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اسم المقرر: Grammar

الفرقة: الثانية

الشعبة : تعليم أساسي

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روية الكلية

كمية التربية بالغردقة مؤسسة رائدة محليا ودولياً فى مجالات التعليم ،والبحث العلمي ،وخدمة المجتمع ، بما يؤهلها للمنافسة على المستوى : المحلي ، و الإقليمي ، و العالمي

رسالة الكلية

تقديم تعميم مميز في مجالات العلوم الأساسية و إنتاج بحوث علمية تطبيقية للمساهمة فى التنمية المستدامة من خلال إعداد خريجين متميزين طبقا للمعايير الأكاديمية القومية، و تطوير مهارات و قدرات الموارد البشرية، و توفير خدمات مجتمعية وبيئية تلبي طموحات مجتمع جنوب الوادي، و بناء الشراكات المجتمعية الفاعلة.

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CHAPTER 1
WORD CLASSES

One of the traditional ways of analyzing sentences is known as 'parsing', i.e. identifying each word in a sentence and assigning it to the appropriate part of speech.
The sentence 'the cows are in the field' can be analyzed as follows: cows = noun, are = verb, etc.

As English no longer is an inflecting language (or at least it has a very reduced inflectional system), a parsing of an English sentence does not yield much grammatical information. Besides, the technique of parsing presupposes that sentences are made up of strings of words and that each word has a function, depending on its form.

Definitions:

Although the term 'part of speech' is still used, the term word class is usually preferred nowadays. It is convenient to talk about word classes that share a set of common features. More traditionally, the parts of speech had a notional definition. For example, a noun was defined as 'the name of a person or a thing' or a verb as a 'doing word'. These definition were somehow too

imprecise. For example, in the sentence *His thumps became louder*, the word 'thump' hardly fits the category of noun as 'the name of a person or a thing', it seems rather a doing word. 'Became' can hardly be called a 'doing word', since it refers to a quite passive process.

For the purposes of a scientific description, the grammatical characteristics of words need to be taken into consideration. So a noun is described as a word that typically inflects for plural number, functions as a head of a noun phrase, which typically functions as a subject or object of a clause. The definitions of word classes are linked to the internal structure of the language more than to the relation between language and the external world.

Open and Closed Classes:

These terms refer to the membership of the classes. For the closed classes the membership is fixed; it is in general not possible to add new members. For the open class the reverse is true and new members are being constantly added (new coinages). The open classes of words are: noun, verb, adjective, adverb; the closed classes are: pronoun, numeral, determiner, preposition, conjunction. The open classes are strongly relied on

to express meaning, while the function of the closed classes are more oriented towards the expression of linguistic relationships (but numerals refer to quantity in the external world and preposition refer to relations in time and space).

Nouns:

Nouns generally refer to things. But of course there are great differences in the ways different language name reality (cf. Eskimo and Hopi).

The class of nouns is commonly divided into a series of subclasses. First of all there is a division between PROPER nouns and COMMON nouns. The former referring to unique things, such as people, places or institutions. The latter do not refer to unique things, but to a class of objects or to single items belonging to that class.

Common nouns are often subdivided into concrete and abstract nouns; concrete n. refer to perceivable objects in the world, while abstract n. refer to ideas, feelings etc.

A distribution which cuts across that between concrete and abstract nouns is that between countable and mass nouns.

Countable nouns refer to objects that may be counted, things which can be more than one. Mass nouns are generally uncountable e.g. flour, bread, wine. Some nouns can in fact be used both as countable and uncountable, depending on the context.

1) He loves wine
2) He loves these five wines from Alsace

The meaning in sentence 2) is not a plurality of objects, but rather 'a number of kinds of objects'. Mass nouns like *flour* and *bread* can only be made countable by using some prefixes expressing measurements, like *six spoonfuls of flour*, *five loaves of bread*.

Verbs:

Verbs generally refer to actions, events and processes. They have various distinct forms: infinitive (*to walk*), third person singular present tense (*walks*), past tense (*walked*), present participle (*walking*), past participle (*walked*). The past participle is usually the same as the past tense form, but for some verbs it is different (*give*: *gave* vs. *given*).

The main division in this category is that between auxiliaries and lexical verbs. Auxiliary verbs are a close subclass and have mainly a grammatical function. They include be, have do (in certain uses of these verbs), and the modal verbs, i.e. *can, could, will, would, shall, should, may, might, must*.

Among lexical verbs a distinction is usually drawn between transitive and intransitive verbs: transitive verbs are those that do not take an object (e.g. *go* vs. *thump*). A number of verbs are both transitive and intransitive depending on the context (*march*: a. *The soldiers marched to the barracks*; b. *The captain marched the soldiers to the barracks*).

A further distinction is made within lexical verbs, to distinguish dynamic from static verbs. Syntactically, the dynamic verbs may enter the **be + ing** construction, whereas the stative cannot be used in the progressive form (cf. *speak* vs. *know*).

Dynamic verbs can be further subdivided into activity verbs (*drink, play, write*), process verbs (*grow, widen*), verbs of bodily sensations (*ache, feel, hear*), transitional event verbs (*arrive, die, fall*) and momentary verbs (*hit, jump, kick*). Stative verbs are divided further into verbs of inert perception and

cognition (*astonish, believe, imagine, like*), and relational verbs (*belong to, contain, matter*).

Adjectives:

Adjectives typically expand the meaning of a noun, either by occurring before it, as in the courageous soldier, or by being linked to it by means of a copula verb, like in the soldier is courageous.

Like verbs adjectives can be divided into dynamic and, but whereas verbs are more typically dynamic, adjectives are more typically stative. Tall is a stative adjective, careful is dynamic.

A further sub-classification is that into gradable and non-gradable adjectives. Gradable adjectives can be modified by various adverbs that indicate the intensity of the adjective, e.g. *very careful, more beautiful*. Most adjective are gradable, but some are not, e.g. previous, *married* (but this latter may be gradable in jest).

One further distinction is that between inherent and non-inherent adjectives. Inherent adjectives, which are the majority, characterize the referent of the noun directly, e.g. *the glass shoe,*

a new sofa. Non-inherent adjectives, or non-inherent uses of adjectives, do not exhibit a direct characterization of the noun, e.g. *a wooden actor*, *a new friend*. In this case, the actor is not made of wood, and the friend is not just produced.

Adverbs:

Adverbs represent a very different class of words. There basically two kinds, those which refer to circumstantial information about the action, event or process, such as the time, the place, or the manner of it, and those which serve to intensify other adverbs and adjectives. The first group can be exemplified by the following: *yesterday, now; there, inside; carefully, beautifully* and the second group by *very* as in *very hard*, *extremely* as in *extremely uncomfortable*, *terribly* as in *terribly quietly*.

Closed Classes:

Pronouns:

Pronouns, as the name implies, have the main function of substituting for nouns, once a noun has been mentioned in a particular text.

There are several subclasses. The central subclass is that of personal pronouns (*I, me, you, he, him, she, her, we, us, they, them*), along with the reflexive pronouns (*myself, yourself*, etc.) and the possessive pronouns (*mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs*). With these pronouns a distinction is made between first, second and third person, that is between speaker (*I*), addressee (*you*) and other (*he, she, i*t) and also between singular and plural number.

Another subclass is that of interrogative pronouns. These substitute in questions nouns, but also adjectives and adverbs. Class members are *who, what, which, when, where, why*.

Relative pronouns substitute for nouns as elements in relative clauses and include *who, which, whose, that* and *whom*. Demonstrative pronouns also substitute for nouns, but they presuppose a pointing gesture, either to something in the situational context, or to some previous stretch of discourse, e.g. *That is an interesting point*. This class includes *that, those, this, these*.

Finally there is a subclass of indefinite pronouns, among which are included *all, many, few, everyone, anything, nothing,*

etc. Again they substitute for nouns but at the same time express an indefinite quantity of some thing.

Numerals:

Numerals are of two kinds: ordinal and cardinal. Ordinal numbers specify the order of an item in a series and comprise *first, second, third,* etc. Cardinal numbers do not identify order, but merely quantify; they comprise *one, two, three*, etc.

Determiners:

Determiners are a class of words that are used with nouns and have a function of defining the reference of the noun. There are two main subgroups, identifiers and quantifiers. The subclass of identifiers includes articles (i.e. the definite *the* and indefinite article *a/an*); the possessive *my, your, his* etc.; and the demonstratives *this, that* etc. The last two groups are often called possessive adjectives and demonstrative adjectives, to distinguish them from the corresponding pronouns. The identifiers may be illustrated by the following examples: *a book, the car, my bag, those horses*.

Quantifiers are expressions of indefinite quantity, and this class has some members in common with indefinite pronouns.

Among the quantifiers are included *a lot of, many, few, several, little*, etc.

Prepositions:

Prepositions have a special function, i.e. that of relating a noun phrase to another unit. The relationship may be of time (after Christmas), place (*in front of my house*), or logic (*because of this action*). Many prepositions may be used to express more than one of these relationships, e.g. *from the beginning, from the house, from his words*.

The other function of prepositions is that they are often tied to verbs or adjectives and link either those verbs or adjectives to their objects. In this case the preposition cannot be said to have any special meaning of its own, e.g. *for* in *they are waiting for the bus*; *about* in *he is anxious about his future*.

Conjunctions:

Conjunctions also have a joining function, usually that of connecting two clauses, but sometimes also two nouns. They are of two kinds: co-ordinating conjunctions, such as *and, or, but*, which join elements on the same level; and subordinating conjunctions, such as *when, if, why, because*, etc. which

subordinate one item to another in some way. The subordination may be one of time, reason, or some other kind.

CHAPTER 2
INTRODUCING PHRASES

We have now completed the first level of grammatical analysis, in which we looked at words individually and classified them according to certain criteria. This classification is important because, as we'll see, it forms the basis of the next level of analysis, in which we consider units which may be larger than individual words, but are smaller than sentences. In this section we will be looking at PHRASES.

Defining a Phrase

When we looked at nouns and pronouns, we said that a pronoun can sometimes replace a noun in a sentence. One of the examples we used was this:

[*Children*] should watch less television.
~[*They*] should watch less television.

Here it is certainly true that the pronoun *they* replaces the noun *children*. But consider:

[*The children*] should watch less television.
~[*They*] should watch less television.

In this example, *they* does not replace *children*. Instead, it replaces *the children*, which is a unit consisting of a determiner and a noun. We refer to this unit as a NOUN PHRASE (NP), and we define it as any unit in which the central element is a noun.

Here is another example:

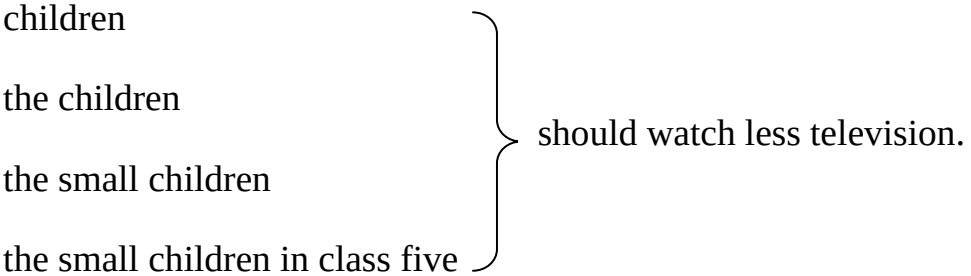
I like [*the title of your book*]
~I like [*it*]

In this case, the pronoun *it* replaces not just a noun but a five-word noun phrase, *the title of your book*. So instead of saying that pronouns can replace nouns, it is more accurate to say that they can replace *noun phrases*.

We refer to the central element in a phrase as the HEAD of the phrase. In the noun phrase *the children*, the Head is *children*. In the noun phrase *the title of your book*, the Head is *title*.

Noun phrases do not have to contain strings of words. In fact, they can contain just one word, such as the word *children* in *children should watch less television*. This is also a phrase, though it contains only a Head. At the level of word class, of

course, we would call *children* a plural, common noun. But in a phrase-level analysis, we call *children* on its own a noun phrase. This is not simply a matter of terminology -- we call it a noun phrase because it can be expanded to form longer strings which are more clearly noun phrases.



From now on, we will be using this phrase-level terminology. Furthermore, we will delimit phrases by bracketing them, as we have done in the examples above.

THE BASIC STRUCTURE OF A PHRASE

Phrases consist minimally of a Head. This means that in a one-word phrase like [children], the Head is *children*. In longer phrases, a string of elements may appear before the Head:

[*the small* children]

For now, we will refer to this string simply as the *pre-Head* string.

A string of elements may also appear after the Head, and we will call this the *post-Head* string:

[the small children *in class 5*]

So we have a basic three-part structure:

pre-Head string	**Head**	**post-Head string**
[*the small*	***children***	*in class 5*]

Of these three parts, only the Head is obligatory. It is the only part which cannot be omitted from the phrase. To illustrate this, let's omit each part in turn:

pre-Head string	**Head**	**post-Head string**
[--	***children***	*in class 5*]
*[*the small*	--	*in class 5*]
[*the small*	***children***	--]

Pre-Head and post-Head strings can be omitted, while leaving a complete noun phrase. We can even omit the pre- and post-Head strings at the same time, leaving only the Head:

pre-Head string	**Head**	**post-Head string**
[--	***children***	--]

This is still a complete noun phrase. However, when the Head is omitted, we're left with an incomplete phrase (**the small in class five*). This provides a useful method of identifying the Head of a phrase. In general, the Head is the only obligatory part of a phrase.

EXERCISE:

Identify the Head in each of the following bracketed noun phrases. Underline all the words that you think are phrase heads:

1. [Cats] make very affectionate pets.
2. [The editor] rejected the manuscript.
3. We drove through [an enormous forest] in Germany.
4. [People who cycle] get very wet.
5. We really enjoy [the funny stories he tells].

More Phrase Types:

Just as a noun functions as the Head of a noun phrase, a verb functions as the Head of a verb phrase, and an adjective functions as the Head of an adjective phrase, an adverb functions as the Head of an adverb phrase, and so on. We recognize five phrase types in all:

Phrase Type	**Head**	**Example**
Noun Phrase	Noun	[the **children** in class 5]
Verb Phrase	Verb	[**play** the piano]
Adjective Phrase	Adjective	[**delighted** to meet you]
Adverb Phrase	Adverb	[very **quickly**]
Prepositional Phrase	Preposition	[**in** the garden]

For convenience, we will use the following abbreviations for the phrase types:

Phrase Type	Abbreviation
Noun Phrase	NP
Verb Phrase	VP
Adjective Phrase	AP
Adverb Phrase	AdvP
Prepositional Phrase	PP

Using these abbreviations, we can now label phrases as well as bracket them. We do this by putting the appropriate label inside the opening bracket:

[NP the small **children** in class 5]

Now we will say a little more about each of the five phrase types.

Noun Phrase (NP):

As we've seen, a noun phrase has a noun as its Head. Determiners and adjective phrases usually constitute the pre-Head string:

[NP *the* **children**]

[NP *happy* **children**]

[NP *the happy* **children**]

In theory at least, the post-Head string in an NP can be indefinitely long:

[NP the **dog** *that chased the cat that killed the mouse that ate the cheese that was made from the milk that came from the cow that...*]

Fortunately, they are rarely as long as this in real use.

The Head of an NP does not have to be a common or a proper noun. Recall that pronouns are a subclass of nouns. This means that pronouns, too, can function as the Head of an NP:

[NP **I**] like coffee.

The waitress gave [NP **me**] the wrong dessert.

[NP **This**] is my car.

If the Head is a pronoun, the NP will generally consist of the Head only. This is because pronouns do not take determiners or adjectives, so there will be no pre-Head string. However, with some pronouns, there may be a post-Head string:

[NP **Those** *who arrive late*] cannot be admitted until the interval.

Similarly, numerals, as a subclass of nouns, can be the Head of an NP:

[NP **Two** of my guests] have arrived.
[NP The **first** to arrive] was John.

Verb Phrase (VP)

In a VERB PHRASE (VP), the Head is always a verb. The pre-Head string, if any, will be a 'negative' word such as *not* [1] or *never* [2], or an adverb phrase [3]:

[1] [VP not **compose** an aria]
[2] [VP never **compose** an aria]
[3] Paul [VP deliberately **broke** the window]

Many verb Heads *must* be followed by a post-Head string:

My son [VP **made** a cake] -- (compare: **My son made*)
We [VP **keep** pigeons] -- (compare: **We keep*)
I [VP **recommend** the fish] -- (compare: **I recommend*)

Verbs which require a post-Head string are called TRANSITIVE verbs. The post-Head string, in these examples, is called the DIRECT OBJECT.

In contrast, some verbs are *never* followed by a direct object:

Susan [VP **smiled**]
The professor [VP **yawned**]

These are known as INTRANSITIVE VERBS. However, most verbs in English can be both transitive and intransitive, so it is perhaps more accurate to refer to transitive and intransitive *uses* of a verb. The following examples show the two uses of the same verb:

Intransitive: David *smokes*
Transitive: David *smokes* cigars

We will return to the structure of verb phrases in a later section.

Adjective Phrase (AP):

In an ADJECTIVE PHRASE (AP), the Head word is an adjective. Here are some examples:

Susan is [AP **clever**]
The doctor is [AP very **late**]
My sister is [AP **fond** of animals]

The pre-Head string in an AP is most commonly an adverb phrase such as *very* or *extremely*. Adjective Heads may be followed by a post-Head string:

[AP **happy** *to meet you*]
[AP **ready** *to go*]
[AP **afraid** *of the dark*]

A small number of adjective Heads *must* be followed by a post-Head string. The adjective Head *fond* is one of these. Compare:

My sister is [AP **fond** of animals]
*My sister is [**fond**]

Adverb Phrase (ADVP):

In an ADVERB PHRASE, the Head word is an adverb. Most commonly, the pre-Head string is another adverb phrase:

He graduated [AdvP *very* **recently**]
She left [AdvP *quite* **suddenly**]

In AdvPs, there is usually no post-Head string, but here's a rare example:

[AdvP **Unfortunately** *for him*], his wife came home early.

Prepositional Phrase (PP):

PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES usually consist of a Head -- a preposition -- and a post-Head string only. Here are some examples:

[PP **through** the window]
[PP **over** the bar]
[PP **across** the line]
[PP **after** midnight]

This makes PPs easy to recognize -- they nearly always begin with a preposition (the Head). A pre-Head string is rarely present, but here are some examples:

[PP *straight* **through** the window]
[PP *right* **over** the bar]
[PP *just* **after** midnight]

EXERCISE:

Identify the phrase type:

1. Houses are [unbelievably expensive] just now

( ) Adjective Phrase
( ) Adverb Phrase
( ) Noun Phrase
( ) Prepositonal Phrase
( ) Verb Phrase

2. We [met Paul] last week

( ) Adjective Phrase
( ) Adverb Phrase
( ) Noun Phrase
( ) Prepositonal Phrase
( ) Verb Phrase

3. [A car that won't go] is not particularly useful

( ) Adjective Phrase
( ) Adverb Phrase
( ) Noun Phrase
( ) Prepositonal Phrase
( ) Verb Phrase

4. I enjoy eating [in Indian restaurants]

( ) Adjective Phrase
( ) Adverb Phrase
( ) Noun Phrase
( ) Prepositonal Phrase
( ) Verb Phrase

5. Don't you have to leave [early]?

( ) Adjective Phrase
( ) Adverb Phrase
( ) Noun Phrase
( ) Prepositonal Phrase
( ) Verb Phrase

6. Tell [him] not to worry

( ) Adjective Phrase
( ) Adverb Phrase
( ) Noun Phrase
( ) Prepositonal Phrase
( ) Verb Phrase

Phrases within Phrases:

We will conclude this introduction to phrases by looking briefly at phrases within phrases. Consider the NP:

[NP small **children**]

It consists of a Head *children* and a pre-Head string *small*. Now *small* is an adjective, so it is the Head of its own adjective phrase. We know this because it could be expanded to form a longer string:

very small children

Here, the adjective Head *small* has its own pre-Head string *very*:

[AP very **small**]

So in *small children*, we have an AP *small* embedded with the NP *small children*. We represent this as follows:

[NP [AP small] children]

All but the simplest phrases will contain smaller phrases within them. Here's another example:

[PP across the road]

Here, the Head is *across*, and the post-Head string is *the road*. Now we know that *the road* is itself an NP -- its Head is *road*, and it has a pre-Head string *the*. So we have an NP within the PP:

[PP across [NP the road]]

When you examine phrases, remember to look out for other phrases within them.

CHAPTER 3
CLAUSES AND SENTENCES

So far we have been looking at phrases more or less in isolation. In real use, of course, they occur in isolation only in very restricted circumstances. For example, we find isolated NPs in public signs and notices:

[Exit]
[Sale]
[Restricted Area]
[Hyde Park]

We sometimes use isolated phrases in spoken English, especially in responses to questions:

Q: What would you like to drink?
A: [NP Coffee]
Q: How are you today?
A: [AP Fine]
Q: Where did you park the car?
A: [PP Behind the house]

In more general use, however, phrases are integrated into longer units, which we call CLAUSES:

Q: What would you like to drink?

A: [I'd like coffee]

Q: How are you today?

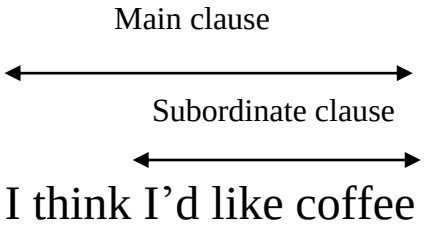
A: [I'm fine]

Q: Where did you park the car?

A: [I parked the car behind the house]

The Clause Hierarchy:

The clause *I'd like coffee* is a SUBORDINATE CLAUSE within the sentence *I think I'd like coffee*. We refer to this larger clause as the MATRIX CLAUSE:



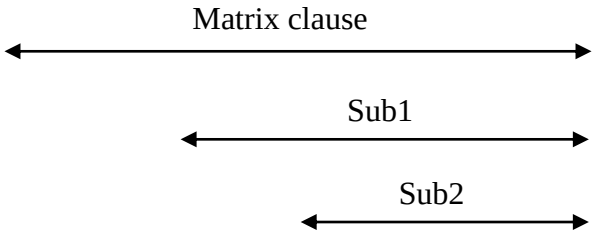
The matrix clause is not subordinate to any other, so it is, in fact, co-extensive with the sentence.

