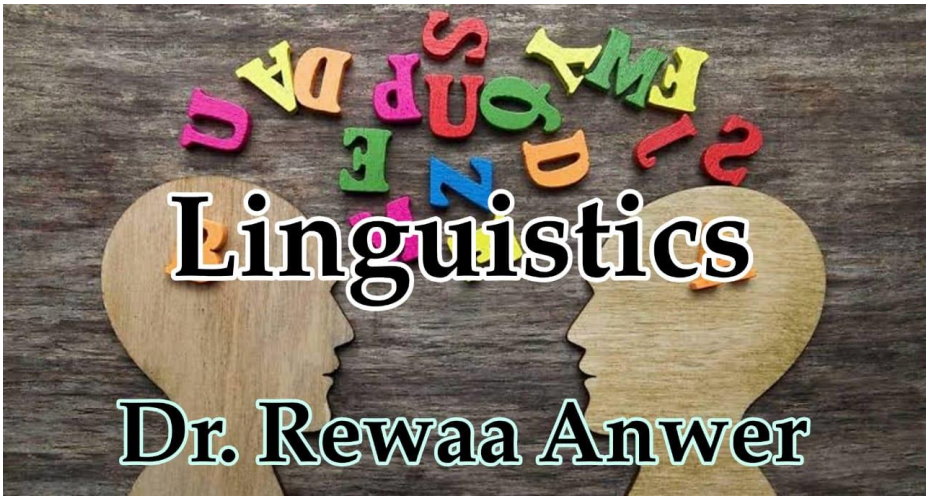

LINGUISTICS

FOURTH YEAR

GENERAL EDUCATION

FAULTY OF EDUCATION

ENGLISH DEP ١RTMENT

2022-2023

DATA OF THE PRESENT BOOK

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

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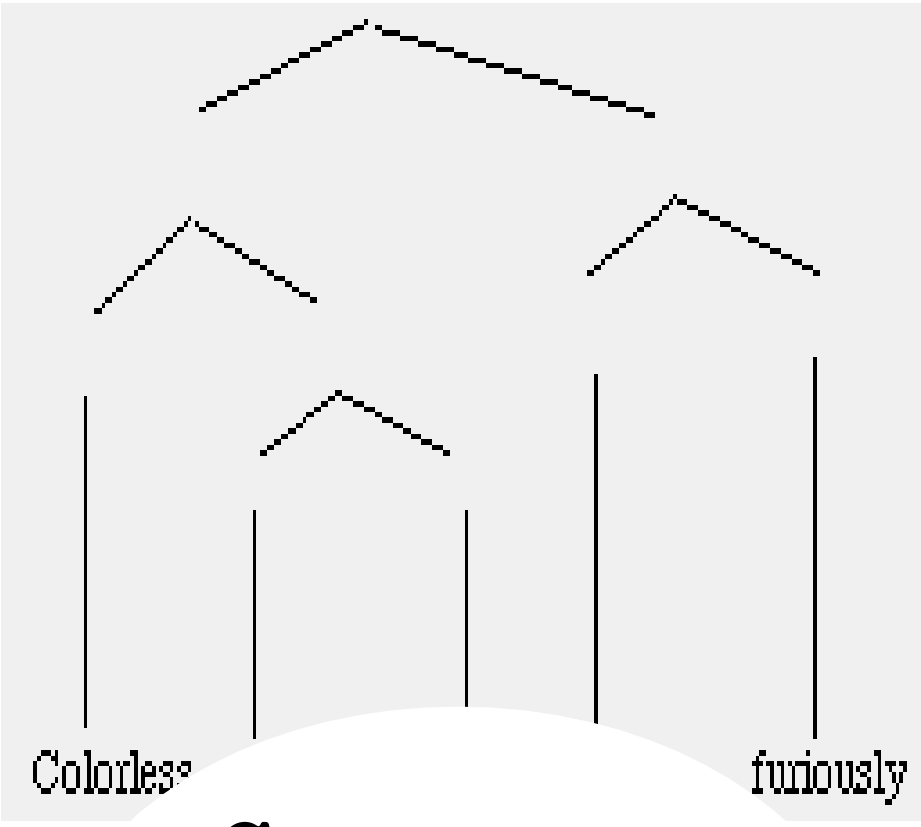


Grammar

and

Syntax

Adapted from http://www.merriam-webster.com/help/faq/history.htm

The following brief sample of Old English prose illustrates several of the significant ways in which change has so transformed English that we must look carefully to find points of resemblance between the language of the tenth century and our own. It is taken from Aelfric's "Homily on St. Gregory the Great" and concerns the famous story of how that pope came to send missionaries to convert the Anglo-Saxons to Christianity after seeing Anglo-Saxon boys for sale as slaves in Rome:

> Eft he axode, hu ðære ðeode nama wære þe hi of comon. Him wæs geandwyrd, þæt hi Angle genemnode wæron. Þa cwæð he, "Rihtlice hi sind Angle gehatene, for ðan ðe hi engla wlite habbað, and swilcum gedafenað þæt hi on heofonum engla geferan beon."

A few of these words will be recognized as identical in spelling with their modern equivalents—*he, of, him, for, and, on*—and the resemblance of a few others to familiar words may be guessed—*nama* to *name, comon* to *come, wære* to *were, wæs* to *was*—but only those who have made a special study of Old English will be able to read the passage with understanding. The sense of it is as follows:

Again he [St. Gregory] asked what might be the name of the people from which they came. It was answered to him that they were named Angles. Then he said, "Rightly are they called Angles because they

have the beauty of angels, and it is fitting that such as they should be angels' companions in heaven."

Some of the words in the original have survived in altered form, including *axode (asked), hu (how), rihtlice (rightly), engla (angels), habbað (have), swilcum (such), heofonum (heaven),* and *beon (be).* Others, however, have vanished from our lexicon, mostly without a trace, including several that were quite common words in Old English: *eft* "again," *ðeode* "people, nation," *cwæð* "said, spoke," *gehatene* "called, named," *wlite* "appearance, beauty," and *geferan* "companions." Recognition of some words is naturally hindered by the presence of two special characters, þ, called "thorn," and ð, called "edh," which served in Old English to represent the sounds now spelled with *th.*

Other points worth noting include the fact that the pronoun system did not yet, in the late tenth century, include the third person plural forms beginning with *th-: hi* appears where we would use *they.* Several aspects of word order will also strike the reader as oddly unlike ours. Subject and verb are inverted after an adverb—*þa cwæð he* "Then said he"—a phenomenon not unknown in Modern English but now restricted to a few adverbs such as *never* and requiring the presence of an auxiliary verb like *do* or *have.* In subordinate clauses the main verb must be last, and so an object or a preposition may precede it in a way no longer natural: *þe hi of comon* "which they from came," *for ðan ðe hi engla wlite habbað* "because they angels' beauty have."

Perhaps the most distinctive difference between Old and Modern English reflected in Aelfric's sentences is the elaborate system of inflections, of which we now have only remnants. Nouns, adjectives, and even the definite article are inflected for gender, case, and number: *ðære ðeode* "(of) the people" is feminine, genitive, and singular, *Angle* "Angles" is masculine, accusative, and plural, and *swilcum* "such" is masculine, dative, and plural. The system of inflections for verbs was also more elaborate than ours: for example, *habbað* "have" ends with the *-að* suffix characteristic of plural present indicative verbs. In addition, there were two imperative forms, four subjunctive forms (two for the present tense and two for the preterit, or past, tense), and several others which we no longer have. Even where Modern English retains a particular category of inflection, the

form has often changed. Old English present participles ended in *-ende* not *-ing*, and past participles bore a prefix *ge-* (as *geandwyrd* "answered" above).

The period of Middle English extends roughly from the twelfth century through the fifteenth. The influence of French (and Latin, often by way of French) upon the lexicon continued throughout this period, the loss of some inflections and the reduction of others (often to a final unstressed vowel spelled *-e*) accelerated, and many changes took place within the phonological and grammatical systems of the language. A typical prose passage, especially one from the later part of the period, will not have such a foreign look to us as Aelfric's prose has; but it will not be mistaken for contemporary writing either. The following brief passage is drawn from a work of the late fourteenth century called *Mandeville's Travels*. It is fiction in the guise of travel literature, and, though it purports to be from the pen of an English knight, it was originally written in French and later translated into Latin and English. In this extract Mandeville describes the land of Bactria, apparently not an altogether inviting place, as it is inhabited by "full yuele [evil] folk and full cruell."

> In þat lond ben trees þat beren wolle, as þogh it were of scheep; whereof men maken clothes, and all þing þat may ben made of wolle. In þat contree ben many ipotaynes, þat

> dwellen som tyme in the water, and somtyme on the lond: and þei ben half man and half hors, as I haue seyd before; and þei eten men, whan þei may take hem. And þere ben ryueres and watres þat ben fulle byttere, þree sithes more þan is the water of the see. In þat contré ben many griffounes, more plentee þan in ony other contree. Sum men seyn þat þei han the body vpward as an egle, and benethe as a lyoun: and treuly þei seyn soth þat þei ben of þat schapp. But o griffoun hath the body more gret, and is more strong, þanne eight lyouns, of suche lyouns as ben o this half; and more gret and strongere þan an hundred egles, suche as we han amonges vs. For o griffoun þere wil bere fleynge to his nest a gret hors, 3if he may fynde him at the poynt, or two oxen 3oked togidere, as þei gon at the plowgh.

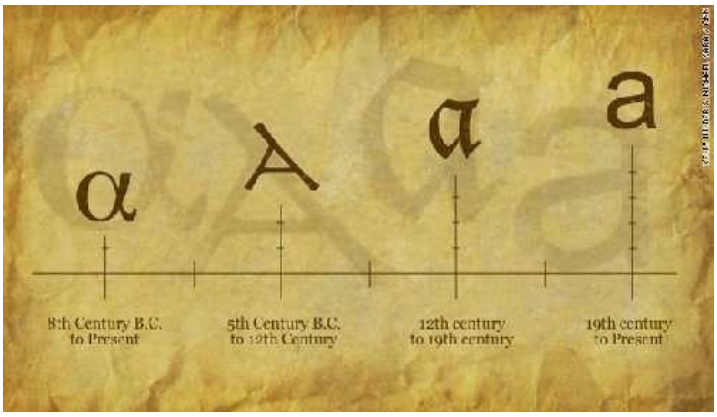
The spelling is often peculiar by modern standards and even inconsistent within these few sentences *(contré* and *contree, o [griffoun]* and *a [gret hors], þanne* and *þan,* for example). Moreover, in the original text, there is in addition to thorn another old character 3, called "yogh," to make difficulty. It can represent several sounds but here may be thought of as equivalent to *y.* Even the older spellings (including those where *u* stands for *v* or vice versa) are recognizable, however, and there are only a few words like *ipotaynes* "hippopotamuses" and *sithes* "times" that have dropped out of the language altogether.

We may notice a few words and phrases that have meanings no longer common such as *byttere* "salty," *o this half* "on this side of the world," and *at the poynt* "to hand," and the effect of the centuries-long dominance of French on the vocabulary is evident in many familiar words which could not have occurred in Aelfric's writing even if his subject had allowed them, words like *contree, ryueres, plentee, egle,* and *lyoun.*

In general word order is now very close to that of our time, though we notice constructions like *hath the body more gret* and *three sithes more þan is the water of the see.* We also notice that present tense verbs still receive a plural inflection as in *beren, dwellen, han,* and *ben*

and that while nominative *þei* has replaced Aelfric's *hi* in the third person plural, the form for objects is still *hem.*

All the same, the number of inflections for nouns, adjectives, and verbs has been greatly reduced, and in most respects Mandeville is closer to Modern than to Old English.



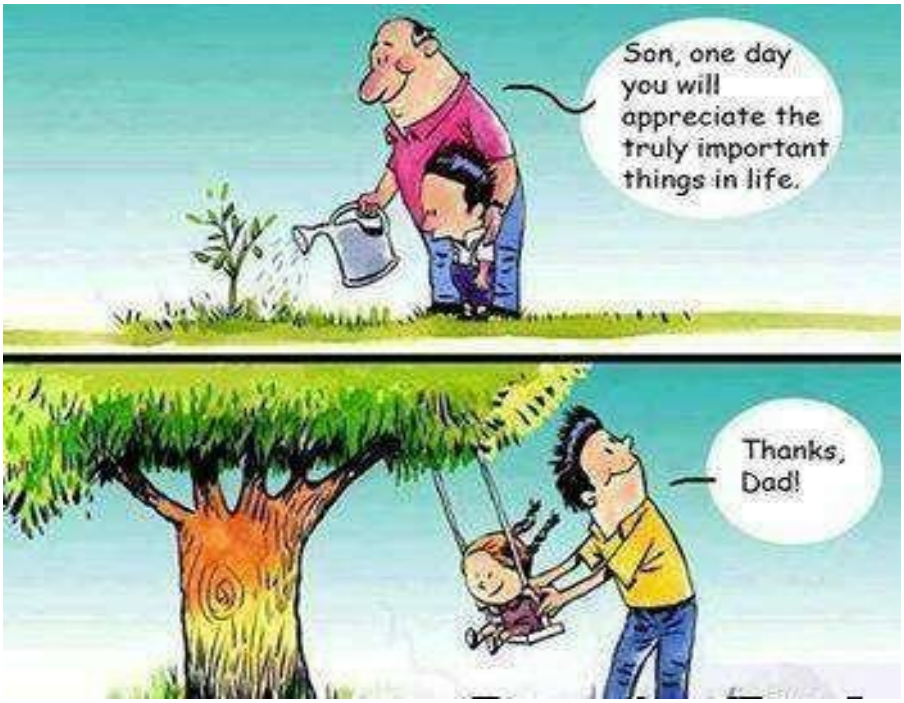
The period of Modern English extends from the sixteenth century to our own day. The early part of this period saw the completion of a revolution in the phonology of English that had begun in late Middle English and that effectively redistributed the occurrence of the vowel phonemes to something approximating their present pattern. (Mandeville's English would have sounded even less familiar to us than it looks.)

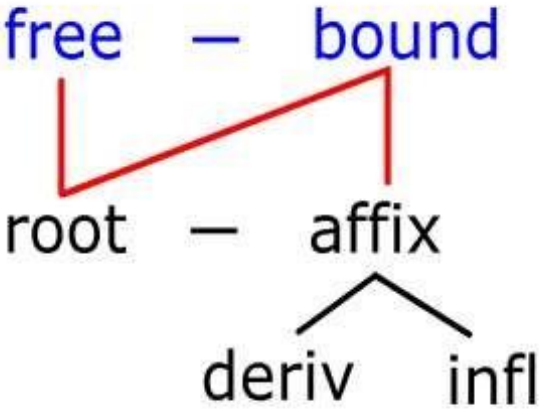
Other important early developments include the stabilizing effect on spelling of the printing press and the beginning of the direct influence of Latin and, to a lesser extent, Greek on the lexicon. Later, as English came into contact with other cultures around the world and distinctive dialects of English developed in the many areas which Britain had colonized, numerous other languages made small but interesting contributions to our word-stock.

The historical aspect of English really encompasses more than the three stages of development just under consideration. English has what might be called a prehistory as well. As we have seen, our language did not simply spring into existence; it was brought from the Continent by Germanic tribes who had no form of writing and hence

left no records. Philologists know that they must have spoken a dialect of a language that can be called West Germanic and that other dialects of this unknown language must have included the ancestors of such languages as German, Dutch, Low German, and Frisian. They know this because of certain systematic similarities which these languages share with each other but do not share with, say, Danish. However, they have had somehow to reconstruct what that language was like in its lexicon, phonology, grammar, and semantics as best they can through sophisticated techniques of comparison developed chiefly during the last century.

Similarly, because ancient and modern languages like Old Norse and Gothic or Icelandic and Norwegian have points in common with Old English and Old High German or Dutch and English that they do not share with French or Russian, it is clear that there was an earlier unrecorded language that can be called simply Germanic and that must be reconstructed in the same way. Still earlier, Germanic was just a dialect (the ancestors of Greek, Latin, and Sanskrit were three other such dialects) of a language conventionally designated Indo-European, and thus English is just one relatively young member of an ancient family of languages whose descendants cover a fair portion of the globe.

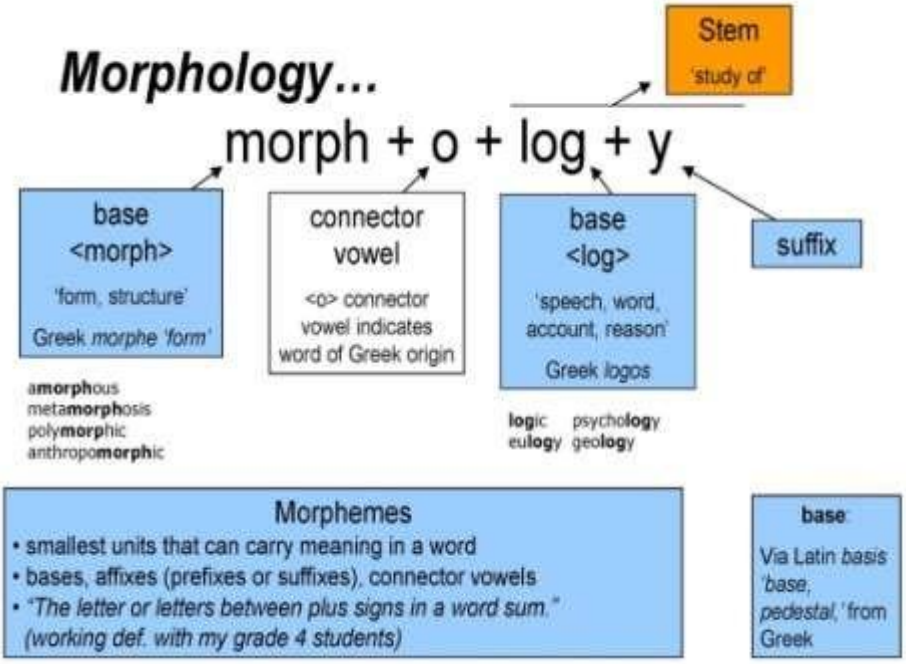

Son, one day you will appreciate the truly important things in life.
Thanks, Dad!



Morphology

Morphology

http://www.wisegeek.org/what-is-the-difference-between-a-prefix-and-suffix.htm



Morphology is a field of linguistics focused on the study of the forms and formation of words in a language. A *morpheme* is the smallest indivisible unit of a language that retains meaning. The rules of morphology within a language tend to be relatively regular, so that if one sees the noun *morphemes* for the first time, for example, one can deduce that it is likely related to the word *morpheme*.

There are three main types of languages when it comes to morphology: two of these are *polysynthetic*, meaning that words are made up of connected morphemes. One type of polysynthetic language is a *fusional* or *inflected* language, in which morphemes are squeezed together and often changed dramatically in the process. English is a good example of a fusional language. The other type of polysynthetic language

is an agglutinative language, in which morphemes are connected but remain more or less unchanged – many Native American languages, as well as Swahili, Japanese, German and Hungarian, demonstrate this. At the other end of the spectrum are the *analytic* or *isolating* languages, in which a great majority of morphemes remain independent words – Mandarin is the best example of this. Morphology studies all of these different types of languages and how they relate to one another as well.

This can be a confusing concept, so an example may be helpful. Looking at the morphology of English, which is not a particularly inflected language in its modern form, but retains a number of remnants, we could create the word *frighteningly*, which is made up of four morphemes: *fright*, which is a noun; *en*, which converts the noun to a verb; *ing*, which converts it to an adjective; and *ly*, which converts it to an adverb. Over time, languages tend to become less and less inflected – particularly when a lot of intercultural contact occurs. In morphology, this is because the languages become *creolized* as various pidgins used for communicating between disparate groups become natively spoken, and inter-communication in the pidgins is facilitated by dropping inflections.

Although you may be used to seeing certain forms in a specific context – such as conjugations at the end of a word – they can express themselves in a number of different ways. Aside from the English use of prefix and suffix, words can also be inflected by changing the sound of a vowel – called an *umlaut* – or by placing an affix right in the middle of the word. Affixes can also be quite lengthy, not just little bites of sound – in Quechua, for example, there are a number of two-syllable affixes. Though most people never formally study morphology, it is something native speakers understand intuitively. Any time a person learns a new word and

immediately comes up with any number of forms for that word – past tense, plural, a noun form – they are applying the rules of morphology subconsciously to determine what the new form should be.

Prefix and Suffix

In the English language, a prefix or suffix can be added to a root word to modify its meaning. A prefix comes before the root word, and a suffix comes after. The prefix and suffix are known as affixes, or additions to a word, and are differentiated by their placement against a word.

Common prefixes include un-, dis-, mal-, non-, mid-, and mini-, while common suffixes are –ed, -s, -es, -ing. Suffixes often indicate the tense or number of a word, but can also be used to indicate the part of speech. For example, adding –ly to the end of a word often indicates that word is an adverb. The prefix and the suffix can take on different meanings depending on the root word it precedes or succeeds, and therefore they are reliant on the root word and cannot stand alone.

In many cases, adding a prefix or suffix to a word changes the meaning of that word entirely. For example, the word "latch" means to secure or fasten. But by adding the prefix un- to the root word to create "unlatch," the meaning has been changed to mean release or let free. In this case, the addition of a prefix has made the word mean the opposite of the root word. Taking that same root word and adding the suffix –ed to create "latched" changes the tense of the word. While the root word takes place in the present tense, by adding –ed the action indicated by the word now has taken place in the past.

The roles of the prefix and the suffix have been embellished over the course of centuries, and it is not

uncommon to see new words being formed by the addition of one or both. For example, television personality Stephen Colbert recently coined the term, "truthiness" by adding a suffix to the word "truth" to indicate an idea or concept that has elements of truth to it but is not necessarily the truth. While the word is somewhat nonsensical, the addition of the –ness suffix made the word catchy and many linguists applauded the new creation.

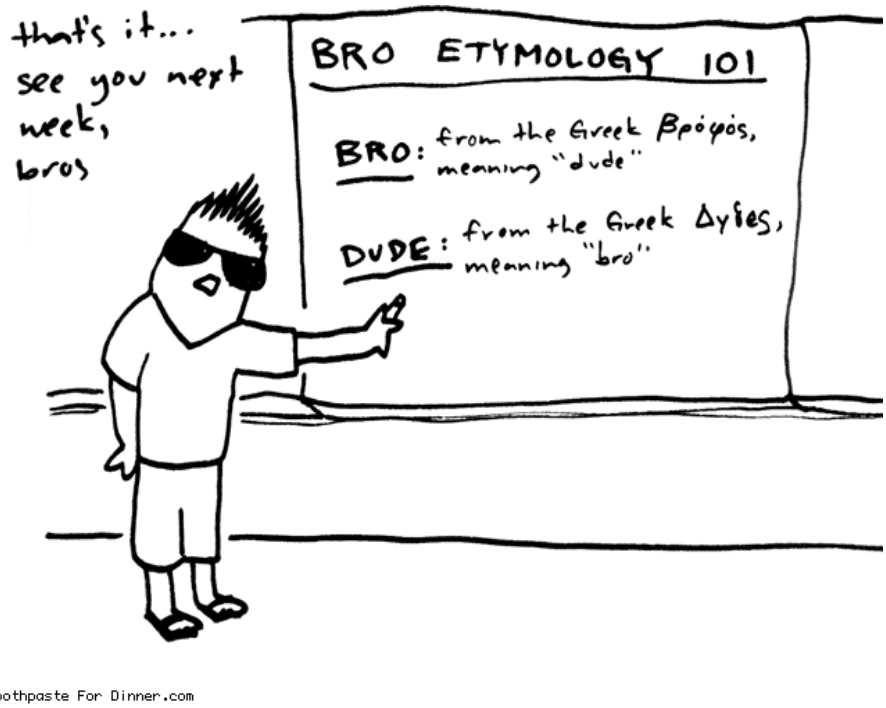
Morphology: Overview by L. Bauer

Morphology is concerned with the relationship between the form of a word and its meaning. For example, if we consider the words *manage*, *manages*, *managed*, *managing*, *management*, *manager*, and *managerial* we find that there is a common core of meaning corresponding to the meaning of *manage*, and if we consider the words *managing*, *obliging*, *refusing*, *seeking*, and *teaching*, there is also a common element of meaning (even if it may be quite difficult to specify that meaning precisely) that is reflected in the recurrent *-ing*.

Etymologically, the term morphology seems to indicate the study of forms, though it can be seen from the preceding that form alone does not provide an object of study within morphology. Morphologists are not interested in the fact the word *notable* might be considered to contain the orthographic forms *no* and *table* because neither *no* nor *table* as a unit provides any meaning that can be found in *notable*. It is where form and meaning reflect each other directly, either because a certain formal sequence can be seen as being regularly correlated with a particular meaning (as in the examples above) or because there is a regular patterning of semantic relationships, and a particular form can be seen as filling a cell in the pattern. Thus, *worse* is taken to be in the same relationship to *bad* that *bigger* is to *big* or *frailer* is to *frail*, not because of any regularity of form but because of the equivalence of the cells in the pattern or paradigm.

Since morphology is concerned with form, it is related to the study of phonology, and since it is concerned with meaning, it is related to the study of semantics. It is also related to the study of syntax in that many of the meanings that find expression in morphology are related to syntactic function: for example, the comparative, past tense and present participles illustrated above. Morphology is also related to lexis in that morphological patterns can be used in the creation of new lexical items, as illustrated by *manager* and *management* above. This _cross-road' (Kastovsky, 1977) nature of morphology means that it has been open to influence from phonological and syntactic theories, as well as to changing ideas about the nature of the lexicon.

Kastovsky D (1977). _Word-formation, or: at the crossroads of morphology, syntax, semantics and the lexicon.' Folia Linguistica 10, 1–33.



English Word Origins

The study of where words come from is called etymology. New words have entered (and continue to enter) the English language in many different ways. Here are some of the most common ways.

Borrowing

The majority of the words used in modern English have been borrowed from other languages. Although most of our vocabulary comes from Latin and Greek (often by way of other European languages), English has borrowed words from more than 300 different languages around the world. Here are just a few examples:

- futon (from the Japanese word for "bedclothes, bedding")
- gorilla (Greek *Gorillai*, a tribe of hairy women, perhaps of African origin)
- hamster (Middle High German *hamastra*)
- kangaroo (Aboriginal language of Guugu Yimidhirr, *gangurru* , referring to a species of kangaroo)
- kink (Dutch, "twist in a rope")
- moccasin (Native American Indian, Virginia Algonquian, akin to Powhatan *mäkäsn* and Ojibwa *makisin*)
- molasses (Portuguese *melaços*, from Late Latin *mellceum*, from Latin *mel*, "honey")
- muscle (Latin *musculus*, "mouse")
- slogan (alteration of Scots *slogorne*, "battle cry")
- smorgasbord (Swedish, literally "bread and butter table")
- whiskey (Old Irish *uisce*, "water," and *bethad*, "of life")

Clipping or Shortening

Some new words are simply shortened forms of existing words, for instance *indie* from *independent*; *exam* from *examination*; *flu* from *influenza*, and *fax* from *facsimile*.

Compounding

A new word may also be created by *combining* two or more existing words: *fire engine*, for example, and *babysitter*.

Blends

A blend (also called a portmanteau word) is a word formed by merging the sounds and meanings of two or more other words. Examples include *moped*, from mo(tor) + ped(al), and *brunch*, from br(eakfast) + (l)unch.

Conversion or Functional Shift

New words are often formed by changing an existing word from one part of speech to another. For example, innovations in technology have encouraged the transformation of the nouns *network*, *Google*, *microwave*, and *fax* into verbs.

Transfer of Proper Nouns

Sometimes the names of people, places, and things become generalized vocabulary words. For instance, the noun *maverick* was derived from the name of an American cattleman, Samuel Augustus Maverick. The *saxophone* was named after *Sax*, the surname of a 19th-century Belgian family that made musical instruments.

Neologisms or Creative Coinages

Now and then, new products or processes inspire the creation of entirely new words. Such neologisms are usually short lived, never even making it into a dictionary. Nevertheless, some have endured, for example *quark* (coined by novelist James Joyce), *galumph* (Lewis Carroll), *aspirin* (originally a trademark), *grok* (Robert A. Heinlein).

Imitation of Sounds

Words are also created by onomatopoeia, naming things by imitating the sounds that are associated with them: *boo, bow-wow, tinkle, click.*

Why Should We Care About Word Histories?

If a word's etymology is not the same as its definition, why should we care at all about word histories? Well, for one thing, understanding how words have developed can teach us a great deal about our cultural history. In addition, studying the histories of familiar words can help us to deduce the meanings of unfamiliar words, thereby enriching our vocabularies. Finally, word stories are often both entertaining and thought provoking. As any youngster can tell you, words are *fun*.

Arabic Words in English

admiral
adobe
alchemy
alcohol
alcove
alembic
alfalfa
algebra
algorithm
alkali
almanac
amalgam
aniline
apricot
arsenal
carob
casbah
check
checkmate
cinnabar
cipher
coffee
copt
cotton
crimson
crocus
cumin
damask
dhow
dragoman
jinn
kafir
khamsin
khan
kismet
kohl
lacquer
lake
lemon
lilac
lime
lute
magazine
mahdi
marabout
popinjay
racket
safari
saffron
saloop
sash
scallion
senna
sequin
serif
sesame
shackle
sheikh
sherbet
shrub

arsenic
artichoke
assassin
aubergine
azure
barbarian?
bedouin
benzine(?)
Betelgeuse
bint
borax
cable
calabash
calibre
caliph
camel
camise
camphor
candy
cane
cannabis
carafe
carat
caraway
carmine
elixir
emir
fakir
fellah
garble
gauze
gazelle
ghoul
Gibraltar
giraffe
grab
guitar
gypsum
halva
harem
hashish
hazard
henna
hookah
imam
influenza
jar
jasmine
jerboa
Jessamine
marzipan
massacre
massage
mastaba
mate
mattress
mecca
minaret
mizzen
mocha
mohair
monsoon
mosque
muezzin
mufti
mullah
mummy
muslim
muslin
myrrh
nabob
nacre
nadir
orange
ottoman
sirocco
sofa
spinach
sudd
sufi
sugar
sultan
sultana
syrup
tabby
talc
talisman
tamarind
tambourine
tarboosh
tare
tariff
tarragon
Trafalgar
typhoon
vega
vizier
wadi
zenith
zero

See: W Montgomery Watt: *The Influence of Medieval Islam on Europe* (Edinburgh University Press, 1982)

Semantic Change

Adapted from Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Semantic change, also known as **semantic shift** or **semantic progression** describes the evolution of word usage — usually to the point that the modern meaning is radically different from the original usage. In diachronic (or historical) linguistics, semantic change is a change in one of the meanings of a word. Every word has a variety of senses and connotations, which can be added, removed, or altered over time, often to the extent that cognates across space and time have very different meanings. The study of semantic change can be seen as part of etymology, onomasiology, semasiology, and semantics.

Examples

- **Awful**—Originally meant "inspiring wonder (or fear)". Used originally as a shortening for "full of awe", in contemporary usage the word usually has negative meaning.
- **Demagogue**—Originally meant "a popular leader". It is from the Greek *dēmagōgós* "leader of the people", from *dēmos* "people" + *agōgós* "leading, guiding". Now the word has strong connotations of a politician who panders to emotions and prejudice.
- **Egregious**—Originally described something that was remarkably good. The word is from the Latin *egregius* "illustrious, select", literally, "standing out from the flock", which is from *ex*—"out of" + *greg*—(*grex*) "flock". Now it means something that is remarkably bad or flagrant.
- **Guy**—Guy Fawkes was the alleged leader of a plot to blow up the English Houses of Parliament on 5 Nov. 1605. The day was made a holiday, Guy Fawkes day, commemorated by parading and burning a ragged, grotesque effigy of Fawkes, known as a *Guy*. This led to the use of the word *guy* as a term for any "person of grotesque appearance" and then by the late 1800s—especially in America—for "any man", as in, e.g., "Some *guy* called for you." Over the 20th century, *guy* has replaced *fellow* in America, and, under the influence of American popular culture, has been gradually replacing *fellow*, *bloke*, *chap* and other such words throughout the rest of the English-speaking world. In the plural, it can refer to a mixture of genders (e.g.,

"Come on, you guys!" could be directed to a group of men and women).

Types of Semantic Change

A number of classification schemes have been suggested for semantic change. The most widely accepted scheme in the English-speaking academic world is from Bloomfield (1933):

- **Narrowing**: Change from superordinate level to subordinate level. For example, *skyline* used to refer to any horizon, but now it has narrowed to a horizon decorated by skyscrapers.[1]
- **Widening**: Change from subordinate level to superordinate level. There are many examples of specific brand names being used for the general product, such as with *Kleenex*.[1] Such uses are known as generonyms.
- **Metaphor**: Change based on similarity of thing. For example, *broadcast* originally meant "to cast seeds out"; with the advent of radio and television, the word was extended to indicate the transmission of audio and video signals. Outside of agricultural circles, very few people use *broadcast* in the earlier sense.[1]
- **Metonymy**: Change based on nearness in space or time, e.g., *jaw* "cheek" → "mandible".
- **Synecdoche**: Change based on whole-part relation. The convention of using capital cities to represent countries or their governments is an example of this.

- **Meiosis**: Change from weaker to stronger meaning, e.g., *kill* "torment" → "slaughter"
- **Hyperbole**: . Change from stronger to weaker meaning, e.g., *astound* "strike with thunder" → "surprise strongly".
- **Degeneration**: e.g., *knave* "boy" → "servant" → "deceitful or despicable man".
- **Elevation**: e.g., *knight* "boy" → "nobleman".

Another Way of Putting it

- Metaphor: Change based on similarity between concepts, e.g., *mouse* "rodent" → "computer device".
- Metonymy: Change based on contiguity between concepts, e.g., *horn* "animal horn" → "musical instrument".
- **Synecdoche**: A type of metonymy involving a part to whole relationship, e.g. "hands" from "all hands on deck" → "bodies"
- **Specialization** of meaning: Downward shift in a taxonomy, e.g., *corn* "grain" → "wheat" (UK), → "maize" (US).
- **Generalization** of meaning: Upward shift in a taxonomy, e.g., *hoover* "Hoover vacuum cleaner" → "any type of vacuum cleaner".
- **Cohyponymic** transfer: Horizontal shift in a taxonomy, e.g., the confusion of *mouse* and *rat* in some dialects.
- **Antiphrasis**: Change based on a contrastive aspect of the concepts, e.g., *perfect lady* in the sense of "prostitute".
- **Auto-antonymy**: Change of a word's sense and concept to the complementary opposite, e.g., *bad* in the slang sense of "good".
- **Auto-converse:** Lexical expression of a relationship by the two extremes of the respective relationship, e.g., *take* in the dialectal use as "give".

- **Ellipsis**: Semantic change based on the contiguity of names, e.g., *car* "cart" → "automobile", due to the invention of the *(motor) car*.
- **Folk-etymology**: Semantic change based on the similarity of names, e.g., French *contredanse*, orig. English *country dance*.

Blank considers it problematic, though, to include amelioration and pejoration of meaning as well as strengthening and weakening of meaning. According to Blank, these are not objectively classifiable phenomena; moreover, Blank has shown that all of the examples listed under these headings can be grouped into the other phenomena.

Vocabulary - technical and nontechnical Examples from Anatomy

1

Words such as function words that have a meaning that has no particular relationship with the field of anatomy, that is, words independent of the subject matter. Examples are: *the, is, between, it, by, 12, adjacent, amounts, common, commonly, directly, constantly, early,* and *especially.*

2

Words that have a meaning that is minimally related to the field of anatomy in that they describe the positions, movements, or features of the body. Examples are: *superior, part, forms, pairs, structures, surrounds, supports, associated, lodges, protects.*

3

Words that have a meaning that is closely related to the field of anatomy. They refer to parts, structures or functions of the body, such as the regions of the body and systems of the body. Such words are also used in general language. The words may have some restrictions of usage depending on the subject field. Examples are: *chest, trunk, neck, abdomen, ribs, breast, cage, cavity, shoulder, girdle, skin, muscles, wall, heart, lungs, organs, liver, bony, abdominal, breathing.* Words in this category may be technical terms in a specific field like anatomy and yet may occur with the same meaning in other fields and not be technical terms in those fields.

4

Words that have a meaning specific to the field of anatomy and are not likely to be known in general language. They refer to structures and functions of the body. These words have clear

restrictions of usage depending on the subject field. Examples are: *thorax, sternum, costal, vertebrae, pectoral, fascia, trachea, mammary, periosteum, hematopoietic, pectoralis, viscera, intervertebral, demifacets, pedicle.*

Basic Terminology with definitions and examples

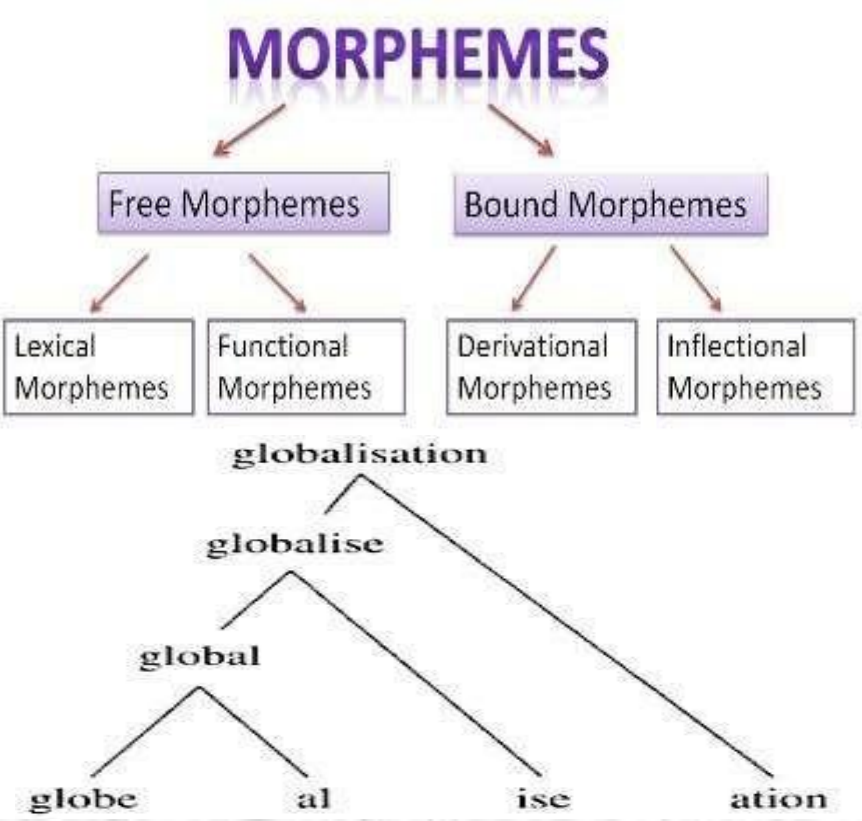
http://cla.calpoly.edu/~jrubba/morph/morph.over.html#infl

- **MORPHEME** = the smallest meaningful unit of language (any part of a word that cannot be broken down further into smaller meaningful parts, including the whole word itself). The word 'items' can be broken down into two meaningful parts: 'item' and the plural suffix '-s'; neither of these can be broken down into smaller parts that have a meaning. Therefore 'item' and '-s' are both morphemes.
- **FREE MORPHEME** = a morpheme that can stand alone as an independent word (e.g. 'item').
- **BOUND MORPHEME** = a morpheme that cannot stand alone as an independent word, but must be attached to another morpheme/word (affixes, such as plural '-s', are always bound; roots are sometimes bound, e.g. the 'kep-' of 'kept' or the '-ceive' of 'receive'.
- **BASE** = an element (free or bound, root morpheme or complex word) to which additional morphemes are added. Also called a **STEM**. A base can consist of a single root morpheme, as with the 'kind' of 'kindness'. But a base can also be a word that itself contains more than one morpheme. For example, we can use the word 'kindness' as a base to form the word 'kindnesses'; to make 'kindnesses', we add the plural morpheme, spelled '-es' in this case, to the base 'kindness'.
- **ROOT** = a (usually free) morpheme around which words can be built up through the addition of affixes. The root usually has a more-soecific meaning than the affixes that attach to it. Ex.: The root 'kind' can have affixes added to it to form 'kindly', 'kindness', 'kinder', 'kindest'. The root is the item you have left when you strip all other

morphemes off of a complex word. In the word *dehumanizing*, for example, if you strip off all the affixes -- *-ing*, *-ize*, and *de-*, *human* is what you have left. It cannot be divided further into meaningful parts. It is the root of the word.

- **AFFIX** = a bound morpheme which attaches to a base (root or stem). PREFIXES attach to the front of a base; SUFFIXES to the end of a base; INFIXES are inserted inside of a root. An example of a prefix is the 're-' of 'rewrite'; of a suffix, '-al' of 'critical'.
- **INFLECTION** = the process by which affixes combine with roots to indicate basic grammatical categories such as tense or plurality (e.g. in 'cat-s', 'talk-ed', '-s' an d'-ed' are inflectional suffixes). Inflection is viewed as the process of adding very general meanings to existing words, not as the creation of new words.
- **DERIVATION** = the process by which affixes combine with roots to create new words (e.g. in 'modern-ize', 'read-er', '-ize' and '-er' are derivational suffixes). Derivation is viewed as using existing words to make new words. The inflection/derivation difference is increasingly viewed as shades of gray rather than an absolute boundary. Derivation is much less regular, and therefore much less predictable, than inflectional morphology. For example, we can predict that most English words will form their plural by adding the affix <-s> or <-es>. But how we derive nouns from verbs, for example, is less predictable. Why do we add <-al> to 'refuse', making 'refusal', but '-ment' to 'pay' to make 'payment'? 'Payal' and 'refusement' are not possible English words. We have to do more memorizing in learning derivational morphology than in learning inflectional morphology.

- **CONTENT MORPHEME:** A morpheme that has a relatively more-specific meaningthan a **function** morpheme; a morpheme that names a concept/idea in our record of experience of the world. Content morphemes fall into the classes of noun, verb, adjective, adverb.
- **FUNCTION MORPHEME:** A morpheme that has a relatively less-specific meaning than a **content** morpheme; a morpheme whose primary meaning/function is to signal relationships between other morphemes. Function morphemes generally fall into classes such as articles ('a', 'the'), prepositions ('of', 'at'), auxiliary verbs ('was eating', 'have slept'), etc.
- **SIMPLE WORD** = a word consisting of a single morpheme; a word that cannot be analyzed into smaller meaningful parts, e.g. 'item', 'five', 'chunk', 'the'.
- **COMPLEX WORD** = a word consisting of a root plus one or more affixes (e.g. 'items', 'walked', 'dirty').
- **COMPOUND WORD** = a word that is formed from two or more simple or complex words (e.g. landlord, red-hot, window cleaner).
- **MORPHOPHONEMICS/ALLOMORPHY** = the study of the processes by which morphemes change their pronunciation in certain situations.
- **ALLOMORPHS** = the different forms (pronunciations) of a single morpheme. Ex: the plural morpheme in English is {-z}. Its allomorphs are / s /, / z /, / @z /.** Also, the morpheme 'leaf' has two allomorphs: 'leaf' in words built from it (e.g.'leafy') and 'leav-', found only in the plural: 'leaves'.


MORPHEMES
Free Morphemes
Bound Morphemes
Lexical Morphemes
Functional Morphemes
Derivational Morphemes
Inflectional Morphemes

globalisation
globalise
global
globe
al
ise
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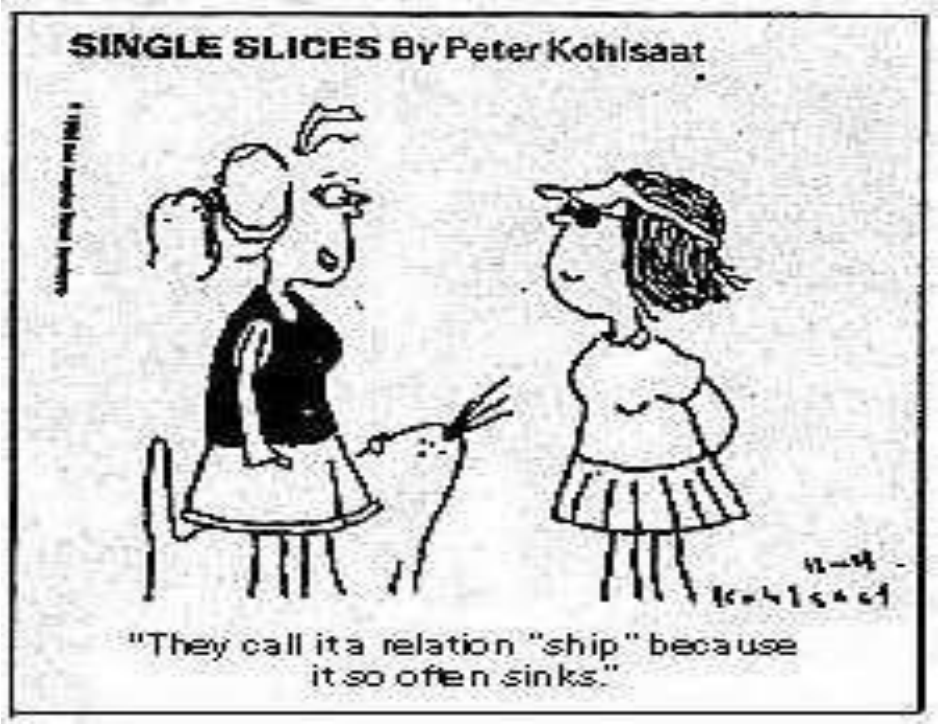

SINGLE SLICES By Peter Kohlsaat
"They call it a relation "ship" because it so often sinks."

Morpheme

A morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit in the grammar of a language.

Examples (English)

- Unladylike
  - The word *unladylike* consists of three morphemes and four syllables.
  - Morpheme breaks:
    - un- 'not'
    - lady '(well behaved) female adult human'
    - -like 'having the characteristics of'
  - None of these morphemes can be broken up any more without losing all sense of meaning. *Lady* cannot be broken up into "la" and "dy," even though "la" and "dy" are separate syllables. Note that each syllable has no meaning on its own.

- Dogs
  - The word *dogs* consists of two morphemes and one syllable:
    - dog, and
    - -s, a plural marker on nouns
  - Note that a morpheme like "-s" can just be a single phoneme and does not have to be a whole syllable.

- Technique
  - The word *technique* consists of only one morpheme having two syllables.
  - Even though the word has two syllables, it is a single morpheme because it cannot be broken down into smaller meaningful parts.

Allomorph

In linguistics, an **allomorph** is a variant form of a morpheme. The concept occurs when a unit of meaning can vary in sound without changing meaning. The term *allomorph* explains the comprehension of phonological variations for specific morphemes.

English has several morphemes that vary in sound but not in meaning. Examples include the past tense and the plural morphemes. For example, in English, a past tense morpheme is *-ed*. It occurs in several allomorphs depending on its phonological environment, assimilating voicing of the previous segment or inserting a schwa when following an alveolar stop:

- as /əd/ or /ɪd/ in verbs whose stem ends with the alveolar stops /t/ or /d/, such as 'hunted' /hʌntɪd/ or 'banded' /bændɪd/
- as /t/ in verbs whose stem ends with voiceless phonemes other than /t/, such as 'fished' /fɪʃt/
- as /d/ in verbs whose stem ends voiced phonemes other than /d/, such as 'buzzed' /bʌzd/

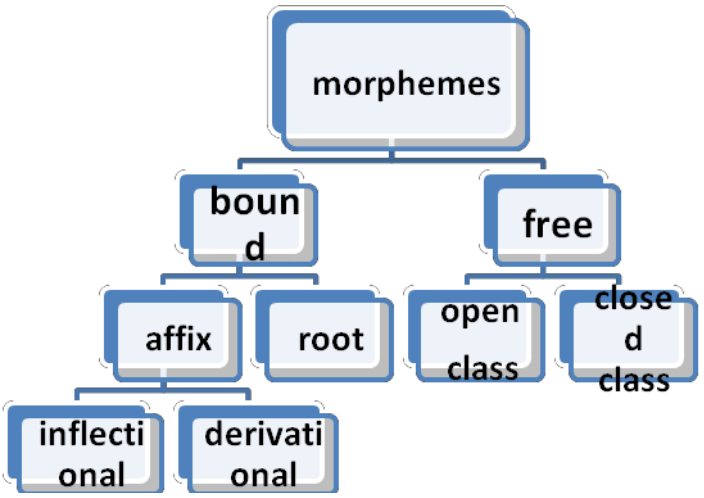
Notice the "other than" restrictions above. This is a common fact about allomorphy: if the allomorphy conditions are ordered from most restrictive (in this case, after an alveolar stop) to least restrictive, then the first matching case usually "wins". Thus, the above conditions could be re-written as follows:

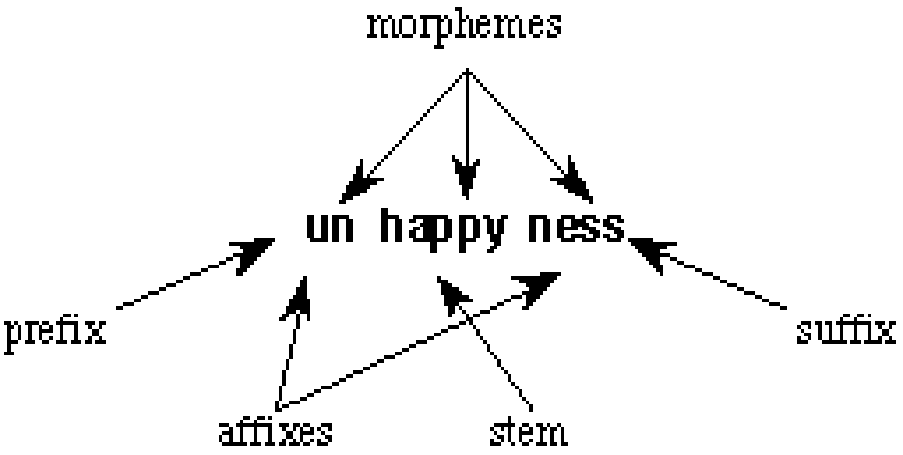
- as /əd/ or /ɪd/ when the stem ends with the alveolar stops /t/ or /d/
- as /t/ when the stem ends with voiceless phonemes
- as /d/ elsewhere

The fact that the /t/ allomorph does not appear after stem-final /t/, despite the fact that the latter is voiceless, is then explained by

the fact that /əd/ appears in that environment, together with the fact that the environments are ordered. Likewise, the fact that the /d/ allomorph does not appear after stem-final /d/ is because the earlier clause for the /əd/ allomorph takes priority; and the fact that the /d/ allomorph does not appear after stem-final voiceless phonemes is because the preceding clause for the /t/ takes priority.

Irregular past tense forms, such as "broke" or "was/ were", can be seen as still more specific cases (since they are confined to certain lexical items, like the verb "break"), which therefore take priority over the general cases listed above.





There are three morphemes, each carrying a certain amount of meaning. *un* means "not", while *ness* means "being in a state or condition". *Happy* is a *free morpheme* because it can appear on its own (as a "word" in its own right). *Bound morphemes* have to be attached to a free morpheme, and so cannot be words in their own right. Thus you can't have sentences in English such as "Jason feels very un ness today".

Derivational vs. Inflectional

Derivational affixes operate directly on the meaning of the root,, e.g., un- -able -ate. They 'operate on' their roots to build new meanings.

Inflectional affixes serve a grammatical function, e.g., '-ed', '-ing', '-s', '-en'. Every language requires the speaker to track certain features of the things and events they are talking about. In English the speaker is required to use inflectional markers to indicate person, plurality, tense, etc.

Inflectional Categories and Affixes of English

http://cla.calpoly.edu/~jrubba/morph/morph.over.html#infl

Word class	**Inflectional category**	**affix used to express category**
Nouns	Number	-s, -es: book/book**s**, bush/bush**es**
.	Possessive	-'s, -': the cat**'s** tail, Charles**'** toe
Verbs	3rd person singular present	-s, -es: it rain**s**, Karen write**s**, the water slosh**es**
.	past tense	-ed: paint/paint**ed**

.	perfect aspect	-ed: paint/paint**ed** ('has **painted**) (past participle)
.	progressive or continuous aspect	-ing: fall/falling, write/writing (present participle)
Adjectives	comparative (comparing two items)	-er: tall/tall**er**
.	superlative (comparing +2 items)	-est: tall/tall**est**

English Derivational Morphology

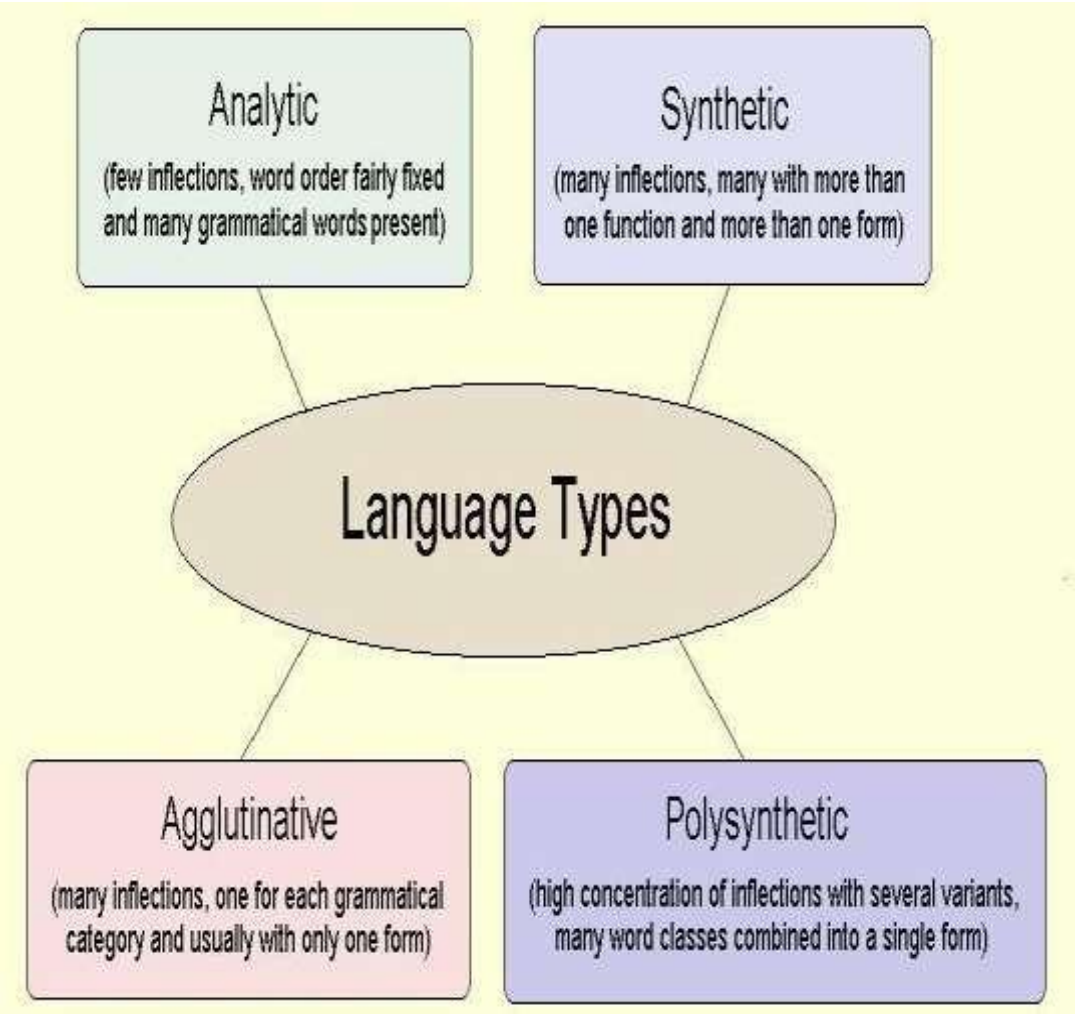
Some derivational affixes of English

http://cla.calpoly.edu/~jrubba/morph/morph.over.html#infl

Affix	Class(es) of word	Nature of change	Examples
Prefix 'non-'	Noun, adjective	Negation/opposite	Noun: **non**-starter Adj.: **non**-partisan
Suffix '-ity'	Adjective	Changes to noun	electric/electric**ity** obese/obes**ity**
Prefix 'un-'	Verb Adjective	Reverses action opposite quality	tie/**un**tie, fasten/**un**fasten clear/**un**clear, safe/**un**safe
Suffix '-ous'	Noun	Changes to adjective	fame/fam**ous**, glamor/glamor**ous**
Prefix 're-'	Verb	Repeat action	tie/**re**tie, write/**re**write

Suffix '-able'	Verb	Changes to adjective; means 'can undergo action of verb'	print/print**able**, drink/drink**able**

Language Types



Languages can be classified according to their degree of

- *synthesis* (the degree to which a language uses multimorphemic words), along a continuum from isolating to polysynthetic languages, and
- *fusion* (the degree to which a language fuses multiple grammatical meanings into a single morpheme), along a continuum from fusional to agglutinative languages

- An isolating language is a language in which almost every word consists of a single morpheme.
- An agglutinative language is a language in which words are made up of a linear sequence of distinct morphemes and each component of meaning is represented by its own morpheme.

Exercises

A. Do a full morphological analysis of the following words. Steps:

1. Say how many morphemes are in the underlined word in each phrase, and rewrite the word with hyphens between the morphemes. If the root spelling changes when affixes are added, you can spell it either way.

2. Identify each morpheme in the word as bound or free; root, prefix or suffix; and, if an affix, inflectional or derivational. For inflectional morphemes, identify the category the affix marks (tense, number, etc.), and whether or not the suffix appears in a regular or irregular form. Keep an eye out for bound roots!

3. Remember the most crucial proof that something is a morpheme: it must occur with the same or nearly the same pronunciation AND THE SAME MEANING either in other words (in the case of affixes or bound roots) or when standing alone (in the case of free roots. It is helpful, however, to demonstrate that a free root retains its meaning when affixes other than those in question are attached to it). To the extent possible, give a definition for affixes; minimally, an affix may just change the lexical category (part of speech) of the root. You should definitely note that. For each bound morpheme, give at least two additional examples of words that contain that affix. It's all right to use a dictionary, but be very careful if you are dealing with an affix that takes more than one category of root: be sure to

identify which one you're seeing. For instance, English *-al* can be applied to nouns to make adjectives, e.g., *global, central, tropical,* but it also makes nouns out of verbs: *arrival, acquittal, refusal.*

Example:

Several Americanisms 4: America-an-ism-s
America: free root
-an: bound derivational suffix; e.g., 'Dominican', 'Republican', 'Asian'
-ism: bound derivational suffix; e.g., 'Communism', 'defeatism'
-s: bound inflectional suffix, regular plural; e.g., 'walls', 'things'

1. An unfortunate error
2. exchanging pleasantries
3. we have misidentified the victim
4. children's clothing
5. They're previewing the slides.
6. her two ex-husbands
7. Which scenario is unlikelier?
8. He unmasks me every time!
9. the safest location
10. the inspector's parking place
11. They are all reactionaries.
12. The play delighted us.

B. Divide the following words into their morphemes. Indicate which morphemes are inflectional and which are derivational.

1. **mistreatment** = treat (…..) + mis- (……) + -ment (……..)
2. **disactivation** = act (……) + dis- (…….) + -ive (…..) + -ate (……..) + -ion (……)
3. **psychology** = psych- or psyche (….) + -ology (……..)
4. **airsickness** = sick (…….) + air (…….) + -ness (……..)
5. **terrorized** = terror ((……..)) + -ize (……..) + PAST (……..) if the word is a verb form OR terrorized =

terror (…….) + -ize (…….) + -ed (……..) if the word is an adjective

6. **uncivilized** = civ- (……..) + -il (……..) + un- (……..) + -ize (……..) + -ed (……..) The root is "civ-" because that root is also in words like "civic." In this case, the "-ed" must be derivational, because "uncivilized" cannot be a verb form.
7. **lukewarm** = lukewarm (……) although in this case I would also accept lukewarm = warm (……) + luke (derivational or root.

Traditional Grammar

Warm-up Activities

Objectives

- **Refreshing Ss' knowledge of grammar.**
- **Practicing basics of grammar and text analysis.**
- **Setting the stage for the rest of the course.**

Two Poems by Hughes

(1)

Dreams

Hold fast to dreams
For if dreams die
Life is a broken-winged bird
That cannot fly.

Hold fast to dreams
For when dreams go
Life is a barren field
Frozen with snow.

James Mercer Langston Hughes (February 1, 1902 – May 22, 1967) was an American poet, social activist, novelist, playwright, and columnist. He was one of the earliest innovators of the then-new literary art form called jazz poetry. Hughes is best known as a leader of the Harlem Renaissance. He famously wrote about the period that "the negro was in vogue", which was later paraphrased as "when Harlem was in vogue.

Exercises

1) **What is another expression in English for "hold fast"?**
2) **How many sentences are there in the poem?**
3) **How do you describe each sentence?**
   - **Declarative (statement)**
   - **Interrogative (question)**
   - **Exclamatory**
   - **Imperative (command or request**

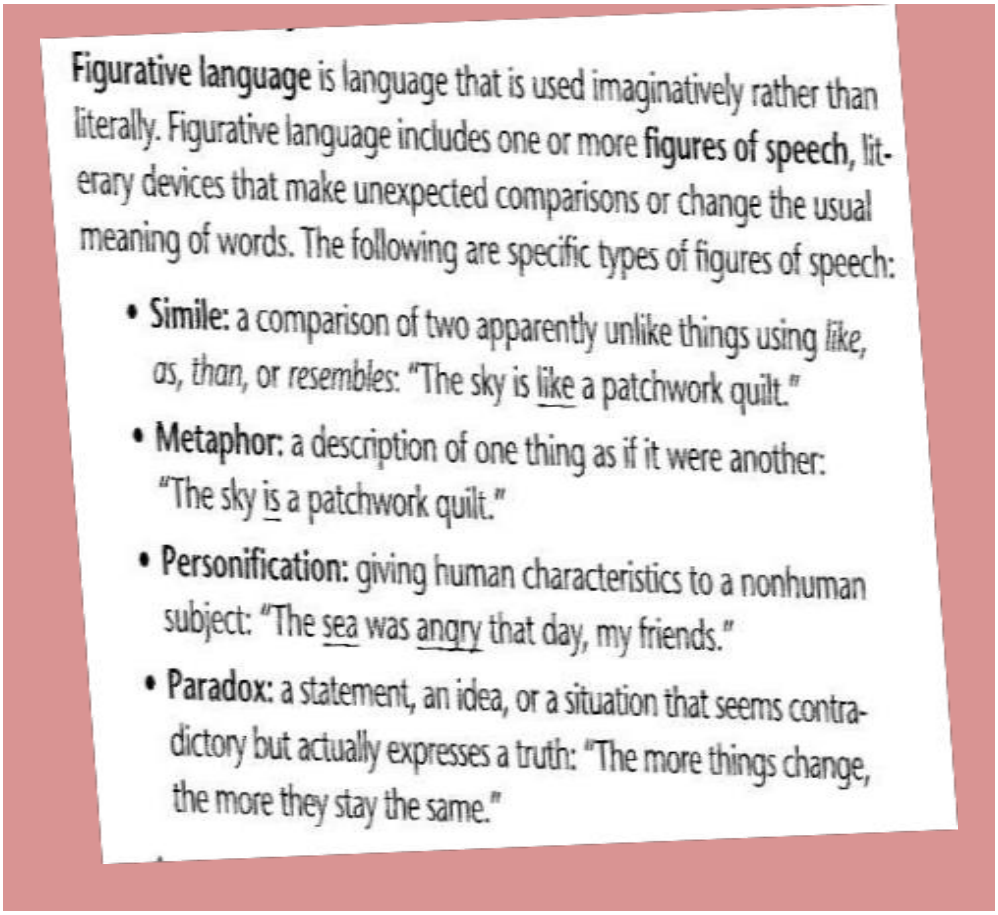
4) **How do you describe each sentence?**
   - **simple**
   - **compound**
   - **complex**

A **simple sentence** has the most basic elements that make it a sentence: a subject, a verb, and a completed thought.
A **compound sentence** refers to a sentence made up of two independent clauses (or complete sentences) connected to one another with a **coordinating conjunction**. Coordinating conjunctions are easy to remember if you think of the words "FAN BOYS" (*for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so*)
A **complex sentence** is made up of an independent clause and one or more **dependent clauses** connected to it. A dependent clause is similar to an independent clause, or complete sentence, but it lacks one of the elements that would make it a complete sentence.