We say that the matrix clause is SUPERORDINATE to the subordinate clause. The terms *subordinate* and *superordinate* are

relative terms. They describe the relationship between clauses in what is called the CLAUSE HIERARCHY. We can illustrate what this means by looking at a slightly more complicated example:

He said I think I'd like coffee

Here the matrix clause is *He said I think I'd like coffee*. This matrix clause contains two subordinate clauses, which we'll refer to as Sub1 and Sub2:



He said I think I'd like coffee

Sub1 is both subordinate and superordinate. It is subordinate in relation to the matrix clause, and it is superordinate in relation to Sub2.

Subordinate and *superordinate*, then, are not **absolute** terms. They describe how clauses are arranged hierarchically relative to each other.

We can bracket and label clauses in the same way as phrases. We will use the following abbreviations:

Matrix Clause: **MC**
Subordinate Clause: **SubC**

Applying these labels and brackets to our first example, we get:

[**MC** I think [**SubC** I'd like coffee]]

Just as we've seen with phrases, we can have embedding in clauses too. Here, the subordinate clause is embedded within the matrix clause.

There is a greater degree of embedding in our second example, where there are two subordinate clauses, one within the other:

[**MC** He said [**SubC** I think [**SubC** I'd like coffee]]]

EXERCISE:

The following sentence contains three clauses, which we've labelled **C1**, **C2**, and **C3**. Decide whether the statements below are true or false:

[**C1** The bank manager suggested [**C2** that we should consider [**C3** leasing the building]]]

a. C1 is the matrix clause. ( ) True ( ) False

b. C2 is superordinate to C1. ( ) True ( ) False

c. C3 is subordinate to C1. ( ) True ( ) False

d. C3 is superordinate to C2. ( ) True ( ) False

Finite and Nonfinite Clauses:

As a working definition, let us say that clauses contain at least a verb phrase:

[**MC** [**VP** Stop]]

[**MC** David [**VP** composed an aria] when he was twelve]

[**MC** My solicitor [**VP** sent me a letter] yesterday]

As these examples show, clauses can also contain many other elements, but for now we will concentrate on the VP. We have already seen that verbs (and therefore the VPs that contain them) are either FINITE or NONFINITE, so we can use this distinction to classify clauses. Clauses are either finite or nonfinite.

Finite verb phrases **carry tense**, and the clauses containing them are FINITE CLAUSES:

[1] She *writes* home every day (finite clause -- present tense verb)

[2] She *wrote* home yesterday (finite clause -- past tense verb)

On the other hand, **nonfinite verb phrases do not carry tense**. Their main verb is either a *to*-infinitive [3], a bare infinitive [4], an *-ed* form [5], or an *-ing* form [6]:

[3] David loves [to *play* the piano]
[4] We made [David *play* the piano]
[5] [*Written* in 1864], it soon became a classic
[6] [*Leaving* home] can be very traumatic

These are NONFINITE CLAUSES.

Matrix clauses are always finite, as in [1] and [2]. However, they may contain nonfinite subordinate clauses within them. For example:

[**MC** David loves [**SubC** to play the piano]]

Here we have a finite matrix clause -- its main verb *loves* has the present tense form. Within it, there is a nonfinite subordinate clause *to play the piano* -- its main verb *play* has the *to*-infinitive form.

On the other hand**, subordinate clauses can be either finite or nonfinite:**

Finite: He said [**SubC** that they *stayed* at a lovely hotel] -- past tense

Nonfinite: I was advised [**SubC** to *sell* my old car] -- *to*-infinitive

EXERCISE:

In each of the following sentences, decide whether the bracketed clauses are finite or nonfinite.

1. [Everybody left just after the ceremony].

2. [Inviting your sister] was not a great decision.

3. I'll be home around ten [if my train is on time].

4. [They expect Susan to do all the work].

5. [Deprived of oxygen], plants will quickly die.

Subordinate Clause Types:

Subordinate clauses may be finite or nonfinite. Within this broad classification, we can make many further distinctions. We will begin by looking at subordinate clauses which are distinguished by their *formal* characteristics.

Many subordinate clauses are named after the form of the verb which they contain:

***TO*-INFINITIVE CLAUSE:**

You must book early [*to secure* a seat]

BARE INFINITIVE CLAUSE:

They made [the professor *forget* his notes]

-*ING* PARTICIPLE CLAUSE:

His hobby is [*collecting* old photographs]

-*ED* PARTICIPLE CLAUSE:

[*Rejected* by his parents], the boy turned to a life of crime

For convenience, we sometimes name a clause after its first element:

***IF*-CLAUSE:**

I'll be there at nine [*if* I catch the early train]

As we'll see later on, *if*-clauses are sometimes called *conditional* clauses.

***THAT*-CLAUSE:**

David thinks [*that* we should have a meeting]

The *that* element is sometimes ellipted:

David thinks [we should have a meeting]

Relative Clauses:

An important type of subordinate clause is the RELATIVE CLAUSE. Here are some examples:

The man [who lives beside us] is ill.

The video [which you recommended] was terrific.

Relative clauses perform the same function in sentences that adjectives do: they modify nouns.

The teacher has a *car*. (*Car* is a noun.)

It's a *new* car. (*New* is an *adjective* which modifies *car*.)

The car *that she is drivin*g is not hers.

(*That she is driving* is a relative clause which modifies *car*. It's a clause because it has a subject (*she*) and a predicate (*is driving*); it's a relative clause because it modifies a noun.)

Note that **adjectives usually precede the nouns they modify; relative clauses always follow the nouns they modify**.

Relative clauses are generally introduced by a relative pronoun, such as *who*, or *which*. However, the relative pronoun may be ellipted:

The video [you recommended] was terrific.

Another variant, the REDUCED RELATIVE CLAUSE, has no relative pronoun, and the verb is nonfinite:

The man [living beside us] is ill.
(Compare: *The man [who lives beside us]*...)

Nominal Relative Clauses:

NOMINAL RELATIVE CLAUSES (or independent relatives) function in some respects like noun phrases:

[What I like best] is football.
(cf. *the sport I like best*...)
The prize will go to [whoever submits the best design].
(cf. *the person who submits*...)
My son is teaching me [how to use email].
(cf. *the way to use email*)
This is [where Shakespeare was born].
(cf. *the place where*...)

The similarity with NPs can be further seen in the fact that certain nominal relatives exhibit number contrast:

Singular: [What we need] *is* a plan.
Plural: [What we need] *are* new ideas.

Notice the agreement here with *is* (singular) and *are* (plural).

Small Clauses:

Finally, we will mention briefly an unusual type of clause, **the verbless or SMALL CLAUSE**. While clauses usually contain a verb, which is finite or nonfinite, small clauses lack an overt verb:

Susan found [the job very difficult].

We analyze this as a unit because clearly its parts cannot be separated. What Susan found was not *the job*, but *the job very difficult*. And we analyze this unit specifically as a clause because we can posit an implicit verb, namely, a form of the verb *be*:

Susan found [the job (*to be*) very difficult].

Here are some more examples of small clauses:

Susan considers [David an idiot].
The jury found [the defendant guilty].
[Lunch over], the guests departed quickly.

All of the clause types discussed here are distinguished by formal characteristics. In the next section, we will distinguish some more types, this time on the basis of their meaning.

Subordinate Clauses: Semantic Types

Here we will look at subordinate clauses from the point of view of their meaning. The main semantic types are exemplified in the following table:

Subordinate Clause Type	**Example**
Temporal	I'll ring you again [*before I leave*]. David joined the army [*after he graduated*]. [*When you leave*], please close the door. I read the newspaper [*while I was waiting*].

Conditional	I'll be there at nine [*if I can catch the early train*]. [*Provided he works hard*], he'll do very well at school. Don't call me [*unless its an emergency*].
Concessive	He bought me a lovely gift, [*although he can't really afford it*]. [*Even though he worked hard*], he failed the final exam. [*While I don't agree with her*], I can understand her viewpoint.
Reason	Paul was an hour late [*because he missed the train*]. I borrowed your lawn mower, [*since you weren't using it*]. [*As I don't know the way*], I'll take a taxi.
	The kitchen was flooded, [*so we had to go to a restaurant*]. I've forgotten my password, [*so I can't read my email*].

Comparative	This is a lot more difficult [*than I expected*]. She earns as much money [*as I do*]. I think London is less crowded [*than it used to be*].

The table does not cover all the possible types, but it does illustrate many of the various meanings which can be expressed by subordinate clauses.

Notice that the same word can introduce different semantic types. For instance, the word *while* can introduce a temporal clause:

I read the newspaper [*while* I was waiting].

or a concessive clause:

[*While* I don't agree with her], I can understand her viewpoint.

Similarly, the word *since* can express time:

I've known him [*since* he was a child]

as well as reason:

> I borrowed your lawn mower, [*since* you weren't using it].

In the following exercise, be aware of words like these, which can introduce more than one type of subordinate clause.

EXERCISE:

In each of the following sentences, we have bracketed a subordinate clause. Decide which semantic type it is, from the choices given.

Be aware of words which can introduce more than one type of subordinate clause.

1. [After visiting Barcelona], the circus moved on to Madrid.

( ) Comparative
( ) Concessive
( ) Conditional
( ) Reason
( ) Result
( ) Temporal

2. We had no electricity during the storm, [so we had to use candles].

( ) Comparative
( ) Concessive
( ) Conditional
( ) Reason
( ) Result
( ) Temporal

3. [As long as you're over 18], you can join the army.

( ) Comparative
( ) Concessive
( ) Conditional
( ) Reason
( ) Result
( ) Temporal

4. [As he doesn't drive], David always travels by train.

( ) Comparative
( ) Concessive
( ) Conditional
( ) Reason
( ) Result
( ) Temporal

5. Amy reached the house [just as it started to snow].

( ) Comparative
( ) Concessive
( ) Conditional
( ) Reason
( ) Result
( ) Temporal

Sentences:

Most people recognize a sentence as a unit which begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop (period), a question mark, or an exclamation mark. Of course, this applies only to written sentences. Sentences have also been defined notionally as units which express a "complete thought", though it is not at all clear what a "complete thought" is.

It is more useful to define a sentence syntactically, as a unit which consists of one or more clauses. According to this definition, the following examples are all sentences:

[1] Paul likes football
[2] You can borrow my pen if you need one
[3] Paul likes football and David likes chess

Sentence [1] is a SIMPLE SENTENCE -- it contains only one clause.

Sentence [2] consists of a matrix clause *You can borrow my pen if you need one*, and a subordinate clause *if you need one*. This is called a SENTENCE. A complex sentence is defined as a sentence which contains at least one subordinate clause.

Finally, sentence [3] consists of two clauses which are coordinated with each other. This is a COMPOUND sentence.

By using subordination and coordination, sentences can potentially be infinitely long, but in all cases we can analyze them as one or more clauses.

EXERCISE:

In the following examples, determine the sentence type from the choices given.

1. We took a taxi home after the theatre.

( ) Simple
( ) Complex
( ) Compound

2. The policeman was not impressed by your alibi.

( ) Simple
( ) Complex
( ) Compound

3. As soon as I heard the news, I rushed straight to the police.

( ) Simple
( ) Complex
( ) Compound

4. Amy watches football on television, but she never goes to a game.

( ) Simple
( ) Complex
( ) Compound

5. If you give your details to our secretary, we will contact you when we have a vacancy.

( ) Simple
( ) Complex
( ) Compound

The Discourse Functions of Sentences:

Sentences may be classified according to their use in discourse. We recognise four main sentence types:

- declarative
- interrogative
- imperative
- exclamative

Declarative:

Declarative sentences are by far the most common type. Declarative sentences are used to convey information or to make statements:

David plays the piano.
I hope you can come tomorrow.
We've forgotten the milk.

Interrogative:

Interrogative sentences are used in asking questions:

Is this your book?
Did you receive my message?
Have you found a new job yet?

The examples above are specifically YES/NO INTERROGATIVES, because they elicit a response which is either *yes* or *no*.

ALTERNATIVE INTERROGATIVES offer two or more alternative responses:

Should I telephone you or send an email?
Do you want tea, coffee, or espresso?

Yes/no interrogatives and alternative interrogatives are introduced by an auxiliary verb.

WH- INTERROGATIVES, on the other hand, are introduced by a *wh*- word, and they elicit an open-ended response:

What happened?
Where do you work?
Who won the Cup Final in 1997?

Questions are sometimes tagged onto the end of a declarative sentence:

David plays the piano, *doesn't he?*

We've forgotten the milk, *haven't we?*

There's a big match tonight, *isn't there?*

These are known as TAG QUESTIONS. They consist of a main or auxiliary verb followed by a pronoun or existential *there*

Imperative:

Imperative sentences are used in issuing orders or directives:

Stop!

Give me your phone number

Don't shut the door

Tag questions are sometimes added to the end of imperatives:

Leave your coat in the hall, *will you*?

Write soon, *won't you?*

In an imperative sentence, the main verb is in the base form. This is an exception to the general rule that matrix clauses are always finite.

Exclamative:

Exclamative sentences are used to make exclamations:

What a stupid man he is!

How wonderful you look!

The four sentence types exhibit different syntactic forms, which we will be looking at in a later section. For now, it is worth pointing out that there is not necessarily a one-to-one relationship between the form of a sentence and its discourse function. For instance, the following sentence has declarative form:

You need some help

But when this is spoken with a rising intonation, it becomes a question:

You need some help?

Conversely, rhetorical questions have the form of an interrogative, but they are really statements:

Who cares? (= I don’t care)

The Grammatical Hierarchy: Words, Phrases, Clauses, and Sentences:

Words, phrases, clauses, and sentences constitute what is called the GRAMMATICAL HIERARCHY. We can represent this schematically as follows:

sentences
consist of one or more...
clauses
consist of one or more...
phrases
consist of one or more...
words

Sentences are at the top of the hierarchy, so they are the largest unit which we will be considering (though some grammars do look beyond the sentence). At the other end of the hierarchy, words are at the lowest level, though again, some grammars go below the word to consider morphology, the study of how words are constructed.

At the clause level and at the phrase level, two points should be noted:

1. Although clauses are higher than phrases in the hierarchy, clauses can occur within phrases, as we've already seen:

The man who lives beside us is ill

Here we have a relative clause *who lives beside us* within the NP *the man who lives beside us*.

2. We've also seen that clauses can occur within clauses, and phrases can occur within phrases.

Bearing these two points in mind, we can now illustrate the grammatical hierarchy using the following sentence:

My brother won the lottery.

This is a simple sentence (S), consisting of a matrix clause MC):

[S/MC My brother won the lottery]

We can subdivide the clause into a noun phrase (NP) and a verb phrase (VP):

[S/MC [NP My brother][VP won the lottery]]

The VP contains a further NP within it:

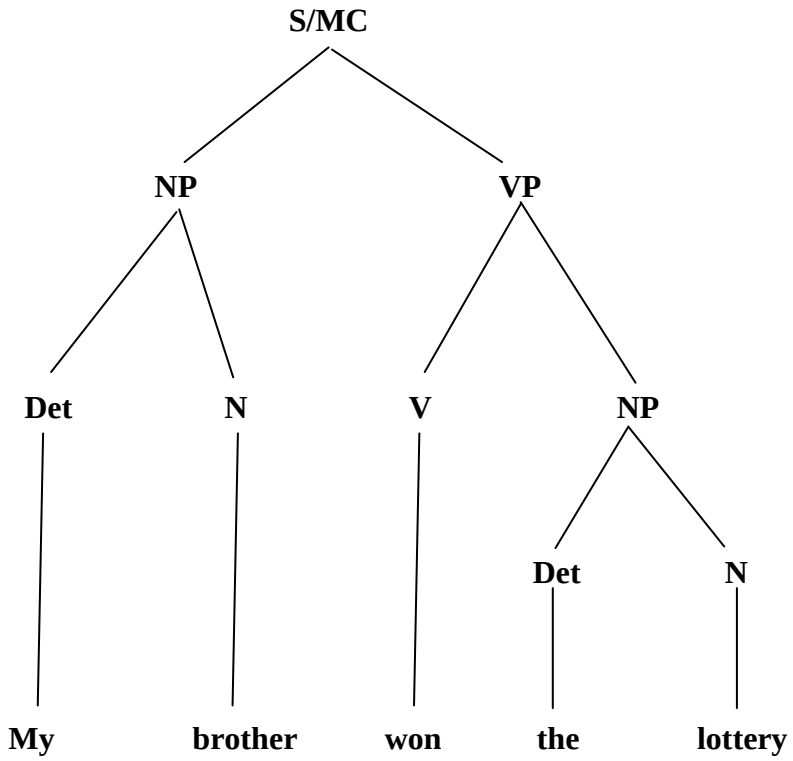
[S/MC [NP My brother][VP won][NP the lottery]]]

Each phrase consists of individual words:

[S/MC [NP [Det My][N brother]][VP [V won][NP [Det the][N lottery]]]]

Each of the bracketed units here is a word, a phrase, or a clause. We refer to these as CONSTITUENTS. A constituent is defined as a word or a group of words which acts syntactically as a unit.

As a means of illustrating the grammatical hierarchy, the labelled brackets we have used here have at least one major drawback. You've probably noticed it already -- they are very difficult to interpret. And the problem becomes more acute as the sentence becomes more complex. For this reason, linguists prefer to employ a more visual method, the TREE DIAGRAM.



A tree diagram is a visual representation of syntactic structure, in which the grammatical hierarchy is graphically displayed. A tree diagram contains exactly the same information as its corresponding labelled bracketing, but it is much easier to interpret.

CHAPTER 4
FORM AND FUNCTION

We have used the word “form” quite often in this book. It was one of the criteria we used to distinguish between word classes -- we saw that the form or “shape” of a word is often a good clue to its word class.

When we looked at phrases, too, we were concerned with their form. We said that phrases may have the basic form *(Pre-Head string) - Head - (Post-Head string)*.

And finally, we classified clauses according to the form (finite or nonfinite) of their main verb.

In all of these cases, we were conducting a FORMAL analysis. *Form* denotes how something looks -- its shape or appearance, and what its structure is. When we say that *the old man* is an NP, or that *the old man bought a newspaper* is a finite clause, we are carrying out a formal analysis.

We can also look at constituents -- phrases and clauses -- from another angle. We can examine the functions which they perform in the larger structures which contain them.

Subject and Predicate:

The most familiar grammatical function is the SUBJECT. In notional terms, we can think of the Subject as the element which performs the "action" denoted by the verb:

[1] *David* plays the piano.
[2] *The police* interviewed all the witnesses.

In [1], the Subject *David* performs the action of playing the piano. In [2], the Subject *the police* performs the action of interviewing all the witnesses. In these terms, this means that we can identify the Subject by asking a *wh*-question:

[1] David plays the piano.
Q. Who plays the piano?
A. *David*. (= Subject)
[2] The police interviewed all the witnesses.
Q. Who interviewed all the witnesses?
A. *The police*. (= Subject)

Having identified the Subject, we can see that the remainder of the sentence tells us what the Subject does or did. In [1], for example, *plays the piano* tells us what David does. We

refer to this string as the PREDICATE of the sentence. In [2], the Predicate is *interviewed all the witnesses*.

Here are some more examples of sentences labelled for Subject and Predicate.

Subject	**Predicate**
The lion	*roared*
He	*writes well*
She	*enjoys going to the cinema*
The girl in the blue dress	*arrived late*

In each of these examples, the Subject performs the action described in the Predicate. We've seen, however, that there are problems in defining verbs as "action" words, and for the same reasons, there are problems in defining the Subject as the "performer" of the action. The Subject in *John seems unhappy* is *John*, but we would hardly say he is performing an action. For this reason, we need to define the Subject more precisely than this.

Characteristics of the Subject:

The grammatical Subject has a number of characteristics which we will examine here.

1. Subject-Verb Inversion:

In a declarative sentence, the Subject comes before the verb:

Declarative: *David is unwell*.

When we change this into a *yes/no* interrogative, the Subject and the verb change places with each other:

David	is	unwell. (Declarative)
Subject	verb	

Is	David	unwell? (Interrogative)
Verb	Subject	

If an auxiliary verb is present, however, the Subject changes places with the auxiliary:

Declarative: *Jim has* left already.
Interrogative: *Has Jim* left already?

In this interrogative, the Subject still comes before the main verb, but after the auxiliary. This is true also of interrogatives with a *do*-auxiliary:

Declarative: Jim left early.
Interrogative: Did Jim leave early?

Subject-verb inversion is probably the most reliable method of identifying the Subject of a sentence.

2. Position of the Subject:

In a declarative sentence, the Subject is usually the *first* constituent:

Jim was in bed.
Paul arrived too late for the party.
The Mayor of New York attended the banquet.
We made a donation to charity.

However, there are exceptions to this. For instance:

Yesterday the theatre was closed.

Here, the first constituent is the adverb phrase *yesterday*, but this is not the Subject of the sentence. Notice that *the theatre*, and not *yesterday*, inverts with the verb in the interrogative:

Declarative: Yesterday the theatre was closed.
Interrogative: Yesterday was the theatre closed?

So the Subject here is *the theatre*, even though it is not the first constituent in the sentence.

3. Subject-Verb Agreement:

Subject-verb AGREEMENT or CONCORD relates to number agreement (singular or plural) between the Subject and the verb which follows it:

Singular Subject: *The dog* howl*s* all night.
Plural Subject: *The dogs* howl all night.

There are two important limitations to subject-verb agreement. Firstly, agreement only applies when the verb is in the present tense. In the past tense, there is no overt agreement between the Subject and the verb:

The dog howl*ed* all night.
The dogs howl*ed* all night.

And secondly, agreement applies only to third person Subjects. There is no distinction, for example, between a first person singular Subject and a first person plural Subject:

I howl all night.
We howl all night.

The concept of NOTIONAL AGREEMENT sometimes comes into play:

The government *is* considering the proposal.
The government *are* considering the proposal.

Here, the form of the verb is not determined by the form of the Subject. Instead, it is determined by how we interpret the Subject. In *the government is...*, the Subject is interpreted as a unit, requiring a singular form of the verb. In *the government are...*, the Subject is interpreted as having a plural meaning, since it relates to a collection of individual people. Accordingly, the verb has the plural form *are*.

4. Subjective Pronouns

The pronouns *I, he/she/it, we, they*, always function as Subjects, in contrast with *me, him/her, us, them*:

I left early.
**Me* left early.
He left early.
**Him* left early.
We left early.
**Us* left early.
They left early.
**Them* left early.

The pronoun *you* can also be a Subject:

You left early.

but it does not always perform this function. In the following example, the Subject is *Tom*, not *you*:

Tom likes you.

Realisations of the Subject:

In the sentence, *Jim was in bed*, the Subject is the NP *Jim*. More precisely, we say that the Subject is *realised* by the NP *Jim*.