5) **To** what two things does the speaker compare life?
6) What does the poet want the reader to do?
7) Describe the progression of thought in the poem

- Do (What) ….. because ….. If you don't …….
- Do (What) …… because ……If you don't ….

8) How does the poem achieve its goal?
   - To advise ……..
   - To describe the results of not dreaming, not holding fast to dreams ……...



Figurative language is language that is used imaginatively rather than literally. Figurative language includes one or more **figures of speech**, literary devices that make unexpected comparisons or change the usual meaning of words. The following are specific types of figures of speech:

- **Simile:** a comparison of two apparently unlike things using *like, as, than,* or *resembles*: "The sky is like a patchwork quilt."
- **Metaphor:** a description of one thing as if it were another: "The sky is a patchwork quilt."
- **Personification:** giving human characteristics to a nonhuman subject: "The sea was angry that day, my friends."
- **Paradox:** a statement, an idea, or a situation that seems contradictory but actually expresses a truth: "The more things change, the more they stay the same."

9) Figurative language in the poem
……
……
…….

10) What does the expression "frozen with snow" indicate? (A word that indicates an emotion or a state is called a metonymy ةيانك)

Further Commentary

This poem is a prime example of a recurring theme throughout Hughes‘ work—the importance of dreams. Many of Hughes‘ poems discuss the oppression of African Americans within America during this time period (1921-1930) and throughout the past. Other poems of his discuss the monotony of life, the weariness with which African Americans carry on, the hardships of being an African American, as well as the hardship of being in love, and the hardship of death. Some of his poems send the message to give up, to accept your crummy life and to accept pain and death. However, throughout his work there are a few poems like this one, where the message is to just keep on dreaming. This poem is essentially saying to keep on dreaming, because without dreams there is nothing. Without dreams and the prospect of improving your life, fulfilling your desires, and achieving your goals, life is not worth living. As Hughes states, without dreams, ―Life is a broken-winged bird that cannot fly...Life is a barren field frozen with snow.‖

(2)

Harlem

What happens to a dream deferred?

Does it dry up
like a raisin in the sun?
Or fester like a sore—
And then run?
Does it stink like rotten meat?
Or crust and sugar over—
like a syrupy sweet?

Maybe it just sags
like a heavy load.

Or does it explode?

Exercises

1) What is another word in English for "deferred"?
2) What is another word in English for "Maybe"?
3) How many sentences are there in the poem?
4) How do you describe each sentence?

   - Declarative (statement)
   - Interrogative (question)
   - Exclamatory
   - Imperative (command or request

5) How many questions does the poem ask?
6) What is different about the last question?
7) How do you describe each sentence?

   - simple
   - compound
   - complex

8) What is the purpose of the poem?
9) Describe the progression of thought in the poem
10) Figurative language in the poem

.....
.....
.....
.....

Grammar in a Nutshell

Grammatical Units. The grammatical units of English are these: word, phrase, clause and sentence.

Word Classes. The main word classes are these: verb, noun, adjective, adverb, preposition, determiner, pronoun and conjunction. The word *come is* a verb, *letter* is a noun and *great* is an adjective. Some words belong to more than one word class. For example, *test* can be a noun or a verb - *He passed the* ***test.*** (noun); *He had to* ***test*** *the machine.* (verb). More examples of the main word classes in English: **Verb**: *climb, eat, welcome, be*; **Noun**: *aircraft, country, lady, hour*; **Adjective**: *good, British, cold, quick*; **Adverb**: *quickly, always, approximately*; **Preposition**: *to, of, at, on*; **Determiner**: *the, his, some, forty-five;* **Pronoun**: *we, you, them, myself*; **Conjunction**: *and, but, so*.

Nouns

1. If you can put the word the in front of a word and it sounds like a unit, the word is a noun.
2. Concrete nouns refer to things we can perceive with one of our senses. Abstract nouns cannot be perceived by our senses.
3. If you can put "his" in front of a word and it sounds like a unit, the word is a noun.
4. Animate nouns refer to things that are alive; inanimate nouns refer to things that are not alive.

5. If you can pluralize a noun in a sentence, it is functioning as a count noun.
6. If you can use "many" with a noun (when it is pluralized), it‘s a count noun. If you can use "much" with a noun, it‘s a noncount noun.
7. If you can use "fewer" with a noun (when it is pluralized), it‘s a count noun. If you can use "less" with a noun, it‘s a noncount noun.
8. Nouns that are actual names, for example "Mary", are called proper nouns. Nouns that are not names are called common nouns, e.g. "girl".
9. One way to identify a proper noun is to ask yourself: is this a noun I would capitalize, no matter where it is in a sentence? If so, it‘s a proper noun.

Verbs

1. If a word can have "should" in front of it and the phrase sounds complete, the word is a verb. Examples: "should leave", "should sail", "should discover", "should complain". "Leave", "sail", "discover", and "complain" are all verbs.
2. If a word can have "to" in front of it and the phrase sounds complete, it‘s a verb. Examples: "to leave", "to sail", "to discover", "to complain". Leave, sail, discover, and complain are all verbs. (Note that we‘re not talking here about "two", "too", or the "to" that indicates direction, as in "Let‘s go to the park".)
3. The forms of the irregular verb "be" are: am, are, is, was, were, be, been, being.
4. If you can substitute a form of "be" for a verb and the meaning of the sentence is basically the same, the verb is probably being used as a linking verb. The verb be and its forms are also linking verbs.

5. If you can substitute a form of "seem" for a verb and the meaning of the sentence is basically the same, the verb is probably being used as a linking verb.
6. Linking verbs are followed or modified by adjectives, while action verbs are followed or modified by adverbs.
7. Action verbs that act upon something are called transitive verbs. Action verbs that do not act upon something are called intransitive verbs.
8. If a verb (in any of its forms) can be put in one of the following slots, it is transitive: (a) What did you …..? (b) Who did you ….? If a verb cannot be put in one of these slots, it is intransitive.
9. If a verb (in one of its forms) can be put in one of the following slots, it is transitive: (a) He .. something. (b) He …. someone.
10. If a verb (in one of its forms) can be put in the following slot, it is intransitive: He…….. .
11. Some verbs can be either transitive or transitive. These can occur in both of the following slots: (a) He …..something / ….. someone. (b) He…. .
12. If you can substitute a single verb for a verb and the word following it, you probably have a phrasal verb. For example, you can say, "She pointed out the truth to us" or "She showed the truth to us". "Point out" is a phrasal verb.
13. If you can move a particle away from its verb, you have a phrasal verb. For example, since you can say both "She looked up the answer" and "She looked the answer up", "look up" is a phrasal verb.

Determiners

1. There are only three articles in English: "the", "a" and "an".
2. There are only four demonstratives in English: "this", "that", "these", and "those".
3. The determiner possessive pronouns are: "my", "your", "his", "her", "its", "our", "their".
4. Words of quantity, quantifiers, can act as determiners and precede a noun. Some examples are: "all", "some", "several", and "much".

Adjectives

1. If you can put a word between "the" and a noun (for example, "the boy"), then that word is an adjective.

Prepositions

1. Prepositions are words, usually small, that typically indicate information about direction, location, or time. There is only a small number of prepositions in English.
2. Some commonly used examples are "at", "from", "in", "on", and "to".
3. If you can put a word in one of the empty slots in one of the following sentences, the word is a preposition: "I walked the table". "It happened that time".

Conjunctions

1. There are three common coordinating conjunctions in English. They are: "and", "or", and "but". Four less common ones are "for", "so", "yet", and "nor".

2. A commonly used way to remember the coordinating conjunctions is to think of FANBOYS: F (for), A (and), N (nor), B (but), O (or), Y (yet), S (so).
3. Subordinating conjunctions connect a sentence with another sentence, which is a subpart of it. The subpart sentence is called a dependent clause (or subordinate clause). In the following sentence, the subordinating conjunction is underlined and the dependent clause is in italics: Nick decided to try to escape, **although** *he knew his chances were slim*.)
4. The subordinating conjunction is always the first word of the dependent clause.
5. Correlative conjunctions are two-part conjunctions. Common correlative conjunctions are: "both /and", "either /or", "if /then", "neither /nor".

Pronouns

1. The subject pronouns are: I, you, he, she, it, we, they.
2. The object pronouns are: me, you, her, him, it, us, them.
3. The reflexive pronouns are: myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.
4. All the reflexive pronouns end in -self (singular) or -selves (plural).
5. There are only four demonstrative pronouns: this, that, these, and those.
6. Nominal possessive pronouns replace a whole noun (or noun phrase). For example, instead of saying "That book is Sally‘s book" we can simply say, "That book is hers".
7. The nominal possessive pronouns are: mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, theirs.
8. Interrogative pronouns are question words. The interrogative pronouns are: how, what, when, where,

which, who, whom, whose, why. Look for the question mark to help find them.

9. The common relative pronouns are: that, which, who, whom, whose.
10. They refer back to a noun in the sentence.
11. Relative pronouns are a type of subordinating conjunction. A relative pronoun typically occurs soon after the noun it refers to. Example: He liked the teacher who gave easy tests.

Adverbs

1. Adverbs generally indicate information about location, time, degree, and manner. They provide extra information about the action in a sentence, about adjectives and about other adverbs.
2. If you don‘t know what else a word is (and you‘ve eliminated the other parts of speech), it‘s probably an adverb.
3. Can the word go in the following slot? Mary slept …… . If so, it‘s probably an adverb. For example, "Mary slept peacefully". "Peacefully" is an adverb.
4. Can the word go in the following slot? …… I gave / ……will give my speech. If so, it‘s probably an adverb. For example, "Yesterday, I gave my speech". "Yesterday" is an adverb. Or: "Tomorrow, I will give my speech". "Tomorrow" is an adverb.
5. Can the word go in the following slot? He is ……. happy. If so, it‘s probably an adverb. For example, "He is very happy". "Very" is an adverb.

6. Does the word end in the suffix -ly? Is it an adjective? If it ends in -ly and it‘s not an adjective, it‘s probably an adverb (e.g. "hopefully", "happily", "unusually").

1. **Verb phrase**: *come, had thought, was left, will be climbing. A* verb phrase has an ordinary verb *(come, thought, left, climbing)* and may also have an auxiliary *(had, was, will).*
2. **Noun phrase**: *a good flight, his crew, we. A* noun phrase has a noun *(flight)*, which usually has a determiner *(a)* and/or adjective *(good)* in front of it. A noun phrase can also be a pronoun *(we).*
3. **Adjective phrase**: *pleasant, very late.* An adjective phrase has an adjective, sometimes with an adverb of degree *(very).*
4. **Adverb phrase**: *quickly, almost certainly.* An adverb phrase has an adverb, sometimes with an adverb of degree *(almost).*
5. **Prepositional phrase**: *after lunch, on the aircraft. A* prepositional phrase is a preposition + noun phrase.

Noun Phrases

1. A noun phrase can consist of a noun alone, for example "audiences", "John".
2. A noun phrase can consist of a determiner, one or more adjectives, and a noun. The determiner and adjective(s) are optional.
3. A noun phrase can consist of just a pronoun, for example "he" or "them".

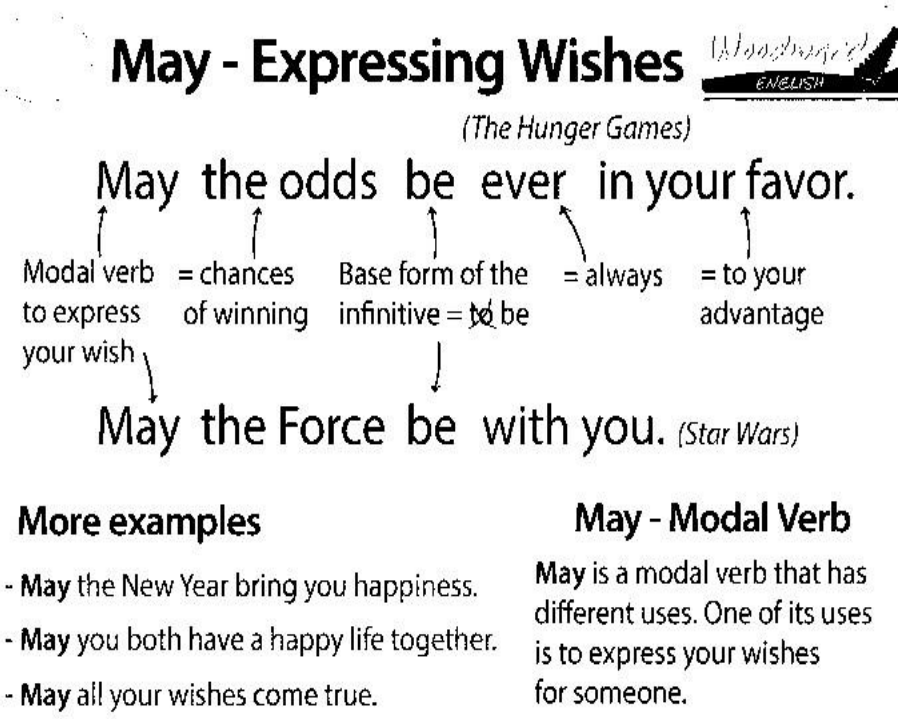
Prepositional Phrases

1. A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition plus a noun phrase, for example in the closet.

Verb Phrases

1. Every verb phrase contains a verb, for example "laughs", "left".
2. A verb phrase can consist of a verb plus a noun phrase, for example "chased the ball".
3. A verb phrase can consist of a linking verb plus an adjective, for example "is tall".
4. A verb phrase can consist of a verb plus a prepositional phrase, for example "drove to the mall".
5. A verb phrase can consist of a verb plus a noun phrase plus a prepositional phrase, for example "drove her friend to the mall".

Auxiliary Phrases



1. The basic helping verbs of English are: *can may shall will must could might should would have has had am are is was were be been being*
2. If a sentence has both a main verb and a helping verb, the main verb is always last.
3. One kind of helping verb is called a modal. The basic modals of English are:
   can could
   may might
   shall should
   will would
   must
4. One kind of helping verb is the verb "have". It has three forms: "have", "has", and "had".
5. Have can be used as a helping verb or as a main verb. When have is used as the main verb, it refers to the idea of possession. When have is used as the helping verb, it is always followed by another verb.
6. One kind of helping verb is "be". It has the following forms: "am", "is", "are", "was", "were", "be", "been", and "being".
7. "Be" and its forms can be used as a helping verb or as a main verb. When "be" is used as the helping verb, it is always followed by another verb.
8. A sentence can have zero, one, or more than one helping verb. If there is more than one, they will always be in the following relative order: modal +"have" +"be".
9. When the helping verb is progressive "be", the next verb always has –ing added to its base form. Example: "is sleeping". The -ing verb form is called the present participle.
10. When "have" is the helping verb, the next verb typically has -ed or –en added to its base form. Examples: "has

eaten", "have watched". The verb form following the helping verb have is called the past participle.

11. When the helping verb is a modal, the next verb is always in its base form. Example: "can study".
12. A noun that consists of a verb and the suffix -ing is called a gerund. Example: "Entertaining is fun".
13. Time refers to a point in real life at which something occurs. Tense refers to the grammatical form of a verb.
14. Tense information is always indicated by the first verb in the sentence, excluding modals.
15. Sentences with no helping verb are in either the present or past tense, depending on the form of the verb.
16. Sentences with will followed by the main verb are in the future tense.
17. If a sentence has a form of have as a helping verb, it will have the word perfect as part of the name of its tense.
18. The present tense forms of "have" are "have" and "has". The past tense form of "have" is "had".
19. If a sentence has "will" as a helping verb, it will have the word future as part of the name of its tense.
20. If a sentence has a form of "be" as a helping verb, it will have the word progressive as part of the name of its tense.
21. The present tense forms of "be" are "am", "is", and "are". The past tense forms of "be" are "was" and "were".

Subjects and Objects

1. If the main verb of the sentence is an action verb, the subject of the sentence is the doer of the action and generally comes before the verb. It can be found by

answering the question: "Who or what is doing the action?"

2. If the main verb of the sentence is a linking verb, the subject is who or what the sentence is about; the subject is found before the verb.
3. The direct object of a sentence is receiving the action. It can usually be found by answering the question: "Who or what is being acted upon or receiving the action?"‘ The direct object typically occurs immediately after the verb.
4. The indirect object of a sentence can be found by answering the question: "Who or what is receiving the direct object?"
5. An indirect object can occur: (a) after the direct object (which follows the verb), with to or for introducing it, or (b) before the direct object (and after the verb), without to or for. For example: "Joan gave a present to Bill" or "Joan gave Bill a present". (Bill is the indirect object in both sentences.)
6. To help you decide if a sentence has an indirect object, see if the sentence can be changed from a pattern like "The boys left a note for their teacher" to a sentence with a pattern like "The boys left their teacher a note", or vice versa.
7. If the direct object is a pronoun, it must come before the indirect object. Example: "My sister sent it to her friend", *'"My sister sent her friend it".
8. A subject pronoun is used when it is functioning as the subject of the sentence. An object pronoun is used when it is functioning as: (a) the direct object of the sentence; (b) the indirect object of the sentence; (c) the object of a preposition.
9. The subject of commands is an understood or implied "you".

Compound Phrases

1. Two noun phrases joined by a coordinating conjunction is called a compound noun phrase.
2. Two verb phrases joined by a coordinating conjunction is called a compound verb phrase.

A **sentence** can be a single **clause**: *On behalf of British Island Airways, Captain Massey and his crew welcome you on board the Start Herald flight to Southampton. A* written sentence begins with a capital letter *(On)* and ends with a mark such as a full stop. We can also combine two or more clauses in one sentence. For example, we can use *and* to link the clauses: *Our flight time will be approximately forty five minutes, **and** we shall be climbing to an altitude of eight thousand feet **and** cruising at a speed of two hundred and fifty miles an hour.*

The Functions of Sentences

1. Sentences that make a statement are called declaratives; sentences that ask a question are called interrogatives; sentences that give a command are called imperatives; sentences that express strong emotion are called exclamations.
2. A yes/no question is one that can be answered by ‗yes‘‘ or ‗no.‘‘
3. A wh- question begins with one of the following wh-words (question words): when, where, what, why, which, who, whom, how. Example: Where is the meeting?

4. A tag question contains a statement followed by a tag, such as *could you? aren't they? hasn't he?* Example: *She is leaving soon, isn't she?*

Combining Sentences

1. A clause is a free-standing sentence or a sentence within a sentence; a clause or sentence contains at least a subject and a main verb.
2. A sentence can contain one or more clauses.
3. A sentence that contains only one clause, that is, one subject and one verb phrase, is called a simple sentence.
4. A sentence that is made up of two or more sentences (clauses) joined by a coordinating conjunction (most commonly and, or, and but) is called a compound sentence.
5. A complex sentence consists of at least two sentences (clauses): a main clause and a dependent clause. The dependent clause is a subpart of the main clause and adds information to it. Example, with the dependent clause underlined: "Sally visited her before she moved".
6. A dependent clause is joined to another clause by a subordinating conjunction such as "although", "if", "where".
7. The easiest way to identify a dependent clause is to look for a subordinating conjunction and see if it's followed by a sentence. If it is, then the subordinating conjunction plus the sentence directly following it is a dependent clause.
8. In a noun clause, the subordinating conjunction that can be deleted following a main clause. Example: "I think (that) it's going to rain".
9. A relative clause (adjective clause) is a kind of dependent clause; it provides additional information about a noun phrase in the main clause. Example

(relative clause underlined): "I brought the cookies that are on the plate".

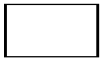
10. Relative clauses begin with one of the relative pronouns: "that", "which", "who", "whom", "whose".
11. A relative pronoun connects the relative clause to the rest of the sentence. All of the relative pronouns (except "whose") also replace a noun phrase in the relative clause. ("Whose" replaces a determiner.)
12. A relative pronoun may be omitted before a noun phrase. Example: "The movie (that) I saw was exciting".
13. A restrictive relative clause limits the noun phrase which it is modifying; a nonrestrictive relative clause does not. A nonrestrictive relative clause is separated from the main clause by pauses, and, when written, it is separated from the main clause by commas. Examples: "The dogs which were friendly were being trained as Seeing Eye dogs" (restrictive). "The dogs, which were friendly, were being trained as Seeing Eye dogs" (nonrestrictive).
14. A compound-complex sentence is a combination of a compound and a complex sentence: it has at least two main clauses and at least one dependent clause. Example: "His friends were always there for William, and he appreciated the help that they often gave him".

Related Sentences

1. Sentences with the subject before the verb are called active sentences. Example: "Charley repaired this computer".

2. Sentences which do not have the subject before the verb are called passive sentences. Example: "This computer was repaired by Charley".
3. The passive be helping verb is always placed after all the other helping verbs, right before the main verb. Example: "The table has been set by the waitress".
4. A truncated passive is a passive sentence without the by and subject noun phrase. Example: "The proposal was discussed".
5. A sentence is made negative by inserting not after the first helping verb.
6. In negative sentences, we use a form of do as the helping verb if the sentence does not have any other helping verb. Example: "He does not like spaghetti".

Levels of Language



One of the most interesting aspects of the English language is the ability to change the order of words and still end up with the same meaning such as 'John bought a book' and 'A book was bought by John'. You may recognize these as the active and the passive forms of a sentence, the passive sentence being the one where the object is given more emphasis than the subject as opposed to the standard subject-verb-object. But if we can easily shift the object and subject around, how do we recognize which one is which in any given sentence?

The key actually lies with the verb. If we want to say that a hearty chuckle was let out by John at someone called Mary (in far less words of course!) we might say 'John laughed at Mary'. Here, *laughed* acts as a bridge between Mary and John indicating that what comes before the verb acts on what comes after the verb. This is called a **transitive verb**. If we were to swap the subject and verb however we come up with 'at Mary laughed John' we have a sentence which kind of makes sense, but doesn't seem to sit right on the tongue.

Another form of verb is the **intransitive verb** which does not need an object to function so we can say things like 'John laughed'. Intransitive verbs are used extensively in the passive tense so we can use an

intransitive from of the verb *laughed* to move around the subject and object so we end up with 'Mary was laughed at by John'.

So there you have it, a very brief look at how subject and object can be defined and the links they have to the different types of verb.

Adapted from: R.M.W. Dixon (1989) *Subject and Object in Universal Grammar* Clarendon Paperbacks

The Word Level

Although the word seems to be a fundamental unit of language at first glance, one quickly discovers that words themselves have recognizable constituents, each one expressing a consistent meaning. Those constituents, *morphemes*, form the smallest units of language having significance in grammar. If we examine sentence (3) again, we see not only that the words are meaningful but also that parts of the last two words have meaning in themselves: (3) The water evaporated quickly.

The verb *evaporated* and the adverb *quickly* each seem to possess two component parts: The water *evaporate* (a verb) &*ed* (past tense ending) *quick* (adjective) &*ly* (adverb ending)

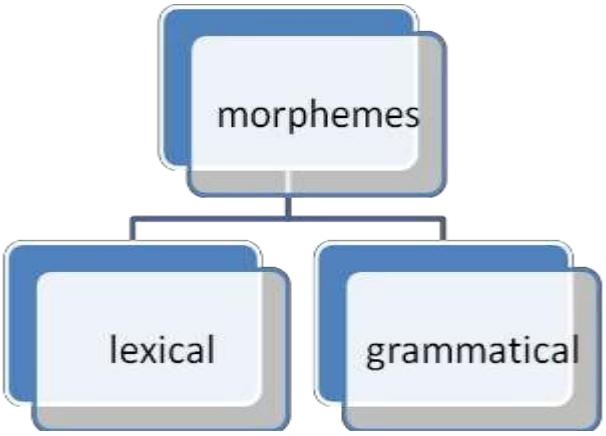
The word endings above have consistent meanings to English speakers, so that any *-ed* found on the end of a verb will be interpreted as the past tense of that verb, and form part of a system of word endings commonly used

with verbs (verb *inflections*). Similarly, the word ending *-ly* expresses consistent meaning in that nearly any adjective joined by the ending *-ly* will function as an adverb. Secondly, the *-ly* ending forms part of a system of endings, all of which function to create new word types from old. For example, *-ly* creates adverbs from adjectives (*quickly*), *-ness* creates nouns from adjectives (*greatness*), *-er*/*-or* creates nouns from verbs (*speaker*/*actor*), *-ate* creates verbs from nouns (*chlorinate*), - *able* creates adjectives from verbs and nouns (*disposable*, *fashionable*), etc.

Whenever a constituent of a word satisfies both of those conditions (consistent meaning and systematic use), such a constituent is called a *morpheme*.

When we look closer at language, we further discover that morphemes can be subcategorized. Whenever we take a category of language, such as the morpheme, and subcategorize all the significant, meaningful distinctions within that category, we are moving along a scale called delicacy. That is, as we work at subcategorizing the relevant features of language, the finer will be our sense of all the important details, and more 'delicate' will be our description of language.

As the figure below illustrates, morphemes can be subcategorized into two large subgroups -- *lexical* morphemes and *grammatical* morphemes.



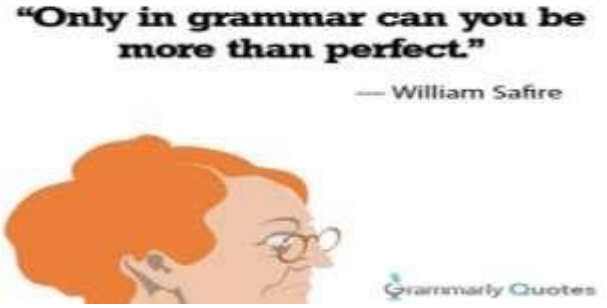
Lexical morphemes have consistent meaning beyond whatever grammatical information they also carry. The great bulk of a language's word stock is carried in its lexical morphemes. Lexical morphemes are subcategorized into *bases* (such as *deny*) and *affixes* (such as *un-* or *-able*). (Some morphemes often "stand alone" as words in a language, and when any morpheme can "stand alone" as a word, it is also called a *free* morpheme. Other morphemes do not occur as free words and can only occur in combination with other morphemes. Such morphemes are then known as *bound* morphemes, such as *un-* and *-kempt* in the word *unkempt*.) Affixes are subcategorized by the position they regularly occupy relative to a base morpheme. Those affixes that occur before a base are *prefixes* (such as *un-* in *undeniable*), those occurring after a base are *suffixes* (such as *-able* in *undeniable*), and those within a base are *infixes*. English does not use infixes in any great way, though there are several informal constructions in spoken English that resemble infixes, such as *fan-damn-tastic*, where the insertion of a middle element helps to add emphasis to the whole structure.

Some Examples of Lexical Morphemes in English					
Bases				**Affixes**	
Nouns	*Verbs*	*Adjectives*	*Adverbs*	*Prefixes*	*Suffixes*
Dog	have	silly	very	anti	ness
Chart	touch	hot	too	con	ion
Word	be	strong	now	di	ity
Child	stay	new	again	pro	or
Student	go	quick	then	re	al

Grammatical morphemes, on the other hand, function only to express grammatical information. Some grammatical morphemes are free morphemes such as prepositions like *under*, *to*, or *of*, and those are called *function words*. The meaning of the preposition by in the sentence *The letter was written by Dave* expresses only the grammatical information that Dave was the 'agent' responsible for writing the letter. Function words, like lexical morphemes, can be ambiguous; that is, they have more than one meaning. The preposition *by* in the sentence *The letter is by the lamp* has a different meaning (to indicate 'location'), although the preposition is still a function word.

Each function word expresses a specific bit of grammatical information, which in isolation may seem small and insignificant, but is really quite important. Sometimes people believe that grammatical morphemes are relatively meaningless when compared to all the meaning expressed by lexical morphemes. But think about how hard it would be to communicate without function words: Oscar Wilde's aphorism "The cynic

knows the price of everything, but the value of nothing" would read only "Cynic knows price, value" if we ignored the grammatical fnction words.



The second category of grammatical morphemes are called inflections. Inflections are word endings, like suffixes, but unlike suffixes, inflections express only grammatical information. For examples, number inflections on nouns and verbs in English distinguish singular and plural forms. The *-s* ending is the regular noun inflection to distinguish the singular noun *house* from the plural noun *houses*. The *-s* inflection on the verb indicates the third person, singular, present tense, such *He hits hard*. Other inflections indicate the grammatical case of nouns, such as the genitive ending *-'s* to indicate "possessive" meaning as in *Dave's letter*, or their gender. Modern English no longer distinguishes nouns on the basis of grammatical gender, but English does have a lexical morpheme, a suffix, that marks nouns a feminine forms, such as the use of *-ess* to indicate the feminine, as in *hostess*, *waitress*, *stewardess*, and *poetess*. In English, adjectives and adverbs are marked for comparison, using the *-er* inflection for the comparative, as in *faster*, and the *-est* inflection for the superlative, as in *fastest.*

Unlike inflections, affixes carry more information than grammatical information alone. For example, the suffix *-ful* means "to be full of," as in the words *careful*, *sorrowful*, and *joyful*. Although affixes are known by the lexical information they carry, affixes also carry grammatical information. The suffix *-ful*, for instance, also marks the word grammatically as an adjective. In other words, when nouns like *sorrow*, *joy*, or *care* add the *-ful* suffix, they function as adjectives. This phenomenon is a common process in language called *derivation*, and the study of how affixes 'convert' one word into another is called 'derivational morphology.'

Irregular morphemes differ from the regular morphemes in one of two ways: they may use inflections that are less common than the regular inflection, such as the use of -(r)en to indicate plural nouns in forms like children or oxen, or they may change the phonological (and graphic) form, in a process known as suppletion, as in went as the past tense of go, or feet as the plural of foot.

Word Classes

The word classes of traditional grammar are a combination of the bases and the function words. The bases are called the *open classes*, so named because it is relatively easy to create new words in each of those categories, while the function words are called the *closed classes*, since it is less common (though not impossible) for speakers of a language to create new vocabulary in

those categories. Slang illustrates the creativity of speakers to invent new vocabulary in the open classes, such as the noun *homeboy* (a friend), or the verb *to ralph* (to vomit), or the adjective *rad* (good). But when was the last time someone invented new vocabulary in one of the closed classes?

Speakers recognize word classes through three different, but complementary, processes - the use of word endings, function words, and word order. As in many other languages, English employs a great number of word endings to signal different word classes.

However, word endings are not sufficient to identify all members of a word class, nor can endings identify all word classes. Therefore, speakers also rely on function words and word order to distinguish one class from another. For example, consider the two quotes below. Can you tell which words are adjectives or adverbs, words that modify or describe?

'Twas brillig, and the slithy toves

Did gyre and gymble in the wabe - Lewis Carroll, "The Jabberwocky" in *Through the Looking Glass*

The gloopy malchicks scattered razdrazily to the mesto.