Conversely, the NP *Jim* is the *realisation* of the Subject in this sentence. Remember that *NP* is a *formal* term, while *Subject* is a *functional* term:

FORM	**FUNCTION**
Noun Phrase	Subject

Subjects are typically realised by NPs. This includes NPs which have pronouns [1], cardinal numerals [2], and ordinal numerals [3] as their Head word:

[1] [We] decided to have a party.
[2] [One of my contact lenses] fell on the floor.
[3] [The first car to reach Brighton] is the winner.

However, other constituents can also function as Subjects, and we will examine these in the following sections.

Clauses Functioning as Subject:

Clauses can also function as Subjects. When they perform this function, we refer to them generally as *Subject clauses*. The table below shows examples of the major types of Subject clauses:

CLAUSES functioning as SUBJECTS	***EXAMPLE***
Finite	
That-clause	**[1]** *That his theory was flawed* soon became obvious.
Nominal Relative clause	**[2]** *What I need* is a long holiday
Nonfinite	
To-infinitive clause	**[3]** *To become an opera singer* takes years of training.
-ing clause	**[4]** *Being the chairman* is a huge responsibility.

Notice that some of these Subject clauses have Subjects of their own. In [1], the Subject clause *that his theory was flawed*, has its own Subject, *his theory*. Similarly, in [2], the Subject of *what I need* is *I*.

Among nonfinite clauses, only *to*-infinitive clauses and *-ing* participle clauses can function as Subject. Bare infinitive

clauses and *-ed* participle clauses cannot perform this function. In the examples above -- [3] and [4] -- the nonfinite Subject clauses do not have Subjects of their own, although they can do:

[3a] *For Mary to become an opera singer* would take years of training.

[4a] *David being the chairman* has meant more work for all of us.

Prepositional Phrases functioning as Subject

Less commonly, the Subject may be realised by a prepositional phrase:

After nine is a good time to ring

Prepositional phrases as Subject typically refer to time or to space.

Some Unusual Subjects:

Before leaving this topic, we will point out some grammatical Subjects which may at first glance be difficult to recognise as such. For example, can you work out the Subject of the following sentence?

There is a fly in my soup

As we've seen, the most reliable test for identifying the Subject is Subject-verb inversion, so let's try it here:

Declarative: There is a fly in my soup.
Interrogative: Is there a fly in my soup?

The inversion test shows that the subject is *there*. You will recall that this is an example of existential *there*, and the sentence in which it is the Subject is an *existential sentence*.

Now try the same test on the following:

It is raining.

The inversion test shows that the Subject is *it*:
Declarative: It is raining.
Interrogative: Is it raining?

These two examples illustrate how limited the notional definition of the Subject really is. In no sense can we say that *there* and *it* are performing an "action" in their respective sentences, and yet they are grammatically functioning as Subjects.

In this section, we've seen that the function of Subject can be realized by several different forms. Conversely, the various forms (NP, clause, PP, etc) can perform several other functions, and we will look at these in the following pages.

EXERCISE:

In each of the following sentences, identify the Subject by underlining it.

1. Your new neigbours are very noisy.
2. Drinking beer is not permitted.
3. Without thinking, the professor stepped off the pavement.
4. To ensure confidentiality, we will conceal your name and address.
5. There was a storm last night.

Inside the Predicate:

Now we will look inside the Predicate, and assign functions to its constituents. Recall that the Predicate is everything apart from the Subject. So in *David plays the piano*, the Predicate is *plays the piano*. This Predicate consists of a verb phrase, and we can divide this into two further elements:

[plays] [the piano]

In formal terms, we refer to the verb as the PREDICATOR, because its function is to *predicate* or state something about the subject. Notice that *Predicator* is a functional term, while *verb* is a formal term:

FORM	**FUNCTION**
Verb	Predicator

However, since the Predicator is *always* realized by a verb, we will continue to use the more familiar term *verb*, even when we are discussing functions.

The Direct Object:

In the sentence *David plays the piano*, the NP *the piano* is the constituent which undergoes the "action" of being played (by David, the Subject). We refer to this constituent as the DIRECT OBJECT.

Here are some more examples of Direct Objects:

We bought *a new computer*.
I used to ride *a motorbike*.
The police interviewed *all the witnesses*.

We can usually identify the Direct Object by asking *who* or *what* was affected by the Subject. For example:

We bought a new computer.
Q. What did we buy?
A. *A new computer*. (= the Direct Object)

He caught a big fish.
Q. What did he catch?
A. *A big fish.* (= the Direct Object)

The Direct Object generally comes after the verb, just as the Subject generally comes before it. So in a declarative sentence, the usual pattern is:

Subject -- Verb -- Direct Object

The following table shows more examples of this pattern:

Subject	**Verb**	**Direct Object**
Nancy	ate	two pizzas
The tourists	visited	the old cathedral

She	sent	a postcard
The detectives	examined	the scene of the crime
Shakespeare	wrote	*Hamlet*
George	draw	A beautiful picture

Realizations of the Direct Object:

The Direct Object is most often realized by an NP, as in the examples above. However, this function can also be realized by a clause. The following table shows examples of clauses functioning as Direct Objects:

CLAUSES functioning as DIRECT OBJECTS	***EXAMPLES***
Finite *That*-clause Nominal relative clause	**[1]** He thought *that he had a perfect alibi*. **[2]** The officer described *what he saw through the keyhole*.
Nonfinite *To*-infinitive clause Bare infinitive clause *-ing* clause	**[3]** The dog wants *to play in the garden*. **[4]** She made *the lecturer laugh*. **[5]** Paul loves *playing football*.

-ed clause	**[6]** I'm having *my house painted*.

Subjects and Objects, Active and Passive:

A useful way to compare Subjects and Direct Objects is to observe how they behave in active and passive sentences. Consider the following active sentence:

Active: *Fire* destroyed *the palace*

Here we have a Subject *fire* and a Direct Object *the palace*. Now let's convert this into a passive sentence:

The change from active to passive has the following results:

1. The active Direct Object *the palace* becomes the passive Subject.
2. The active Subject *fire* becomes part of the PP *by fire* (the *by*-agent phrase).

EXERCISE:

In each of the following sentences, identify the Direct Object by underlining it.

1. Our programmer is testing his new software.

2. He suddenly realized that someone was listening.

3. Amy has decided to go to university.

4. They can't read what you've written.

5. I don't know where her lives.

The Indirect Object:

Some verbs occur with two Objects:

We gave [John] [a present].

Here, the NP *a present* undergoes the "action" (a present is what is given). So *a present* is the Direct Object. We refer to the NP *John* as the INDIRECT OBJECT. Indirect Objects usually occur with a Direct Object, and they always come *before* the Direct Object. The typical pattern is:

Subject -- Verb -- Indirect Object -- Direct Object

Here are some more examples of sentences containing two objects:

	Indirect Object	**Direct Object**
Tell	*me*	*a story*
He showed	*us*	*his war medals*

We bought	*David*	*a birthday cake*
Can you lend	*your colleague*	*a pen*?

Verbs which take an Indirect Object and a Direct Object are known as DITRANSITIVE verbs. Verbs which take only a Direct Object are called MONOTRANSITIVE verbs. The verb *tell* is a typical ditransitive verb, but it can also be monotransitive:

		Indirect Object	**Direct Object**
Ditransitive	David told	*the children*	*a story*
Monotransitive	David told		*a story*

As we've seen, an Indirect Object usually co-occurs with a Direct Object. However, with some verbs an Indirect Object may occur alone:

David told *the children*.

although we can usually posit an implicit Direct Object in such cases:

David told the children *the news*.

Realisations of the Indirect Object:

NPs are the most common realisations of the Indirect Object. It is a typical function of pronouns in the objective case, such as *me*, *him*, *us*, and *them*.

Less commonly, a clause will function as Indirect Object:

David told *whoever saw her* to report to the police.

Adjuncts:

Certain parts of a sentence may convey information about *how*, *when*, or *where* something happened:

He ate his meal *quickly*. (how)
David gave blood *last week*. (when)
Susan went to school *in New York*. (where)

The underlined constituents here are ADJUNCTS. From a syntactic point of view, Adjuncts are optional elements, since their omission still leaves a complete sentence having a complete meaning:

He ate his meal *quickly*. ~He ate his meal.

David gave blood *last week*. ~David gave blood.

Susan went to school *in New York*. ~Susan went to school.

Many types of constituents can function as Adjuncts, and we exemplify these below.

Realisations of Adjuncts:

Noun Phrases functioning as Adjuncts:

David gave blood *last week*.

We've agreed to meet *the day after tomorrow*.

NPs as Adjuncts generally refer to time, as in these examples.

Adverb Phrases functioning as Adjuncts:

She walked *very gracefully* down the steps.

Suddenly, the door opened.

Prepositional Phrases functioning as Adjuncts:

Susan went to school *in New York*.

After work, I go to a local restaurant.

PPs as Adjuncts generally refer to time or to place -- they tell us *when* or *where* something happens.

Clauses functioning as Adjuncts:

Subordinate clauses can function as Adjuncts. We'll begin with some examples of finite subordinate clauses:

Clauses functioning as Adjuncts	***EXAMPLES***
Finite	*While we were crossing the park*, we heard a loud explosion I was late for the interview *because the train broke down* *If you want tickets for the concert*, you have to apply early My car broke down, *so I had to walk*
Nonfinite *To*-infinitive clause	*To open the window*, you have to climb a ladder
Bare infinitive clause	*Rather than leave the child alone*, I brought him to work with me
-ing clause	*Being a qualified plumber*, Paul had no difficulty in finding the leak

-ed clause	*Left to himself,* he usually gets the job done quickly
Small clause	*His face red with rage,* John stormed out of the room

You will notice that these clauses express the range of meanings that we looked at earlier (in Subordinate Clauses: Semantic Types). In all cases, notice also that the Adjuncts express additional and optional information. If they are omitted, the remaining clause is still *syntactically* complete.

EXERCISE:

We have now looked at the following grammatical functions:

Subject
Predicate
Predicator
Direct Object
Indirect Object
Adjunct

In the following sentences, identify the functions of the bracketed strings:

1. Recently, [finding a job] has become very difficult.
2. Amy sings [very sweetly].
3. I’ve left [my keys] in the car.
4. Robert promised [me] that he’d send a postcard.
5. Playing football [is his only pastime].

CHAPTER 5
SENTENCE PATTERNS FROM A FUNCTIONAL PERSPECTIVE

In order to summarize what we have learned, we will now look at some typical sentence patterns from a functional perspective. We will then conclude this section by looking at some untypical patterns.

As we've seen, the Subject is usually (but not always) the first element in a sentence, and it is followed by the verb:

Pattern 1

Subject	**Verb**
David	*sings*
The dog	*barked*
Susan	*yawned*

In this pattern, the verb is not followed by any Object, and we refer to this as an intransitive verb. If the verb is monotransitive, it takes a Direct Object, which follows the verb:

Pattern 2

Subject	Verb	Direct Object
David	*sings*	*ballads*
The professor	*wants*	*to retire*
The jury	*found*	*the defendant guilty*

In the ditransitive pattern, the verb is followed by an Indirect Object and a Direct Object, in that order:

Pattern 3

Subject	Verb	Indirect Object	Direct Object
The old man	*gave*	*the children*	*some money*
My uncle	*sent*	*me*	*a present*
The detectives	*asked*	*Amy*	*lots of questions*

Adjuncts are syntactically peripheral to the rest of the sentence. They may occur at the beginning and at the end of a sentence, and they may occur in all three of the patterns above:

Pattern 4

	(Adjunct)	Subject	Verb	Indirect Object	Direct Object	(Adjunct)
[1]	*Usually*	*David*	*sings*			*in the bath*
[2]	*Unfortunately*	*the professor*	*wants*		*to retire*	*this year*
[3]	*At the start of the trial*	*the judge*	*showed*	*the jury*	*the photographs*	*in a private chamber*

Pattern 4 is essentially a conflation of the other three, with Adjuncts added. We have bracketed the Adjuncts to show that they are optional. Strictly speaking, Objects are also optional, since they are only required by monotransitive and ditransitive verbs, as in the examples [2] and [3] above.

EXERCISE:

Match the sentences to the patterns:

1. The wall collapsed.

A. Subject -- Verb

B. Subject -- Verb -- (Adjunct)

C. Subject -- Verb -- Indirect Object -- Direct Object

D. (Adjunct) -- Subject -- Verb -- Direct Object

E. (Adjunct) -- Subject -- Verb -- (Adjunct)

2. During the war, many people lost their homes.

A. Subject -- Verb

B. Subject -- Verb -- (Adjunct)

C. Subject -- Verb -- Indirect Object -- Direct Object

D. (Adjunct) -- Subject -- Verb -- Direct Object

E. (Adjunct) -- Subject -- Verb -- (Adjunct)

3. I promised the children a trip to the zoo.

A. Subject -- Verb

B. Subject -- Verb -- (Adjunct)

C. Subject -- Verb -- Indirect Object -- Direct Object

D. (Adjunct) -- Subject -- Verb -- Direct Object

E. (Adjunct) -- Subject -- Verb -- (Adjunct)

4. When he was 12, David moved to London.

A. Subject -- Verb

B. Subject -- Verb -- (Adjunct)

C. Subject -- Verb -- Indirect Object -- Direct Object

D. (Adjunct) -- Subject -- Verb -- Direct Object

E. (Adjunct) -- Subject -- Verb -- (Adjunct)

5. Paul hired a bicycle.

A. Subject -- Verb

B. Subject -- Verb -- (Adjunct)

C. Subject -- Verb -- Indirect Object -- Direct Object

D. (Adjunct) -- Subject -- Verb -- Direct Object

E. (Adjunct) -- Subject -- Verb -- (Adjunct)

Some Untypical Sentence Patterns:

The sentence patterns we looked at on the previous page represent typical or canonical patterns But you will often come across sentences which do not conform to these patterns. We will look at some of these here.

Extraposition:

The Subject is sometimes postponed until the end of the sentence. Here are some examples:

In first place is *Red Rum*.
Inside the house were *two detectives*.
More important is *the question of compensation*.

Here, the typical declarative order has been disrupted for stylistic effect. In these examples, the Subject comes *after* the verb, and is said to be EXTRAPOSED. Compare them with the more usual pattern:

In first place is *Red Rum.*	~*Red Rum* is in first place.
Inside the house were *two detectives*.	~*Two detectives* were inside the house.

More important is *the question of compensation.*	~*The question of compensation* is more important.

The Subject is also extraposed when the sentence is introduced by anticipatory *it*:

It is a good idea *to book early*
It is not surprising *that he failed his exams*

In the more typical pattern, these constructions may sound stylistically awkward:

To book early is a good idea
That he failed his exams is not surprising

Extraposition is not always just a matter of style. In the following examples, it is obligatory:

It seems *that he'll be late again*.	~**That he'll be late again* seems
It turned out *that his secretary had stolen the money*.	~**That his secretary had stolen the money* turned out.

Direct Objects, too, can be extraposed. Recall that their typical position is after the verb (Pattern 2). However, when anticipatory *it* is used, the Direct Object is extraposed:

He made it very clear *that he would not be coming back*.

Again, the canonical pattern is stylistically very awkward:

*He made *that he would not be coming back* very clear.

Cleft sentences and pseudo-cleft sentences:

A cleft sentence is a construction which makes it possible to put special emphasis on a particular constituent. This is done by 'cleaving' the sentence into two parts in such a way that the resulting sentence is of the pattern:

It + *be* + emphasized constituent + *who/that* . . .

Thus, corresponding to

Peter posted this letter in New York last week.

there are the following cleft analogues:

It was *Peter* who posted this letter in New York last week.

It was *this letter* that Peter posted in New York last week.

It was *in New York* that Peter posted this letter last week.

It was *last week* that Peter posted this letter in New York.

The emphasized constituents in the above examples function as subject, direct object and adverbial in the corresponding non-cleft sentence. Other constituents (indirect object, object attribute and predicator) are less frequently emphasized in this way, but we do find sentences like:

It was *John* I lent my camera to.

It was *manager* that they appointed him.

It was *lecture* that Peter did in Beirut.

The emphasized constituent may also be a clause, as in:

It was *because he was abroad* that John could not be there.

Note that in certain contexts it is possible to leave out the *that*-clause:

Why could not John be there?
It was because he was abroad (that John could not be there).

Pseudo-cleft sentences, like cleft sentences, are used to give special emphasis to a particular part of the sentence. Pseudo-cleft sentences can be described as subject-predicator-subject attribute sentences, in which the subject is realized by a what-clause, the predicator by a form of *be* and the subject attribute by a noun phrase, an infinitive or an *-ing* participle.
Examples:

What killed him was alcohol.
What this University needs is a good Vice-Chancellor.
What he did was (to) write the address in his notebook.
What they are doing is spoiling their children.

Other possible patterns are exemplified in the sentences below. They show the *WH*-clause need not occur in sentence-initial position and that it contains a *WH*-item other than *what:*

A holiday in the sun is what I would like best.

This is where the robbers were shot by the police.

Note that not all sentences introduced by a *what*-clause are pseudo-cleft. The sentences below show that only (a) is a pseudo-cleft sentence, since it has a non-cleft paraphrase:

a. What made him panic was an explosion.

b. An explosion made him panic.

a. What made him panic was a mystery to us.

b. *A mystery to us made him panic.

CHAPTER 6

FUNCTIONS IN PHRASES

The syntactic functions which we looked at in the last section -- Subject, Object, Predicate, Adjunct, etc -- are all functions within sentences or clauses. We saw, for instance, that most sentences can be divided into two main functional constituents, the Subject and the Predicate:

Subject	**Predicate**
[1] The lion	roared
[2] He	writes well
[3] She	enjoys going to the cinema
[4] The girl in the blue dress	arrived late

Within the Predicate, too, constituents perform various functions -- in [3], for example, *going to the cinema* performs the function of Direct Object, while in [4], *late* performs the function of Adjunct.

In each of these cases, we are referring to the roles which these constituents perform in the sentence or clause.

We can also assign functions to the constituents of a phrase. Recall that we have said that all phrases have the following generalised structure:

(pre-Head string) --- Head --- (post-Head string)

where the parentheses denote optional elements.

In this section, we will consider the functions of these parts of a phrase -- what roles do they perform in the phrase as a whole? We will begin by looking at functions within verb phrases.

Complements:

Consider the bracketed verb phrase in the following sentence:

David [VP plays the piano].

In formal terms, we can analyze this VP using the familiar three-part structure:

pre-Head string	Head	post-Head string
--	plays	the piano

Let us now consider the functions of each of these three parts.

Actually, we already know the function of one of the parts -- the word *plays* functions as the Head of this VP. The term "Head" is a functional label, indicated by the capital (upper case) letter. Remember that we also capitalize the other functions -- Subject, Object, Predicate, etc.

Turning now to the post-Head string *the piano*, we can see that it completes the meaning of the Head *plays*. In functional terms, we refer to this string as the COMPLEMENT of the Head. Here are some more examples of Complements in verb phrases:

pre-Head string	**Head**	**Complement**
never	needs	*Money*
--	eat	*Vegetables*
not	say	*what he is doing*

In each case, the Complement completes the meaning of the Head, so there is a strong syntactic link between these two strings.

At this point you may be wondering why we do not simply say that these post-Head strings are Direct Objects. Why do we need the further term “Complement”?

The string which completes the meaning of the Head is not always a Direct Object. Consider the following:

She [VP told me].

Here the post-Head string (the Complement) is an Indirect Object. With ditransitive verbs, two Objects appear:

We [VP gave James a present].

Here, the meaning of the Head *gave* is completed by two strings -- *James* and *a present*. Each string is a Complement of the Head *gave*.

Finally, consider verb phrases in which the Head is a form of the verb *be*:

David [VP is a musician].
Amy [VP is clever].
Our car [VP is in the car park].

The post-Head strings here are neither Direct Objects nor Indirect Objects. The verb *be* is known as a COPULAR verb. It takes a special type of Complement which we will refer to generally as a COPULAR COMPLEMENT. There is a small number of other copular verbs. In the following examples, we have underlined the Head, and italicised the Complement:

Our teacher [VP <u>became</u> *angry*].
Your sister [VP <u>seems</u> *upset*].
All the players [VP <u>felt</u> *very tired*] after the game.
That [VP <u>sounds</u> *great*].

It is clear from this that we require the general term *Complement* to encompass all post-Head strings, regardless of their type. In verb phrases, a wide range of Complements can appear, but in all cases there is a strong syntactic link between the Complement and the Head. The Complement is that part of the VP which is required to complete the meaning of the Head.

Complements in other Phrase Types:

Complements also occur in all of the other phrase types. We exemplify each type in the following table:

Phrase Type	**Head**	**Typical Complements**	**Examples**
Noun Phrase (NP)	noun	PP	respect *for human rights*
		clause	the realization *that nothing has changed*
Verb Phrase (VP)	verb	NP	David plays *the piano*
		clause	They realized *that nothing has changed*
		PP	She looked *at the moon*
Adjective Phrase (AP)	adjective	clause	easy *to read*
		PP	fond *of biscuits*
Adverb Phrase (AdvP)	adverb	PP	luckily *for me*
Prepositional Phrase (PP)	preposition	NP	in *the room*
		PP	from *behind the wall*

Adverb phrases are very limited in the Complements they can take. In fact, they generally occur without any Complement. Noun phrases which take Complements generally have an abstract noun as their Head, and they often have a verbal counterpart:

the pursuit of happiness	~we pursue happiness.
their belief in ghosts	~they believe in ghosts.
the realization that nothing has changed	~they realize that nothing has changed.

EXERCISE:

In each of the following phrases, identify the Complement by underlining it.

1. unable to swim
2. the fact that the money was stolen
3. below the horizon
4. learning to drive
5. aware of his potential

Adjuncts in Phrases:

The term “Complement” is not simply another word for the “post-Head string” -- post-Head strings are not always Complements. This is because the post-Head string is not always required to complete the meaning of the Head. Consider:

> [NP My sister, who will be twenty next week,] has got a new job.

Here the relative clause *who will be twenty next week* is certainly a post-Head string, but it is not a Complement. Notice that it contributes additional but optional information about the Head *sister*. In this example, the post-Head string is an ADJUNCT. Like the other Adjuncts we looked at earlier, it contributes additional, optional information.