- Anthony Burgess, *A Clockwork Orange*

Many people have the sense that the words *brillig*, *slithy*, *gloopy*, and *razdrazily* are the words that modify. That sense is a combination of factors, including the suffixes -*y* (also spelt -*i*- when a second ending is used on the

same word, as in *razdrazily*) and *-ly* - two suffixes that mark adjectives and adverbs. But word endings are not the only clues to help us find the modifiers. Each sentence also gives us clues from function words and word order. In English, it is common to find noun phrases with a predictable structure of Determiner + Adjective + Noun (*the clever children*), so the combination of both determiners (*the*) marking the beginning of noun phrases and word order in the sentences above help us interpret *slithy* and *gloopy* as adjectives. It is also common in English to find adjectives after forms of the verb be when the verb functions as the 'copula' verb, the linking verb, as in *Elizabeth is clever*. So in the first sentence, the verb *was* (part of the poetic fusion of *it was* into *'twas*) helps us to interpret *brillig* as an adjective. Finally, it is also common to find adverbs after verbs in English, as in *Emily learns quickly*. That fact helps us to interpret razdrazily as an adverb in the last example sentence.

In summary, then, it is fair to say that we look for patterns when we do grammar, patterns of word endings, function words, and word/morpheme order. But patterns are important not only for finding the constituents of language; patterns are also crucial in helping us discover the constituents of language as well.

The Phrase Rank

Words are the constituent elements of the next rank, phrases. At the phrase rank, we discover that it is possible to analyze each structure in more than one way. To study this phenomenon more closely, we will look at phrase structure in English. English is a language with five classes of phrases, noun phrases, verb phrases, adjective phrases, adverb phrases, and prepositional phrases.

The Noun Phrase

Like all phrases, the constituents of the English noun phrase can be analyzed into both functional constituents and formal constituents. From a functional point of view, the noun phrase has four major components, occurring in a fixed order:

- the *determinative*, that constituent which determines the reference of the noun phrase in its linguistic or situational context;
- *premodification*, which comprises all the modifying or describing constituents before the head, other than the determiners;
- the *head*, around which the other constituents cluster; and
- *postmodification*, those which comprise all the modifying constituents placed after the head.

Notice that each functional component of a noun phrase (NP) can be further subclassified as we move from left to right until we find that we have form classes (of the kind we discussed above) filling each constituent category.

Depending on the context of situation, we choose determiners and modifiers according to our needs in identifying and specifying the referent of the NP. Sometimes we need several determiners and modifiers to clarify the referent (*all my books in that box*); sometimes we need none at all (*Liz*).

This is one way to represent the dual nature of a phrase. Each phrase, remember, is a merger of both form and function, and, as complex as it looks, the diagram illustrates only some of the complexities of the noun phrase in English. (For a more thorough treatment, see Halliday 1994 and Quirk *et al*. 1985.) Another way to illustrate some of the possible arrangements of form and function in the noun phrase is presented in the table below.

Some Examples of the Noun Phrase in English				
FUNCTION	*Determiner*	*Premodifier*	*Head*	*Postmodifier*
FORMS	*Pronoun*	*Participle*	*Noun*	*Prepositional Phrase*
	Article	*Noun*	*Adjective*	*Relative Clause*

	Quantifier	*Adjective Phrase*	*Pronoun*	*Nonfinite Clause*
				Complementation

Notice that several forms classes can be "reused." For example, in the noun phrase it is possible to use quantifiers to function as pre-determiners or as post-determiners. This kind of "recycling" is known as *recursion*. Notice also that phrases and even whole clauses can be "recycled" into the noun phrase. This process of placing a phrase of clause within another phrase of clause is called *embedding*. It is through the processes of recursion and embedding that we are able to take a finite number of forms (words and phrases) and construct an infinite number of expressions. Furthermore, embedding also allows us to construct an infinitely long structure, in theory anyway.

For example, the nursery rhyme "The House That Jack Built" plays on the process of embedding in English noun phrases. The nursery rhyme is one sentence that continuously grows by embedding more and more relative clauses as postmodifiers in the noun phrase that ends the sentence:

- This is the house that Jack built.
- This is the malt that lay in the house that Jack built.
- This is the mouse that ate the malt that lay in the house that Jack built.

- This is the cat that scared the mouse that ate the malt hat lay in the house that Jack built.
- This is the dog that chased the cat that scared the mouse that ate the malt that lay in the house that Jack built.
- This is the boy who loves the dog that chased the cat that scared the mouse that ate the malt that lay in the house that Jack built.

And so on. In theory, we could go on forever because language relies so heavily on embedding.

The Verb Phrase

The verb phrase (VP) in English has a noticeably different structure, since the information it carries about mood, tense, modality, aspect, and voice is quite different from the information carried by a noun phrase. The verb phrase has two functional parts,

- the *auxiliary*, a grammatical morpheme carrying information about mood, tense, modality, and voice; and
- the *main verb*, a lexical morpheme carrying its lexical information and, usually, an inflection.

The *mood* system in English is divided into four subcategories.

The *indicative* mood 'indicates;' that is, it conveys to the listener/reader that the speaker/writer is making a statement, referring to the real world in an honest, direct, relevant way. The majority of our expressions are indicative in mood. Speakers signals the indicative mood by using word order: when the auxiliaries take their "usual" position following the 'subject,' we interpret the clause as being in the indicative mood.

Philosophers of language, like H. P. Grice, have done some of the most interesting linguistics of recent years, explicating the meanings of the indicative mood in English by examining how people use language in conversation. After studying a series of conversations in

different contexts, he developed the following generalizations or "rules of conversation" that help explain much about how we interpret our language in the indicative mood. Grice (1975) pointed out the participants in a conversation expect each other to be cooperative, to say something true and to the point, and not to be withholding any relevant information.

Specifically, Grice's maxims, or "rules," are the following:

MAXIM OF QUANTITY

a. Make your contribution as informative as is required.

b. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

MAXIM OF QUALITY

c. Do not say what you believe to be false.

d. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

MAXIM OF RELATION

e. Be relevant.

MAXIM OF MANNER

f. Avoid obscurity of expression.

g. Avoid ambiguity.

h. Be brief.

i. Be orderly.

Look at the conversation between A and B below. The maxims of quantity and relation are at work in B's response, like principles guiding our indicative interpretation of the fragment.

A: When will you stop by?

B: Sometime after dinner.

What maxims are at work in the following conversations between C and D?

C: I'm hungry.

D: I've got five dollars.

The reply D makes is only sensible if we assume that D is following the maxim of relation (that D is being relevant to C's statement of hunger) and the maxim of manner (that D being brief).

The *interrogative* mood signals the speakers' desire for information, that they are asking a question, that they are 'interrogating' the listeners. The interrogative is marked by starting a clause with an auxiliary verb or an interrogative pronoun.

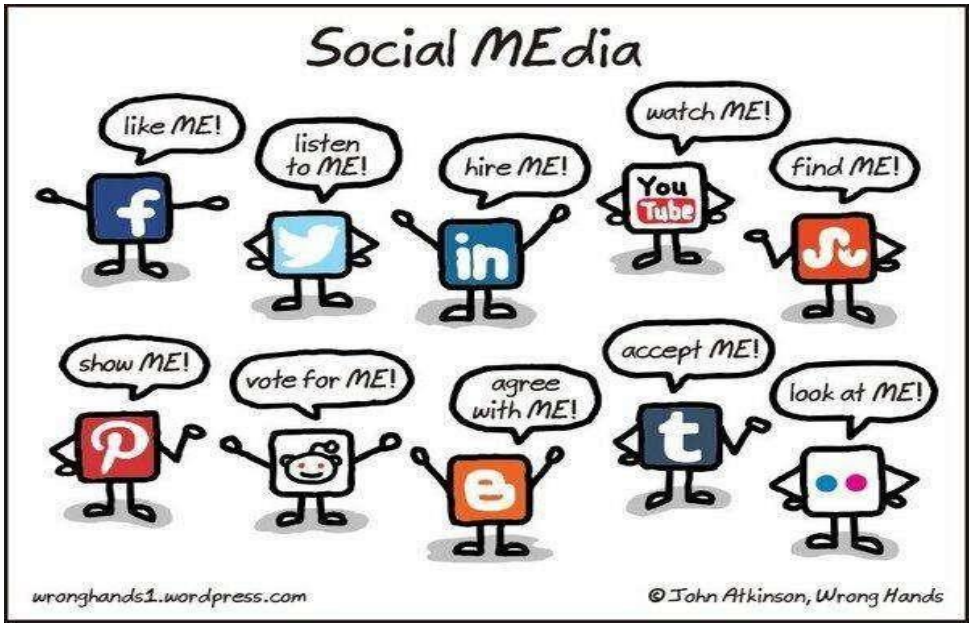
(1) *Can* Liz do that?

(2) *What* will Liz do?

The *imperative* mood express the speakers' sense of a command, request, or exhortation - an imperative. Speakers signal the imperative mood by using a base form of the verb in clause-initial position.

(3) *Do* that!

(4) *Be* here by 8:00 pm.



The *subjunctive* mood express the speakers' sense of the unlikely, a wish, a prayer, a hope. The subjunctive describes the state of affairs as speakers wish or hope them to be. It describes hypothetical situations, "some other world," the irreal. Speakers signal the subjunctive by beginning subordinate clauses with an auxiliary or by using subordinators that overtly mark hypothetical conditions.

(5) *Had* I known you were coming, I'd have baked a cake.

(6) If I *were* a millionaire, I'd endow an award in your honor.

The subjunctive is also marked in the verb phrase by the use of subject-verb concord, as in (6), where the singular subject *I* is matched with the plural verb *were*. Base forms of verbs can also signal the subjunctive.

(7) I suggest that Ms. Jones *reconsider* her decision.

(8) The administration insists that no one *be* exempted from the placement exams.

Finally, the base form is also used in several older, formulaic subjunctive expressions that have survived in the modern language.

(9) God *save* the King.

(10) Heaven *forbid* it should snow again.

Tense systems mark time. Tense is an inflection on the verb that indicates the time reference of the expression. In English, tense is marked on the first verb of the verb phrase. All verbs marked for tense are called 'finite' verbs, while verb forms that do not carry a tense inflection (such as participles) are called 'nonfinite' verbs.

English has two tenses, really. On most English verbs, the *-s* inflection marks the present tense, and the *-ed* inflection marks the past tense. Verbs using both the *-s* and *-ed* forms are known as 'regular' verbs in that those verbs employ the most common, most 'productive' inflection to mark time, as in *helps*/*helped*, *hopes*/*hoped*, *loves*/*loved*. 'Irregular verbs,' on the other hand, fall into seven subcategories, employing a number of inflections (such as *-en* for the participle inflection as in *written*, *taken*, *stolen*) or in some classes employing no participle inflections at all (such as *put* or *cut* as in *Liz cuts the cake*/*Liz cut the cake*/*Liz has cut the cake*).

It is really better to refer to the present tense in English as the 'nonpast,' since English uses the present tense to refer to many different time frames. Consider the sentences below, for example, where all the verbs are marked for the present tense, but the time reference varies considerably from example to example:

(11) Emily is tired today.

(12) Emily is leaving soon.

(13) Emily is clever.

Sentence (11) indeed does refers to the present time frame, but sentence (12) seems to refer to the near future, although it is marked for "present" tense. Sentence (13)

is altogether different: its time frame is expansive, referring to the past, present, and future simultaneously.

What people commonly call the 'future' in English is really part of the modality system of the language. English speakers use modal verbs (like *will*) or phrasal verbs (like *is going to* - often phonologically reduced to *gonna*) to refer to the future.

The *modality* system expresses the speakers' sense of obligation, volition, probability, permission, and ability. Modality is signaled by the use of a modal auxiliary and the use of a base verb, modal + base.

(14) Liz {*must*/*should*} go. ("obligation")

(15) Liz *will* stop that immediately! ("volition")

(16) Liz {*may*/*might*} go. ("probability")

(17) Liz {*can*/*may*} go. ("permission")

(18) Liz {*can*/*could*} do it ("ability")

The modal *will* also expresses a 'future' sense.

(19) Liz *will* do it tomorrow. ("future")

Aspect signals either the completion or the continuation of the process indicated by the verb in English. The *perfect* aspect expresses the speakers' sense of completion, the speakers' sense that the process expressed by the verb has been "perfected," to use the older sense of the word. The perfect aspect is signaled by

the use of a form of the auxiliary *have* and the *-ed* participle, *have* + V-*ed*. (Remember that some verbs are irregular, with irregular participle forms.)

(20) Liz *has gone* already.

The *progressive* aspect expresses the speakers' sense that the process expressed by the verb continues, covers a period of time, and is in some way relevant to the present moment. The progressive aspect is signaled by the use of a form of the auxiliary *be* and the *-ing* participle, *be* + V-*ing*.

(21) Liz *is doing* the best work ever.

Voice system allows speakers to view the action of the sentence in different ways without changing the facts involved. English has two voices, active and passive. In the examples below, it is possible to see the event from the perspective of the 'agent' (the conscious "doer" of the action - that is *active* voice), as in (22), or from the perspective of the 'goal' (the "receiver" of the action - that is *passive* voice), as in (23).

(22) Liz encourages Emily. (active)

(23) Emily is encouraged by Liz. (passive)

The passive voice is signaled by the use of a form of *be* and the *-ed* participle, *be* + V-*ed*.

Lastly, English also employs the verb *do* to function as a supporting auxiliary in verb phrases that require an auxiliary for certain grammatical processes but which lack some other auxiliary already discussed. Consider (24) for example where it would be impossible to signal the interrogative mood without the support of the *do* auxiliary, as in (25).

(24) Emily sleeps well at night.

(25) *Does* Emily sleep well at night?

To signal the interrogative mood, remember, the auxiliary verb occurs in clause-initial position. However, if the clause has not auxiliary verb, as (24) does not, then *do*-support provides the necessary auxiliary, as in (25). Notice too that *do* has all the hallmarks of an auxiliary: not only does it occur in clause-initial position as other auxiliaries do in the interrogative mood, but it also is marked for tense like all first verbs in the finite English verb phrase.

Why improve your understanding of Grammar and Punctuation?

Surely, in these days of word processors with their built-in grammar- and spell-checkers, there is no need to understand the rules and anomalies of English grammar and punctuation? Well, here are some reasons why doing some of these exercises and improving your understanding of such things could turn out to be a shrewd investment of your time:

Grammar checkers on computers are by no means foolproof. They sometimes attempt to correct things that are perfectly correct, and often miss glaring errors. Unlike you, the writer, they are totally unconcerned with the meaning of your sentence and are simply following a predefined set of rules. While there is no doubt that they are useful, relying on them is highly dangerous.

Even so, why should you need to spend any time acquiring an understanding of grammar and punctuation?

As you go through your university life, there will be various people it would be good to impress: most obviously, your tutors and your future employer. Poor punctuation and grammar will cause you to lose marks in essays. Good punctuation and grammar will not only

improve your marks, but, used skillfully, can make your arguments more persuasive and engaging.

Almost all employers, and certainly those recruiting for 'graduate level jobs', view effective written communication as a highly desirable skill. It is also a skill that many potential candidates lack; improving your understanding of grammar and punctuation could help you into the career of your choice. Once in your 'graduate level job', you will almost certainly be engaging with the written word in some way. Clearly-written, grammatically-correct, properly-punctuated reports are likely to catch your manager's eye for the right reasons.

Check Your Knowledge of Tenses

Correct the sentences below:

a) I take some photos in the park today …….
b) I have drive my car this week. …….
c) I will worked in the garden tomorrow. …….
d) He is works in an office. …….
e) I will swam in the lake next week. …….
f) I am reading the paper later. …….
g) She has never gone to Brazil. …….
h) Marie will buy a car last week. …….. …….
i) I have working there for six years. …….
j) He read a lot of books. …….
k) I like playing volleyball today. …….
l) I do goes to work every day. …….
m) I am a manager yesterday. …….
n) Mark have finished watching TV…….. …

o) She has closed the door at the moment. ……
p) I will been to the cinema. ……
q) We were played the piano last night.
r) He ate breakfast since Monday. …….
s) I have broken my leg two days ago. ……
t) She visit her father once a week. ……..

Verbs are action words, or *doing words*. They tell us what somebody or something is doing in a sentence. For example, in the sentence ‒John washed his car‖, ‒washed‖ is the verb, or action, John is the person doing the action (the *subject*), and ‒his car‖ is the thing that is having the action done to it (the *object*). Verbs can be regular and irregular. Most verbs are *regular*, which means that they all follow the same rules, for example when forming the past tense all regular verbs end with ‒ed‖ (‒walk‖ becomes ‒walked‖ and ‒play‖ becomes ‒played‖, and so on). However, some very common verbs are *irregular*, which means they don‘t follow the same rules as regular verbs and you just have to learn their forms separately. Common irregular verbs are: ‒to be‖, ‒to do‖, ‒to have‖ and ‒to go‖. These four verbs are also the most common auxiliary verbs. Auxiliary verbs are helping verbs: they help a main verb to form a verb phrase. In this sentence: ‒Ricky and Jessica are teaching their daughter to swim‖, ‒are‖ is an auxiliary verb (from verb ‒to be‖) which helps the main verb ‒teaching‖ (from verb ‒to teach‖).

There are several different **verb tenses** in the English language. It is worth being aware of (or, better still, *learning*) some common *verb tables* in each of the

following tenses: **present simple**, **present continuous**, **present perfect**, **past simple**, **past continuous**, **past perfect** and **future forms** (e.g. ‒going to‖). For example, let‘s look at the verb ‒to eat‖, which is an irregular verb: *(Note: these verb tables do not cover negative and question forms for each tense, which can also be studied, e.g. “I eat / I don’t eat / Do I eat?” and so on.)*

Present simple tense verb table: *I eat, You eat, He eats, She eats, It eats, We eat, They eat*

Present continuous tense verb table (with verb ‒to be‖ in the present tense as an auxiliary verb): *I am eating, You are eating, He is eating, She is eating, It is eating, We are eating, They are eating*

Present perfect tense verb table (with verb ‒to have‖ in the present tense as an auxiliary verb): *I have eaten, You have eaten, He has eaten, She has eaten, It has eaten, We have eaten, They have eaten*

Past simple tense verb table: *I ate, You ate, He ate, She ate, It ate, We ate, They ate* past continuous tense verb table (with verb ‒to be‖ in the past tense as an auxiliary verb): *I was eating, You were eating, He was eating, She was eating, It was eating, We were eating, They were eating*

Past perfect tense verb table (with verb ‒to have‖ in the past tense as an auxiliary verb): *I had eaten, You had eaten, He had eaten, She had eaten, It had eaten, We had eaten, They had eaten*

Future form with ‒going to‖ and verb ‒to be‖ in the present tense as an auxiliary verb: *I'm going to eat, You're going to eat, He's going to eat, She's going to eat, It's going to eat, We're going to eat, They're going to eat* future form with ‒will‖ in the present tense as an auxiliary verb: *I will eat, You will eat, He will eat, She will eat, It will eat, We will eat, They will eat.*

☐ **Exercise: Complete the sentence blocks:**

Starting sentence A: "Paul walks to school with his friend every morning."

wh- question: **Who _____**
*short answer:*_____
yes/no question: _____
*short answer:*_____
yes/no question to get a negative answer: _____
short negative answer: _____
long negative answer: _____

Extension*:* Make more sentence blocks using: ***what***, ***where***, ***when***, ***how often. Starting sentence B:*** "I usually have lunch in the canteen at 2pm on Tuesdays."

wh- question: **When _____**
*short answer:*_____
yes/no question: _____
*short answer:*_____
*yes/no question to get a negative answer:*_____
short negative answer: _____
long negative answer: _____

Nouns

Nounsare commonly defined as words that refer to a person, place, thing, or idea. How can you identify a noun?

If you can put the word the in front of a word and it sounds like a unit, the word is a noun. For example, the boy sounds like a unit, so boy is a noun. The chair sounds like a unit, so chair is a noun. Compare these nouns to *the very, *the walked, *the because. "Very", "walked", and "because" are not nouns. While you can easily put the and very together (for example, "the very tall boy"), "the very", by itself, does not work as a unit while "the chair" does. So, "chair" is a noun; "very" is not. (There is one kind of noun that cannot always have the in front of it)

☐ **Which of the following words are nouns? See if they sound like a unit when you put them after "the":**

their carpets
a hand-painted plate
the court stenographer

our psychology professor
two interesting museums

Underline the nouns in the sentences below. In this exercise, the nouns will all have "the" or "his" in front of them. Some will be concrete and some will be abstract. Some sentences have more than one noun.

a) She read the play over again.
b) The actions became monotonous.
c) The time had finally come to confess the truth.
d) He‘s the boy who delivers the paper.
e) The glitterati always like to follow the fashion of the day.
f) They will repair his stove.
g) The arrangement was good for all of them.
h) The audience stared at the screen.
i) The definition was in his dictionary.

Singular and Plural Nouns

What‘s the difference between "cat" and "cats"? The noun "cat" is used when it refers to only one cat; its form is singular. The noun "cats" is used when it represents more than one cat; its form is plural. Thus, the singular and plural forms tell us about number. Below are some nouns in their singular and plural forms.

Singular	Plural
box	boxes
bed	beds
kite	kites

day	days
country	countries
man	men
child	children

□ **Underline** each noun in the sentences below and indicate whether it is singular (SG) or plural (PL). There may be more than one noun in a sentence.

a) He had a few good ideas.
b) The boys spoke in a quiet whisper.
c) The tourists greeted the queen with attitudes of respect.
d) My neighbor is a neurologist.
e) The exterminator found bugs in the office.
f) Sharks live in water.
g) Yesterday, I caught a big trout.
h) There are many beautiful homes on this block.
i) Visitors to this country must obtain visas.
j) His cousin fought in a brutal battle to free ninety hostages.

Regular and Irregular Plurals

Usually, we pluralize a noun by adding an ‗s‘‘ to it, as in books; these nouns are called regular. There are a handful of nouns that are pluralized in other ways; these nouns are called irregular. Irregular nouns form their plural in different ways. Here are some common patterns:

1. changing a vowel: man/men

2. adding _ren‘‘ or _en‘‘: child/children
3. adding nothing: fish/fish
4. changing _f‘‘ to _v‘‘ and adding _s‘‘: knife/knives

Countable Nouns

Countable nouns are easy to recognize. They are things that we can count. For example: "pen". We can count pens. We can have one, two, three or more pens. Here are some more countable nouns:

- dog, cat, animal, man, person
- bottle, box, litre
- coin, note, dollar
- cup, plate, fork
- table, chair, suitcase, bag

Countable nouns can be singular or plural:

- My **dog is** playing.
- My **dogs are** hungry.

We can use the indefinite article **a/an** with countable nouns:

- **A** dog is **an** animal.

When a countable noun is singular, we must use a word like **a/the/my/this** with it:

- I want **an** orange. (*not* I want orange.)
- Where is **my** bottle? (*not* Where is bottle?)

When a countable noun is plural, we can use it alone:

- I like oranges.
- Bottles can break.

We can use **some** and **any** with countable nouns:

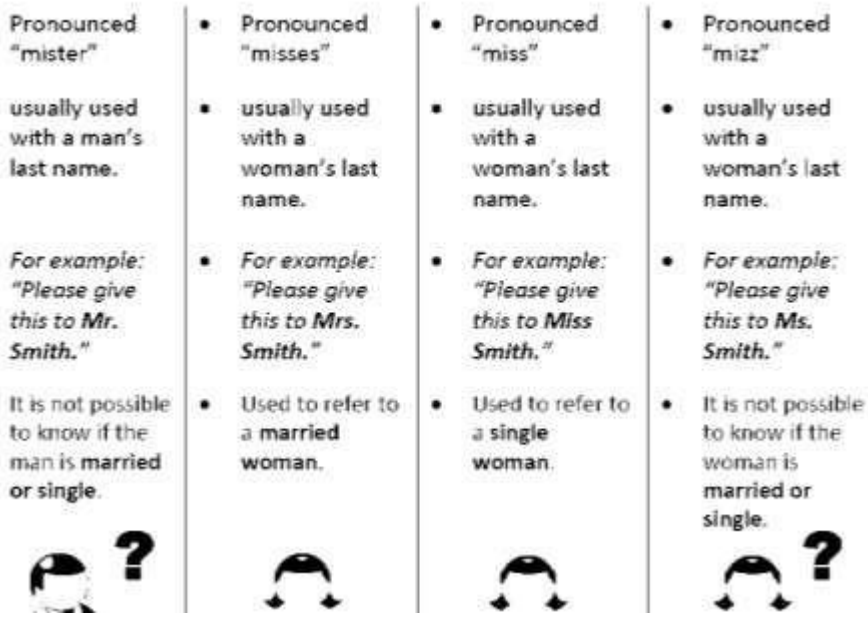
- I've got **some** dollars.
- Have you got **any** pens?

We can use **a few** and **many** with countable nouns:

- I've got **a few** dollars.
- I haven't got **many** pens.

"People" is countable. "People" is the plural of "person". We can count people:

- There is one person here.
- There are three people here.



Uncountable Nouns

Uncountable nouns are substances, concepts etc that we cannot divide into separate elements. We cannot "count" them. For example, we cannot count "milk". We can count "bottles of milk" or "litres of milk", but we cannot count "milk" itself. Here are some more uncountable nouns:

- music, art, love, happiness
- advice, information, news
- furniture, luggage
- rice, sugar, butter, water
- electricity, gas, power
- money, currency

We usually treat uncountable nouns as singular. We use a singular verb. For example:

- **This** news **is** very important.
- Your luggage **looks** heavy.

We do not usually use the indefinite article **a/an** with uncountable nouns. We cannot say "an information" or "a music". But we can say **a something of**:

- **a piece of** news
- **a bottle of** water
- **a grain of** rice

We can use **some** and **any** with uncountable nouns:

- I've got **some** money.
- Have you got **any** rice?

We can use **a little** and **much** with uncountable nouns:

- I've got **a little** money.
- I haven't got **much** rice.

Uncountable nouns are also called "mass nouns". Here are some more examples of countable and uncountable nouns:

Countable	**Uncountable**
dollar	money
song	music
suitcase	luggage
table	furniture
battery	electricity
bottle	wine
report	information
tip	advice
journey	travel
job	work
view	scenery

Sometimes, the same noun can be countable *and* uncountable, often with a change of meaning.

Countable		Uncountable
There are two hairs in my coffee!	**hair**	I don't have much hair.
There are two lights in our bedroom.	**light**	Close the curtain. There's too much light!
Shhhhh! I thought I heard a noise. There are so many different noises in the city.	**noise**	It's difficult to work when there is so much noise.
Have you got a paper to read? (newspaper) Hand me those student papers.	**paper**	I want to draw a picture. Have you got some paper?
Our house has seven rooms.	**room**	Is there room for me to sit here?
We had a great time at the party. How many times have I told you no?	**time**	Have you got time for a cup of coffee?
Macbeth is one of Shakespeare's greatest works.	**work**	I have no money. I need work!

Drinks (coffee, water, orange juice) are usually uncountable. But if we are thinking of a cup or a glass, we can say (in a restaurant, for example):

- Two teas and one coffee please.

☐ **Exercise: For each underlined noun in the sentences below, indicate if it is being used as a count (C) or noncount (NC) noun in that sentence. Use the plural, much/ many, or fewer/less tests to help you**.

Sample: Their new album(C) was a huge hit.

(a) **Algebra** ( ) was one of my worst subjects ( ) in high school ( ).
(b) I had no idea that there were various **theories** ( ), such as Euclidean and fractal.
(c) The **smoke** ( ) rose through the chimney ( ).
(d) **Bread** ( ) is a staple in many societies ( ).
(e) She decided to push the **issue** ( ) further.
(f) **People** ( ) are funny sometimes.
(g) The **government** ( ) of the United States has three branches ( ).
(h) **Senators** ( ) can spend money ( ) unnecessarily.
(i) It takes **effort** ( ) to get a good grade ( ) in Mr. John's class ( ).
(j) The reporters ( ) wrote the story.

☐ **Exercise: Count and Noncount Nouns. Fill in the blanks with the appropriate article if one is needed.**

Though you can make ____ decision on purely economic grounds, buying ____ computer is often more like joining ____ religious cult. Buy ____ Apple, for example, and almost by default you join Apple chairman Steve Jobs in his crusade against IBM. Every machine has its "users' groups" and ____ band of loyal enthusiasts who tout its merits. That makes it all ____ more difficult for ____ uninitiated to decide what machine to buy. Students have ____ huge advantage, however. The computer companies are so eager for students' business (it builds "brand loyalty") that many offer huge discounts.

In the past six months, IBM, Apple, and others have brought out new computers, and ____ fierce competition has forced prices down. Also, time is on your side: next year at ____ time you'll have even more choice and more computing power and features for ____ same price. On ____ other hand, this will probably be true for many years. So for those who need or want ____ computer now, it's a great time to buy one.

Adjectives

Comparative and Superlative

Using the comparative of adjectives in English is quite easy once you have understood the few simple rules that govern them. Below you will find the rules with examples for each condition.

Rules

N. of syllables	Comparative	Superlative
one syllable	**+ -er**	**+ -est**
tall	taller	tallest

One syllable with the spelling***consonant* + *single vowel* + *consonant*:** double the final consonant:

fat	fatter	fattest
big	bigger	biggest
sad	sadder	saddest

N. of syllables	Comparative	Superlative
two syllables	**-erOR more + adj**	**-est ORmost + adj**

ending in: *-y, -ly, -ow*
ending in: *-le, -er or -ure*

These common adjectives - handsome, polite, pleasant, common, quiet

happy happier/ more happy happiest/ most happy
yellow yellower/ more yellow yellowest/ most yellow
simple simpler/ more simple simplest/ most simple
tender tenderer/ more tender tenderest/ most tender

If you are not sure, use *MORE + OR MOST +*

Note:Adjectives ending in *'-y'* like *happy, pretty, busy, sunny, lucky* etc:. replace the *-y* with *-ier* or *-iest* in the comparative and superlative form

busy	*busier*	*busiest*

N.of syllables	Comparative	Superlative
3 syllables or more	**more + adj**	**most + adj**
important	more important	most important
expensive	more expensive	most expensive

Examples

- A cat is***fast,*** a tiger is***faster***but a cheetah is ***the fastest***
- A car is***heavy,*** a truck is***heavier,*** but a train is***the heaviest***
- A park bench is ***comfortable,*** a restaurant chair is***more comfortable,*** but a sofa is the ***most comfortable***

NOT AS + ADJECTIVE + AS

Difference can also be shown by using **not so/as ...as**:

Examples

- Mont Blanc is ***not as high as*** Mount Everest
- Norway is ***not as sunnyas*** Thailand
- A bicycle is ***not as expensiveas*** a car
- Arthur is ***not as intelligent as*** Albert

Irregular Comparatives and Superlatives

These adjectives have completely irregular comparative and superlative forms:

Adjective	Comparative	Superlative

good	better	best
bad	worse	worst
little	less	least
much	more	most
far	further / farther	furthest / farthest

Verbs

Put brackets around the main verb in each of the following clauses. For example, "The cat [escaped] from the house". (Check "**English Grammar in a Nutshell**" at the end of the book)

a. This chapter has several purposes.
b. The book provides copious exercises for you.
c. The student appears calm.
d. We begin with easy exercises.
e. Unskilled writers omit parts of sentences.
f. Sentences stand alone.
g. Government mismanagement caused huge losses.
h. She tried yoga for her nerves.
i. The queen moves for any distance in any direction.
j. Alice and the March Hare went to the Mad Hatter‘s tea party.
k. It rains heavily here.