Adjuncts can occur in all the phrase types, and they may occur both before and after the Head. The following table shows examples of each type:

Phrase Type	Head	Typical Adjuncts	Examples
Noun Phrase (NP)	noun	PP AP clause	the books *on the shelf* the *old* lady cocoa, *which is made from cacao beans*
Verb Phrase (VP)	verb	AdvP PP	she *rapidly* lost interest he stood *on the patio*
Adjective Phrase (AP)	adjective	AdvP	it was *terribly* difficult
Prepositional Phrase (PP)	preposition	AdvP	*completely* out of control

Complements and Adjuncts Compared:

Complements differ from Adjuncts in two important respects:

1. Complements immediately follow the Head:

In most phrases, the Complement must immediately follow the Head:

David [VP plays [Complement the piano] [Adjunct beautifully]]

In contrast, the reverse order is not possible:

*David [VP plays [Adjunct beautifully] [Complement the piano]]

Similarly:

fond [Complement of biscuits] [Adjunct with coffee]
~*fond [Adjunct with coffee] [Complement of biscuits]

Complements, then, bear a much closer relationship to the Head than Adjuncts do.

2. Adjuncts are "stackable":

In theory at least, we can "stack" an indefinite number of Adjuncts, one after another, within a phrase. For example, consider the NP:

	Adjunct	Adjunct	Adjunct	Adjunct
the book	on the shelf	by Dickens	with the red cover	that you gave me...

In contrast with this, phrases are limited in the number of Complements that they can take. In fact, they usually have only one Complement. Ditransitive verb phrases are an exception to this. Recall that they take two Complements:

> We [VP gave [Complement James] [Complement a present]]

EXERCISE:

In the following NP we have bracketed two strings: the use [of computers] [in schools]. Decide whether each string is a Complement or an Adjunct.

of computers ( ) Complement
( ) Adjunct

in schools ( ) Complement
( ) Adjunct

Specifiers:

Adjuncts can appear before the Head of a phrase, as well as after the Head. For example, in the following NP, the Adjunct *sudden* is part of what we have been calling the pre-Head string:

?	**Adjunct**	**Head**	**Complement**
the	sudden	realization	that nothing has changed

In this section we will look at the function of the remaining part of the pre-Head string. In this example, what is the function of *the* in the phrase as a whole?

We refer to this part of the phrase as the SPECIFIER of the phrase. Again, Specifiers may occur in all the major phrase types, and we exemplify them in the following table:

Phrase Type	**Head**	**Typical Specifiers**	**Examples**
Noun Phrase (NP)	noun	Determiners	*the* vehicle *an* objection *some* people

Verb Phrase (VP)	verb	'negative' elements	*not* arrive *never* plays the piano
Adjective Phrase (AP)	adjective	AdvP	*quite* remarkable *very* fond of animals
Prepositional Phrase (PP)	preposition	AdvP	*just* across the street

An important point about Specifiers is that they relate to the Head + Complement sequence, and not to the Head alone. For example, in the AP *very fond of animals*, the Specifier *very* relates to *fond of animals*, not just to *fond*:

Amy is very fond of animals
Q. Amy is very *what*?
A. *Fond
A. Fond of animals

In functional terms, then, the three-part structure of a phrase can be summarized as:

(Specifier) -- [Head -- (Complement)]

EXERCISE:

Identify the function of the bracketed strings in each of the following phrases:

1. early [editions] of the evening newspapers
   ( ) Specifier
   ( ) Head
   ( ) Complement
   ( ) Adjunct

2. examined the evidence [with great care]
   ( ) Specifier
   ( ) Head
   ( ) Complement
   ( ) Adjunct

3. [many] examples of Greek sculpture
   ( ) Specifier
   ( ) Head
   ( ) Complement
   ( ) Adjunct

4. an [extraordinary] state of affairs
   ( ) Specifier
   ( ) Head
   ( ) Complement
   ( ) Adjunct

5. very anxious [to make a good impression]

( ) Specifier
( ) Head
( ) Complement
( ) Adjunct

CHAPTER 7

SEMANTICS

What is semantics?

Semantics is a branch of linguistics which is concerned with the study of meaning. It is a wide subject within the general study of language. An understanding of semantics is essential to the study of language acquisition (how language users acquire a sense of meaning, as speakers and writers, listeners and readers) and of language change (how meanings alter over time). It is also important for understanding language in social contexts, as these are likely to affect meaning, and for understanding varieties of English and effects of style. It is thus one of the most fundamental concepts in linguistics. The study of semantics includes the study of how meaning is constructed, interpreted, clarified, obscured, illustrated, simplified negotiated, contradicted and paraphrased.

Symbol and Referent:

These terms may clarify the subject. A symbol is something which we use to represent another thing – it might be a picture, a letter, a spoken or written word – anything we use conventionally for the purpose. The thing that the symbol

identifies is the referent. This may sometimes be an object in the physical world (the word Rover is the symbol; a real dog is the referent). But it may be something which is not at all, or not obviously, present – like freedom, unicorns or Hamlet.

Conceptions of Meaning:

Words → Things:

Words "name" or "refer to" things. It works well for proper nouns like London, Everton FC and Ford Fiesta. It is less clear when applied to abstractions, to verbs and to adjectives – indeed wherever there is no immediately existing referent (thing) in the physical world, to correspond to the symbol (word).

Words → Concepts → Things:

This theory was classically expressed by C.K. Ogden and I.A. Richards, in *The Meaning of Meaning* (1923). It states that there is no direct connection of symbol and referent, but an indirect connection in our minds. For each word there is a related concept.

The difficulty is in explaining what this concept is, and how it can exist apart from the word. In his *Nineteen Eighty-Four* George Orwell imagines a society whose rulers remove

disapproved thoughts by removing (from print and broadcasting) the corresponding words. However there are many real-world examples of concepts which came before the words which described or named them (hovercraft, Internet) or where the symbols have changed, but not the concepts they refer to (radio for wireless, Hoover for vacuum cleaner). This suggests that the concept is independent of particular language symbols.

Stimuli → Words → Responses:

Leonard Bloomfield outlines this theory in Language (1933). A stimulus (S) leads someone to a response (r), which is a speech act. To the hearer the speech act is also a stimulus (s), which leads to a response (R), which may be an action or understanding.

S → r.....s → R

Jill is hungry, sees an apple (S) and asks Jack to bring it to her (r). This new language stimulus, Jack's hearing her (s) leads to his action (R) of bringing her the apple. Bloomfield's behaviourist model leads to obvious problems - Jack doesn't bring Jill the apple because of a quarrel years before, or he brings several apples and a glass of beer.

Words and Lexemes:

As a lexical unit may contain more than one word, David Crystal has coined the term lexeme. This is usually a single word, but may be a phrase in which the meaning belongs to the whole rather than its parts, as in verb phrases tune in, turn on, drop out or noun phrase (a) cock up.

Denotation:

This is the core or central meaning of a word or lexeme, as far as it can be described in a dictionary. It is therefore sometimes known as the cognitive or referential meaning. It is possible to think of lexical items that have a more or less fixed denotation (sun, denoting the nearest star, perhaps) but this is rare. Most are subject to change over time. The denotation of silly is not today what it was in the 16th century, or even the 18th, when Coleridge referred to the silly buckets on the deck. Denotation is thus related to connotation, which leads to semantic change.

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Connotation:

Theories of denotation and connotation are themselves subject to problems of definition. Connotation is connected with

psychology and culture, as it means the personal or emotional associations aroused by words. When these associations are widespread and become established by common usage, a new denotation is recorded in dictionaries. A possible example of such change would be vicious. Originally derived from vice, it meant "extremely wicked". In modern British usage it is commonly used to mean "fierce", as in the brown rat is a vicious animal.

Implication:

This is meaning which a speaker or writer intends but does not communicate directly. Where a listener is able to deduce or infer the intended meaning from what has been uttered, this is known as (conversational) implicature. David Crystal gives this example:

Utterance: "A bus!" → Implicature (implicit meaning): "We must run."

Pragmatics:

Pragmatics is not a coherent field of study. It refers to the study of those factors which govern our choices of language – such as our social awareness, our culture and our sense of

etiquette. How do we know how to address different people like the queen? How do we know how to express gratitude for a gift or hospitality?

Pragmatics can be illustrated by jokes or irony which rely on the contrast between expected and subsequently revealed meaning. Consider this example from a 1999 episode of Barry Levinson's TV police drama, Homicide: Life on the Streets. (The TV audience is assumed to know police procedure for arresting suspects.) An arresting officer says to a suspect (whose hands are raised, so he is not resisting arrest): “You have the right to remain silent”. Instead of continuing with the reading of rights, the officer shoots the suspect. The audience enjoys the wordplay and the dramatic revelation of the officer's real meaning, because pragmatics tells us what You have the right to remain silent normally leads to - more words and no bullets.

Metaphor, Simile and Symbol:

Metaphors are well known as a stylistic feature of literature, but in fact are found in almost all language use, other than simple explanations of physical events in the material world. All abstract vocabulary is metaphorical, but in most cases the original language hides the metaphor from us. Depends means

“hanging from” (in Latin), pornography means “writing of prostitutes” (in Greek) and even the hippopotamus has a metaphor in its name, which is Greek for “river horse”. A metaphor compares things, but does not show this with forms such as as, like, or more [+qualifier] than. These appear in similes: fat as a pig, like two peas in a pod.

Everyday speech is marked by frequent use of metaphor. Consider the humble preposition *on*. Its primary meaning can be found in such phrases as on the roof, on the toilet, on top. But what relationship does it express in such phrases as on the fiddle, on call, on demand, on the phone, on the game, on telly, on fire, on heat, on purpose? Why not in? Launch denotes the naming of a ship and its entering service, but what does it mean to launch an attack, launch a new product, launch a new share-issue or even launch oneself at the ball in the penalty area?

A metaphor established by usage and convention becomes a symbol. Thus crown suggests the power of the state, press = the print news media and chair = the control (or controller) of a meeting.

Semantic Fields:

In studying the lexicon of English (or any language) we may group together lexemes which inter-relate, in the sense that we need them to define or describe each other. For example we can see how such lexemes as *cat*, *feline*, *moggy*, *puss*, *kitten*, *tom*, *queen* and *miaow* occupy the same semantic field. We can also see that some lexemes will occupy many fields: *noise* will appear in semantic fields for acoustics, pain or discomfort and electronics (noise = "interference"). Although such fields are not clear-cut and coherent, they are akin to the kind of groupings children make for themselves in learning a language. An entertaining way to see how we organize the lexicon for ourselves is to play word-association games.

Lexical Semantic Relations

In this section, we consider a more global level of lexical organization. Lexical semantics relations play an essential role in lexical semantics and intervene at many levels in natural language comprehension and production. They are also a central element in the organization of lexical semantics knowledge bases.

Congruence Relations:

Two words W1 and W2 denoting respectively sets of entities E1 and E2, are in one of the following four relations:

- Identity : E1 = E2,
- Inclusion : E2 is included into E1,
- Overlap : E1 and E2 have a non-empty intersection, but one is not included in the other,
- disjunction : E1 and E2 have no element in common.

These relations supports various types of lexical configurations such as the type/subtype relation.

Hierarchical Relations:

There are basically three major types of hierarchical relations: taxonomies, meronomies and proportional series.

Taxonomies:

The taxonomy relation is the well-known relation which associates an entity of a certain type to another entity (called the hyperonym) of a more general type. Taxonomy introduces a type/subtype relation which can be characterized by one of the following linguistic tests:

X is a subtype of Y if the following expressions are correct:
X is a kind of Y or X is a type of Y for nouns,
X-ing is a way of Y-ing for verbs.

Taxonomies usually have up to 7 levels that correspond to different levels of genericity (as in natural taxonomies). However, taxonomies of technical terms may be much deeper. It is also important to note that in some cases, certain nodes do not have any corresponding word in a given language; whereas they have one in another language. A taxonomy may thus have holes. The main property of a taxonomy is transitivity of properties from the type to the subtype. This property can also be viewed as a well-formedness criterion for taxonomies.

Most levels of a certain degree of genericity have a large number of subtypes, each of them having different possible realizations as words. The notion of subtype is however difficult to qualify in an homogeneous way. There is indeed a problem of prototypicality which is raised: some subtypes are more prototypical than others of their hyperonym (the type above them). Let us recall the famous example of the blackbird which is more prototypical of a bird than a hen which is itself more prototypical of that same class than a penguin.

Meronimies:

Meronimies describe the part-whole relation. It is a fairly complex relation which attempts to take into account the degree of differentiation of the parts with respect to the whole and also the role that these parts play with respect to their whole. For example, elements such as spatial cohesion and spatial differentiation, functional differentiation and nature of the links between the parts are crucial elements for determining meronomies. In fact, depending on the quality of these elements, we may have different kinds of meronomies, with different types of properties.

Meronimies can be characterized perhaps in a slightly too restrictive way, by the following linguistic tests. A is a part of B if one of these sentences is correct:
B has A (or B has a A),
A is part of B.

The meronomy relation has itself some properties (or attributes) which must be taken into account in any realistic model:

- Optionality of a part,
- Cardinality of a part with respect to the whole, e.g. a human has 2 legs, a car has 4 wheels,

- There are 6 kinds of meronomies which differ according to the functionalities, the spatial cohesion and the degree of dissimilarity between the parts and their whole. We have the following classes :
    - component / integral object : there is a clear structural and functional relation between the whole and its parts, e.g. handle/cup, phonology/linguistics.
    - member / set or group : parts do not necessarily have a structural or functional relation with respect to the whole, parts are distinct from each other. In this class fall for example tree/forest, student/class.
    - portion / mass : There is a complete similarity between the parts and between parts and the whole. Limits between parts are arbitrary and parts do not have any specific function a priori with respect to the whole. We have in this class for example: slice/bread, centimeter/meter. This subrelation is often called a mereology.
    - object / material : This type of relation describes the materials from which an object is constructed or created, or the constitutive elements of an object, e.g. alcohol/wine, steel/car.

- subactivity / activity or process : describes the different subactivities that form an activity in a structured way, for example in a temporally organized way. Into this class fall examples such as : pay/buy, give exams/teach.
- precise place / area : parts do not really contribute to the whole in a functional way. This subrelation expresses spatiality, as in : oasis/desert, Alps/Europe.

Similarly to taxonomies, the meronomy relation cannot really be conceived between two elements, but should be concieved with respect to the set of all the parts forming the whole. This also permits to introduce a kind of point of view in a meronomic description. Meronomies do not, in general, allow transitivity at logical and linguistic levels. However, some authors tend to allow transitivity at linguistic level between elements which are linked by the same subtype of meronomic relation described above.

Non-Branching Hierarchies:

Non-branching hierarchies allow for the ordering of elements that correspond to different levels of organization or of

dimensionality. The structure does not correspond to a type/subtype organization, but could have in some cases some similarity with a meronomic relation. Non-branching hierarchies are often related to a spatial, a temporal or an abstract notion of dimensionality.

We can distinguish three kinds of non-branching hierarchies:

- a continuous hierarchy where boundaries between elements are somewhat fuzzy, as in : frozen - cold - mild - hot; small - average - large, and in most topological relations,
- a non-continuous and non-gradable hierarchy, in general not based on any measurable property such as institutional hierarchies and technical hierarchies : sentence - proposition - phrase - word - morpheme.
- a non-continuous and gradable hierarchy, organized according to a given dimension, such as units of measure.

In some cases, non-branching hierarchies may reflect a more linguistic than common-world knowledge.

Non-Hierarchical Relations:

Among non-hierarchical relations we mainly distinguish polysemy, homonymy, synonymy and the different forms of opposition. These relations, as we shall see, are either binary or ternary. The ternary character reflects the context-dependence of some of these relations.

Polysemy:

Polysemy (or polysemia) is an intimidating compound noun for a basic language feature. The name comes from Greek poly (many) and semy (to do with meaning, as in semantics). Polysemy is also called radiation or multiplication. This happens when a lexeme acquires a wider range of meanings.

For example, paper comes from Greek papyrus. Originally it referred to writing material made from the papyrus reeds of the Nile, later to other writing materials, and now to things such as government documents, scientific reports, family archives or newspapers.

Homonymy, homophones and homographs

Homonyms are different lexemes with the same form (written, spoken or both). For example, bank is both an elevated area of ground and a place or business where money is kept. You

may think these are the same words, but this is not so, since the meaning is an essential feature of a word. In some cases, the same form (as with paper) has the same origin but this will not always be the case. The etymology of a lexeme will tell us where it comes from and how it acquired a given meaning.

Identity of form may apply to speech or writing only. David Crystal calls these forms "half" identical. They are:

- Homophones - where the pronunciation is the same (or close, allowing for such phonological variation as comes from accent) but standard spelling differs, as in flew (from fly), flu ("influenza") and flue (of a chimney).
- Homographs - where the standard spelling is the same, but the pronunciation differs, as in wind (air movement or bend) or refuse ("rubbish" or "disallow", stress falls on first and second syllable, respectively).

Synonymy:

Two words are synonyms if they have a significant similar semantic content. Synonyms have a significant semantic overlap, but the degree of synonymy is not necessarily related to that overlap. There are very few absolute synonyms, if any, in a language, but words may be synonyms in given contexts. We

then view the synonymy relation as a ternary relation : W1 and W2 are synonyms in the context C. Synonyms often do not depend on the degree of precision of the semantic descriptions, but their degree of synonymy may however change at different levels of granularity.

Antonymy and Opposition:

Antonyms and opposites cover a very large variety of phenomena, more or less clearly defined. A basic definition could be that W1 and W2 are antonyms or opposites if they have most semantic characteristics in common but if they also differ in a significant way on at least one essential semantic dimension. As with synonyms, antonyms and opposites are highly contextual and thus introduce a kind of ternary relation. There are also various degrees of opposition: some pairs of word-senses are more prototypically opposites than others. Antonyms refer to gradable properties and opposites to non-gradable ones.

For example, with respect to the context 'to start', 'to keep on' and 'to stop' are opposites. Similarly, 'good' and 'bad' are generally admitted as antonyms, and are more prototypical than the opposition between 'father' and 'mother'.

Antonyms do not necessarily partition the conceptual space into two mutually exclusive compartments which cover the whole conceptual domain. Some overlap or space in between is possible, as in good and bad, since it is indeed possible to say that something is neither good nor bad, or, possibly, to say that something is both good and bad. A special class of antonyms are complementaries which divide the whole conceptual space into two non-overlapping compartments. Several classes of complementaries can be defined, such as the class of interactives, which represent a relation of the type stimulus-response, as in: *grant - refuse* with respect to the current context.

Another interesting class among opposites are directional opposites. They represent either basic, topological, or conceptual (metaphorical) directional oppositions. In this class, which is conceptually relatively simple, fall examples such as: start-finish, top-bottom, descend-ascend.

The role of opposites in a lexical semantics knowledge base is somewhat difficult to define. Similarly to synonyms, opposites and antonyms may certainly play the role of integrity constraints. Their use in natural language generation, for example to avoid the use of too many negations, is somewhat hard to

make explicit, because of numerous pragmatic factors that may intervene, such as the polarity of an element in a pair of opposites or antonyms. We can say, for example:

How expensive is this book ?

but probably not:

How cheap is this book ?

Finally, the linguistic tests or the analysis methods for defining exactly if two elements are opposites or antonyms and to what degree remain to be defined precisely.

REVISION

(1) Write short notes on the following:

1) Semantics and pragmatics.
2) Referential and affective meaning.
3) Denotation and connotation.
4) Implication and implicature.
5) Synonymy and antonymy.
6) Homonymy and homography.
7) Hypernymy and hyponymy.
8) Gradable and non-gradable opposites.
9) Complementary and relational opposites.

10) Metonymy and synecdoche.

11) Metaphor and simile.

(2) Indicate whether the following statements are TRUE of FALSE and correct the false ones:

(a) Pragmatics is the study of meaning.

(b) Synonyms are words which have the same meaning.

(c) Homophones are words which have the same form and meaning, but which have different pronunciation.

(d) Denotation is the central meaning of a word, as far as it can be described in a dictionary.

(e) Social meaning is the person, object, abstract notion, event or state to which a word or sentence makes reference.

(f) Polysemy is a semantic relation in which a word has multiple related meanings.

(g) Synecdoche is using a word to mean something existing in close physical proximity.

(h) The semantic relation in which the meaning of one word is included in the meaning of another broader term is described as hyponymy.

CHAPTER 8

RULES OF USAGE

Usage rules present the essentials for correct and clear communication in Standard Written English. Besides rules for punctuation, usage includes guidelines for the following:

Subject-Verb Agreement
Pronoun-Antecedent Agreement
Placement of Modifiers
Avoiding Fragments
Avoiding Comma Splices and Fused Sentences
Faulty Pronoun Reference
Pronoun case
Parallel Structure

Usage also includes matters of punctuation, including correct use of end marks, commas, semicolons, colons, dashes, parentheses, apostrophes, italics, and quotation marks.

I. SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT

Subjects and **verbs** must AGREE with one another in **number** (singular or plural). Thus, if a subject is singular, its

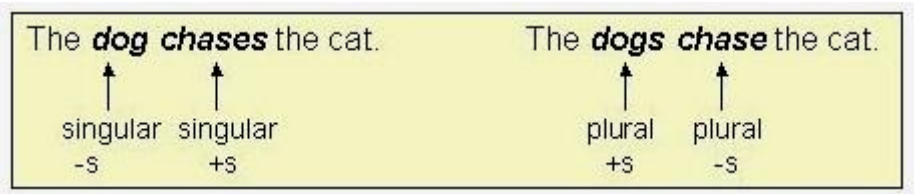
verb must also be singular; if a subject is plural, its verb must also be plural.

In present tenses, nouns and verbs form plurals in opposite ways:

nouns ADD an ***s*** to the singular form,

BUT

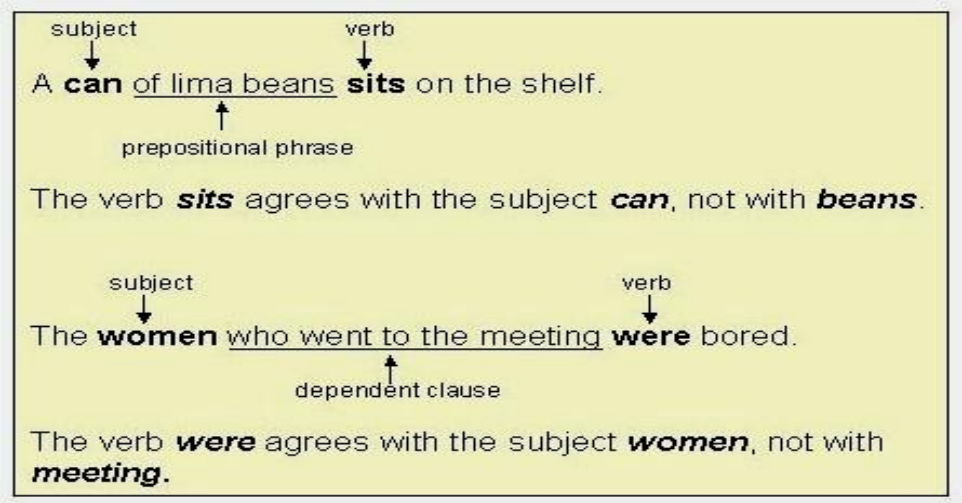
verbs REMOVE an ***s*** from the singular form.



Here are nine subject-verb agreement rules.

1. **A phrase or clause between subject and verb** does not change the number of the subject.

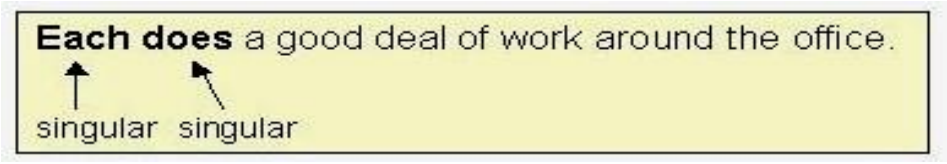
   Examples:



2. Indefinite pronouns as subjects

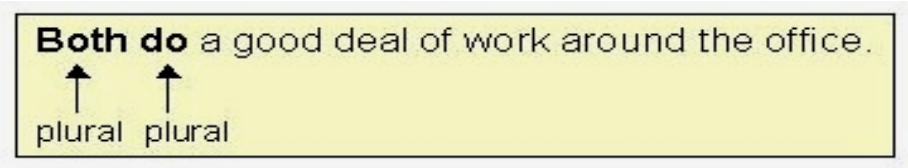
- **Singular indefinite pronoun subjects** take singular verbs.

SINGULAR:	each, either, neither, one, no one, nobody, nothing, anyone, anybody, anything, someone, somebody, something, everyone, everybody, everything.



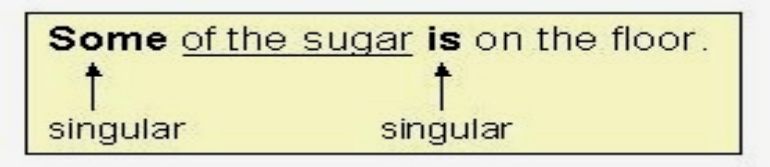
- **Plural indefinite pronoun subjects** take plural verbs.

PLURAL: *several, few, both, many*

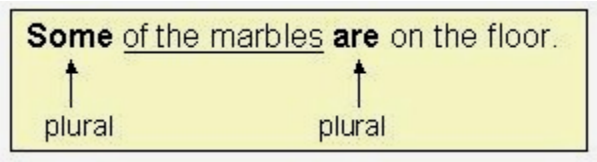


- Some **indefinite pronouns** may be either **singular or plural**: with *uncountable*, use singular; with *countable*, use plural.

EITHER SINGULAR OR PLURAL: *some, any, none, all, most*

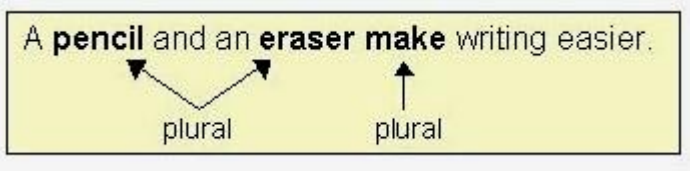


Sugar is *uncountable*; therefore, the sentence has a singular verb.

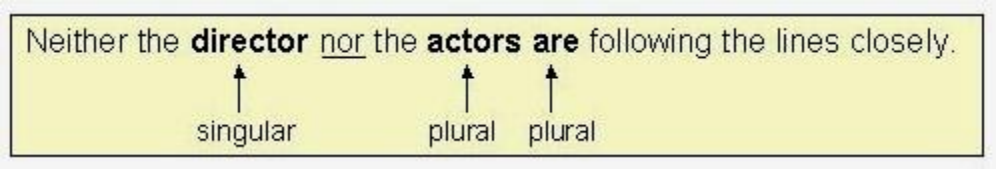


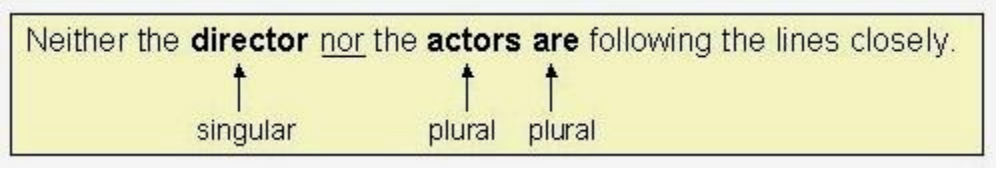
Marbles are *countable*; therefore, the sentence has a plural verb.

3. Compound subjects joined by *and* are always plural.

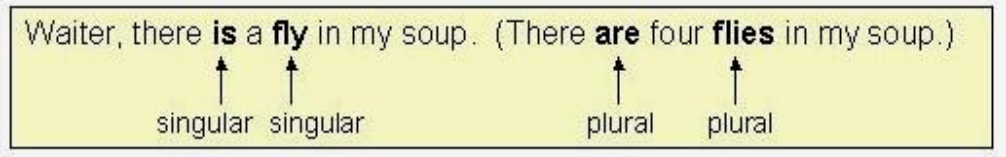


4. With **compound subjects joined by *or/nor***, the verb agrees with the subject nearer to it.

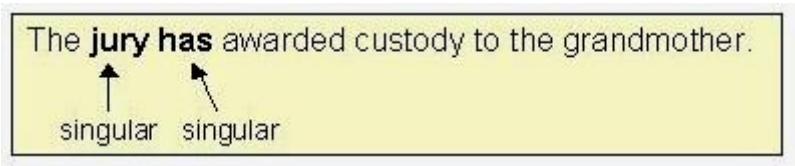




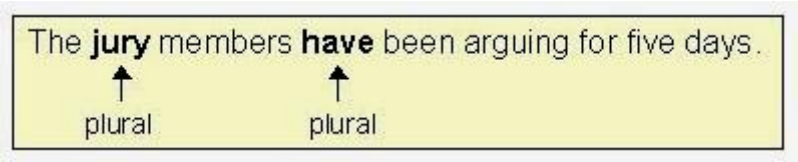
5. Inverted Subjects must agree with the verb.



6. Collective Nouns (*group, jury, crowd, team, etc.)* may be singular or plural, depending on meaning.

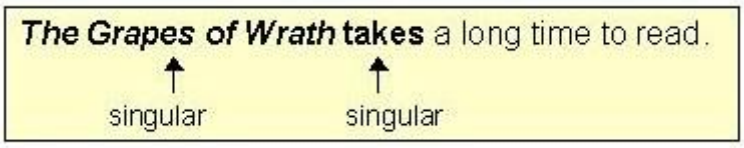


In this example, the jury is acting as one unit; therefore, the verb is singular.



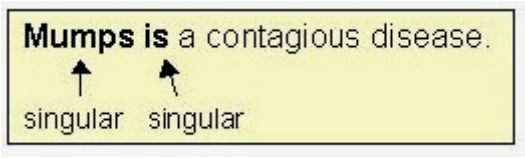
In this example, the jury members are acting as twelve individuals; therefore, the verb is plural.

7. Titles of single entities (*books, organizations, countries,* etc.*)* are always **singular**.

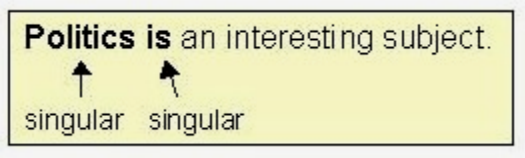


8. Plural form subjects

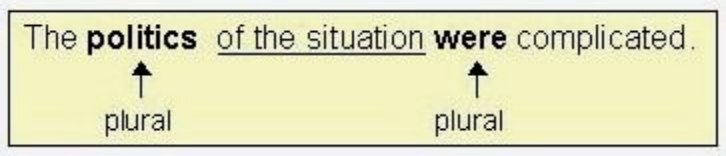
- **Plural form subjects with a singular meaning** take a singular verb. (e.g. *news, measles, mumps, physics, etc.)*



- **Plural form subjects with singular or plural meaning** take a singular or plural verb, depending on meaning. (e.g. *politics, economics*, etc.)

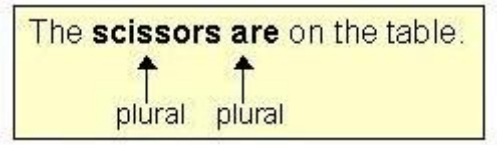


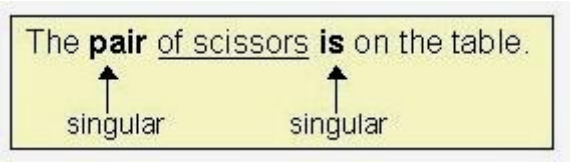
In this example, politics is a single topic; therefore, the sentence has a singular verb.



In this example, politics refers to the many aspects of the situation; therefore, the sentence has a plural verb.

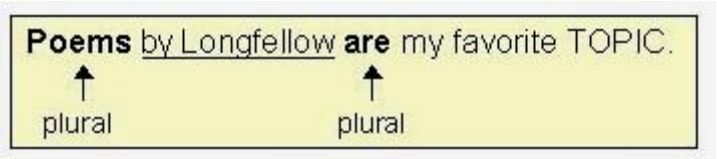
- **Plural form subjects with a plural meaning** take a plural verb. (e.g. *scissors, trousers*)





Note: In this example, the subject of the sentence is *pair*; therefore, the verb must agree with it. (Because *scissors* is the object of the preposition, *scissors* does not affect the number of the verb.)

9. **With subject and subjective complement of different number**, the verb always agrees with the subject.



II. PRONOUN-ANTECEDENT AGREEMENT

A **pronoun** is a word used to stand for (or take the place of) a **noun**. A word can refer to an earlier noun or pronoun in the sentence.

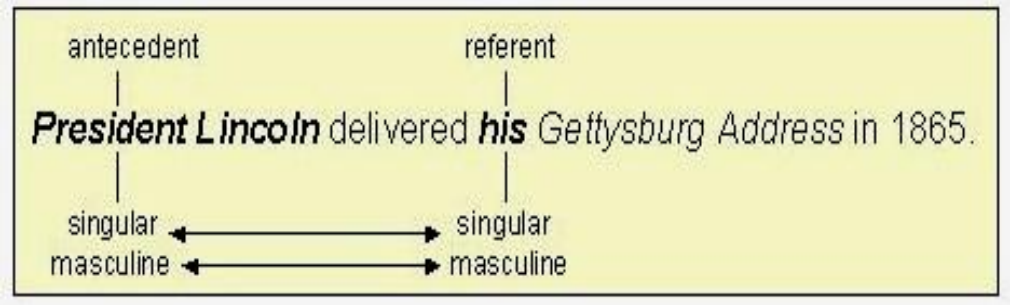
Example:

We do not talk or write this way. Automatically, we replace the noun ***Lincoln's*** with a pronoun. More naturally, we say

President Lincoln delivered his *Gettysburg Address* in 1865.

The pronoun ***his*** refers to ***President Lincoln***. In this sentence, the pronoun ***his*** is called the **REFERENT** because it "refers back." It refers back to ***President Lincoln***, the **ANTECEDENT**. An **antecedent** is a word for which a pronoun stands. (*ante* = "before") The pronoun must agree with its antecedent in number.

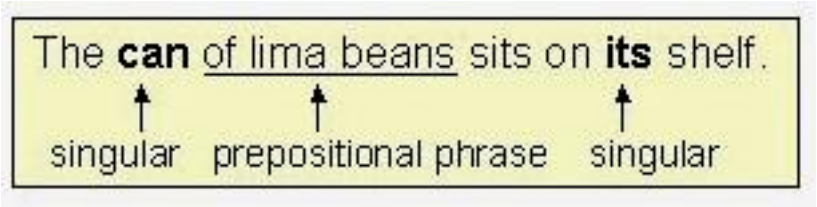
Rule: A singular pronoun must replace a singular noun; a plural pronoun must replace a plural noun. Thus, the mechanics of the sentence above look like this:



Here are nine pronoun-antecedent agreement rules. These rules are related to the rules found in subject-verb agreement.

1. A phrase or clause between the subject and verb does not change the number of the antecedent.

Example:

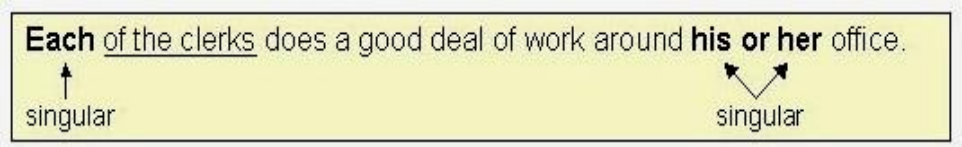


2. Indefinite pronouns as antecedents

- Singular indefinite pronoun antecedents take singular pronoun referents.

SINGULAR:	each, either, neither, one, no one, nobody, nothing, anyone, anybody, anything, someone, somebody, something, everyone, everybody, everything.

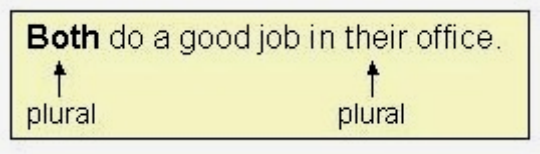
Example:



- Plural indefinite pronoun antecedents require plural referents.

PLURAL: *several, few, both, many*

Example:



- Some indefinite pronouns that are modified by a prepositional phrase may be either singular or plural.

EITHER SINGULAR OR PLURAL: *some, any, none, all, most*

When the object of the preposition is ***uncountable*** → use a ***singular*** referent pronoun.

Examples:

Some of the sugar fell out of **its** bag.
singular singular

Sugar is *uncountable*; therefore, the sentence has a singular referent pronoun.

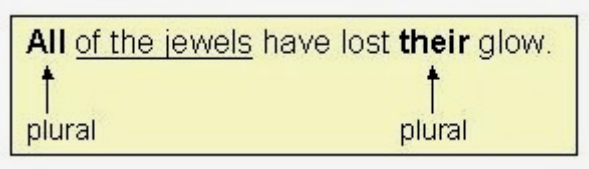
Jewelry is *uncountable*; therefore, the sentence has a singular referent pronoun.

When the object of the preposition is ***countable*** → use a ***plural*** referent pronoun.

Examples:

Some of the marbles fell out of **their** bag.
plural plural

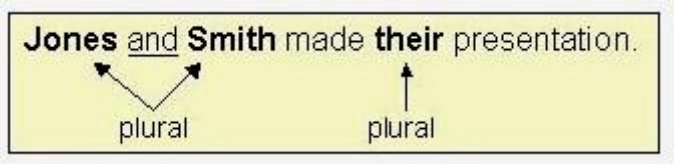
Marbles are *countable*; therefore, the sentence has a plural referent pronoun.



Jewels are *countable*; therefore, the sentence has a plural referent pronoun.

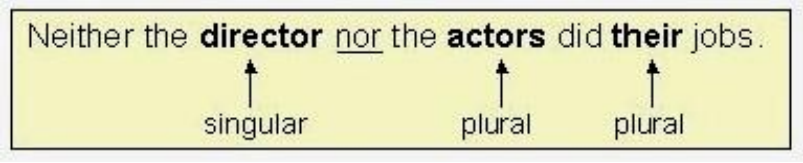
3. **Compound subjects joined by *and*** always take a **plural** referent.

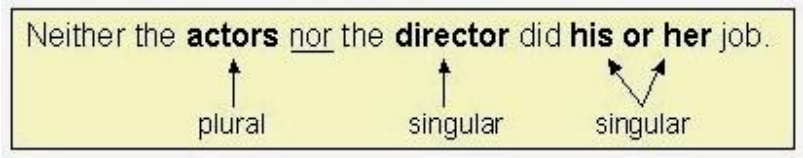
Example:



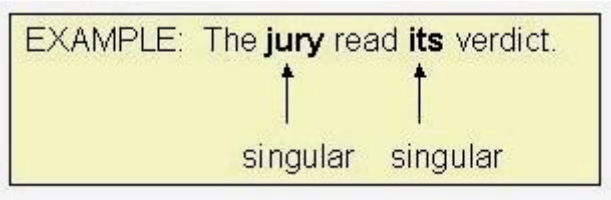
4. With **compound subjects joined by *or/nor***, the referent pronoun agrees with the antecedent closer to the verb.

Examples:

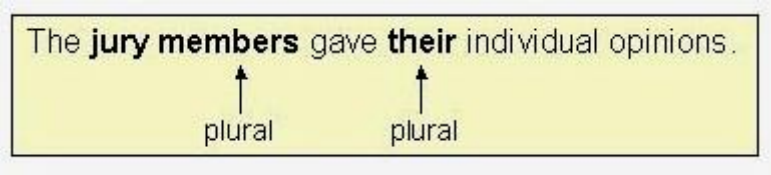




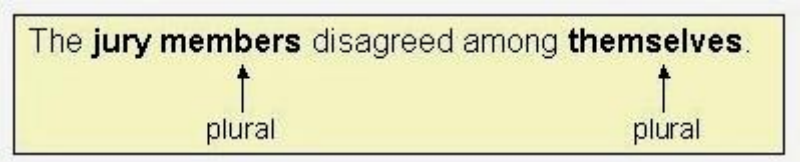
5. **Collective Nouns** (group, jury, crowd, team, etc.) may be singular or plural, depending on meaning.



In this example, the jury is acting as one unit; therefore, the referent pronoun is singular.



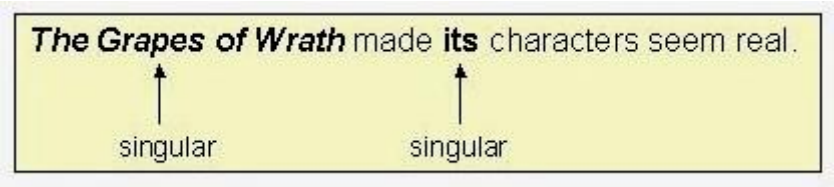
In this example, the jury members are acting as twelve individuals; therefore, the referent pronoun is plural.

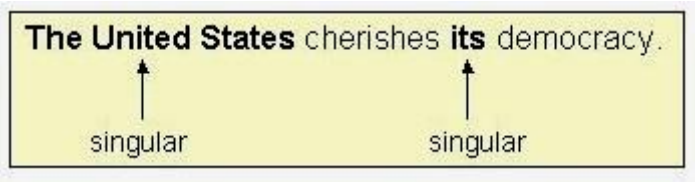


In this example, the jury members are acting as twelve individuals; therefore, the referent pronoun is plural.

6. Titles of single entities. (books, organizations, countries, etc.) take a singular referent.

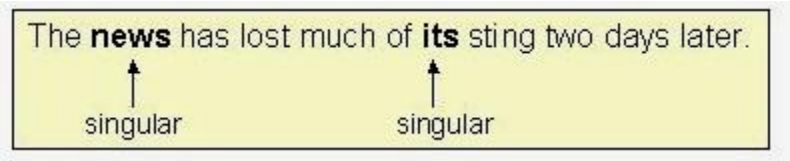
EXAMPLES:





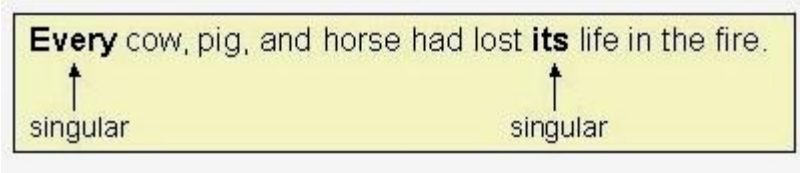
7. **Plural form subjects with a singular meaning** take a singular referent. *(news, measles, mumps, physics, etc)*

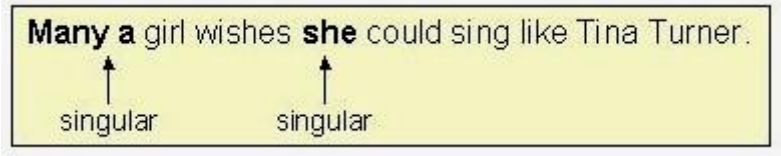
EXAMPLE:



8. ***Every*** or ***Many a*** before a noun or a series of nouns requires a singular referent.

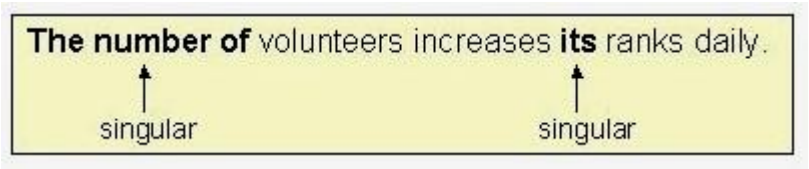
EXAMPLES:



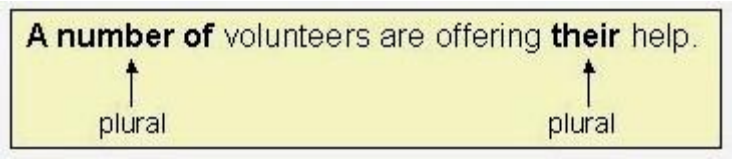


9. *The number of* vs. ***A number of*** before a subject:

- ***The number of*** is singular.



- ***A number of*** is plural.

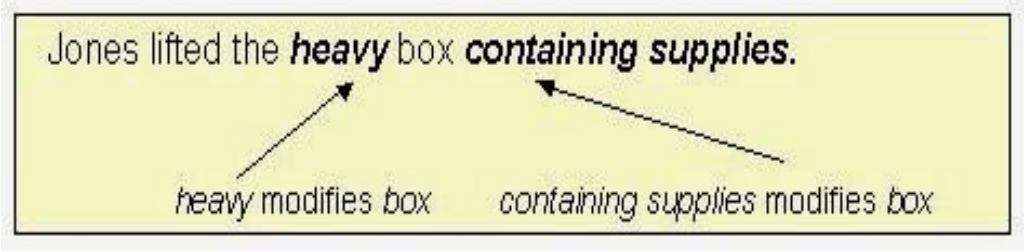


III. MODIFIER PROBLEMS

Misplaced Modifiers:

A modifier should be placed next to the word it describes.