Verb Tenses

Present Tenses

Simple present: *She **wants** a drink.*

Present continuous: *They **are walking** home.*

Past Tenses

Simple past: *Peter **lived** in China in 1965.*

Past continuous: *I **was reading** when she arrived.*

Perfect Tenses

Present Perfect: *I **have lived** here since 1987.*

Present perfect continuous: *I **have been living** here for years.*

Past perfect: *We **had been** to see her several times before she visited us.*

Past perfect continuous: *He **had been watching** her for some time when she turned and smiled.*

Future perfect: *We **will have arrived** in the States by the time you get this letter.*

Future perfect continuous: *By the end of your course, you **will have been studying** for five years.*

Future Tenses

Simple future: *They **will go** to Italy next week.*

Future continuous: *I **will be travelling** by train.*

Conditional Tenses

Type 1 conditional *If he had the money he **would go***

Type 2 conditional *He **would be getting up** now if he was in Australia.*

Type 3 conditional *She **would have visited** me if she had had time.*

Perfect continuous conditional: *I **would have been playing** tennis if I hadn't broken m*

☐ **Exercise: Identify the meaning or function of the present tense in each of the following sentences.** *Example:* The chemical composition of water is H2O. *Answer:* timeless statement

(a) Still waters run deep.
(b) Classes end November 30.
(c) Janet bites her nails.
(d) I think he was wrong.
(e) Anna Karenina commits suicide.
(g) The earth revolves around the sun.
(h) We hear that you are going to be a grandparent soon.

(i) The early bird catches the worm.
(j) I know the answer.
(k) Napier passes the ball to Jones.
(l) Phyllis teaches elementary school.

Note: "The **present tense** designates action occurring at the time of speaking or writing: *She* **lives** *in Toronto.* It is used to indicate habitual actions: *I* **exercise** *every morning.* It is also used to express general truths (*Time* **flies**) and scientific knowledge (*Light* **travels** *faster than sound*). The present tense also has some special uses: to indicate future time when used with time expressions: We *travel* to Italy next week. to describe works of literature and the arts: Hamlet *avoids* avenging his father's death for one reason." (Robert DiYanni and Pat C. Hoy II, *The Scribner Handbook for Writers*, 3rd ed., Allyn and Bacon, 2002)

Exercise: Completing Sentences

Complete these sentences, using the tense suggested.

(a) We stand patiently, hoping that _____. (use future tense)
(b) Advertisers seem to believe that _____. (use present tense)
(c) By the time the fog lifted, _____. (use past perfect tense)
(d) We will leave for Florida as soon as _____. (use present tense)

(e) One student keeps repeating what _____. (use present perfect tense)
(f) Yesterday our track team competed in a meet that _____. (use past tense)
(g) Before the crew paves a driveway, they always _____. (use present tense [habitual action])
(h) Before the crew paves the driveway, they _____. (use future tense [one-time action])
(i) By the time the letter arrives, _____. (use future perfect tense)
(j) When the final report is published, _____. (use future tense)

☐ Exercise: Tense Consistency

In the following passage from Alex Haley's *Roots*, some of the verbs have been deliberately omitted. Supply the appropriate tense for each missing verb, the plain form of which is given in brackets.

In Banjuh, the capital of Gambia, I met with a group of Gambians. They [tell] me how for centuries the history of Africa has been preserved. In the older villages of the back country, there are old men called griots, who [be] in effect living archives. Such men [memorize] and, on special occasions, [recite] the cumulative histories of clans or families or villages as those histories [have] long been told. Since my forefather [have] said his name was Kin-tay (properly spelled Kinte), and since the Kinte clan [be] known in Gambia, the group of Gambians would see what they could do to help me. I was back in New York when a registered letter [arrive] from Gambia.

Words [have] been passed in the back country, and a griot of the Kinte clan [have], indeed, been found. His name, the letter said, [be] Kebba Kanga Fofana. I [return] to Gambia and [organize] a safari to locate him.

☐ **Exercise: Controlling Shifts in Paragraphs**

Although the main tense in the following paragraph is past, the writer correctly shifts to present tense twice. Find these two verbs in present tense. If you encounter difficulty, try reading the paragraph aloud.

The Iroquois Indians of the Northeast regularly burned land to increase open space for agriculture. In fact, the early settlers of Boston found so few trees that they had to row out to the islands in the harbor to obtain fuel. Just how far north this practice extended is uncertain, but the Saco River in southern Maine appears to have been the original northern boundary of the agricultural clearings. Then, pressured by European settlement, the Iroquois extended their systematic burning far northward, even into the Maritime Provinces of Canada. *(*abridged from Hay and Farb, *The Atlantic Shore)*

☐ **Read the following paragraph through, and determine the main tense. Then reread it and circle the three verbs that shift incorrectly from the main tense.**

For the past seven years, I have called myself a swimmer. Swimming, my one sport, provides a necessary outlet for my abundant energy. I have always drawn satisfaction from exertion, straining my muscles

to their limits. I don't know why pushing forward in the water, as my muscles cried out in pain, sets off a booming cheer in my head. Many times when I rounded the turn for the last lap of a race, my complaining muscles want to downshift and idle to the finish. My mind, however, presses the pedal to the floor and yells, "FASTER!" The moment that I touched the wall my muscles relax; the pain subsides. I am pleased to have passed the point of conflict. *(*adapted from Brendon MacLean, *"Harder!")*

☐ **You will notice several shifts in tense in the following paragraph describing action in a fictional narrative. Find the six faulty shifts in tense.**

In "The Use of Force" William Carlos Williams describes a struggle involving a doctor, two parents, and their young daughter. The doctor must obtain a throat culture from the girl, who was suspected of having diphtheria. This ordinarily simple task is hindered by the frightened and uncooperative patient, Mathilda Olson. Adding to the doctor's difficulties were the parents, who had to struggle with their own conflicting emotions. They want their daughter helped, but they did not trust the doctor to do the right thing. Sensitive to the parents' uncertainty, the doctor became more and more frustrated by Mathilda's resistance. Williams gives considerable attention to how each of the Olsons react, but it is clear that his main interest was in the doctor and his responses.(adapted from a student essay)

☐ Exercise: Recognizing Shifts in Sentences

Check the following sentences for confusing shifts in tense. If the tense of each underlined verb expresses the time relationship accurately, write S (satisfactory). If a shift in tense is not appropriate, write U (unsatisfactory) and make necessary changes. In most cases with an inappropriate shift, there is more than one way to correct the inconsistency. Reading the sentences aloud will help you recognize differences in time.

_____ 1. If the club limited its membership, it will have to raise its dues.

_____ 2. As Barbara puts in her contact lenses, the telephone rang.

_____ 3. Thousands of people will see the art exhibit by the time it closes.

_____ 4. By the time negotiations began, many pessimists have expressed doubt about them.

_____ 5. After Capt. James Cook visited Alaska on his third voyage, he is killed by Hawaiian islanders in 1779.

_____ 6. I was terribly disappointed with my grade because I studied very hard.

_____ 7. The moderator asks for questions as soon as the speaker has finished.

_____ 8. Everyone hopes the plan would work.

_____ 9. Harry wants to show his friends the photos he took last summer.

_____ 10. Scientists predict that the sun will die in the distant future.

_____ 11. The boy insisted that he has paid for the candy bars.

Adverbs

☐ Exercise: Adjective or Adverb

Choose the correct word:

a) He (correct, correctly) defined the terms. The answer sounded (correctly, correct).

b) She (quickly, quick) adjusted the fees. She adapted (quick, quickly) to any situation.
c) He measured the floor (exact, exactly). They proved to be (perfectly, perfect) (exact, exactly) measurements.
d) The stillness of the tomb was (awfully, awful). The tomb was (awfully, awful) still.
e) It was a (dangerously, dangerous) lake to swim in. The man was (dangerous, dangerously) drunk. The gas smelled (dangerously, dangerous).
f) She performed (magnificent, magnificently). It was a (magnificent, magnificently) beautiful performance.
g) Her voice sounds (beautifully, beautiful). She sang the song (exact, exactly) as it was written. We heard it (perfectly, perfect).
h) He was a very (sensibly, sensible) person. He acted very (sensible, sensibly).
i) Mike wrote too (slow, slowly) on the exam. He always writes (slow, slowly).
j) Talk (softly, soft) or don't talk at all. The music played (softly, soft).
k) Andrea knows the material very (good, well). She always treats us (good, well).
l) You must send payments (regular, regularly). We deal on a (strictly, strict) cash basis.
m) The mechanic's tools were (well, good). The foreman said that his work was (good, well) done.
n) She worked (careful, carefully) with the sick child. She was a very (careful, carefully) worker.
o) He did not pass the course as (easy, easily) as he thought he would.
p) I find this novel very (interesting, interestingly). It was (interesting, interestingly) written.

What is an Adverb?

Adverb: a word that modifies a verb, an adjective or another adverb, expressing manner, place, time or degree; a word that can modify a phrase, clause or sentence.

An **adverb** is a word that tells us more about a *verb*. It "qualifies" or "modifies" a *verb* (The man *ran* **quickly**). In the following examples, the adverb is in **bold** and the verb that it modifies is in *italics*.

- John *speaks* **loudly**. (How does John speak?)
- **Afterwards** she *smoked* a cigarette. (When did she smoke?)
- Mary *lives* **locally**. (Where does Mary live?)

But adverbs can also modify *adjectives* (Tara is **really** *beautiful*), or even other *adverbs* (It works **very** *well*). Look at these examples:

- Modify an *adjective*:

  He is **really** *handsome*. (How handsome is he?)
  That was **extremely** *kind* of you.

- Modify another *adverb*:

  She drives **incredibly** *slowly*. (How slowly does she drive?)
  He drives **extremely** *fast*.

Note that adverbs have other functions, too. They can:

- Modify a whole sentence: **Obviously**, *I can't know everything*.
- Modify a prepositional phrase: It's **immediately** *inside the door*.

Adverb Form

We make many adverbs by adding **-ly** to an adjective, for example:

- **quick** (adjective) >**quickly** (adverb)
- **careful** (adjective) >**carefully** (adverb)
- **beautiful** (adjective) >**beautifully** (adverb)

There are some basic rules about spelling for -ly adverbs. See the table below:

adjective ending	**do this**	**adjective**	**adverb**
most adjectives	add -ly	quick	quickly
		nice	nicely
		sole	solely
		careful	carefully
-able or -ible	change -e to -y	regrettable	regrettably
		horrible	horribly
-y	change -y to -ily	happy	happily
-ic	change -ic to -ically	economic	economically

But not all words that end in -ly are adverbs. The following -ly words, for example, are all adjectives:

- friendly, lovely, lonely, neighbourly

And some adverbs have no particular form. Look at these examples: well, fast, very, never, always, often, still

Kinds of Adverbs

Here you can see the basic kinds of adverbs.

Adverbs of Manner

Adverbs of Manner tell us the manner or way in which something happens. They answer the question "how?". Adverbs of Manner mainly modify *verbs*.

- He *speaks* **slowly**. (How does he speak?)
- They *helped* us **cheerfully**. (How did they help us?)
- James Bond *drives* his cars **fast**. (How does James Bond drive his cars?)

We normally use Adverbs of Manner with **dynamic (action)** verbs, not with stative or state verbs.

- He ran fast. She came quickly. They worked happily. ~~She looked beautifully. It seems strangely. They are happily.~~

Adverbs of Place

Adverbs of Place tell us the place where something happens. They answer the question "where?". Adverbs of Place mainly modify *verbs*.

- Please *sit* **here**. (Where should I sit?)

- They *looked* **everywhere**. (Where did they look?)
- Two cars were *parked* **outside**. (Where were two cars parked?)

Adverbs of Time

Adverbs of Time tell us something about the time that something happens. Adverbs of Time mainly modify *verbs*.

They can answer the question "when?":

- He *came* **yesterday**. (When did he come?)
- I *want* it **now**. (When do I want it?)

Or they can answer the question "how often?":

- They *deliver* the newspaper **daily**. (How often do they deliver the newspaper?)
- We **sometimes** *watch* a movie. (How often do we watch a movie?)

Adverbs of Degree

Adverbs of Degree tell us the degree or extent to which something happens. They answer the question "how much?" or "to what degree?". Adverbs of Degree can modify *verbs*, *adjectives* and other *adverbs*.

- She **entirely** *agrees* with him. (How much does she agree with him?)
- Mary is **very** *beautiful*. (To what degree is Mary beautiful? How beautiful is Mary?)

- He drove **quite** *dangerously*. (To what degree did he drive dangerously? How dangerously did he drive?)

Adverb Position

When an **adverb** modifies a *verb*, there are usually 3 possible positions within the sentence or clause:

FRONT, before subj.		**Now**	I will *read* a book.
MID, between subj. + verb	I	**often**	*read* books.
END, after verb/object	I *read* books	**carefully**.	

When an **adverb** modifies an *adjective* or another *adverb*, it usually goes in front of the word that it modifies, for example:

	adverb	**adjective**	
She gave him a	**really**	*dirty*	look.
	adverb	**adverb**	
We	**quite**	*often*	study English.

The position of an **adverb** often depends on the <u>kind of adverb</u> (manner, place, time, degree). Place the adverb in the right place in the following:.

a) She spoke. (gently)
b) He lives. (here)
c) I will do it. (today)
d) We go to Paris. (often)

e) He spoke fast. (really)
f) I died. (nearly)
g) It was funny. (terribly)

☐ Adjective or Adverb

In the following sentences, cross out the incorrect words and write the correct form in the blanks. If the sentence is correct as it is, write "correct" in the blank.

a) Terrence plays quarterback as well as Brian._____
b) The game hadn't hardly begun before it started to rain._____
c) This was sure a mild winter._____
d) Jane behaves more pleasant than Joan._____
e) When you are a parent, you will think different about children._____
f) I felt badly about not having done good on my final exams._____
g) Whether you win is not near as important as how you play._____
h) Asian music often sounds oddly to Western listeners.__
i) Does your car run well enough to enter the race?____
j) I felt safely enough to go out at night on my own._____
k) You can see the distant mountains clear with these binoculars._____
l) Our team was real sharp last Saturday afternoon during the game._____

The Passive Voice

The passive voice in English is composed of two elements: the appropriate form of the verb ***'to be'*** + the past participle of the verb in question:

Subject	verb 'to be'	past participle
The house	was	built ...

Examples: *to clean*

Subject	verb 'to be'	past participle
Simple present:		
The house	is	cleaned every day.
Present continuous:		
The house	is being	cleaned at the moment.
Simple past:		
The house	was	cleaned yesterday.
Past continuous:		
The house	was being	cleaned last week.
Present perfect:		
The house	has been	cleaned since you left.
Past perfect:		
The house	had been	cleaned before their arrival.

Future:		
The house	will be	cleaned next week.

Future continuous:		
The house	will be being	cleaned tomorrow.

Present conditional:		
The house	would be	cleaned if they had visitors.

Past conditional:		
The house	would have been	cleaned if it had been dirty.

NOTE: '*to be born'* is a passive form and is most commonly used in the past tense:

- *I **was born** in 1976. When **were you born**?*
- BUT: *Around 100 babies **are born** in this hospital every week.*

Infinitive form: infinitive of 'to be' + past participle: *(to) be cleaned*

This form is used after modal verbs and other verbs normally followed by an infinitive, e.g.

- You have ***to be tested*** on your English grammar
- John might ***be promoted*** next year.
- She wants to ***be invited*** to the party.

Gerund or -ing form: being + past participle: *being cleaned*

This form is used after prepositions and verbs normally followed by a gerund

Examples

- Most film stars hate ***being interviewed***.
- I remember ***being taught*** to drive.
- The children are excited about ***being taken*** to the zoo.

Sometimes the passive is formed using the verb *to get* instead of the verb *to be:*

- He ***got arrested*** for dangerous driving.
- ***They're getting married*** later this year.
- I'm not sure how the window ***got broken***.

Direct and Reported Speech

You can answer the question What did he/she say? in two ways:

- by repeating the words spoken (***direct speech***)
- by reporting the words spoken (***indirect or reported speech***).

Direct Speech

Direct speech repeats, or quotes, the exact words spoken. When we use direct speech in writing, we place the words spoken between inverted commas (....) and there is no change in these words. We may be reporting something that's being said NOW (for example a telephone conversation), or telling someone later about a previous conversation

Examples

- *She says "What time will you be home?"*
- *She said "What time will you be home?" and I said "I don't know! "*
- *"There's a fly in my soup!" screamed Simone.*
- *John said, "There's an elephant outside the window."*

Reported Speech

Reported speech is usually used to talk about the past, so we normally change the tense of the words spoken. We use reporting verbs like *'say', 'tell', 'ask',* and we may use

the word *'that'* to introduce the reported words. Inverted commas are not used.

- *She said, "I saw him."* → *She said* ***that she had seen him.***

'That' may be omitted:

- *She told him that she was happy.*
- *She told him she was happy.*

'Say' and ***'tell':***

- Use ***'say'*** when there is no indirect object:
- *He said that he was tired.*

- Always use ***'tell'*** when you say who was being spoken to (i.e. with an indirect object):
- *He told me that he was tired.*

'Talk' and ***'speak'*** are used:

- to describe the action of communicating:

- *He talked to us.*
- *She was speaking on the telephone.*

- with ***'about'*** to refer to what was said:

- *He talked (to us) about his parents.*

Tense Changes When Using Reported Speech

Normally, the tense in reported speech is one tense back in time from the tense in direct speech:

*She said, "I **am** tired."* → *She said that she **was** tired.*

The changes are shown below:

Simple present *"I always **drink** coffee", she said*	→	**Simple past** *She said that she always **drank** coffee.*
Present continuous *"I **am reading** a book", he explained.*	→	**Past continuous** *He explained that he **was reading** a book*
Simple past *"Bill **arrived** on Saturday", he said.*	→	**Past perfect** *He said that Bill **had arrived** on Saturday*
Present perfect *"I **have been** to Spain", he told me.*	→	**Past perfect** *He told me that he **had been** to Spain*
Past perfect *"I **had just turned** out the light," he explained.*	→	**Past perfect** *He explained that he **had just turned out** the light.*
Present perfect continuous *They complained, "We **have been waiting** for hours".*	→	**Past perfect continuous** *They complained that they **had been waiting** for hours.*

Past continuous	→	**Past perfect continuous**
*"We **were living** in Paris", they told me.*		*They told me that they **had been living** in Paris.*
Future	→	**Present conditional**
*"I **will be** in Geneva on Monday", he said*		*He said that he **would be** in Geneva on Monday.*
Future continuous	→	**Conditional continuous**
*She said, "**I'll be using** the car next Friday".*		*She said that she **would be using** the car next Friday.*

NOTE:

1. You do not need to change the tense if the reporting verb is in the present, or if the original statement was about something that is still true, e.g.

- *He says **he has missed** the train but **he'll catch** the next one.*
- *We explained that **it is** very difficult to find our house.*

2. These modal verbs do not change in reported speech:

might, could, would, should, ought to, e.g.

- *We explained that it **could** be difficult to find our house.*
- *She said that she **might** bring a friend to the party.*

Time/place references change when using reported speech

Example

- "I will see you **here tomorrow**", she said. She said that she would see me **there the next day**.

The most common of these changes are shown below:

Today	**that day**
*"I saw him **today**", she said.*	*She said that she had seen him **that day**.*
Yesterday	**the day before**
*"I saw him **yesterday**", she said.*	*She said that she had seen him **theday before**.*
The day before yesterday	**two days before**
*"I met her **the day before yesterday**", he said.*	*He said that he had met her **two days before**.*
Tomorrow	**the next/following day**
*"I'll see you **tomorrow**", he said*	*He said that he would see me the next day.*
The day after tomorrow	**in two days time/ two days later**

*"We'll come **the day after tomorrow**", they said.*	*They said that they would come **in two days time/ two days later**.*
Next week/month/year	**the following week/month/year**
*"I have an appointment **next week**", she said.*	*She said that she had an appointment **the following week**.*
Last week/month/year	**the previous/week/month/year**
*"I was on holiday **last week**", he told us.*	*He told us that he had been on holiday **the previous week**.*
ago	**before**
*"I saw her **a week ago**," he said.*	*He said he had seen her **a week before**.*
this (for time)	**that**
*"I'm getting a new car **this** week", she said.*	*She said she was getting a new car **that** week.*
this/that (adjectives)	**the**
*"Do you like **this** shirt?" he asked*	*He asked if I liked **the** shirt.*
here	**there**
*He said, "I live **here**".*	*He told me he lived **there**.*

Other Changes:

In general, personal pronouns change to the third person singular or plural, except when the speaker reports his own words:

- ***I/me/my/mine, you/your/yours. him/his/her/hers***
- ***we/us/our/ours,***
  you/your/yours. they/their/theirs:

- He said: "I like your new car." . He told her that he liked her new car.
- I said: "I'm going to my friend's house." . I said that I was going to my friend's house.

Question Forms and Reported Speech

1. Normal word order is used in reported questions, that is, the subject comes before the verb, and it is not necessary to use *'do'* or *'did'*:

- "Where does Peter live?" . She asked him **where Peter lived**.

2. Yes / no questions: This type of question is reported by using **'ask' + *'if / whether* + clause**:

- "Do you speak English?" . He asked me **if I spoke English**.
- "Are you British or American?" . He asked me **whether I was British or American.**
- "Is it raining?". She asked **if it was raining**.

- "Have you got a computer?" ▪ He wanted to know **whether I had a computer**.
- "Can you type?" ▪ She asked **if I could type**.
- "Did you come by train?" ▪ He enquired **whether I had come by train**.
- "Have you been to Bristol before?" ▪ She asked **if I had been to Bristol before**.

3. Question words: This type of question is reported by using **'ask' (or another verb like 'ask') + question word + clause**. Thezz clause contains the question, in normal word order and with the necessary tense change.

- "What is your name?" he asked me. ▪ He asked me **what my name was**.
- "How old is your mother?", he asked. ▪ He asked **how old her mother was**.
- The policman said to the boy, "Where do you live?" ▪ The policeman asked the boy **where he lived**.
- "What time does the train arrive?" she asked. ▪ She asked **what time the train arrived**.
- "When can we have dinner?" she asked. ▪ She asked **when they could have dinner**.
- Peter said to John, "Why are you so late?" ▪ Peter asked the John **why he was so late**.

Reported Speech Exercise

1. Mary: "I will go downtown tomorrow."
   Jill: "Mary said (that) she would go downtown _ ."

a. on Friday
b. tomorrow
c. the following/next day

2. Mary: "I am going to play tennis today."
Jill: "Mary said (that) she was going to play tennis ___ ."
a. that day
b. today
c. tomorrow

3. Mary: "I went shopping yesterday."
Jill: "Mary said (that) she had gone shopping ___ ."
a. yesterday
b. the day before
c. on Saturday

4. Mary: "I am enjoying life now."
Jill: "Mary said (that) she was enjoying life ___ ."
a. now
b. at that time
c. today

5. Mary: "I will cook dinner later this evening."
Jill: "Mary said (that) she would cook dinner later ___ .
a. that evening
b. in the evening
c. this evening

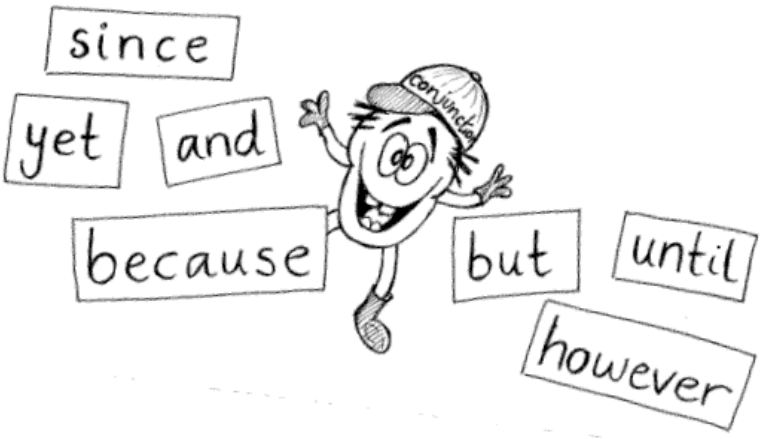
6. Mary: "I'm going to class in three hours."
Jill: "Mary said (that) she was going to class ___ ."

a. three hours before
b. three hours later
c. in three hours

7. Mary: "I went to bed early last night."
   Jill: "Mary said (that) she had gone to bed early ___ ."
   a. the night before
   b. last night
   c. the night prior
8. Mary: "I am going to go to London in 10 days."
   Jill: "Mary said (that) she was going to go to London __ ."
   a. in 10 days
   b. 10 days later
   c. on Wednesday
9. Mary: "I had lunch at noon."
   Jill: "Mary said (that) she had had lunch ___ .
   a. at 12 o'clock
   b. at noon
   c. that noon
10. Mary: "I will play cards the day after tomorrow."
    Jill: Mary said (that) she would play cards ___ ."
    a. in two days
    b. on Thursday
    c. two days later
11. Mary: "I bought it three years ago."
    Jill: "Mary said (that) she had bought it ___ ."
    a. in three years
    b. three years ago
    c. three years before

Conjunctions

Coordinating and Correlative Conjunctions



A conjunction joins words or groups of words in a sentence.

- *I ate lunch with Kate and Derma.*
- *Because it is rainy today, the trip is canceled.*
- *She didn't press the bell, but I did.*

There are three types of conjunctions:

1. Coordinating Conjunctions
   a. Connect words, phrases, or clauses that are independent or equal
   b. and, but, or, so, for, yet, and not

2. Correlative Conjunctions
   a. Used in pairs

b. both/and, either/or, neither/nor, not only/but also

3. Subordinating Conjunctions
   a. Used at the beginning of subordinate clauses
   b. although, after, before, because, how, if, once, since, so that, until, unless, when, while, where, whether, etc.

Coordinating Conjunctions

1. And—means "in addition to":

- *We are going to a zoo and an aquarium on a same day.*

2. But—connects two different things not in agreement:

- *I am a night owl, but she is an early bird.*

3. Or—indicates a choice between two things:

- *Do you want a red one or a blue one?*

4. So—illustrates a result of the first thing:

- *This song has been very popular, so I downloaded it.*

5. For—means "because":

- *I want to go there again, for it was a wonderful trip.*

6. Yet—indicates contrast with something:

- *He performed very well, yet he didn't make the final cut.*

Correlative Conjunctions

1. Both/and
- *She won gold medals from both the single and group races.*
- *Both TV and television are correct words.*

2. Either/or
- *I am fine with either Monday or Wednesday.*
- *You can have either apples or pears.*

3. Neither/nor
- *He enjoys neither drinking nor gambling.*
- *Neither you nor I will get off early today.*

4. Not only/but also
- *Not only red but also green looks good on you.*
- *She got the perfect score in not only English but also math.*

☐ **Exercise.** Write the correct conjunction in each sentence.

1) _____ my friend _____ I are taking the geography class.
2) Do you want to go swimming __ golfing?
3) I studied grammar for a long time, _____ I still make mistakes.
4) _____ wood _____ bricks can be used as homebuilding materials.
5) I wasn‘t feeling well this morning, _____I had to go to work.

Subordinating Conjunctions

1. Although—means "in spite of the fact that":

- *Although it was raining, I ran home.*
- *She showed up, although she felt sick.*
- *Although my mom told me to come home early, I stayed out late.*

2. After—indicates "subsequently to the time when":

- *Please text me after you arrive at the shopping mall.*
- *We were forced to stop watching TV after the electricity went out.*
- *I always tell my daughter that she can have dessert after she eats her dinner.*

3. Before—indicates "earlier than the time that":

- *He had written a living will before he died.*

- *Before he contacted me, I was going to call him.*
- *I need to finish the dishes before my wife gets home.*

4. Because—means "for the reason that":

- *Because he was smart and worked hard, he was able to make a lot of money.*
- *They stopped building the house because it was pouring.*
- *I love dogs because they are so cute.*

5. How—means "the way in which":

- *I wonder how you did it.*
- *He explained how he completed it in a few days.*
- *Can you show me how you fixed the computer?*

6. If—means "in the event that":

- *If it is sunny tomorrow, we can go to the beach.*
- *If I receive a promotion, you will be the first to know.*
- *You can watch TV if you finish your homework.*

7. Once—indicates "at the moment when":

- *Once you see him, you will recognize him.*
- *Once the light came on, we all shouted with joy.*
- *Call me once you start having contractions.*

8. Since—means "from the time when":

- *I've been a singer since I was young.*
- *Since he graduated, he has been doing nothing.*
- *This building has been remodeled three times since I lived here.*

9. So that—means "in order to":

- *So that she could keep her position, she didn't complain at all.*
- *He finished his work as fast as possible so that he could leave early.*
- *He worked harder for a raise so he could buy a nice car.*

10. Until—means "up to the time that":

- *Don't go anywhere until I come back.*
- *She didn't realize her talent in painting until her teacher mentioned it.*
- *They won't allow us to sit until everyone arrives.*

11. Unless—means "except, on the condition":

- *You will not pass the exam unless you get a score of 80 or higher.*
- *I will not tell you anything unless you tell me what you know first.*
- *Unless you ask her, you will never know.*

12. When—means "at that time":

- *When I came in the room, everyone looked at me.*
- *I woke up when my baby was crying.*
- *I started looking for a gas station when my gas light went on.*

13. While—means "during the time":

- *Someone called you while you were at the meeting.*
- *We met while we were working at the University.*
- *My dog started barking while I was talking on the phone.*

14. Where—indicates "in the place":

- *This is where I came from.*
- *Please tell me where you are going.*
- *I need to know where John hid the present.*

15. Whether—means "if it is true or not":

- *We will have a picnic whether it rains or not.*
- *It is time to decide whether we should take action.*
- *You need to decide whether or not you are hungry.*

☐ Exercise

Fill in the blanks with an appropriate conjunction.

1) Could you email me _____ you receive the offer?
2) I want to buy it _____ it is expensive or not.
3) Don‘t do that _____ I allow it.
4) _____ you are confident with it, you should go for it.
5) I didn‘t enroll this semester ____ I could go backpacking in Europe.
6) My neighbor‘s cat has been missing _____ last Friday.
7) _____ I own a house, I am required to pay property taxes.

"It's simple. My nurse blindfolds me, I spin around a few times, and then I try to reattach your tail."

☐ Exercise. Identify Conjunctions

a. I've studied both French and Spanish in school.
b. Sally will be late for the party because she must work until nine.
c. Jim is not only class president, but he is also captain of the football team.
d. It has turned cool, although it's still very sunny.
e. Please tell me if you will be late for dinner.
f. Either Laura or Sue will have the lead in the play.
g. We played tennis until it was too dark to see the ball.
h. Since Mr. Hays has just moved into the state, he can't vote in the election today.
i. Neither radio nor television offered any good programs last night.
j. After we went to the movie, we stopped for some pizza.

k. Please help us whenever you have the time.
l. I like to play bridge, but I can't keep score.
m. Helen looks as if she's seen a ghost.
n. Dan likes to play tennis and golf.
o. Though he didn't learn to play golf until he was forty, he became a good player.
p. While the teacher passed out the exam questions, Martha gazed out the window.
q. Let us know where you spend the first night of your vacation.
r. Mr. Clark walks as though he is exhausted.
s. Unless they put that coat on sale, I can't afford to buy it.
t. Let's start early in the day before it gets too hot.

Be, Do and Have

Auxiliary means functioning in a supporting capacity, and that is exactly what these auxiliary verbs do, which is why they are also known as helping verbs. They are used together with a main verb to give grammatical information and therefore add extra meaning to a sentence; information that is not given by the main verb.

They are used to form the passive voice.
They are used to form the continuous tense.
They are used to form the perfect tense.

Be, Do and Have are auxiliary verbs, they are irregular verbs and can be used as main verbs. The verbs 'to be' and 'to have' are the most commonly used auxiliary verbs and work alongside the main verbs in any statement.

Modal verbs are also auxiliary verbs, but will be treated separately, these are can, could, may, might, must, shall, should, will, and would, they differ from the others in that they can never function as a main verb.

To be

"They're all Neanderthals."

Be is the most common verb in the English language. It can be used as an auxiliary and a main verb. It is used a lot in its other forms.

Base form = *be*
Present form = *am/is/are*
Past form = *was/were*

Present Participle / Gerund = *being*
Past Participle = *been*

Probably the best known verb in the world: "To be or not to be..."

Forms of To Be				
	Present	**Past**	**Perfect**	**Continuous**
I	am	was	have / had been	am / was being
he / she / it	is	was	has / had been	is / was being
you / we / they	are	were	have / had been	are / were being

Normally we use the verb to be to show the status or characteristics of something or someone (as a stative verb). It says what I ***am***, what you ***are*** or what something ***is***.

Present Simple (stative)

I ***am*** a teacher. You ***are*** a student. He /She ***is*** a student. It ***is*** a car.
We ***are*** all teachers.
They ***are*** students.

Past Simple (stative)

I ***was*** a student.
You ***were*** a student.
He /She ***was*** a student.
It ***was*** a nice day yesterday.
We ***were*** all students once.
They ***were*** students.

Future Simple (stative)

I ***will be*** a student.
You ***will be*** a teacher.
He / She ***will be*** a teacher.
It ***will be*** nice later.
We ***will be*** teachers.
They ***will be*** students.

When used with the present participle of other verbs it describes actions that are or were still continuing - **auxiliary verb be [+ *ing* form of the main verb].**

Present Continuous (active)

I ***am being*** silly. You
are being silly. He
/She ***is being*** silly. It
is being silly.
We ***are being*** silly.
They ***are being*** silly.

Past Continuous (active)

I ***was being*** silly.
You ***were being*** silly.
He /She ***was being*** silly.
It ***was being*** silly.
We ***were being*** silly.
They ***were being*** silly.

Am/ Is/ Are

The verb to be is used to create simple yes/no questions by simply inverting the order of subject and the ‒To be‖ verb. *For example:*

I am a teacher. (Statement)
Am I a teacher? (Question)

Positive Statement	Negative Statement
I am ... (I'm ...)	I am not ... (I'm not ...)
He / She / It is ...(He's/She's/It's ...)	He / She / It is not (He / She / It isn't... // He's / She's / It's not ...)
You are ... (You're...)	You are not (You're not ...// You aren't...)
I was ...	I was not. ..
He / She / It was ...	He / She / It was not ... (He / She / It wasn't)
You were ...	You were not ... (You weren't ...)
I will be ... (I'll be ...)	I will not be ... (I'll not be ...)
He / She / It will be ...(He'll / She'll / It'll	He / She / It will not be (He / She / It won't be ... // He'll not be / She'll

be ...)	not be / It'll not be ...)
You will be ...(You'll be ...)	You will not be (You won't be ... // You'll not be ...)
We / You / They are (We're / You're / They're)	We / You /They are not (We're / You're / They're not // We / You / They aren't)
We / You / They are being ... (We're / You're / They're)	We / You /They are not being (We're / You're / They're not being // We / You / They aren't being)
We / You / They were ...	We / You / They were not ... (We / You / They weren't ...)
We / You / They will be ... (We'll / You'll They'll be ...)	We / You / They will not be (We / You / They won't be ... // We'll / You'll They'll not be ...)

Examples

Am/Are	**Is**
"*Am I* disturbing you?"	"Is this your coat"
"Yes *you are*."	"Yes it is"
"No *you're* not."	"No it isn't"
Was / Were	**Was**
"*Was I* disturbing you?"	"Was that your old house?"
"Yes *you were* ."	"Yes it was "
"No *you weren't*."	"No it wasn't."

Note - The verb *to be* is also used when forming the passive voice.

To do

The verb do is one of the most common verbs in English. It can be used as an auxiliary and a main verb. It is often used in questions.

Base form = *do*
Present form = *do/does*
Past form = *did*
Present Participle / Gerund = *doing*
Past Participle = *done*

As an auxiliary verb *do* is used with a main verb when forming interrogative or negative sentences, or for adding emphasis. It is also called the dummy operator or dummy auxiliary.

Question	**Positive Statement**	**Negative Statement**
Singular		
Do I?	I do	I do not (I don't)
Do you?	You do	You do not (You don't)
Does he/she/it?	He/she/it does	He/she/it does not (He/she/it doesn't)
Plural		
Do we?	We do	We do not (We don't)
Do you?	You do	You do not (You don't)
Do they?	They do	They do not (They don't)

Examples

	Do	**Does**
Question?	"*Do you* always take the bus to work?"	"*Does she* ever do her homework on time?"
Yes	"Yes, *I do*."	"Yes, *she does*."
No	"No, *I don't*."	"No, *she doesn't*."

The most common question using "**do**" that you will probably hear whilst learning English is "What **do** you **do**?" The person asking simply wants to know what you do for a living.

Question	**Possible Answers**
What do you do?	I'm a student.
	I'm an architect. I'm a trainee architect.
	I'm looking for work.
	I'm on a career break.
	I'm a volunteer.
	I'm a housewife. / I'm a househusband.
	I'm a pensioner. / I'm retired.
What does he / she do?	He / She's a student.
	He / She's an architect. He / She's a trainee architect.
	He / She's looking for work.
	He / She's on a career break.
	He / She's a volunteer.
	He / She's a housewife. / He / She's a househusband.
	He / She's a pensioner. / He / She's

	retired.
What do we / they do?	We / They are students.
	We / They are architects. We / They are trainee architects.
	We / They are looking for work.
	We / They are on a career break.
	We / They are volunteers.
	We / They are housewives. / We / They are househusbands.
	We / They are pensioners. / We / They are retired.

When using the continuous tense do becomes **doing** and it doesn't change.

	Doing
Question - ?	"*What are you doing? Are you doing* your homework?"
Positive Answer - *Yes*	"Yes, *I am* ."
Negative Answer - *No*	"No, *I'm not*."

When using the simple past tense do becomes **did** and it doesn't change.

	Did
Question - ?	"*Did you* always take the bus to

	school?"
Positive Answer - *Yes*	"Yes, *I did* ."
Negative Answer - *No*	"No, *I didn't* ."

When using the perfect tense do becomes **done** and it doesn't change.

	Done
Question - ?	"*Have you done* your homework?"
Positive Answer - *Yes*	"Yes *I have* ."
Negative Answer - *No*	"No *I haven't*."

The verb ‒to do‖ works as a main verb. For example:

YT - My husband **does** the dishes.
ST - Gosh! **Did** he **do** them yesterday?
YT - Yes he **did**.

Do is used as an auxiliary verb (dummy auxiliary) in the question form. For example: I know the way. ***Do*** you know the way?

Do is used for emphasis in positive statements. For example: I ***do*** like this juice!

Note - The auxiliary verb *'do'* is **always** followed by the base form (infinitive).

To have

Have is one of the most common verbs in the English language.

Base form = *have*
Present form = *have / has*
Past form = *had*
Present Participle / Gerund = *having*
Past Participle = *had*

To have as a main verb

As a main verb **–to have‖** implies the meaning of possession. For example: –I have a job.‖ –I have a car.– "I don't have any time." When it is used to indicate possession you can say "I have..." or you might see/ hear "I have got...". When you are talking about actions, you only use "have". For example:

Possession: I have a shower in my bathroom, I don't have a bath. = I have got a shower in my bathroom. I haven't got a bath.

The action: I have a shower every day. - I'm having a shower now.

Note - it does not take the continuous form "I having" - for that you have to use the auxiliary verb be.

For example: –I **am***having* a shower.‖ –**Are** you *having* a good time?"

The forms of the verb ‒to have‖ are *have* and *has* for the present and *had* for the past.

Examples

	Have	**Have got**
Question?	"Do you *have* a car?"	"*Have you got* a car?"
Yes	"Yes, *I have* a car."	"Yes *I've got* a car."
No	"No, *I don't have* a car."	"No *I haven't got* a car."

To have as an auxiliary verb

The verb ‒to have‖ is used as an auxiliary verb to help other verbs create the perfect tense - **auxiliary verb have [+ past participle]**. For example, ‒I **have read** a lot of books,‖ or ‒I **have** never **been** to America,‖ or "I **have** already **eaten**."

I ***have been*** a teacher for over 11 years.	He / She ***has been*** a student for ...	They ***have been*** students for ...
I ***had been*** a teacher for several years.	He / She ***had been*** a student for several years.	They ***had been*** students for several years.
I ***will have been*** a teacher for several years.	He / She ***will have been*** a student for several years.	They ***will have been*** students for several years.

Question	Positive Statement	Negative Statement
Singular		
Have you been ...?	You have been ... (You've been ...)	You have not been ... (You haven't been ... // You've not been ...)
Plural		
Have we / you / they been ...?	We / You / They have been ... (We've / You've They've been ...)	We / You / They have not been ... (We / You / They haven't been ... // We've / You've They've not been ...)

For example:

Question?	"*Have* you *washed* your face today?"
Yes	" Yes, *I have*."
No	" No, *I haven't*."
Question?	"*Have* you *ever had a heart attack*?"
Yes	" Yes, *I'm afraid I have*."
No	" No, thank goodness, *I haven't*."

The use of *have to*

In addition to the two forms, there is another use for have as a modal verb; *have to* or *have got to*. This, of course, must be followed by another verb *"We have to* ***do something***".

	Have to	**Have got to**
Question?	"Do you *have to* leave early?"	"*Have you got to* leave early?"
-Yes	"Yes *I have* to." or "Yes I do"	"Yes *I've got* to."
No	"No *I don't have* to."	"No *I haven't got* to."

To have something done

If something is done for you, in other words you haven't actually done it yourself, we use the structure "to have something done". For example: "He had a tooth out." (Only a masochist would go pull their own teeth out. We go to the dentist and he or she pulls our teeth out for us.)

"I have my hair cut once every six weeks." (I don't cut my own hair, my hairdresser cuts it for me.)

"My husband has the car serviced once a year." (He wouldn't have a clue how to service a modern car so, he takes it to the garage and they service it for us.)

Grammar Worksheets

Your Name: ----------

Consistency of Tense

Good writing is consistent. It is important that each sentence or paragraph stay consistent. The most common mistake is switching verb tense. Verb tense indicates the time of the verb: past, present, or future. Unnecessary shifts in tense can cause confusion for the reader.

Inconsistent: He points the gun and heard another shot. The verb ―points‖ indicated the action is taking place in the present, yet the verb ―heard‖ indicated past tense.

Consistent: He pointed the gun and heard another shot.

Inconsistency is easy to catch in simple sentences, but as you write more complex sentences or paragraphs, thorough editing is required.

Read the following paragraph, which contains several inconsistent sentences. Pay special attention to the verbs:

> I used to think I want to own a pig. After visiting a farm last summer, I realize that pigs were not for me. I decided to look at other option s for pets. I visited a stable and I love it. I have decided a horse is the perfect pet and felt confident this is the right decision.

Compare the paragraph above to the corrected version below:

> I used to think I wanted to own a pig. After visiting a farm last summer, I realized that pigs were not for me. I decided to look at other options for pets. I visited a stable and I loved it. I have decided a horse is the perfect pet and feel confident this is the right decision.

As with all rules, there are exceptions. Sometimes it is appropriate to switch tenses, but there should be a word or phrase to explain the switch as in this sentence where the reader can understand that the first part of the sentence is a bout something in the past—it happened yesterday, but the second part of the sentence is about the present—what is going on right now:

> Yesterday I left my jacket in my locker; now I am freezing on my way to school.

Your Name: _____

Exercise

Check for consistency in the following sentences. In the first four sentences, change the second verb in each sentence to match the earlier verb that is underlined.

1. Mike had <u>driven</u> quickly, so we arrive on time.

_____

2. I <u>checked</u> my answering machine, but I hear no messages.

_____

3. Troy <u>sharpens</u> his pencils while I passed out the test.

_____

4. When Brian <u>woke</u> up, he goes straight to the shower.

_____

Now in these next four sentences, some of them are correct and some are not. For those that are unacceptable, change the first verb in the sentence so that it will be the same tense as is the second verb. If the sentence is acceptable as it is, write ―Correct‖ on the line.

1. Just as Brandi spoke, the microphone turns on.

_____

2. I prefer sugar-free gum, but my cousin liked rock candy.

_____

3. I never studied in elementary school, but I study hard now.

_____

4. Last night, I didn't sleep well and now I am suffering the outcomes.

_____

Your Name: _____

THEY'RE, THEIR, and THERE

English has three words that sound the same, but are actually quite different. **They're** seems as though it could mean many things. Actually, it is a contraction of **they are**. The confusion probably relates to the fact that people are unsure about using apostrophes. When you write **they're**, ask yourself whether you can substitute **they are**. If not, you have made a mistake. **Their** and **Theirs** are possessive pronouns similar to her and hers and our and ours. The fact that **heir** (referring to a person who inherits something) is hidden in the words **their** and **theirs** might help you remember that these are possessive pronouns. Another thing to remember with **their** and **theirs** is that possessive pronouns do not take apostrophes as shown in these sentences: "They eat their hamburgers with ketchup." "I think the car is theirs".

Because of the old rule about –i before e except after c‖, people sometimes misspell this word as **t-h-i-e-r**. You can avoid this problem by remembering that all three of these words (**they, their,** and **there**) begin with the same three letters: T-H-E. There is the most common of these three words. It is used in such sentences as:

There goes the ball--out of the park!
Put it right there!
There are not many home runs hit like that.

Another helpful hint is that here is buried inside there. The phrase –here and there‖ might help you remember that **T-H-E-R-E** is the word that people sometimes use to point to a place.

Exercise

Fill in the blanks in these sentences with the appropriate form: **they're, their, there.**

a) _____ dog is an annoying mutt.
b) _____ once was a bird called a Dodo.
c) My aunt and uncle are arriving tomorrow. _____ _____ coming from California.
d) Many years ago _____ were not any cars, so people used to travel by horse and carriage.
e) My neighbors have bought a second car. _____ new one is candy apple red.
f) Surprisingly, both of _____ cars are 4WD.
g) If you look over _____ you will see the beautiful sunset.
h) Have you seen where _____ building that new road?
i) I think _____ address is 1171 Newlands Road.
j) Do you know what _____ phone number is?

Worksheet:

USING CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS

Write one sentence joining the two ideas with a correlative conjunction (both . . . and, not only . . . but also, either . . . or, and neither . . . nor).

a) She isn‘t from Hong Kong. She isn‘t from Mexico.
b) Someone just bought a new car, but I can‘t remember who.
c) lost her passport. She lost her driver‘s license too.
d) We've an essay due next Tuesday. We have a test next Tuesday.
e) I enjoy this class. I am learning lots of new things. I am meeting new people.
f) doesn‘t like to cook. He doesn‘t like to eat out in restaurants.
g) likes cats. She likes cocker spaniels.
h) Chocolate can make some people hyperactive. It can keep people awake at night.

Your Name: _____

Worksheet: SAME / DIFFERENT

Ask your partner these questions. Then use correlative conjunctions (both . . . and, not only . . . but also, either . . . or, neither . . . nor) to write sentences about the two of you.

1. What month were you born in?
3. Are you married?
4. Do you drive?
5. Are you the youngest in your family?
6. Can you play the piano?
7. Do you have American friends?
8. Do you like cats?
9. Have you ever studied in another foreign country?
10. Can you speak more than four languages?

Your Name: _____

Worksheet: COMBINATIONS

Cross out the words or expressions that cannot be used in the sentences without a change in meaning or punctuation.

a) (Although / Because / Even though) Sue is a good student, she did not receive a good grade.
b) It was hot today. (Although / However / Nevertheless), I still ran for five miles.
c) I went swimming (despite / even though / in spite of) the cold weather.
d) Mary is rich, (but / however / whereas) John is poor.
e) (However / Whereas / While) John is poor, Mary is rich.
f) I always eat breakfast. (Nevertheless / However / Therefore), I still get hungry.
g) It was raining today. (But / Consequently / Therefore), we stayed home.
h) This university, (for example / for instance / such as), has an excellent ESL program.
i) (Besides / Furthermore / In addition to) working at the restaurant, Kim works on campus.
j) I had a terrible headache today. (Furthermore / As well as / In addition), I was very tired.

Your Name: _____

Worksheet:

COMPLETE THE SENTENCE

a) My friend went to class although ……..
b) Since the dog was all wet, ……
c) I got a raise at work; consequently, …
d) Not only does the president like to go running, but ……
e) My friend found a new job last week, so ……
f) I had fun at the beach this weekend; nevertheless, ……
g) Neither my sister nor her children ……
h) Both Indonesia and Thailand ……
i) Even though my brother has five children, ……
j) The population of the United States is increasing, for ……
k) Despite the fact that I didn‘t go to my friend‘s party last Saturday, ……..
l) Because Kim lost her car keys, ……
m) I went to class even though ……
n) Before I called my mother, ……
o) Since I had lived there for five years, ……
p) I was born in Mexico, yet ……
q) Every day there is more information about the dangers of smoking; therefore, ……
r) My brother got involved with bad people; as a result, ……..
s) I don‘t like the taste of carrots, nor ……
t) While my mother likes to stay home and watch movies on TV, ……..
u) While I was walking down the street, ……
v) As long as you are happy, ……

Your Name: _____

Worksheet:

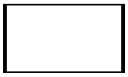
What should I do?

a) My friend is going to make dinner for me, and she/he is an awful cook! What should I say?
b) If I arrive at class 30 minutes late, should I go in?
c) I didn‘t pass my test today. What should I do?
d) It‘s very cold today. What should I wear?
e) I didn‘t have time to eat breakfast this morning. Now I‘m in class, and my stomach is growling. What should I do?
f) I just won a lot of money in Las Vegas! How should I spend my money?
g) There‘s some money left on a table after everyone leaves class. What should I do?
h) I just met my sister‘s new boyfriend. He‘s very impolite, and I don‘t like him. What should I say to her?
i) My friend just broke up with me. What should I do?
j) I want a pet, but I don‘t know what kind to get. What kind of pet do you recommend?
k) My friend wants me to go to a party, but I‘m very tired and I don‘t know the other guests. Should I go?
l) My car always breaks down on the highway. What should I do?
m) I feel sick, but we are about to take a test. What should I do?
n) I left my books on the bus. What should I do?
o) I lost a library book. What should I do?
p) I have a toothache. What should I do?
q) Your sister tells you she just had a fight with her husband and asks for your advice. What should you say?
r) I have a headache. What should I take?

s) I did my homework, but my dog chewed it up. I don‘t think the teacher will believe me. What should I do?
t) I feel very sick, but I don‘t have a doctor. What should I do?
u) I ruined my sister‘s favorite shirt by getting ink on it. Should I tell her?
v) You forgot your friend‘s birthday, and now he/she is outside your door. What should you do?
w) Your car runs out of gas at 2:00 AM and you have no money with you. What should you do?

Generative Grammar

Basic Syntax Terms



Language is a psychological or cognitive property of humans. That is, there is some set of neurons in my head firing madly away that allows me to sit here and produce this set of letters, and there is some other set of neurons in your head firing away that allows you to translate these squiggles into coherent ideas and thoughts. There are several subsystems at work here. If you were listening to me speak, I would be producing sound waves with my vocal cords and articulating particular speech sounds with my tongue, lips, and vocal cords. On the other end of things you'd be hearing those sound waves and translating them into speech sounds using your auditory apparatus. The study of the acoustics and articulation of speech is called *phonetics*. Once you've translated the waves of sound into mental representations of speech sounds, you analyze them into syllables and pattern them appropriately. For example, speakers of English know that the made-up word *bluve* is a possible word of English, but the word *bnuck* is not. This is part of the science called *phonology*. Then you take these groups of sounds and organize them into meaningful units (called morphemes) and words. For example, the word *dancer* is made up of two meaningful bits: *dance* and the suffix *-er*. The study of this level of Language is called *morphology*. Next you organize the words into phrases and sentences. *Syntax* is the cover term for studies at this level of Language. Finally, you take the sentences and phrases you hear and translate them into thoughts and ideas. This last step is what we refer to as the *semantic* level of Language.

i) **Syntax**: The level of linguistic organization that mediates between sounds and meaning, where words are organized into phrases and sentences.

ii) **Language** (capital L): The psychological ability of humans to produce and understand a particular language. Also called the Human Language Capacity or i-Language. This is the object of study in this book.

iii) **language** (lower-case l): A language like English or French. These are the particular instances of the human Language. The data source we use to examine Language are languages. Also called e-language.

Language vs. language

When I utter the term *language*, most people immediately think of some particular language such as English, French, or KiSwahili. But this is not the way linguists use the term; when linguists talk about *Language* (also known as i-language), they are generally talking about the *ability* of humans to speak any (particular) language. Noam Chomsky also calls this the *Human Language Capacity*. Language (written with a capital L) is the part of the mind or brain that allows you to speak, whereas *language* (with a lower case l) (also known as e-language) is an instantiation of this ability (like French or English). In this book we'll be using language as our primary data, but we'll be trying to come up with a model of Language.

iv) **Generative Grammar**: A theory of linguistics in which grammar is viewed as a cognitive faculty. Language is generated by a set of rules or procedures. The version of generative grammar we are looking at here is primarily the

Principles and Parameters approach (P&P) touching occasionally on Minimalism.

v) **The Scientific Method**: Observe some data, make generalizations about that data, draw a hypothesis, test the hypothesis against more data.

vi) **Falsifiable Prediction:** To prove that a hypothesis is correct you have to look for the data that would prove it wrong. The prediction that might prove a hypothesis wrong is said to be falsifiable.

vii) **Grammar**: Not what you learned in school. This is the set of rules that generate a language.

viii) **Prescriptive Grammar**: The grammar rules as taught by so called ―language experts.‖ These rules, often inaccurate descriptively, prescribe how people should talk/write, rather than describe what they actually do.

ix) **Descriptive Grammar**: A scientific grammar that describes, rather than prescribes, how people talk/write.

x) **Anaphor**: A word that ends in -self or -selves.

xi) **Antecedent**: The noun an anaphor refers to.

xii) **Asterisk** (*): The mark used to mark syntactically ill-formed (unacceptableor ungrammatical) sentences. The hash mark, pound, or number sign (#) is used to mark semantically strange, but syntactically well-formed,

sentences.

xiii) **Gender** (Grammatical): Masculine vs. Feminine vs. Neuter. Does not have to be identical to the actual sex of the referent. For example, a dog might be female, but we can refer to it with the neuter pronoun it. Similarly, boats don‘t have a sex, but are grammatically feminine.

xiv) **Number**: The quantity of individuals or things described by a noun. English distinguishes singular (e.g., a cat) from plural (e.g., the cats). Other languages have more or less complicated number systems.

xv) **Person**: The perspective of the participants in the conversation. The speaker or speakers (I, me, we, us) are called first person. The listener(s) (you) is called the second person. Anyone else (those not involved in the conversation) (he, him, she, her, it, they, them) is referred to as the third person.

xvi) **Case**: The form a noun takes depending upon its position in the sentence.

xvii) **Nominative**: The form of a noun in subject position (I, you, he, she, it, we, they).

xviii) **Accusative**: The form of a noun in object position (me, you, him, her, it, us, them).

xix) **Corpus** (pl. Corpora): A collection of real-world language data.

xx) **Native Speaker Judgments** (intuitions): Information about the subconscious knowledge of a language. This information is tapped by means of the grammaticality judgment task.

xxi) **Semantic Judgment**: A judgment about the meaning of a sentence, often relying on our knowledge of the context in which the sentence was uttered.

xxii) **Syntactic Judgment**: A judgment about the form or structure of a sentence.

xxiii) **Garden Path Sentence**: A sentence with a strong ambiguity in structure that makes it hard to understand.

xxiv) **Center Embedding**: A sentence in which a relative clause consisting of a subject and a verb is placed between the main clause subject and verb. E.g., *The house [Bill built] leans to the left*.

xxv) **Parsing**: The mental tools a listener uses to process and understand a sentence.

xxvi) **Competence**: What you know about your language.

xxvii) **Performance**: The real world behaviors that are a consequence of what you know about your language.

xxviii) **Learning**: The gathering of conscious knowledge (like linguistics or chemistry).

xxix) **Acquisition**: The gathering of subconscious information (like language).

xxx) **Innate**: Hard-wired or built-in, an instinct.

xxxi) **Recursion**: The ability to embed structures iteratively inside one another. Allows us to produce sentences we‘ve never heard before.

xxxii) **Universal Grammar** (UG): The innate (or instinctual) part of each language‘s grammar.

xxxiii) **The Logical Problem of Language Acquisition**: The proof that an infinite system like human language cannot be learned on the basis of observed data – an argument for UG.

xxxiv) **Underdetermination** of the Data: The idea that we know things about our language that we could not have possibly learned – an argument for UG.

xxxv) **Universal**: A property found in all the languages of the world.

xxxvi) **Bioprogram** Hypothesis: The idea that creole languages share similar features because of an innate basic setting for language.

xxxvii) **Observationally Adequate Grammar**: A grammar that accounts for observed real-world data (such as corpora).

xxxviii) **Descriptively Adequate Grammar**: A grammar that accounts for observed real-world data and native speaker judgments.

xxxix) **Explanatorily Adequate Grammar**: A grammar that accounts for observed real-world data and native speaker judgments and offers an explanation for the facts of language acquisition.

Noam Chomsky

Avram Noam Chomsky was born on the 7th of December 1928, in Philadelphia. His father was a Hebrew grammarian and his mother a teacher. Chomsky got his Ph.D. from the University of Pennsylvania, where he studied linguistics under Zellig Harris. He took a position in machine translation and language teaching at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Eventually his ideas about the structure of language transformed the field of linguistics. Reviled by some and admired by others, Chomsky‘s ideas have laid the groundwork for the discipline of linguistics, and have been very influential in computer science and philosophy. Outside of linguistics, Chomsky is also one of the leading intellectuals in the anarchist socialist movement. His writings about the media and political injustice are also widely read. Chomsky is among the most quoted authors in the world (among the top ten and the only living person on the list).

Phrase Structure Rules (PSR)

```
   S -> NP VP
  NP -> {Pron, PN, (Det)(Adj)N}
  VP -> V (AdvP)
AdvP -> (Int) Adv
  XP -> XP Conj XP
ProN -> {they, we}
  PN -> {John, Mary}
 Det -> {the, a}
 Adj -> {blue}
   N -> {goats, lizards, Vikings}
   V -> {snored, smiled, ate}
 Int -> {very}
 Adv -> {quickly, often}
Conj -> {and}
```

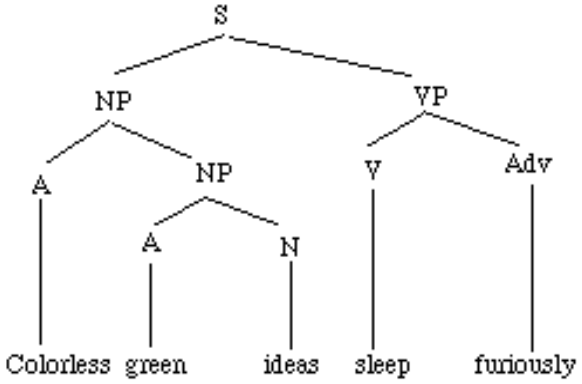
A Fragment of the English Lexicon

Aux ---> can, could, may, will, ...
N -----> books, ideas, house, friend, cement, pilot,
V ------> kick, cry, buy, live, tell, give, put, say, . ..
A ------> good, bad, colorless, long, redundant, . . .
P ------> at, in, under, on, through, up, ...
Art ----> a, the, some, ...
Dem ----> this, that, these, those
deg - ----> very, extremely, ...

Phrase Structure Grammar (I)

The sentence *Colorless green ideas sleep furiously* can be insightfully expressed with a tree diagram like (1):

(1)



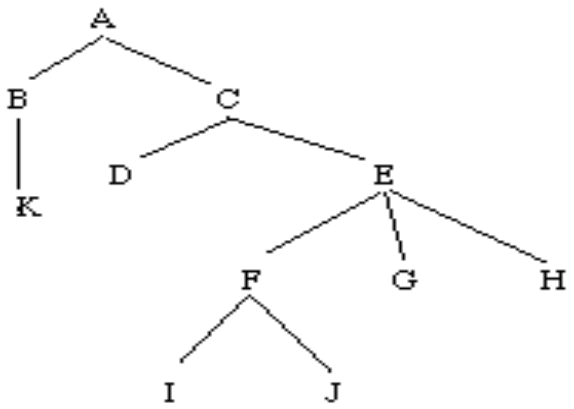
P-Markers and Phrase Structure Rules

Our goal is to develop a general theory that accounts for the speaker's knowledge of what counts as a sentence. Since, in the speaker's knowledge, a sentence is not merely a linear string, but has a hierarchical structure of some sort which we have represented by means of a tree, it is more correct to say that the theory that we are aiming to develop should define, in a general and principled way, what counts as a legitimate tree in a given language.

Formally, a theory consists of a number of concepts and a number of principles or general statements made in terms of those concepts. We have adopted the concepts involved in a labeled tree diagram to represent speakers' knowledge of sentence structure. To seek a general theory about possible sentence structures in language, let's start with a formal

definition of some concepts involved in a tree. Consider (2) as an example.

(2)



A tree consists of nodes and branches. Each tree has a root node and one or more terminal nodes. In (4), the root node is A, and the terminal nodes are K, D, I, J, G, H. The nodes that are neither root nor terminal nodes will be called intermediate nodes. Nodes are connected, directly or indirectly, by branches.

A tree diagram is sometimes called a phrase-marker, or P-marker. A P-marker encodes two sorts of relations between nodes: (a) precedence and (b) dominance.

X precedes Y iff [if and only if] X and Y are linearly arranged and X appears to the left of Y. In (4), K precedes D, I, J, G, and H; J precedes G, H, but follows K, D, I. The relation of dominance is that of containment. X dominates Y iff X contains Y, or iff Y is contained in X. ["Contains Y" means "has Y as (one of) its parts". In (4), A dominates all the other nodes in the tree. C dominates D, E, and all nodes that E dominates (F, I, J, G, H) but it does not dominates B,

K, or A. Similarly, F dominates I and J, but does not dominate any other nodes. And the terminal nodes dominate nothing other than their own selves. Hence, precedence is a linear relation, and dominance is a hierarchical relation. Two nodes are in either a hierarchical (dominance) relation or in a linear (precedence) relation, but not both. Thus, B and C are in a precedence relation (B precedes C), but not in a dominance relation. On the other hand, E dominates G, but neither precedes or follows the other.

X immediately dominates Y iff X is the lowest node that dominates Y. (There is no intervening Z such that Z dominates Y and but is dominated by X.) In (4), A dominates all other nodes, but it only immediately dominates B and C. Similarly, E dominates F, G, H, and I, J, but it does not immediately dominate I or J.

Where X dominates Y, we say that Y is a constituent of X. Y is an immediate constituent of X iff X immediately dominates Y. In (4), all the non-root nodes are constituents of A, but only the nodes B, C are A's immediate constituents. I is a constituent of F, it is also a constituent of E, of C, and of A; but it is only an immediate constituent of F, but not an immediate constituent of E, C, or A.

The structural relations under consideration are sometimes referred to in kinship terms. Thus X is the mother of Y iff X immediately dominates Y (in this case, Y is the daughter of X). Hence, the "daughter of" relation is equivalent to the relation "immediate constituent of". X, Y are sister nodes of each other iff they have the same mother (e.g., are the immediate constituents of the same mother node).

X exhaustively dominates a string Y iff X dominates the entire string Y and nothing outside of Y. In (2), C exhaustively dominates the string consisting of D-E, because it dominates the entire string covered by D and E, and nothing else that is not already part of the string D-E. Similarly B exhaustively dominates K because it dominates K and nothing else. E exhaustively dominates the terminal string I-J-G-H because it dominates this string and nothing outside the string. However, C does not exhaustively dominate I-J-G-H, because it dominates more than this string. C also does not exhaustively dominate K-D-E, because it does not dominate K at all. In (4), the string K-D is not exhaustively dominated by any node at all.

When a string Y is exhaustively dominated by X, we say that the string Y constitutes an X--the string forms a constituent whose label is X, or "Y is an X". In (4), I-J is an F, forms a constituent called F, constitutes F. Similarly F-G-H constitutes E, forms a constituent called E, is an E. On the other hand, neither D-F nor B-D constitutes anything, or forms a constituent by any name, or IS anything.