Example



Note how the placement of the modifier creates different possible meanings:

The instructor ***just*** nodded to Elvis as she came in.
(She did not speak or extend her hand; she only nodded.)

The instructor nodded ***just*** to Elvis as she came in.
(She did not nod to anyone except Elvis.)

The instructor nodded to Elvis ***just*** as she came in.
(She nodded *when she came in.)*

Note how different placement of the word ***only*** creates a difference in meaning between these two sentences.

A. The shopper ***only*** looked at ties.
B. The shopper looked ***only*** at ties.

Sentence A means that the shopper did not buy any ties.
Sentence B means that the shopper visited only the tie department.

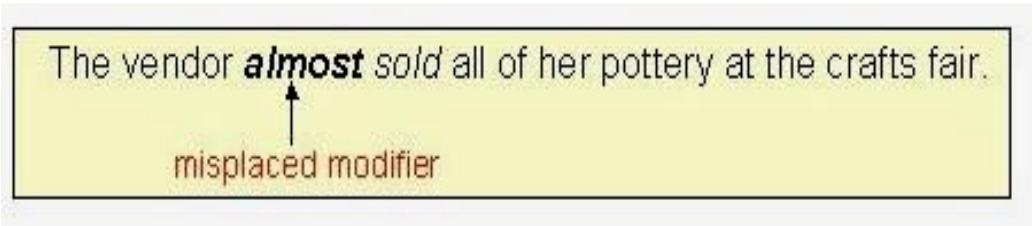
A **misplaced modifier** is a word, phrase, or clause that is improperly separated from the word it describes. Sentences with misplaced modifiers often sound awkward, confusing, or downright illogical.

Some frequently misplaced single words are:

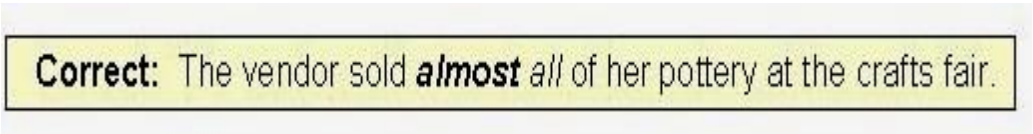
almost	even	exactly	hardly
just	merely	nearly	only
scarcely	simply		

Misplaced single word:

Example

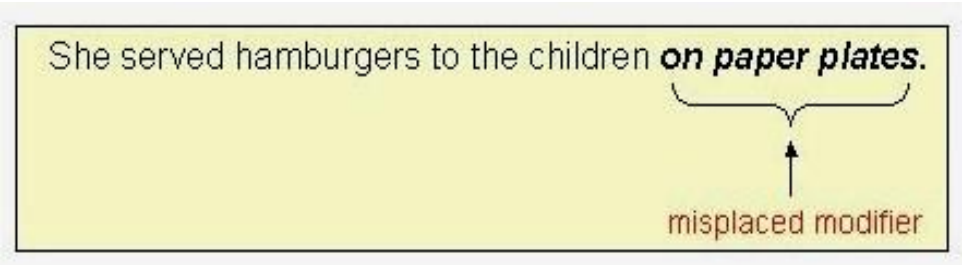


The logical meaning of this sentence is not that the vendor almost **sold** all of her pottery, but that she sold almost **all** of her pottery. Therefore, *almost* correctly belongs next to *all*.



Misplaced phrase:

Example #1

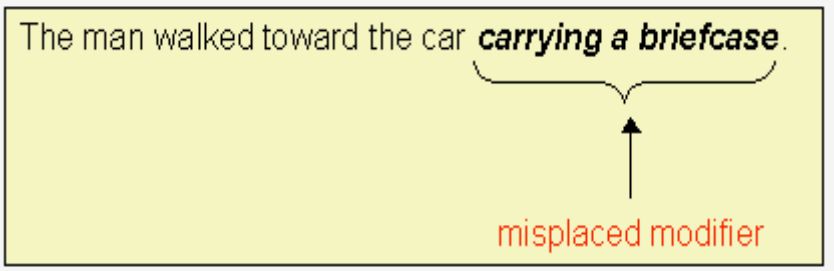


As written, this sentence means that **children** were served on paper plates. *On paper plates* is misplaced.

Correctly written, the sentence means that hamburgers were served, *on paper plates*.

Correct: She served *hamburgers* ***on paper plates*** to the children.

Example #2



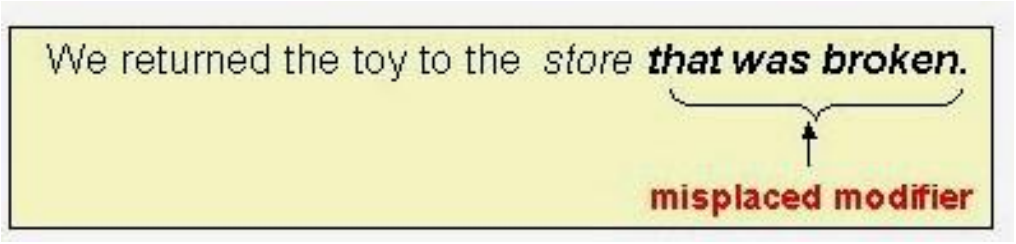
As written, this sentence means that the **car** is carrying a briefcase. *Carrying a briefcase* is misplaced.

Correctly written, the sentence means that the man is *carrying a briefcase.*

Correct: The man ***carrying a briefcase*** walked toward the car.

Misplaced clause:

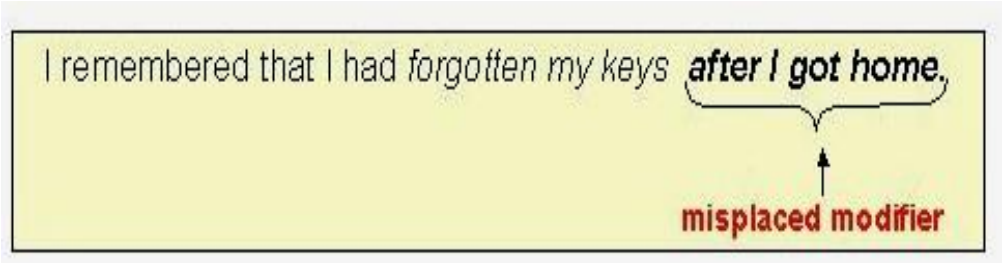
Example #1



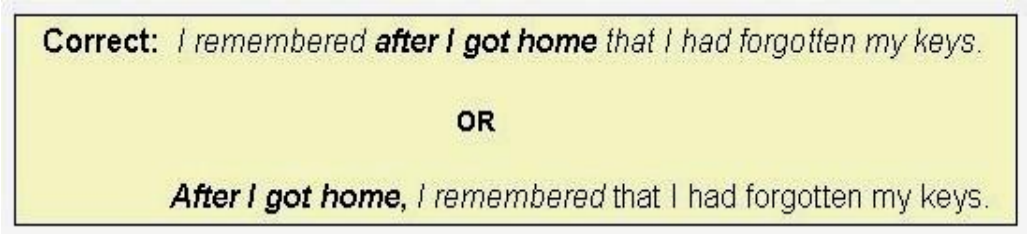
As written, this sentence means that the **store** was broken.

Correctly written, the sentence means that the **toy** was broken.

Example #2



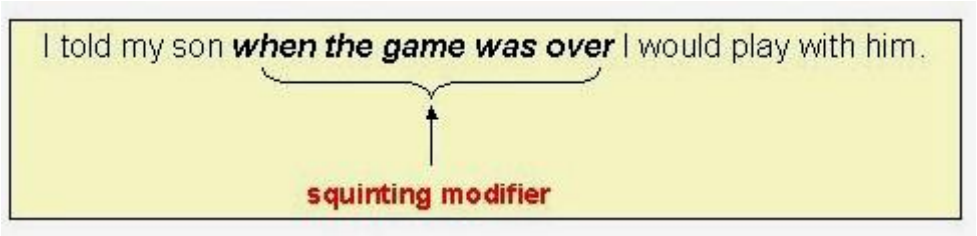
As written, the sentence means that I **forgot** my keys after I got home.



Squinting modifiers:

A squinting modifier is a modifier misplaced so that it may describe two situations.

Example



The sentence above is unclear.

Does it mean that ***I told my son when the game was over?***

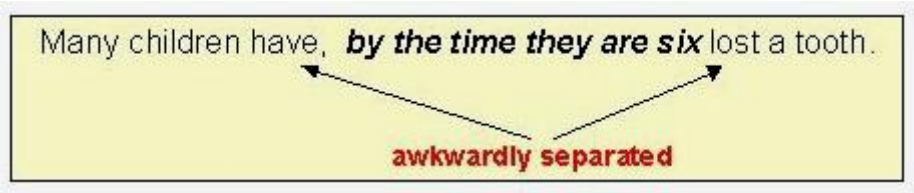
OR

Does it mean that ***I would play with him when the game was over?***

Awkward separations:

An awkward separation creates a confusing meaning.

Example



As written, this sentence separates the auxiliary verb from the main verb, creating an awkward gap.

Correct: *By the time they are six,* many children ***have lost*** a tooth.

OR

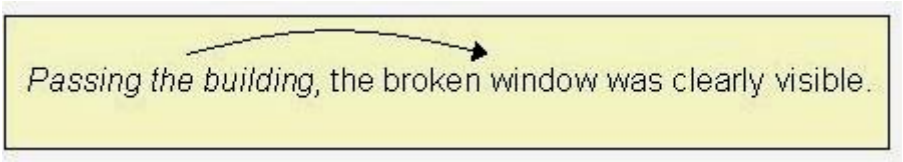
Many children ***have lost*** a tooth *by the time they are six.*

Dangling Modifier Errors:

A dangling modifier is "dangling" because its placement gives it nothing to modify. In many cases, the dangling modifier appears at the beginning of a sentence, although it can also come at the end. Sometimes the error occurs because the sentence fails to specify anything to which the modifier can refer. At other times the dangling modifier is placed next to the wrong noun or noun substitute: a noun that it does not modify.

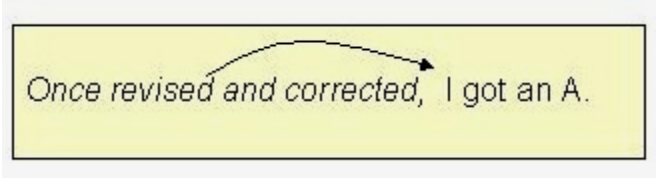
Dangling modifiers may appear in a variety of forms as follows:

Dangling participles:



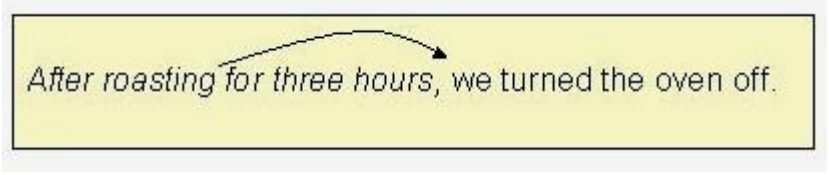
In this sentence, the modifier ***passing the building*** is positioned next to ***the broken window***.

The resulting meaning is that "the broken window" is "passing the building," clearly not the intended meaning.



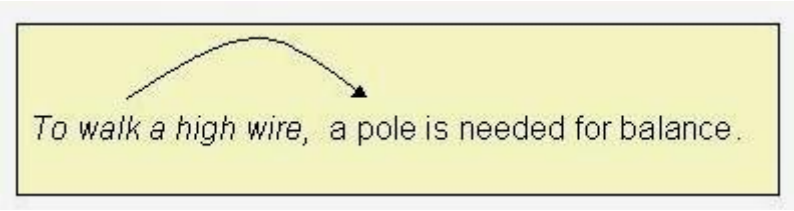
In this sentence, the modifier ***once revised and corrected*** is positioned next to ***I***, suggesting that "I" have been "revised and corrected."

Dangling gerund:



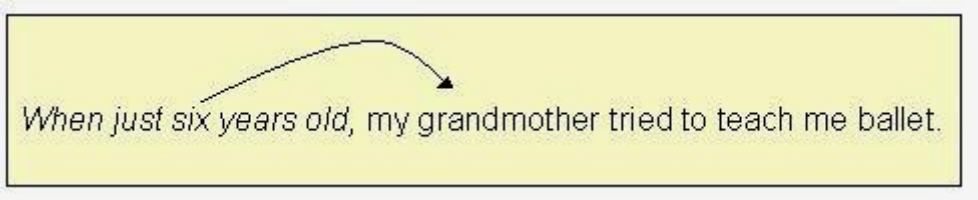
In this sentence, the modifier ***after roasting for three hours*** is positioned next to ***we***, meaning that "we" have been "roasting for three hours."

Dangling infinitive:



In this sentence, the modifier ***to walk a high wire*** is positioned next to ***a pole***. As a result, the sentence means that "a pole" can walk "a high wire."

Dangling elliptical clause:



In this sentence, the modifier ***when just six years old*** is positioned next to ***my grandmother***, suggesting that my six year old grandmother taught me ballet.

How to repair dangling modifiers – two options:

1. Create a word for the modifier to describe. Place it next to the modifier.

(Sometimes you will need to invent a subject.)

Dangling: *Once corrected and rewritten*, **I** got an A.
Revised: Once corrected and rewritten, **my paper** got an A.

With the modifier next to ***my paper***, the sentence clearly means that "my paper" was "corrected and rewritten."

Dangling: *To walk a high wire*, **a pole** is needed for balance.
Revised: *To walk a high wire*, **an acrobat** needs a pole for balance.

With the modifier next to ***an acrobat***, the sentence clearly means that "an acrobat" can "walk a high wire."

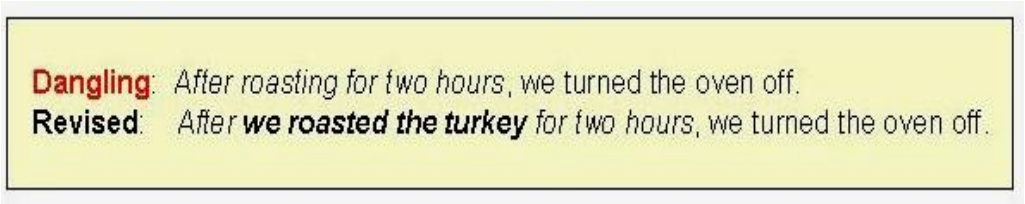
2. Rewrite the modifier (phrase) as an adverbial clause, thus eliminating the need for an immediate word to modify.

Dangling: *Once revised and corrected*, I got an A.
Revised: *Once* ***my paper was revised and corrected***, I got an A.

With its own subject, "was revised and corrected" clearly refers to "my paper."

Dangling: When just six years old, my grandmother tried to teach me ballet.
Revised: When **I was** just six years old, my grandmother tried to teach me ballet.

With its own subject, “was just six years old” clearly refers to “I.”

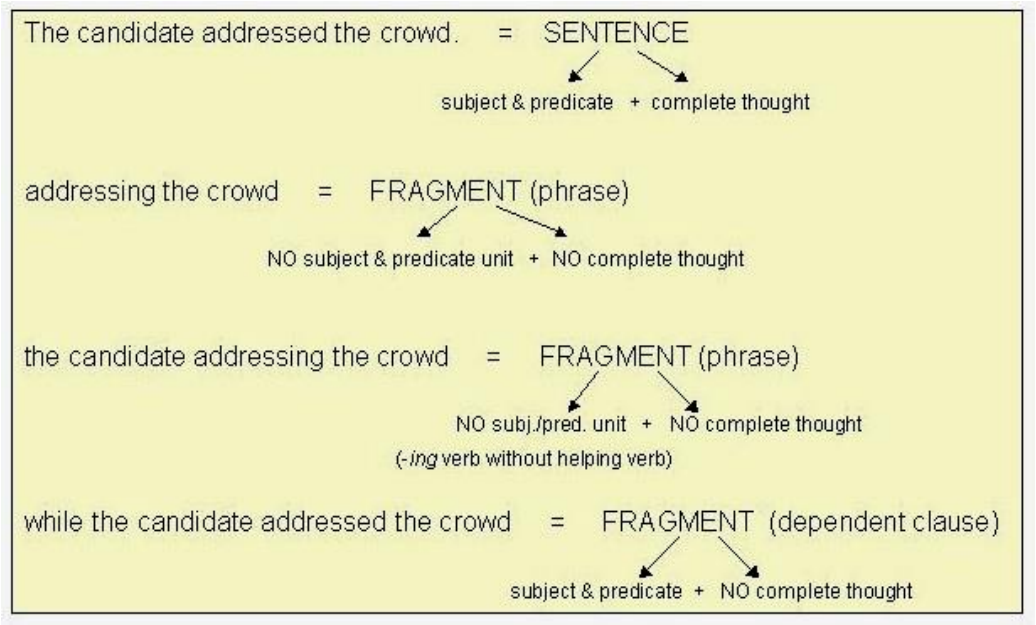


Now the clause clearly shows that “we” have “roasted the turkey.”

IV. AVOIDING FRAGMENTS

A complete ***sentence*** needs only two elements: **a subject - predicate unit** and **a complete thought**. In other words, a ***simple sentence*** is actually the SAME thing as an ***independent clause***.

Dependent clauses or **phrases** are called ***fragments*** because they are missing one or more parts needed to make a sentence. Therefore, they are only *pieces* or *fragments* of complete sentences. Look at these examples:



V. AVOIDING COMMA SPLICES AND FUSED SENTENCES

Sometimes *two* independent clauses (simple sentences) can be joined to form another kind of sentence: the **compound sentence**.

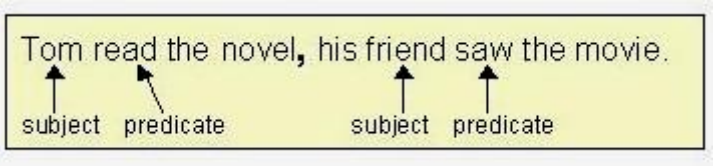
Two major ***errors*** can occur when constructing compound sentences.

Error #1: The Comma Splice

Writers make this error when they try to separate the two independent clauses in a compound sentence with a **comma alone**.

A comma is not a strong enough punctuation mark to separate the two independent clauses by itself; thus, using it causes the clauses to be ***spliced together***.

Example of a comma splice:

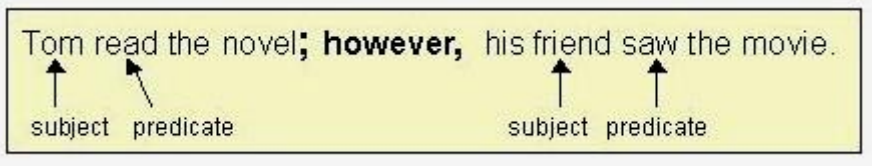


This sentence can be repaired in three ways:

1. by adding an appropriate ***coordinating conjunction***

2. by changing the comma to a ***semicolon***

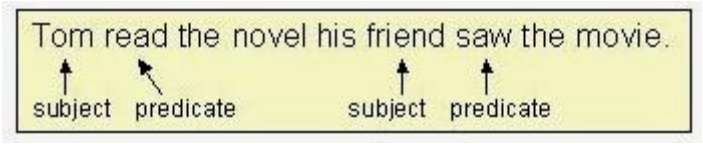
3. by changing the punctuation and adding an appropriate ***conjunctive adverb***



Error #2: The Fused Sentence

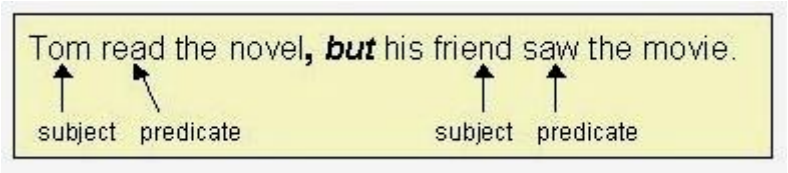
Writers make this error by joining two independent clauses into a compound sentence without using any punctuation between them.

No punctuation between the two independent clauses causes them to "***fuse***" into an INCORRECT compound sentence. Example of a fused sentence:



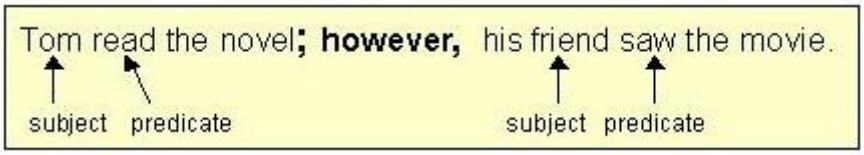
This sentence is also repaired in three ways:

1. by adding a comma and an appropriate ***coordinating conjunction***

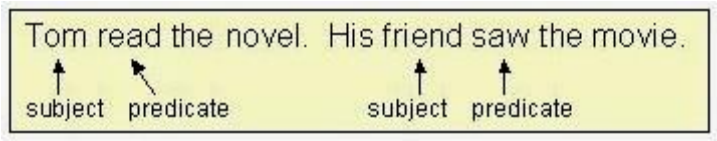


2. by placing a ***semicolon*** between the two clauses

3. by adding the needed punctuation and an appropriate ***conjunctive adverb***



Another way to repair a comma splice or fused sentence is to make ***each independent clause*** into a ***simple sentence***.

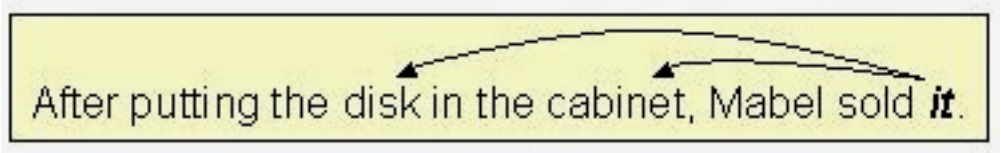


VI. PRONOUN REFERENCE

A **pronoun** is a word used to stand for (or take the place of) a **noun**. A pronoun should refer clearly to one, clear, unmistakable **noun** coming before the pronoun. This noun is called the pronoun's **antecedent**.

Unfortunately, it is very easy to create a sentence that uses a pronoun WITHOUT a clear, unmistakable noun antecedent.

Example:

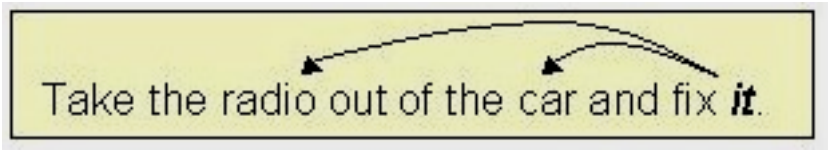


The pronoun ***it*** does not have a clear noun antecedent. As a result, the reader cannot know for sure whether Mabel sold the **disk** or the **cabinet**. The pronoun reference is faulty here because the pronoun ***it*** has two antecedents. Such errors, called ***FAULTY*** or ***VAGUE*** **PRONOUN REFERENCE**, can confuse readers and obscure the intended meaning. There are **three** major pronoun reference errors.