Now let's look at the actual tree diagram in (1). The string *colorless green ideas* constitutes an NP, and so does the smaller string *green ideas*. *Sleep furiously* forms a constituent called VP, and therefore is a VP. The string *ideas* constitutes an N, sleep constitutes a V, green is an A, and the string Colorless green ideas sleep furiously constitutes an S by this definition, because S exhaustively dominates this string. On the other hand, the string ideas sleep does not form a constituent of any sort, because it is not exhaustively dominated by any node. Nor does the string colorless green, nor green ideas sleep in this tree.

Up to now, we have been looking at random examples of English sentences and their associated P-markers only. Our goal is to state in general terms what constitutes a legitimate P-marker in English. We shall adopt the format of a Phrase Structure Rule (PSR) to express in general terms the kinds of dominance and precedence relations that are possible for a given language. Suppose we want to say that the P-marker (2) is a possible P-marker in a language L, we can express this fact with rules like the following (among others):

(3) A ----> B C

(4) E ----> F G H

Rule (3) states that in language L, a constituent of category A consists of B and C (in that order) as its sole immediate constituents, and (2) says that E is made up solely of the three daughters F, G, and H (in that order). The existence of PS rules (3)-(4) in language L accounts (partially) for (2) as one of the possible P-markers in L.

English Phrase Structure Grammar

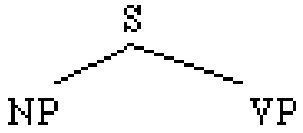
The Sentence

What are the possible constituents of an English sentence, and how are they arranged? Let's start by considering the possible immediate constituents of a sentence. In general, English sentences must contain an NP (as the subject) and a VP (as the "predicate"), in that order, and an optional auxiliary, as illustrated below:

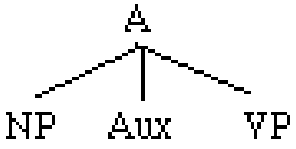
(5) a. [John] [found a fly in the soup].
b. [The professor] [located a flaw in his argument].
c. [They] [could] [see the point immediately].

Assuming that a sentence consists at most of these 3 immediate constituents, these sentences, in the speakers' intuition about them, are associated with either one of the following partial P-markers:

(6) a.



b.



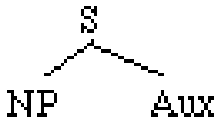
Assuming for the moment that all sentences have immediate constituent structures like these, we can state this generalization by means of the following PSR, where the parenthesis notation indicates that a given constituent may be optional:

(7) The Sentence Rule

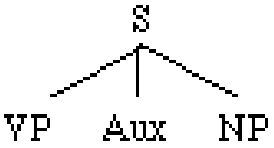
S ------> NP (Aux) VP ---------- (PSR1)

The rule (7), PSR1, is a statement of generality and, taken as a rule of English PSG, it admits grammatical English sentences having the structures of (6a) or (6b), at the same time excluding sentences having the form in (8) (since these are not instances of the pattern allowed by PSR1):

(8) a.



b.



Thus, PSR1 correctly characterizes sentences like (5) (plus most of the grammatical sentences we have seen up to now and thousands of others) as grammatical, while ruling out sentences like *Saw Bill the boy, *See the boy can Bill and thousands of other imaginable, but ungrammatical, "sentences". It therefore represents a significant generalization about what counts as a grammatical sentence in English.

The Noun Phrase

We can further state generalizations about what constituents an NP, VP, or Aux may contain. For example, an NP may take the 'bare form' of a noun, or it may contain a noun and an optional determiner and an adjectival phrase.

(9) a. Boys like basketball games.
b. The boys like basketball games.
c. Tall boys like basketball games.
d. The tall boys like basketball games.

This generalization can be stated in the form of a rule like (10):

(10) NP -----> (Det) (AP) N

In addition to prenominal modifiers, an NP can also take optional elements following the noun:

(11) a. Boys from this school like basketball most.
b. Boys who are tall tend to like basketball most.
c. Boys from this school who are tall tend to like basketball most.

We can state this generalization by the following rule:

(12) NP ----> N (PP) (S)

In fact, an NP may (or may not) contain both prenominal and post-nominal elements in addition to the noun:

(13) a. The king of England had an unhappy life.
b. The young king of England had an unhappy life.
c. The young king who gave up his throne had an unhappy life.
d. The king of England who gave up his throne had an unhappy life.

Putting these facts together, we may collapse rules (10) and (12) into the more general (14):

(14) NP -----> (Det) (AP) N (PP) (S)

This rule says that an NP contains an obligatory N, plus a number of optional prenominal or post-nominal elements in the order given.

Finally, any of the NPs illustrated in (9), (11), (13), may take the form of a single personal pronoun:

(15) a. They like basketball games.
b. He had an unhappy life.

Note that, unlike a noun, a pronoun cannot be "modified" by a prenominal or post-nominal element. Hence the following sentences are ungrammatical:1

(16) *The he arrived yesterday.

(17) *They who are tall like basketball games.

This means that a pronoun substitutes for [= has the same status as] a whole NP, and not just for a noun. We may express this possibility by the rule (18):

(18) NP -----> Pronoun

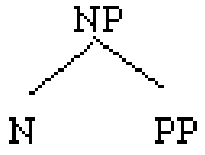
In other words, an NP either consists of a noun with possible optional elements, or solely of a pronoun. We can express this choice with a pair of braces:

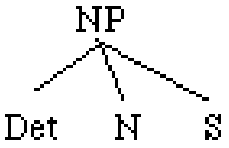
(19) The NP Rule

When we make statements like (19), we are making a theory of what constitutes a grammatical noun phrase in English. By (19) we claim that a string of words in English is admissible (grammatical) as a noun phrase iff that string consists of a single pronoun, or has the form depicted by (20b). That is, a string of words in English is a noun phrase if it can be characterized by a tree that instantiates (19). The trees in (20) are instances of (19), but those in (21) are not. [Make sure you see what's wrong with each of (21).]

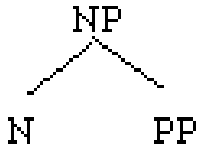
(20) a.

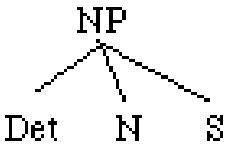
b. c.





(21) a. b. c.





This rule accounts for the grammaticality of examples like (9), (11), and (13) (and thousands like them), and it also correctly rules out imaginable but ungrammatical strings like the following in English:

(22) a. *the of England king ....
b. *Boys tall the like basketball games.
c. *The who are tall like basketball most.

You can illustrate the (relative) validity of this rule by giving more good grammatical sentences of your own that are correctly allowed by it, and imaginable but ungrammatical strings that are correctly ruled out by it.

An important aspect of the structure of an NP we notice, as expressed by the rule (19b), is that an NP always contains a noun (except in the case of a pronoun, which replaces the whole NP). We shall call the noun obligatorily contained in an NP the head of the NP, and the optional elements flanking the head its peripheries. The generalization to note is that an NP must have a head and may have a number (from 0 to n) of peripheral elements. The principle that a phrase must have a head is called the principle of endocentricity. We have seen that NPs are endocentric. In fact, there is reason to believe that, as a general principle, all phrases are endocentric.

The Verb Phrase

Now let us look at the VP constituent, and consider what counts as a grammatical VP in English. A VP may contain only a verb, as in (23):

(23) a. John died.
b. That son of a gun left.
c. A horrible accident happened.

We can express by this VP rule:

(24) VP ----> V

Or it may take a verb followed by an object NP, a prepositional phrase (PP), or a subordinate sentence (S):

(25) a. John saw Bill. (V NP)
b. John lived in Irvine. (V PP)
c. John thought Bill kicked the bucket. (V S)

This means that a VP may contain V optionally followed by a choice of an NP, PP or S:

(26)

$$VP \dashrightarrow V \left(\left\{\begin{matrix} NP \\ PP \\ S \end{matrix}\right\}\right)$$

In fact, for each of these three choices, there is an additional option of an NP preceding the choice:

(27) a. John gave the boy a nice gift. (V NP NP)
b. John put the book on the table. (V NP PP)
c. John told the little boy he won a prize. (V NP S)

In other words, a VP always contains a verb, and may in addition have one or two elements following the V. The range of 7 possibilities illustrated in (23)-(27) can be captured by the following rule:

(28) The VP Rule

$$VP \dashrightarrow V\ (NP)\ \left(\left\{\begin{matrix} NP \\ PP \\ S \end{matrix}\right\}\right) \quad \text{(PSR3)}$$

This rule says that a VP must have a head V, which may be optionally followed by up to two other peripheral elements, in the order given. You can familiarize yourself with this rule by finding more examples of good VPs in English that are allowed by this rule, and showing that some other imaginable but ungrammatical strings are ruled out by this rule.

Other Phrases

Let us consider the internal structure of other phrases. PPs, for example, typically consist of a P (the head) and an NP (object of the P), as in (29a-b); in some cases there need not be an NP object (29c-d):

(29) a. John lived in the garage.
b. The man from Ohio decided to leave for good.
c. The train pulled in.
d. He wiped the dirt off.

The PSR that we need to characterize a PP is therefore (30):

(30) The PP Rule: PP ------> P (NP)

On the basis of examples like good, very good, extremely young, etc., we can postulate the structure of AP as in (31).

(31) The AP Rule: AP -----> (deg) A

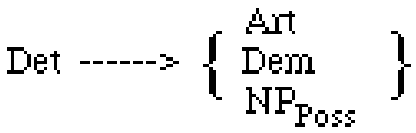
What about the category Det? What kinds of stuff can make up a Determiner in English? The following are some samples:

(32) a. a student, the students, some students
b. that student, this student, those students, these students
c. my students, John's students, the man over there's students

A determiner may consist of an article, a demonstrative word, or a possessive noun phrase, but not a combination of two or more of these (*the that student, *my those students,

*a John's student). This can be captured conveniently by the following PSR:

(33) The Determiner Rule



This rule says that a Det may take the form of an article, a demonstrative, or an NP marked for the Possessive case. If the possessive NP is a pronoun, it will be phonologically realized as my, your, his, her, their, etc. And if the NP takes a non-pronominal form, the possessive marker will be realized as /s/, /z/ or /iz/ in a form parasitic to the last phoneme (consonant or vowel) of a whole NP.3 The rules determining how the possessive (or genitive) case is realized on a pronoun or a non-pronominal NP belong in the domain of English morpho-phonology, and we shall not be concerned with it here.

Note that the possessive NP introduced in rule (33) is intended to be like any other NP except for the additional genitive case morpheme attached it. The NP itself may have an internal structure like any other NP--as long as it is an instance of the rule (19), or PSR2, and that it will take the genitive case. This part of the rule illustrates a feature of recursion that is also seen in PSR2 and PRS3, as well as in the PP rule (30). In PSR2, an S may occur as a peripheral element of an NP. In PSR3, an NP, PP, or S may occur as a peripheral element of a VP. According to (30), a PP may contain an NP; and according to PSR2, an NP can in turn contain a PP, which according to (30) may contain another NP, which according to PSR2 may contain another PP, etc.

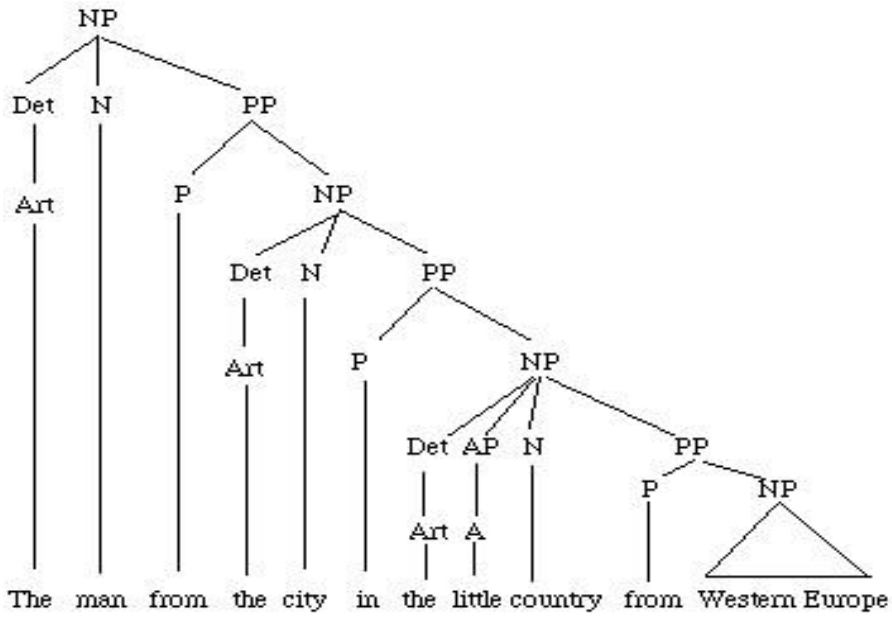
This recursive device built into our system accounts for the infinite possibility of our linguistic competence, illustrated by examples like the following:

34

a. the man from the city in the little country in Eastern Europe . . . .
b. the cat which chased the mouse which ate the cheese which lay on the table which stood in the middle of the kitchen . . . .
c. John's mother's father's friend's teacher . . . .

You may wish to familiarize yourself with this aspect of the rules by assigning each of these examples an appropriate tree diagram. The structure of (34) is as in (35):

(35)



The man from the city in the little country from Western Europe

Remember that each tree diagram is an instantiation of the combination of the PS rules we have posited. For each sub-tree involving a mother node and its daughter(s), there must exist a possible expansion of a PSR we have posited. You can confirm (35) as a tree allowed by the set of PSRs we

have posited by identifying the rule responsible for each sub-tree in it. By considering the possibilities of applying these rules, you can also obtain a correct P-marker for (34b) and (34c).

The PSRs posited here provide general statements about what kind of immediate constituents, in terms of their syntactic categories, a given syntactic construction may or must contain. If a construction is specified to consist of one or more immediate constituents which are themselves phrasal categories, these immediate constituents must be further specified, until lexical categories (word categories) are reached. The PS rules posited here are obligatory, so every phrasal category must undergo one of these rules, sometimes recursively, until lexical categories are specified. Each legitimate tree diagram represents one particular way a combination of these obligatory rules have applied. Each tree contains a root node and a set of non-terminal nodes which specify the identity of phrasal categories (large or small), and a set of terminal nodes each specifying the identity of a lexical category.

The Lexicon

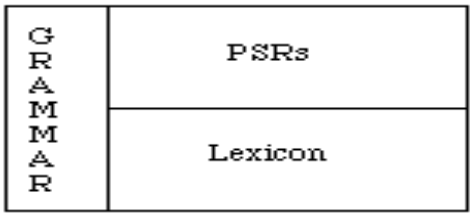
We have now made several reasonable hypotheses about the internal structure of English sentences and of their constituents. What about categories like Aux, N, A, V, P, Adv, Art, Dem, and Deg? These categories are words, not phrases. Since they are each single words, they do not have internal syntactic structure. They are the basic building blocks of syntax. Of course, just as we must know what sorts of syntactic structures constitute grammatical S's, NP's, VP's, etc., in English, we must also know what sorts of things constitute legitimate N's, Aux's, V's, etc. We have characterized the first kind of knowledge by a set of PSR's. (That is, we assume that as speakers of English, we have a Grammar which includes these PSR's.) For the second kind of knowledge, we assume that our Grammar also contains a (mental) Lexicon, which lists the words under the category (part of speech) they are members of. Or our list might take the form of a familiar dictionary, where each word is marked for its part of speech. For our current purposes we might take the list to have the following form:

(36) A Fragment of the English Lexicon

a) Aux ---> can, could, may, will, ...
b) N -----> books, ideas, mother, man, student, girl, house, friend, cement, pilot, ...
c) V ------> kick, laugh, cry, buy, live, tell, give, put, say, . . .
d) A ---> good, bad, colorless, green, long, redundant, ...
e) P ------> at, in, under, on, through, up, ...
f) Art ----> a, the, some, ...
g) Dem ----> this, that, these, those
h) deg - ----> very, extremely, ...

In other words, our Grammar consists of two components: a Phrase Structure Rules Component (PSR Component), and a Lexicon:

(37)

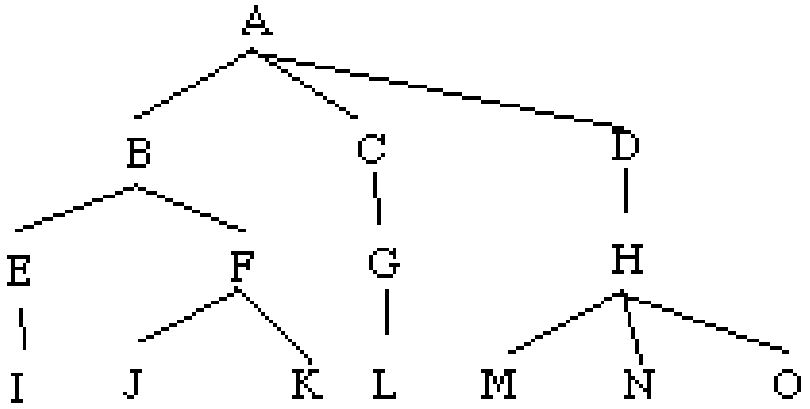


Summary

The Sentence Rule: S --> NP (Aux) VP --- (PSR1)
The NP Rule: ----------?
The VP Rule: ----------?
The AP Rule: AP ------> (deg) A
The PP Rule: PP -------> P (NP)
The Determiner Rule: ----------?

Exercises

(1) Consider the following tree diagram:



Answer true or false:

(a) A dominates L, M, O, F, and B
(b) The string JKL is a constituent.
(c) D exhaustively dominates M and N.
(d) The string IJK is a B.
(e) The string M-N-O constitutes a D.
(f) B immediately dominates I, J and K.
(g) G and H are sister nodes.
(h) M, N, O are each an immediate constituent of H.

(2) The rule (21b) (PSR2b) is an abbreviation of 16 possibilities of the internal structure of an NP (in addition to the possibility provided by (21a)). Can you list all those possibilities systematically, and give an example of your own of an English NP to illustrate each possibility?

(3) The rule (30) (PSR3) is an abbreviation of the 7 possibilities of English verbal complementation (7 possible internal structures of an English VP). Can you list these possibilities and give an example of your own (other than those already given in the text) to illustrate each possibility?

(2) Assign a structural description (a tree diagram) to each of the following sentences:

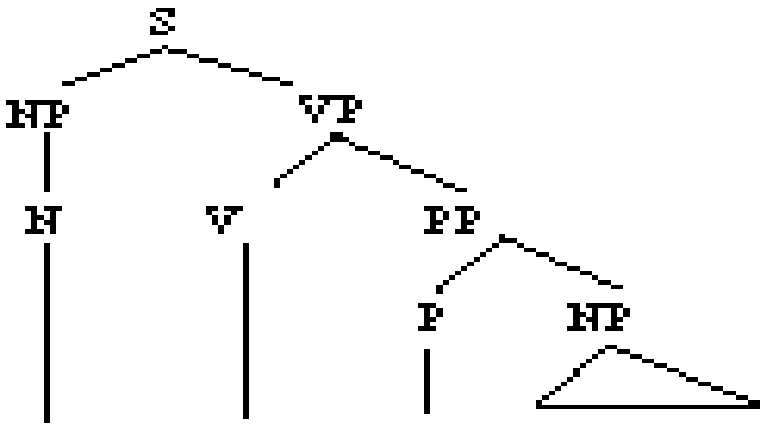
a) I pledge allegiance to the flag of America.
b) A government for the people won't perish from the earth.
c) The company will assume its responsibilities for the damages.
d) People who criticize others with good intentions deserve your respect.
e) The man put the book he bought on the table.
f) John's mother's friend's father's sister arrived on time.
g) The cat which chased the rat which ate the cheese broke my window.

Compare the two sentences below:

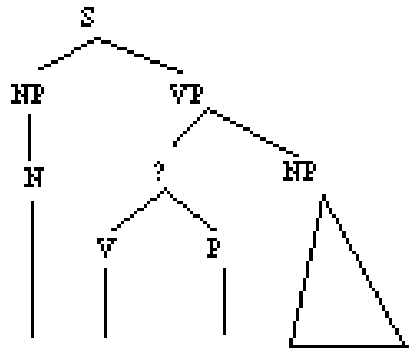
(i) John sat on the computer.
(ii) John turned on the computer.

(a) Is ‒on the computer‖ a constituent in (i)? Is it a constituent in (ii)?
(b) Which of the following two tree diagrams would more appropriately represent (i)?
Which would more appropriately represent (ii)? Why?

A:



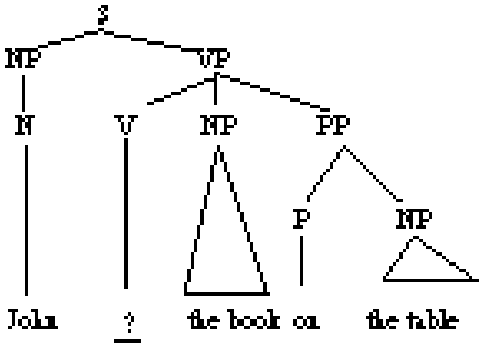
B:



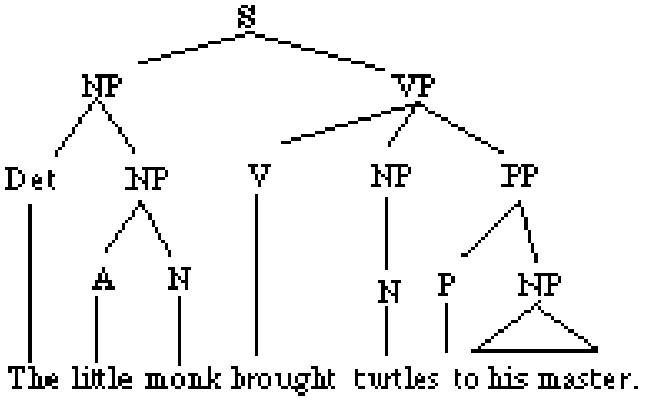
Compare the following two sentences:

(i) John put the books on the table.
(ii) John bought the books on the table.

(a) Is the string "the books on the table" a constituent in (i)? Is it a constituent in (ii)?
(b) Would the following tree diagram be more appropriate for (i) or for (ii)?



John the book on the table



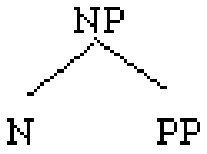
The little monk brought the turtles to his master

True or False? Why?

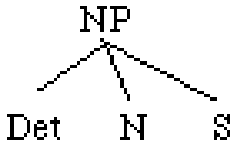
(a) –the little monk‖ is an NP
(b) –his master‖ is also an NP
(c) –brought turtles to his master‖ is a VP.
(d) –to his master‖ is a constituent.
(e) –little monk‖ is also an NP .
(f) –turtles‖ is both an N and an NP in this sentence.
(g) –monk‖ is an N, but not an NP.

(1) a.

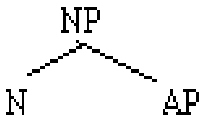
b.

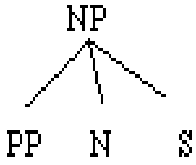


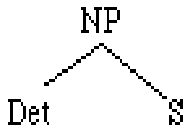
c.



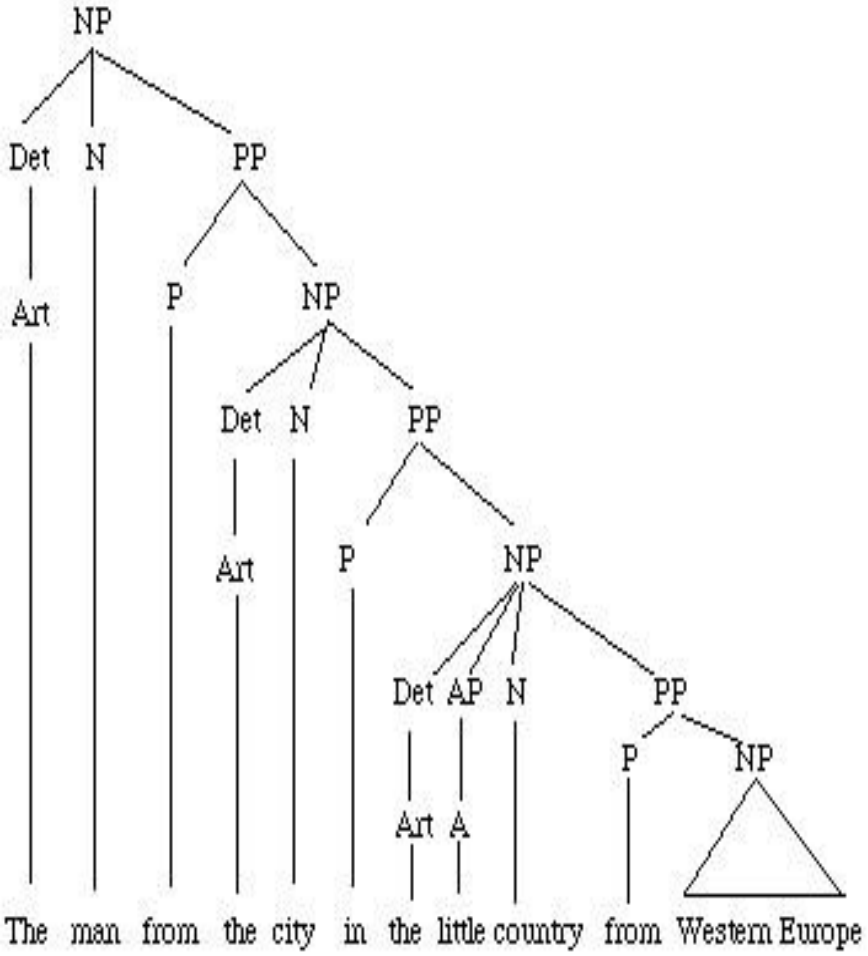
(2) a. b. c.





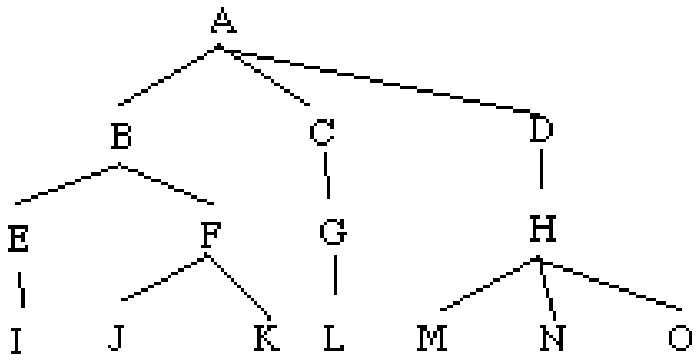


<u>Give an example of each. What is wrong with (2)</u>


NP
Det
N
PP
Art
P
NP
Det
N
PP
Art
P
NP
Det
AP
N
PP
Art
A
P
NP
The
man
from
the
city
in
the
little
country
from
Western
Europe

Recursion

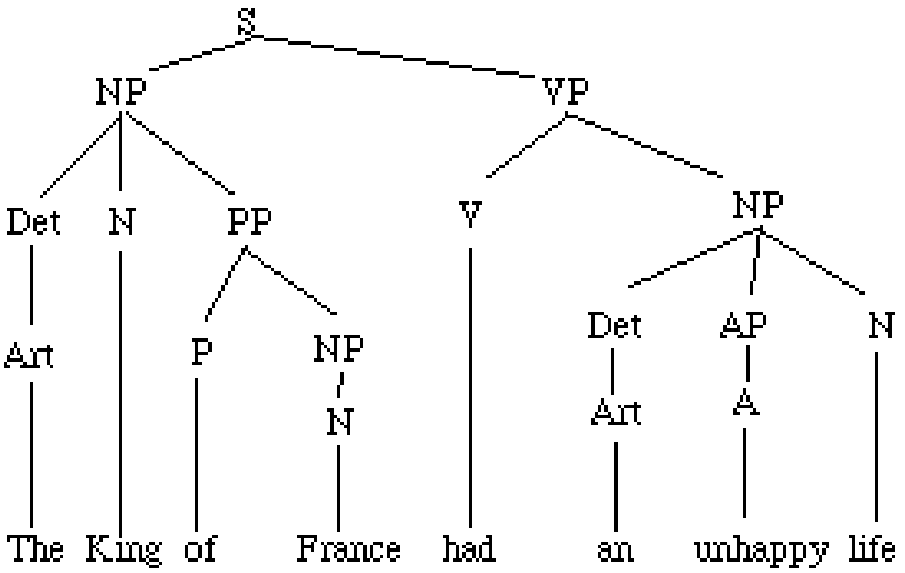
Consider the following tree diagram:



Answer true or false:

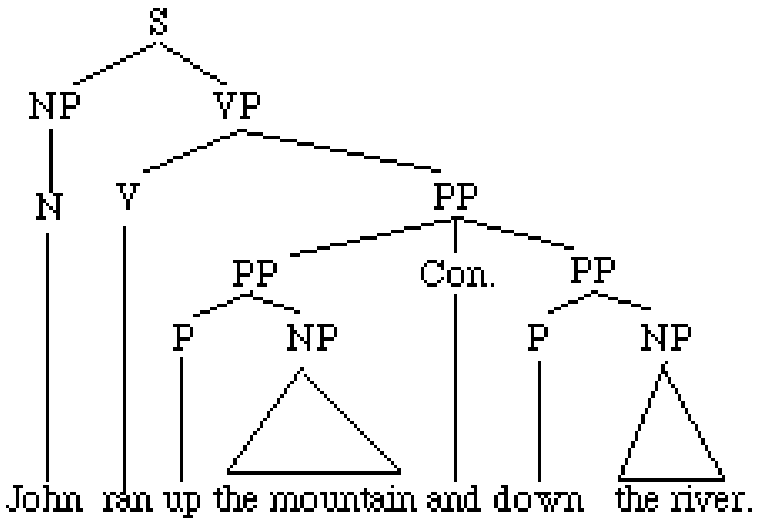
- A dominates L, M, O, F, and B
- The string JKL is a constituent.
- D exhaustively dominates M and N.
- The string IJK is a B.
- The string M-N-O constitutes a D.
- B immediately dominates I, J and K.
- G and H are sister nodes.
- M, N, O are each an immediate constituent of H.

The King of France had an unhappy life.



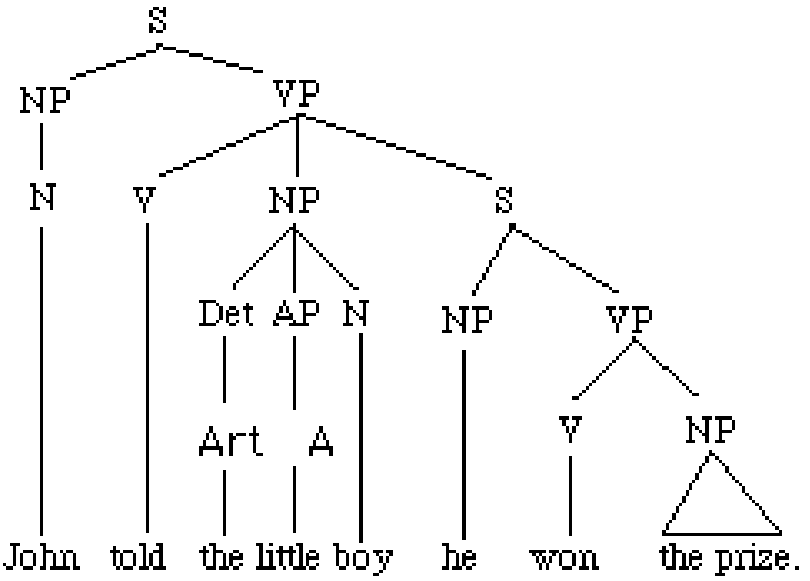
Conjoining

a. NP ----> NP conj. NP
b. AP ----> AP conj. AP
c. PP ----> PP conj. PP
d. S ----> S conj. S
e. N ----> N conj. N



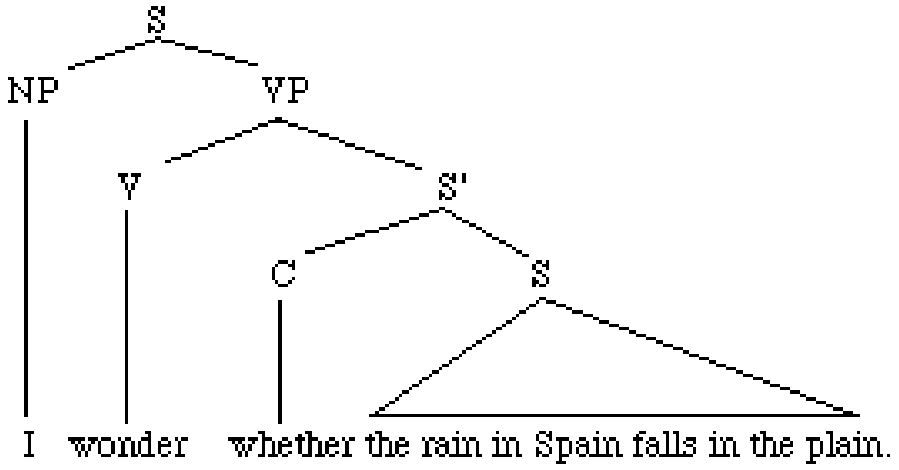
Embedding

John told the little boy he won a prize.

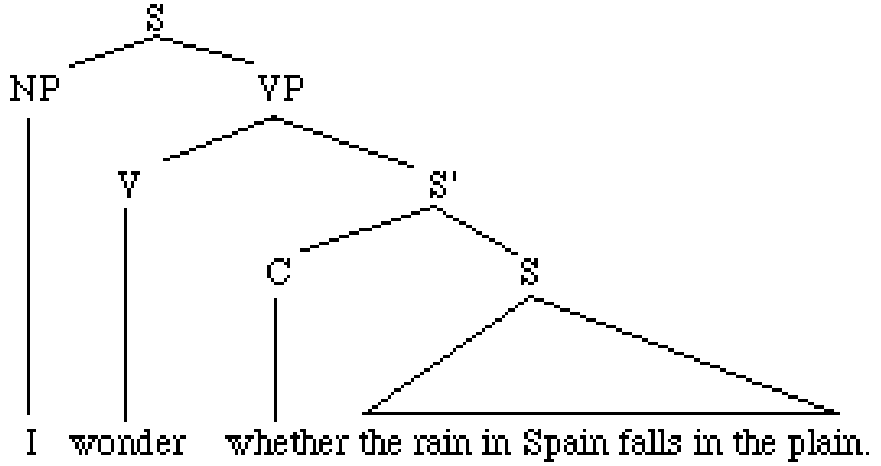


More Embedding

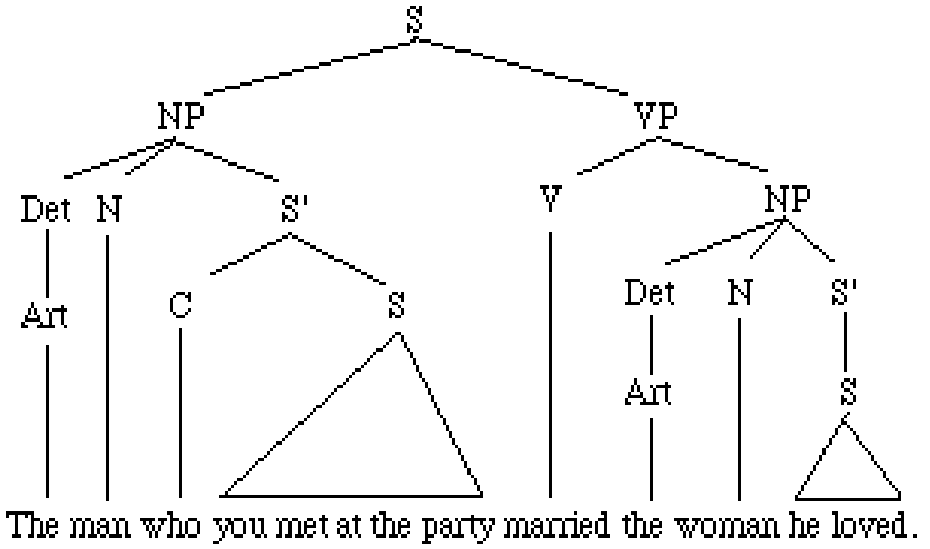
a.



b.

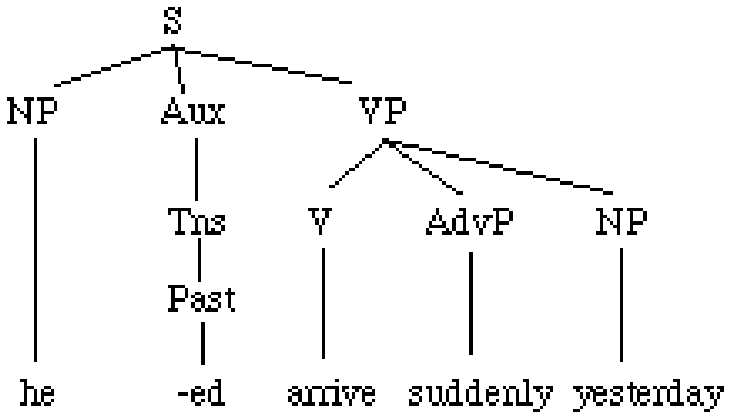


c.

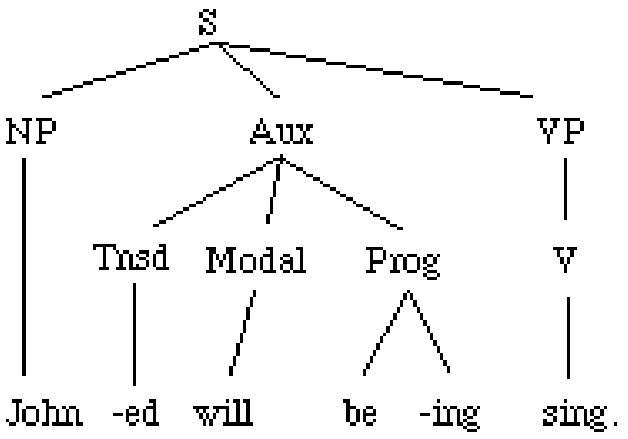

S
NP
VP
Det
N
S'
V
NP
Art
C
S
Det
N
S'
Art
S
The man who you met at the party married the woman he loved.

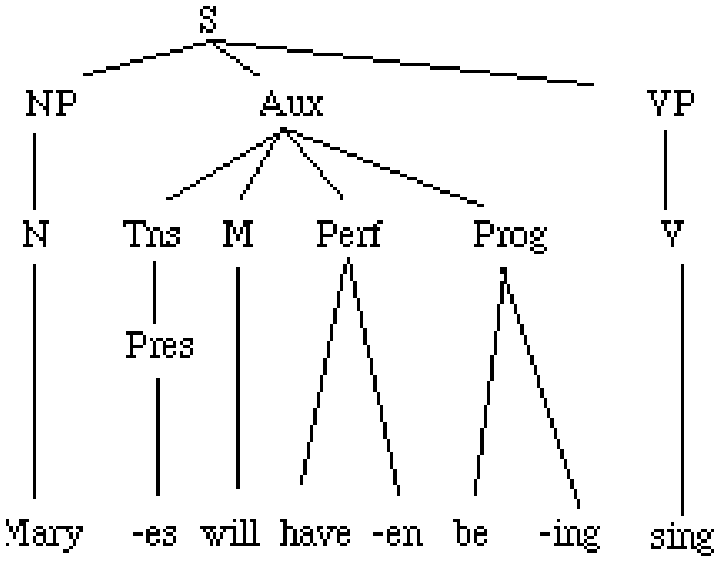
The Auxiliary Rule

Aux ----> ({ Inf. / Modal }) (Perf.) (Prog.)



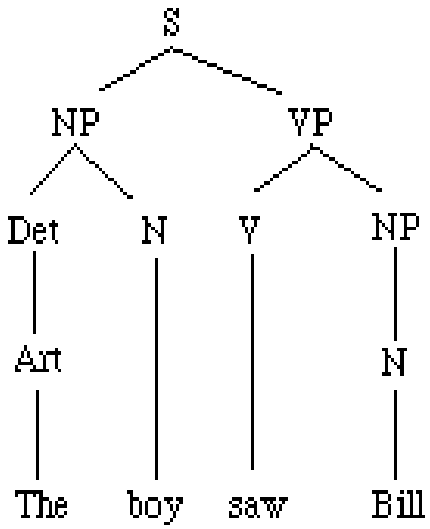
SEE BELOW


S
NP
Aux
VP
Tnsd
Modal
Prog
V
John
-ed
will
be
-ing
sing.

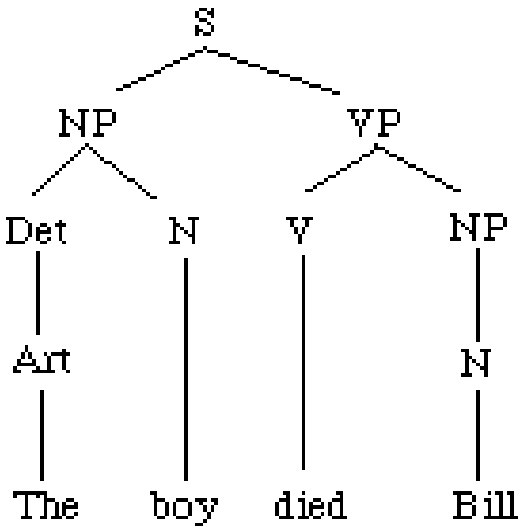

S
NP
Aux
VP
N
Tns
M
Perf
Prog
V
Pres
Mary
-es
will
have
-en
be
-ing
sing

Which of these is wrong? Why?

(1)

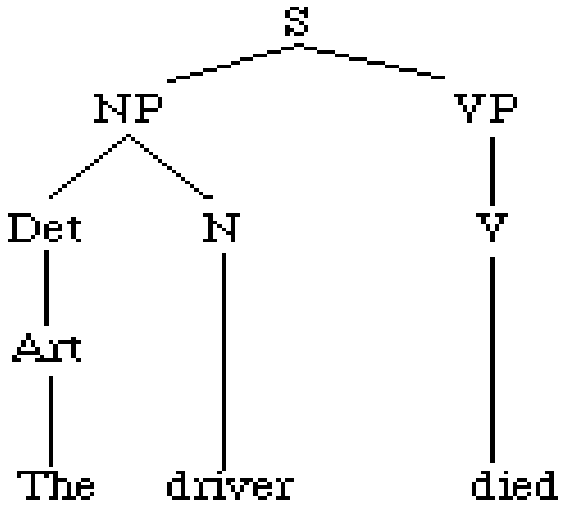


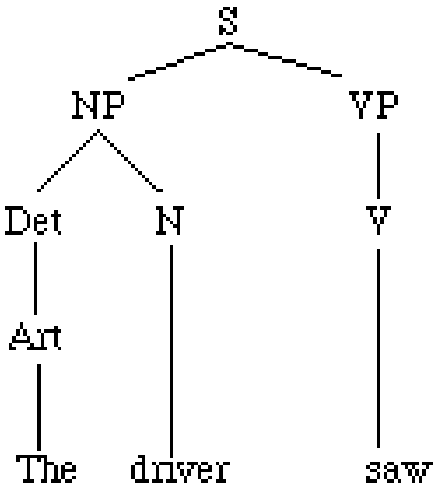
(2)



(3)

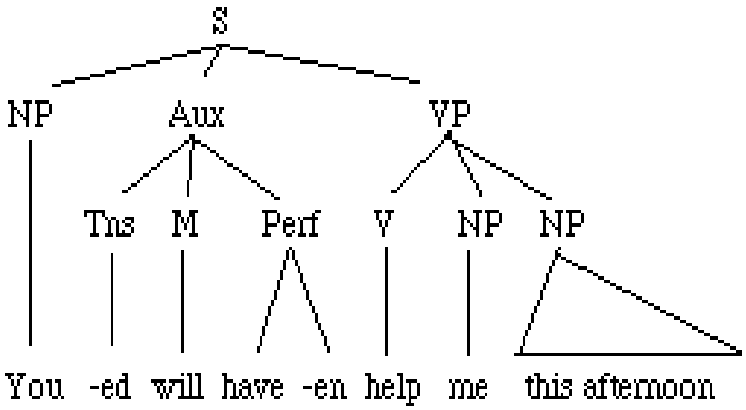
(4)

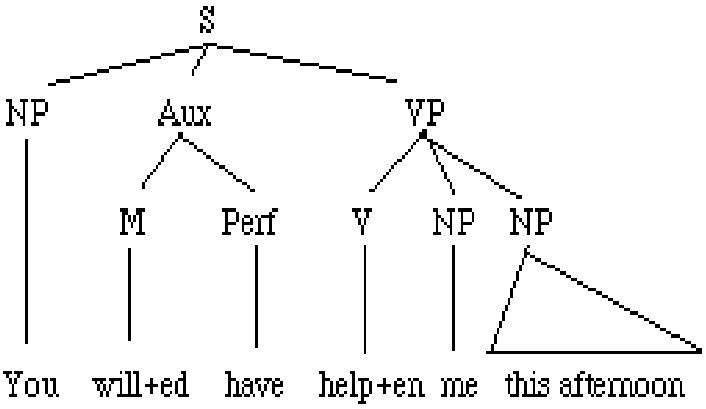

S
NP
VP
Det
N
V
Art
The
driver
died

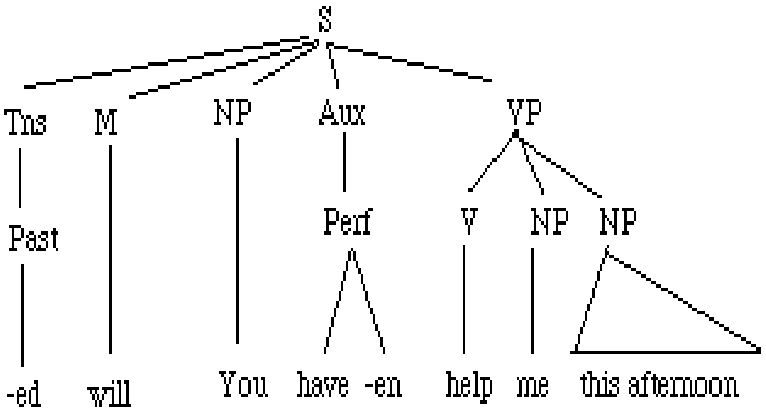

S
NP
VP
Det
N
V
Art
The
driver
saw

PSR1	The Sentence Rule	S ------> { NP / S' } (Aux) VP
PSR2	The NP Rule	NP -----> { a. Pronoun / b. (Det) (AP) N (PP) (S') }
PSR3	The VP Rule	VP -----> (AdvP) V { (AP) / (NP) ({ NP / PP / S' }) } (XP*)
PSR4	The AP Rule	AP ------> (deg) A ({ PP / S' })
PSR5	The PP Rule	PP -------> P (NP)
PSR6	The Determiner Rule	Det ------> { Art / Dem / NP_{Poss} }
PSR7	The Coordinate Structure Rule	X ----> X ((Conj) X . . . .) Conj X where X is a lexical (word-level) or phrasal category.
PSR8	The Dependent Clause Rule	S' ----> (Comp) S
PSR9	The Auxiliary Rule	Aux ----> ({ Inf. / Modal }) (Perf.) (Prog.)

Transformations

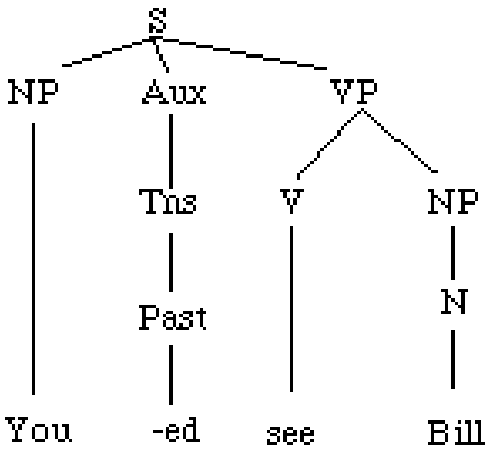






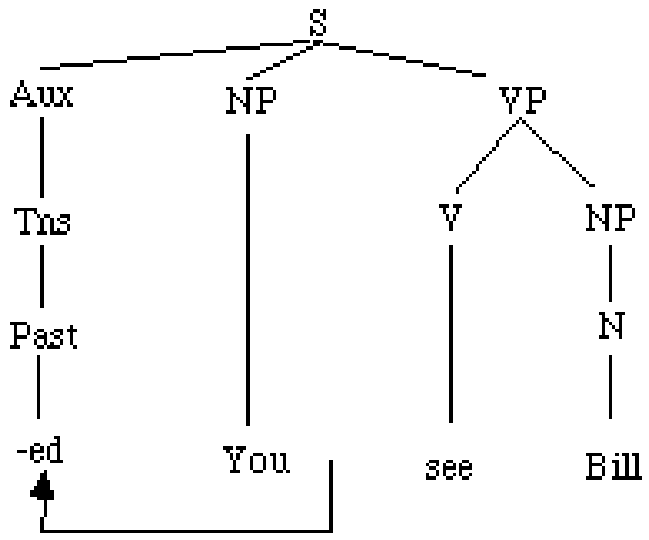
A question like –did you see John?‖ is derived by first applying SAI, Do Support, and Affix Hopping in that order. First, the Base Component (with the PSG and the Lexicon) generates the d-structure (1):

(1)



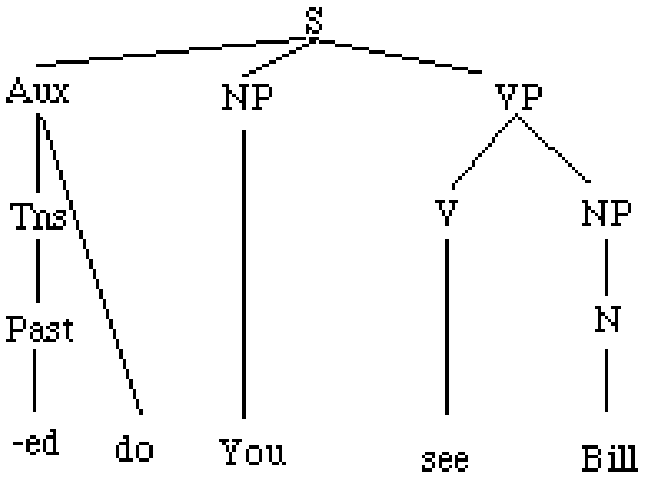
SAI applies, mapping it to the following intermediate structure:

(2)



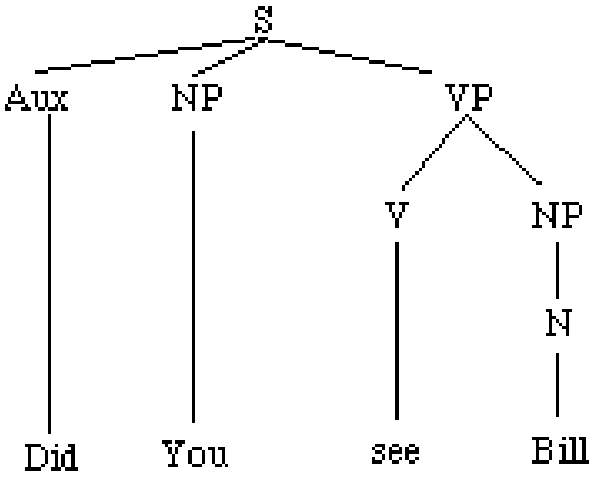
To this Do Support must apply, yielding (3):

(3)



After Affix Hopping applies, the surface structure (4) is obtained:

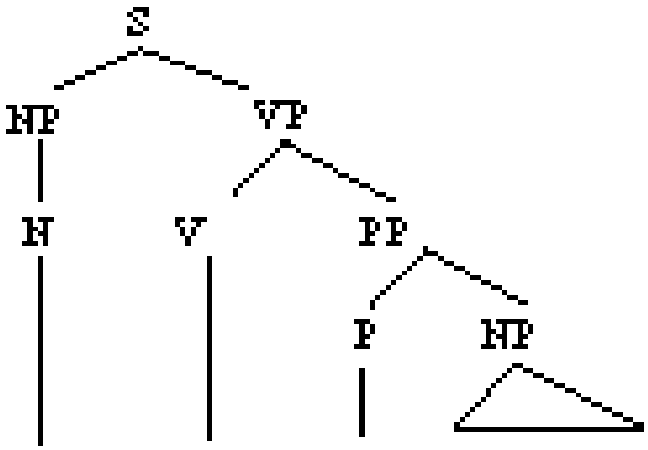
(4)



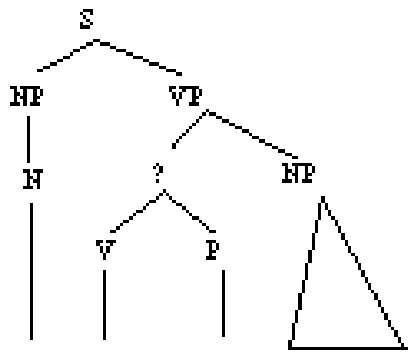
Which of the following two tree diagrams would more appropriately represent (i)? Which would more appropriately represent (ii)? Why?

(i) John sat on the computer.
(ii) John turned on the computer.

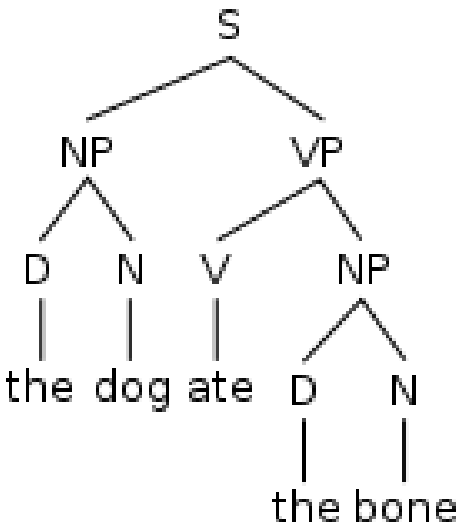
A:

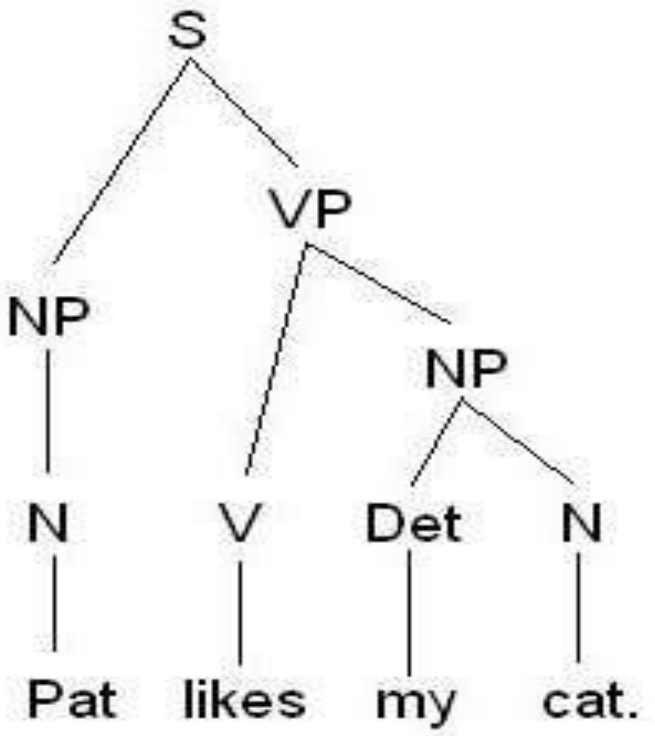


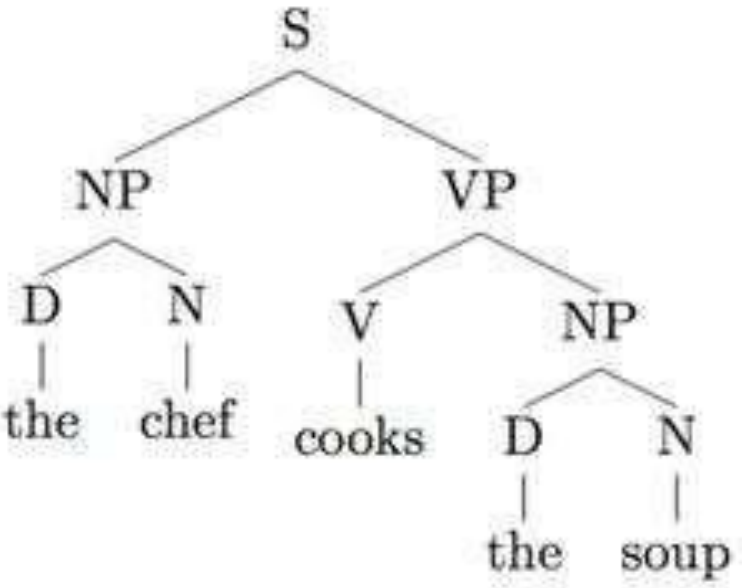
B:

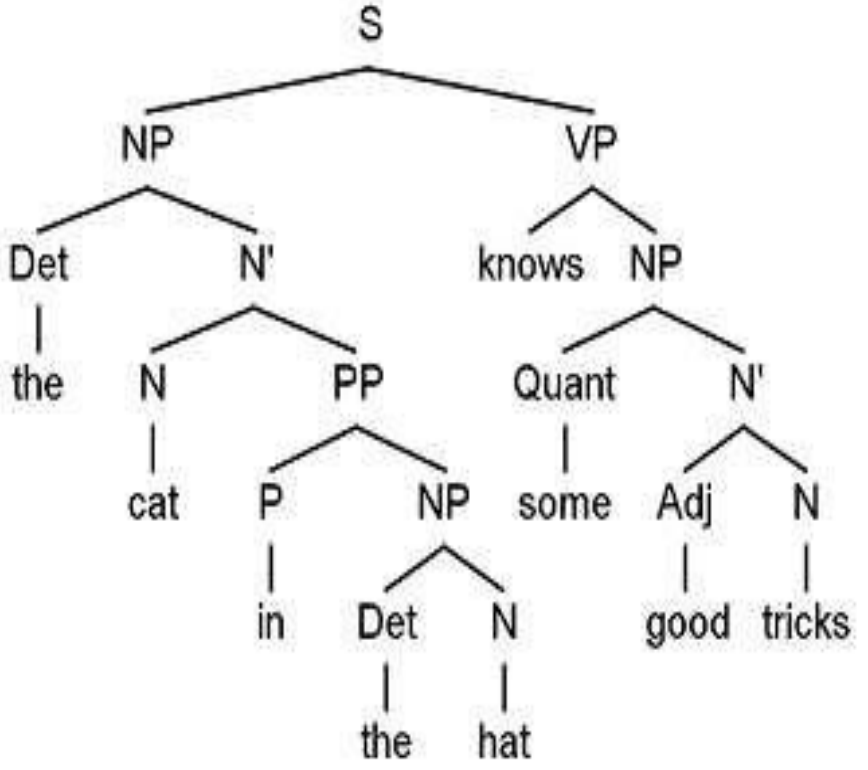


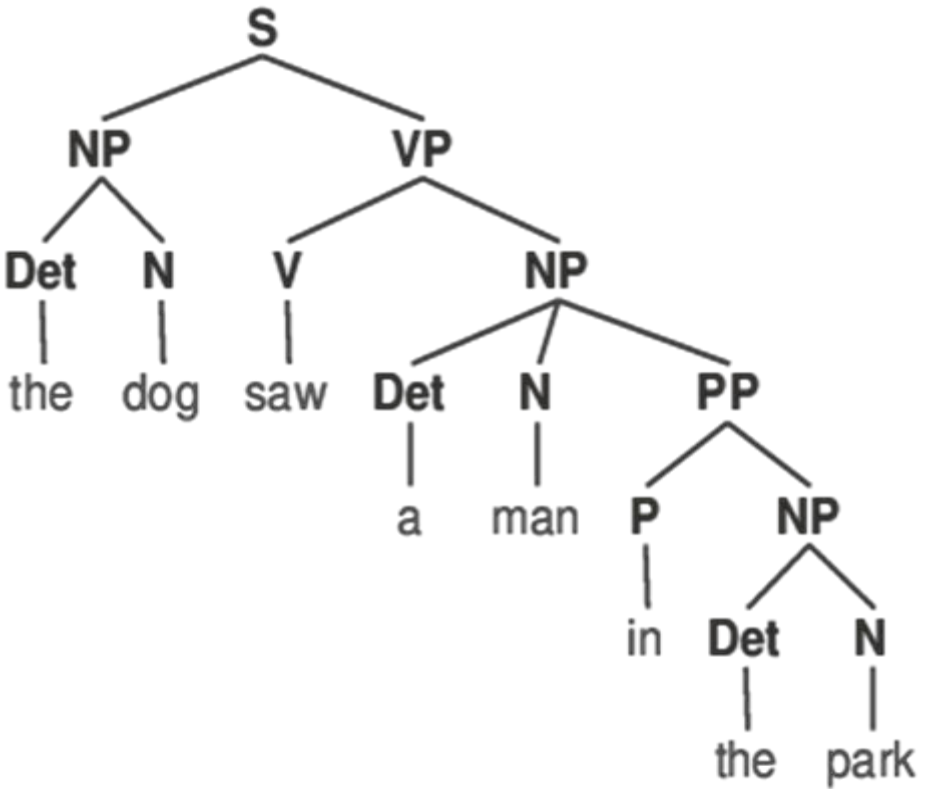
More Diagrams






S
NP
VP
D
N
V
NP
the
chef
cooks
D
N
the
soup


S
NP
VP
Det
N'
knows
NP
the
N
PP
Quant
N'
cat
P
NP
some
Adj
N
in
Det
N
good
tricks
the
hat


S
NP
VP
Det
N
V
NP
the
dog
saw
Det
N
PP
a
man
P
NP
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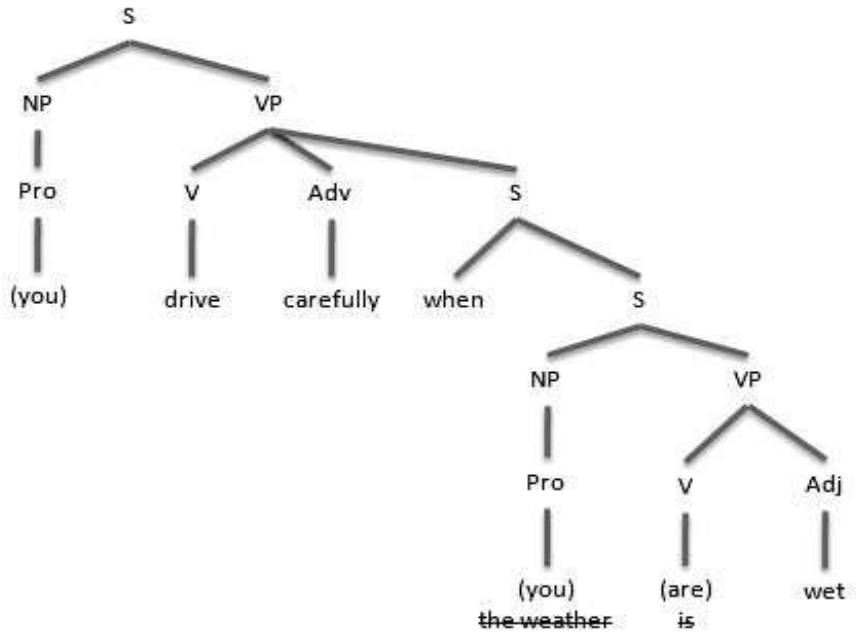
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