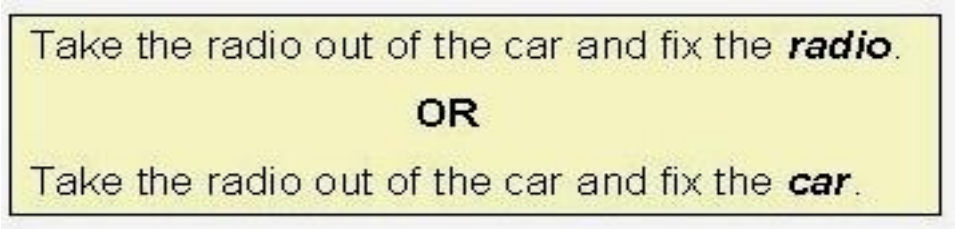
Error #1: TOO MANY ANTECEDENTS

A pronoun should have only one antecedent. That antecedent should be *clear* and *unmistakable*.

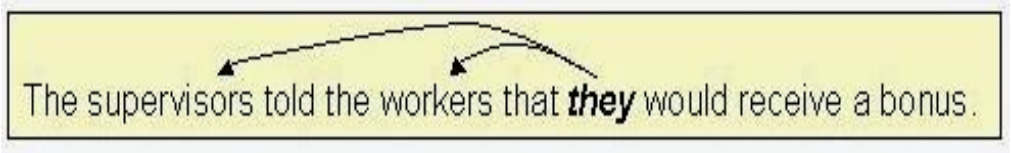
Look at this sentence:



Anyone who reads this sentence would not know which item was to be fixed. Does ***it*** refer to the **radio** or the **car**? The answer is unclear. In the above example, faulty pronoun reference occurs because the pronoun ***it*** has two possible noun antecedents. **To fix the sentence**, substitute a **noun** for the pronoun.



Here is another example of faulty pronoun reference caused by more than one noun antecedent:



The pronoun reference is unclear: Who will get the bonus - the **supervisors** or the **workers**? ***They*** could refer to either group. In

this example, the best way to fix the pronoun reference problem is to **rephrase** the sentence.

Revision #1 (gives the bonus to the **workers**)

The supervisors complimented the workers on receiving a bonus.

Revision #2 (gives the bonus to the **workers**)

The supervisors told the workers to expect a bonus.

Revision #3 (gives the bonus to the **supervisors**)

The supervisors told the workers that they ***themselves*** were expecting a bonus.

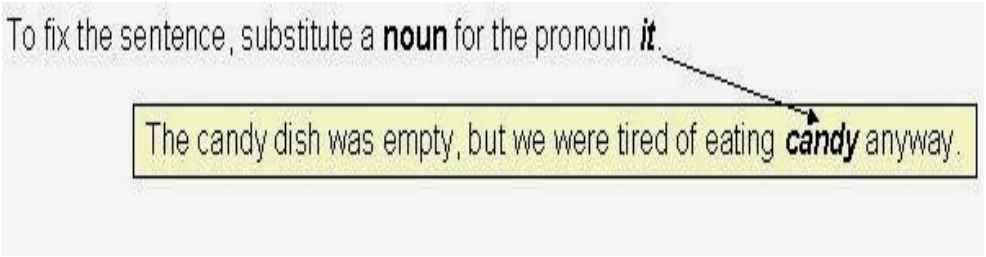
Error #2: HIDDEN ANTECEDENTS

Faulty pronoun reference errors also occur when the pronoun's antecedent functions as an ***adjective*** rather than a noun. In such cases, the true antecedent is "hidden" or obscured from the reader because it has been subordinated to another noun.

Example:

The candy dish was empty, but we were tired of eating ***it*** anyway.

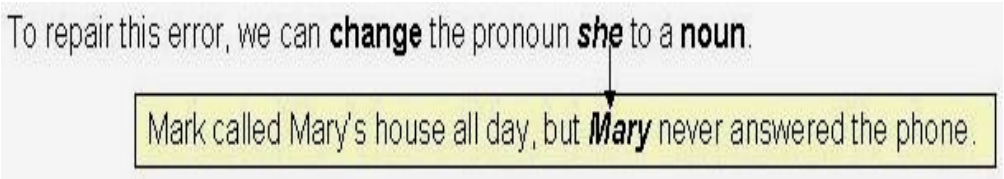
The reader of this sentence might think that the **dish** was being eaten because ***dish*** appears to be the antecedent for the pronoun ***it***. Obviously, people do not eat dishes. What this writer means to say is, "*We were tired of eating* ***candy***." However, ***candy*** cannot be the antecedent for ***it*** because ***candy***, situated in front of the noun ***dish***, is acting like an adjective. Only nouns can be antecedents.



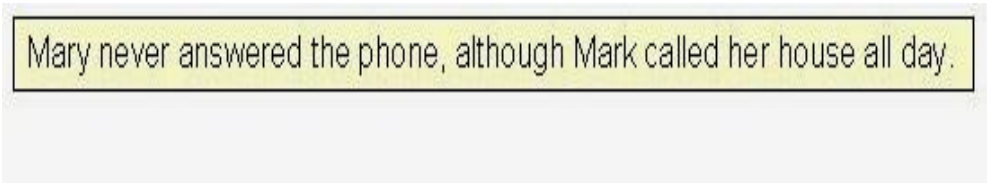
Here is another example of faulty pronoun reference caused by a hidden antecedent:

Mark called Mary's house all day, but ***she*** never answered the phone.

Obviously, ***she*** refers to ***Mary*** since a *house* would NOT be able to answer a phone. However, *Mary's* modifies *house* - *Mary's* is a **hidden antecedent** and, thus, is not clear.



Still another way to repair this error is to **rephrase** the sentence.

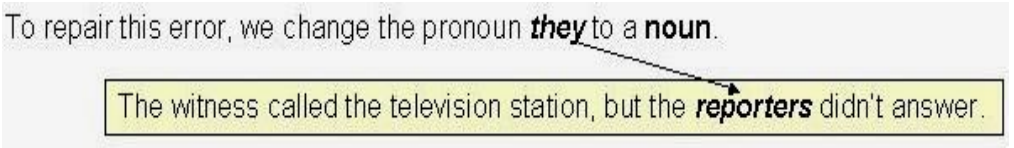


Error #3: NO ANTECEDENT AT ALL

Another kind of faulty/vague pronoun reference problem occurs when writers use a pronoun without giving the pronoun any antecedent at all.

Example:

In this example, the pronoun ***they*** has NO noun antecedent to which it can refer.

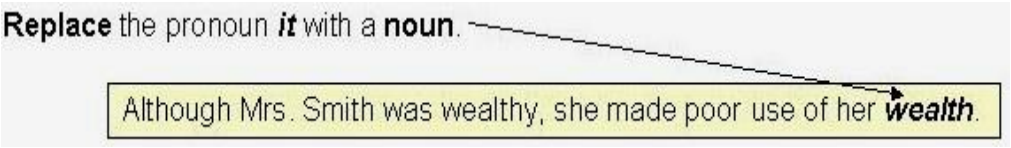


Here is another example of a pronoun without any antecedent at all.

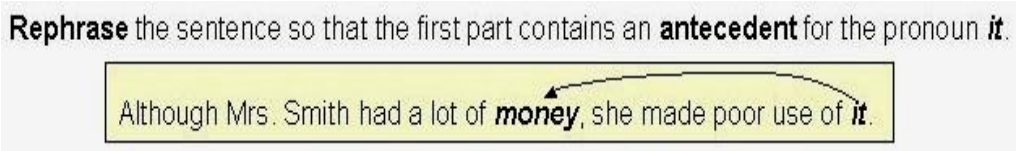
Although Mrs. Smith was wealthy, she made poor use of ***it***.

In this example, the pronoun ***it*** has no antecedent to which it can refer. The reader knows that Mrs. Smith is "wealthy," but ***it*** cannot refer to ***wealthy*** because ***wealthy*** is not a noun.

There are at least two ways to repair this error.



With a noun (*wealth*) in the place of the pronoun (*it*), no antecedent is needed.



Now the pronoun ***it*** has a clear noun antecedent: ***money***.

Here is another example of a pronoun without any antecedent.

It says in the paper that the legislation was passed.

It, which appears at the very beginning of the sentence, has no noun antecedent at all. In addition, the construction ***It says in the paper*** is unnecessarily wordy. We can repair this error by writing a more DIRECT version of "It says in the paper."

Example:

The ***paper*** says that the legislation was passed.

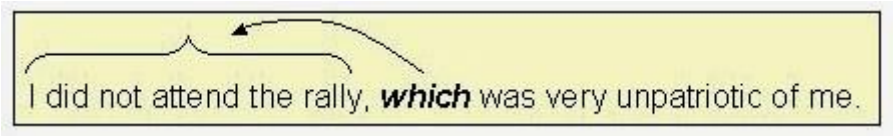
Another way to repair the "It says in the paper" error is to **rephrase** this part of the sentence.

Example:

According to the paper, the legislation was passed.

Both methods of repairing this faulty/vague pronoun error eliminate the pronoun and, thus, eliminate the need for an antecedent.

Below is another example which shows how this error in pronoun reference occurs when a pronoun is used to stand for (refer to) a whole ***group of words*** INSTEAD OF ***one clear noun*** antecedent.



The word ***which*** has no ***single, clear*** antecedent. Instead, it refers to the entire clause - "I did not attend the rally." However, a pronoun must always refer to a ***single, clear, unmistakable*** NOUN ANTECEDENT.

We can repair this error in at least two ways.

1. **Replace** the pronoun ***which*** with a **noun**.

2. **Rephrase** the sentence to eliminate the pronoun.

By not attending the rally, I was unpatriotic.
OR
Because I did not attend the rally, I was very unpatriotic.
OR
My not attending the rally was very unpatriotic.
OR
Not attending the rally was very unpatriotic of me.

Here is another example of faulty pronoun reference where a pronoun is asked to refer to a whole group of words instead of a clear, single noun antecedent.

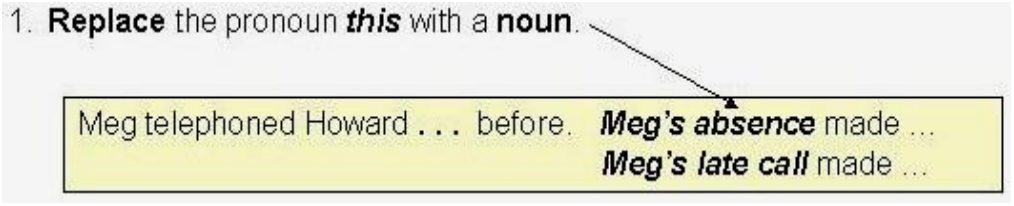
Meg telephoned Howard yesterday to explain why she had not attended the meeting the day before. ***This*** made Howard angry.

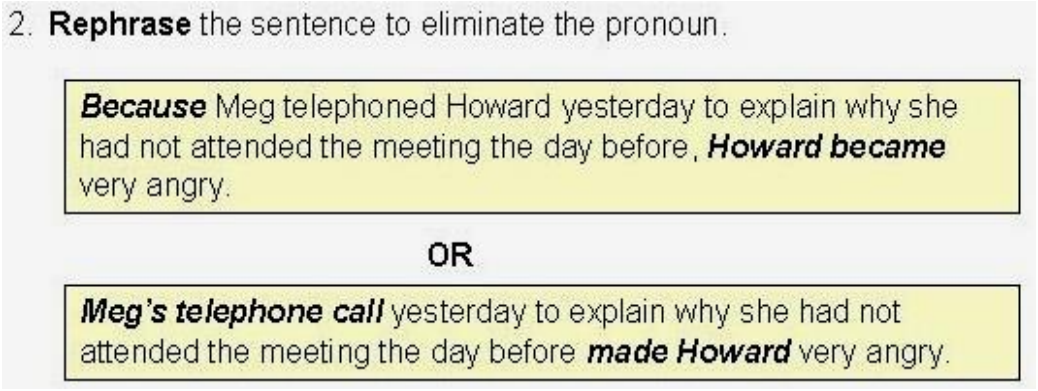
The problem here is ***This***. Its antecedent is the **entire preceding sentence**. The reader cannot be sure whether Howard is very angry because:

1. Meg ***telephoned***,

2. Meg telephoned ***yesterday***, or
3. Meg had ***not attended the meeting the day before***.

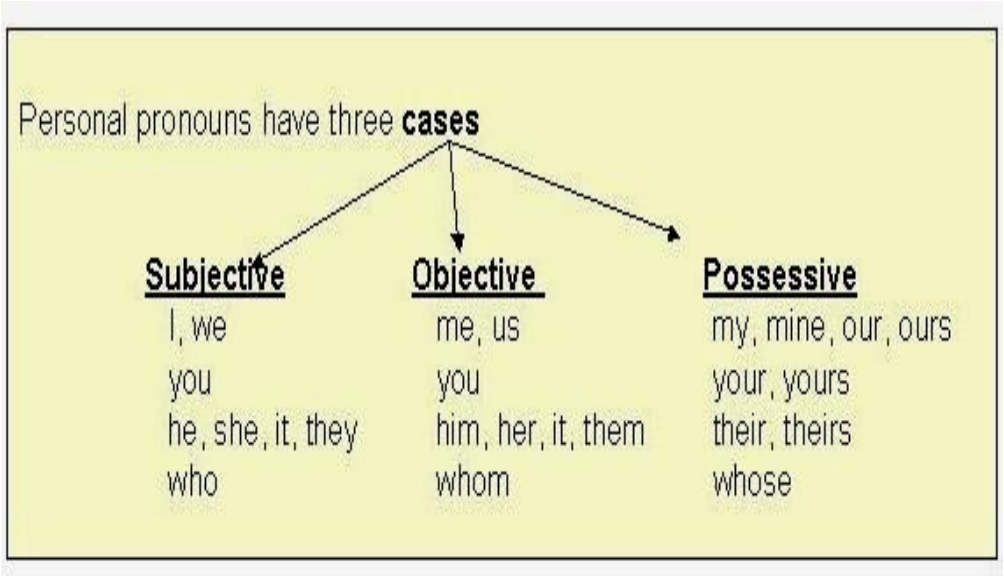
There are at least two ways to repair this error and create a clear antecedent for ***this***:





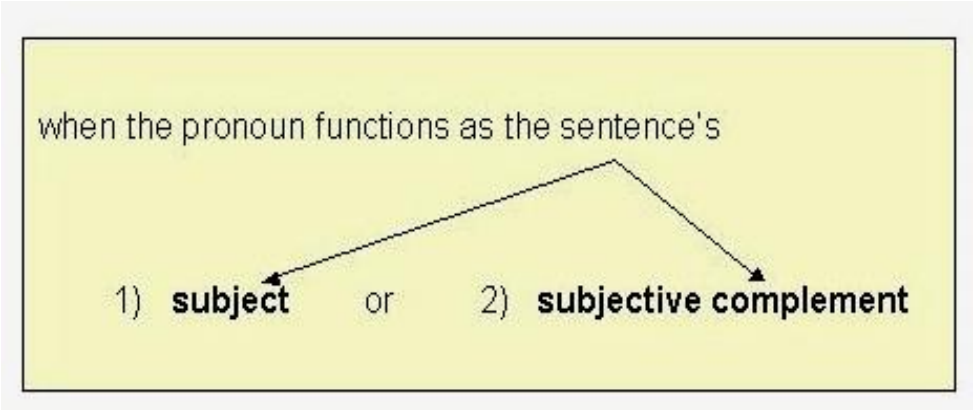
**** Watch out for "this" and "which" pronouns. Often they are used incorrectly and create faulty or vague pronoun reference problems. ****

VII. PRONOUN CASE

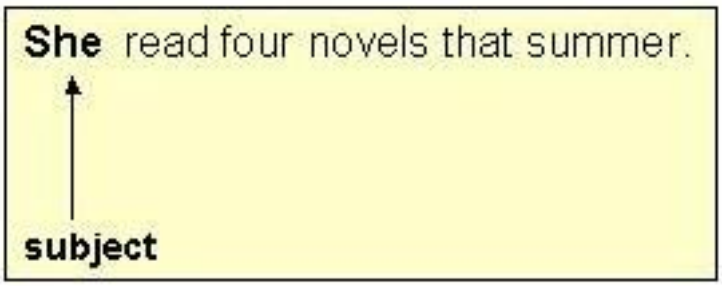


The pronoun's function in a sentence determines which case to use.

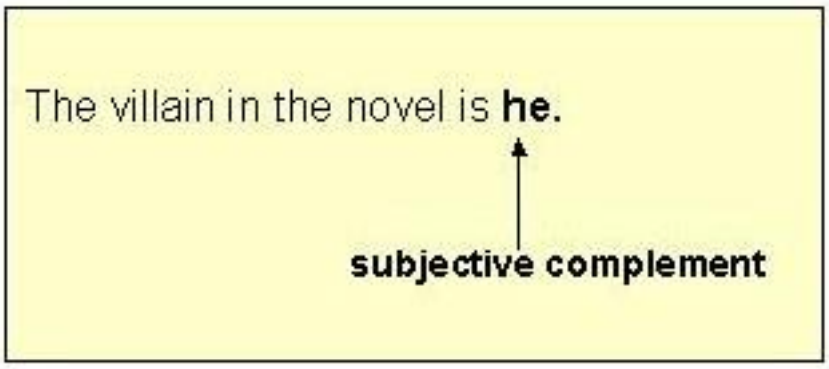
RULE: Use a **subjective case pronoun**



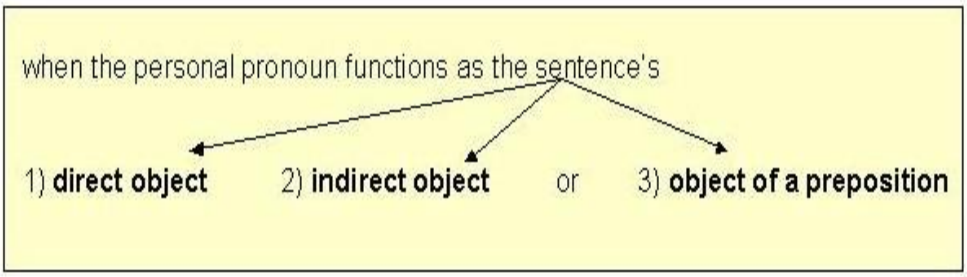
1) Personal pronoun subject



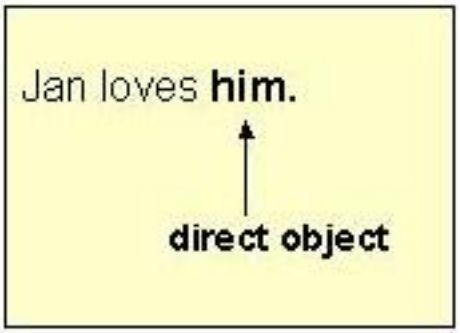
2) Personal pronoun subjective complement ("completes" the subject)



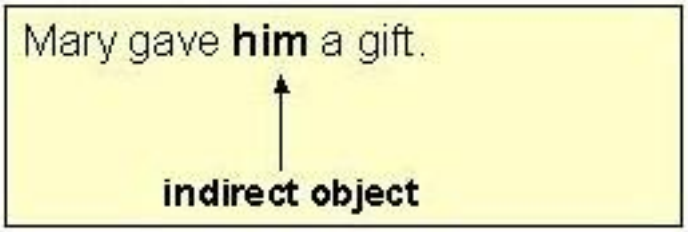
RULE: Use an **objective case pronoun**



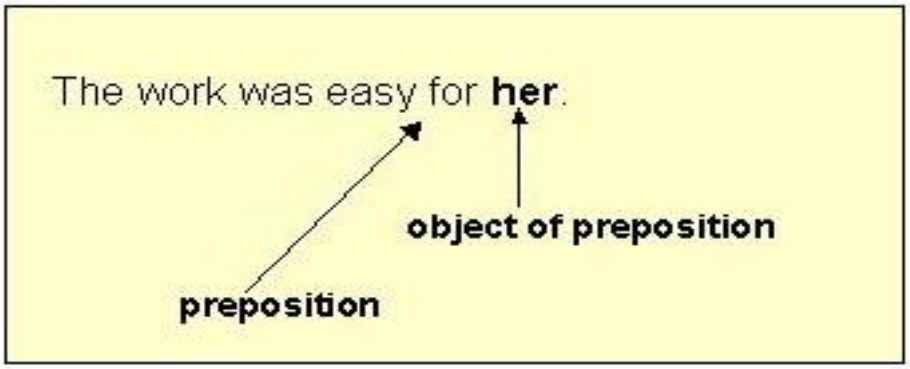
1) Personal pronoun direct object



2) Personal pronoun indirect object

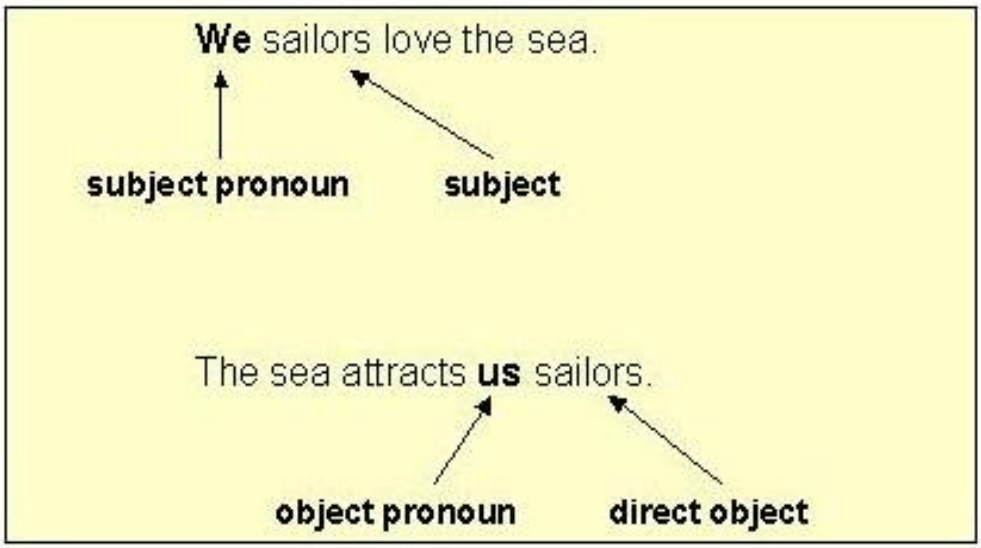


3) Personal pronoun object of preposition

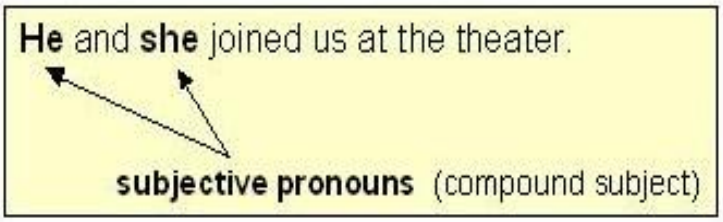


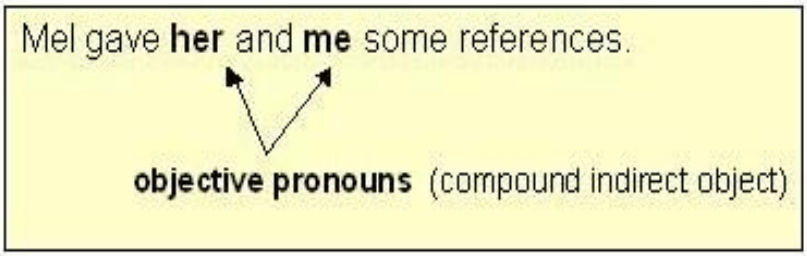
Additional pronoun case rules:

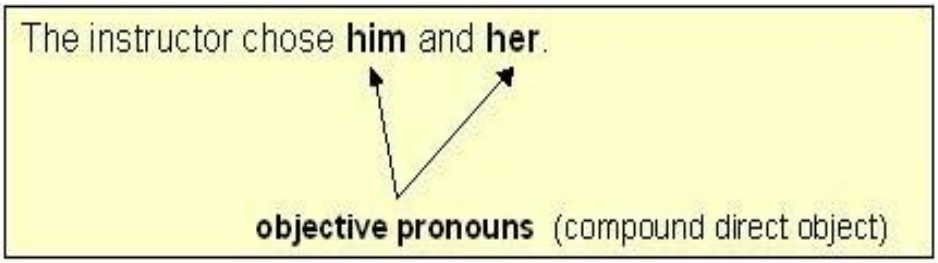
1. When a pronoun is used *along with* a noun, choose the pronoun case that matches the noun's function.



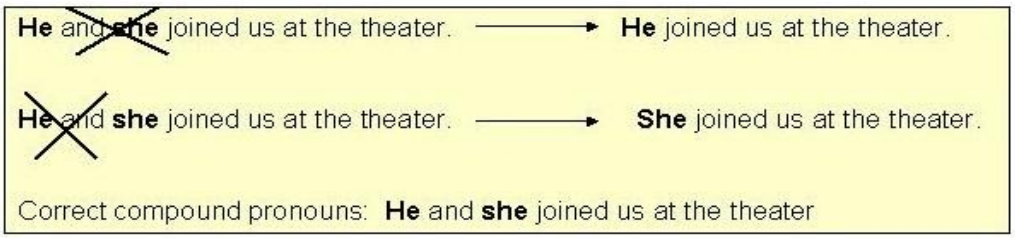
2. When a pronoun is part of a compound element, choose the pronoun case that would be correct if the pronoun were not part of a compound element.



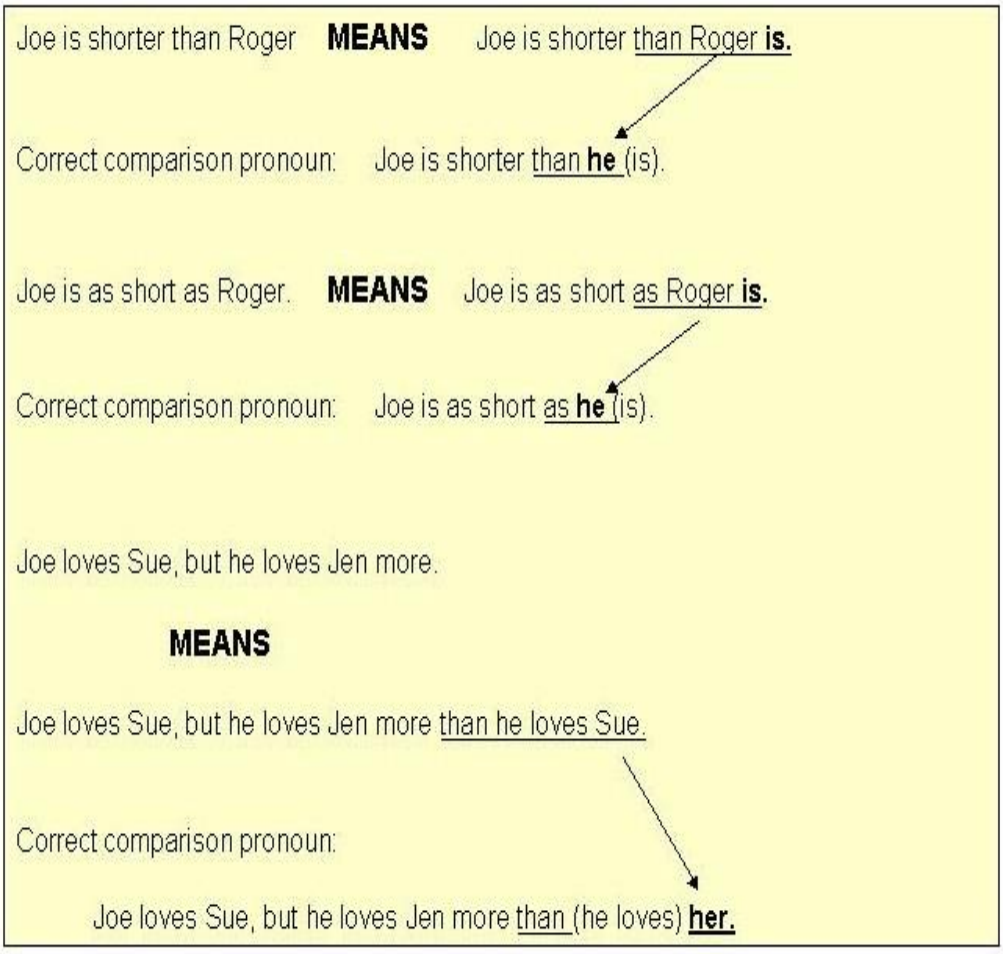




NOTE: To make certain that pronoun case is correct in compound elements; omit one half of the compound to check each pronoun.

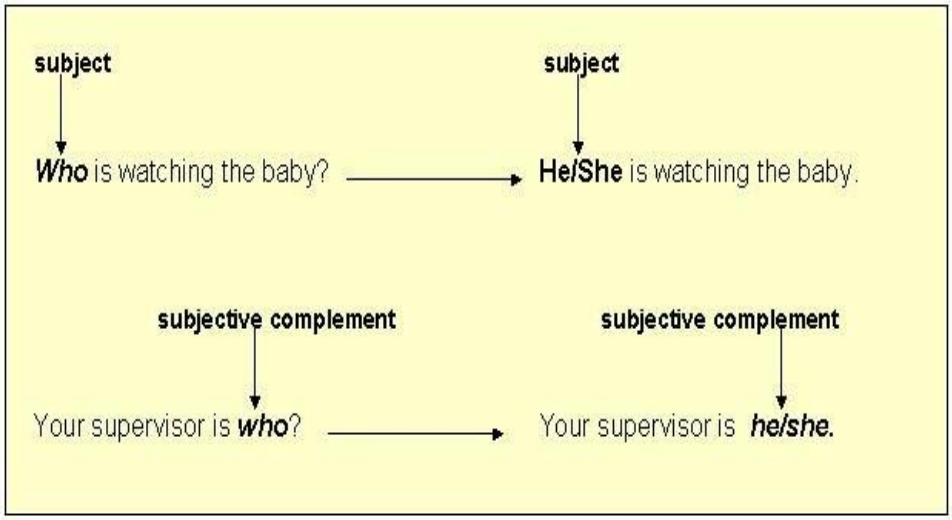


3. When a personal pronoun is used in a comparison, choose the correct pronoun case by carrying the sentence out to its logical conclusion.

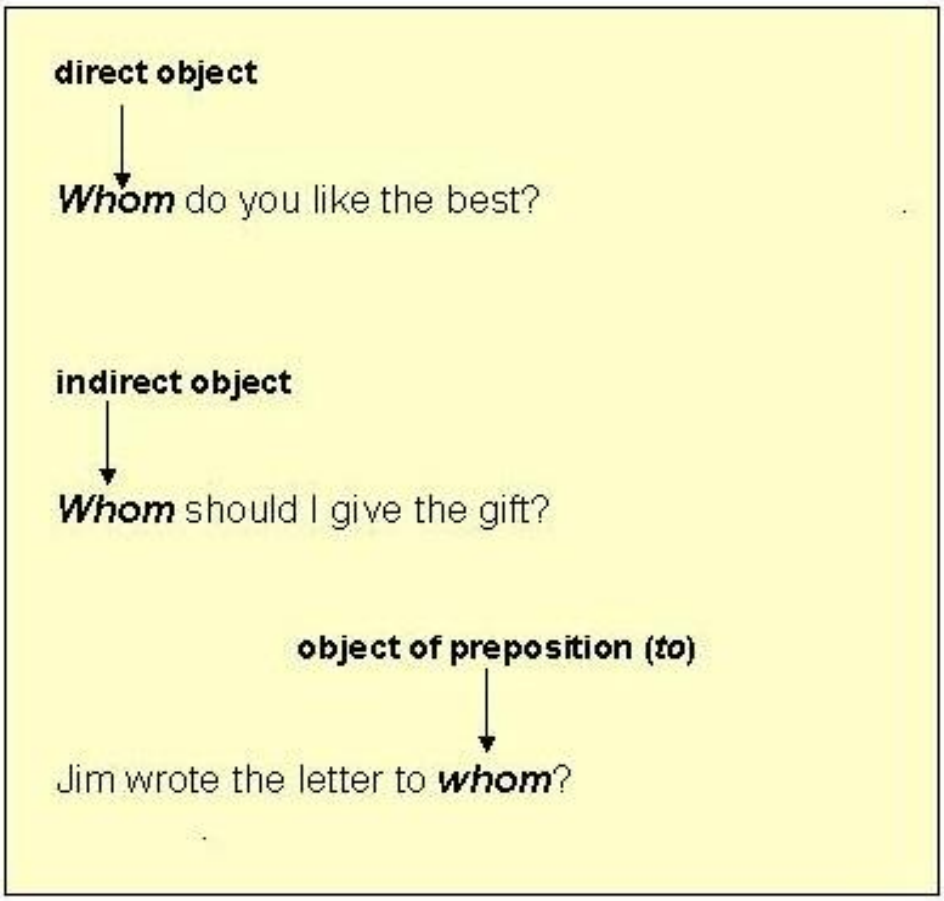


4. Choose ***who*** or ***whom*** depending upon the function of the pronoun in the sentence. ***Who*** is subjective case like the pronouns *he, she, they, I,* and *we*. Use ***who*** as the subject or subjective complement of a sentence.

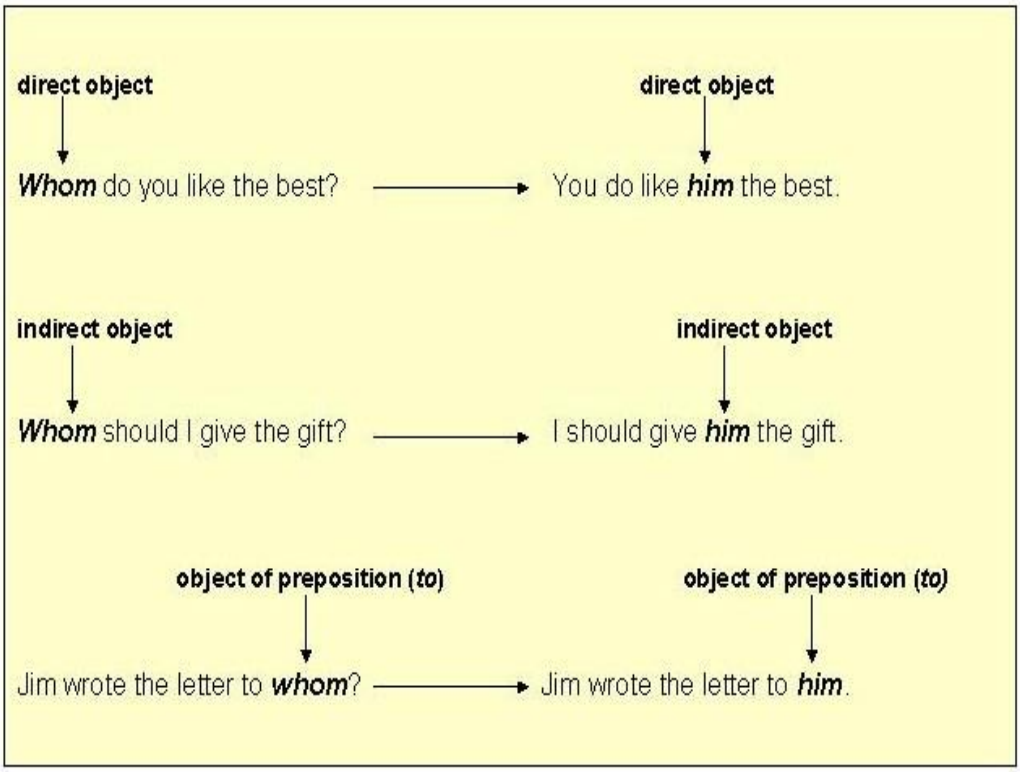
Helpful tip: To see whether ***who*** is the correct choice, substitute ***he*** for ***who.*** If the sentence sounds correct, then ***who*** is the correct choice.



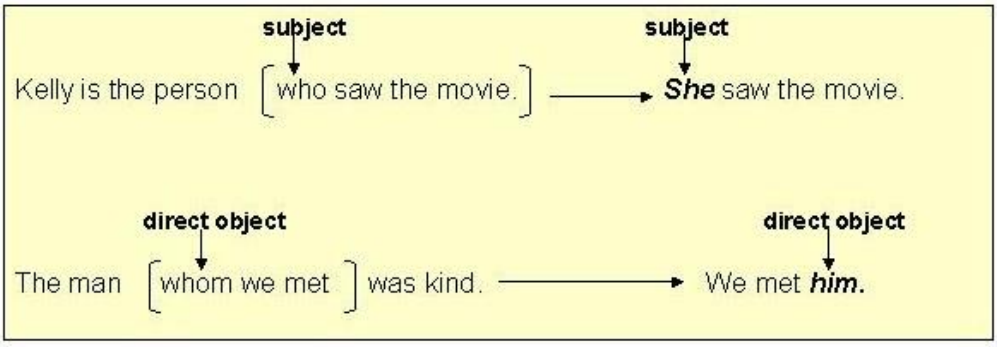
Whom is objective case like the pronouns *him*, *her*, *them*, *me*, and *us*. Use ***whom*** as the direct object, indirect object, or object of a preposition in a sentence.



Helpful tip: To see whether ***whom*** is the correct choice, substitute ***him*** for ***whom.*** If the sentence sounds correct, then ***whom*** is the correct choice.

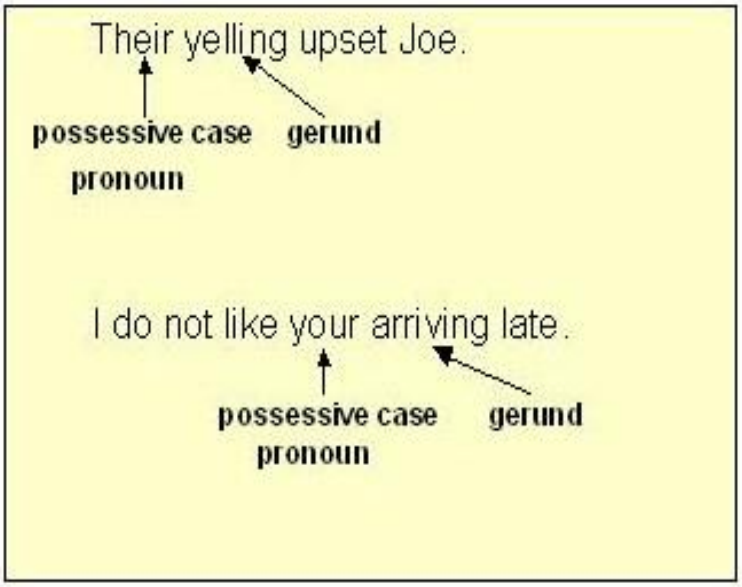


NOTE: In an adjectival subordinate clause, choose ***who*** or ***whom*** by determining the pronoun's function within the subordinate clause.



5. Use possessive case pronouns with **gerunds.**

Reminder: A gerund is a verb form ending in ***-ing***, used as a noun.



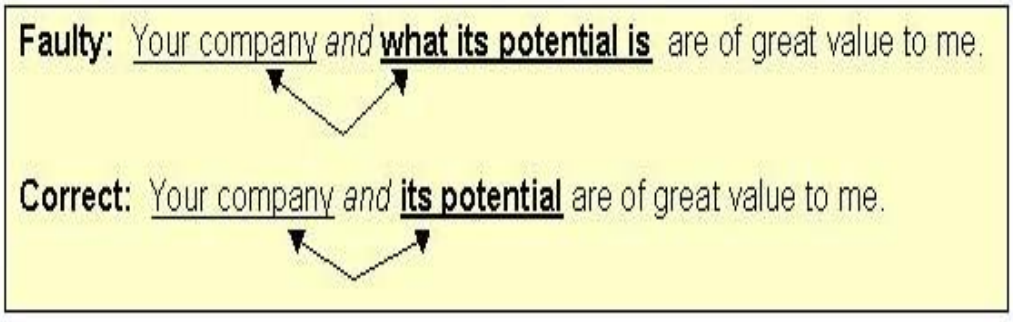
VIII. PARALLEL STRUCTURE

The term **parallel structures** simply refers to **similar grammatical forms**. The forms can be words, phrases, clauses, or even sentences. **Coordinating conjunctions** (cc) always link parallel structures. The coordinating conjunctions are **and, or, but** (which are always coordinating conjunctions), and **so, for, yet** (which can be coordinating conjunctions but are also used in other ways).

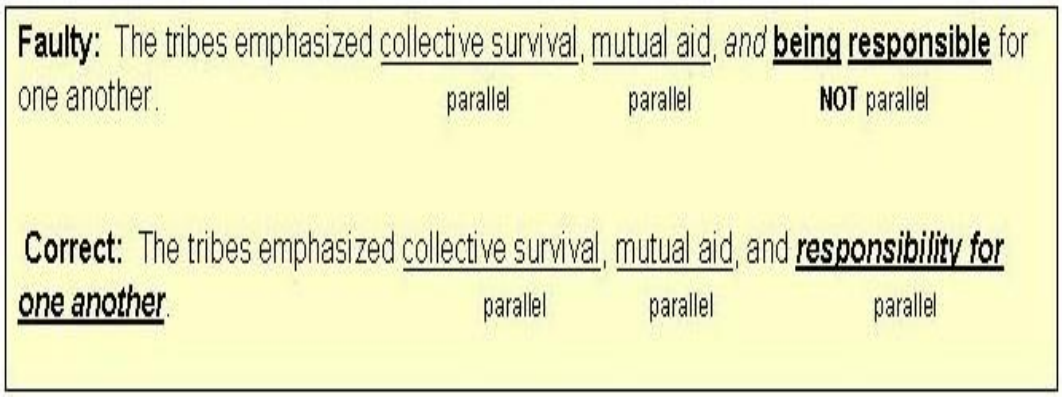
Sentence elements that are alike in function should also be alike in construction. These elements should be in the same grammatical form so that they are **parallel**.

Here are five parallelism rules.

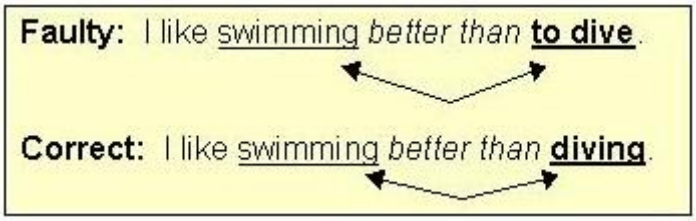
1. Use parallel structure with elements joined by coordinating conjunctions.



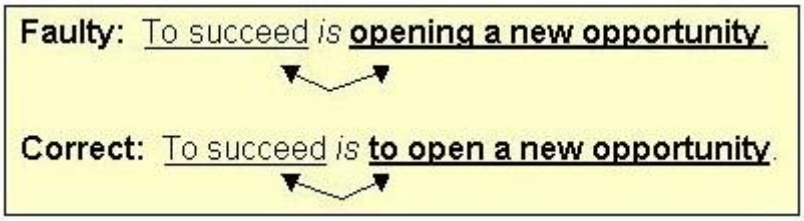
2. Use parallel structure with elements in lists or in a series.



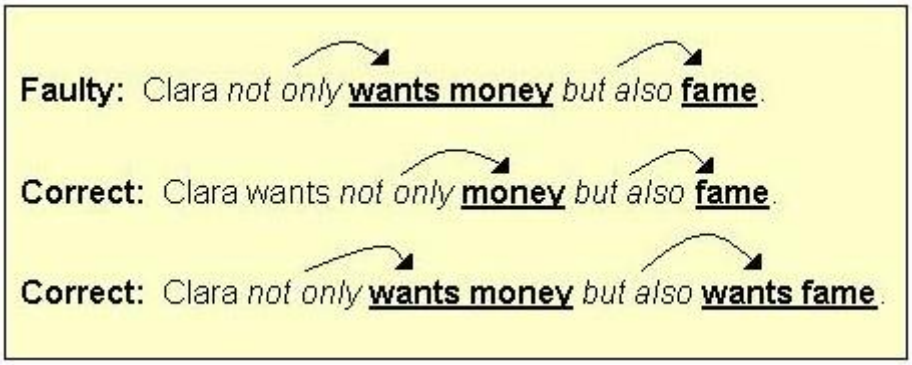
3. Use parallel structure with elements being compared. (**X** is *more than / better than* **Y**)



4. Use parallel structure with elements joined by a linking verb or a verb of being.



5. Use parallel structure with elements joined by a correlative conjunction.



Here are some examples of sentences containing parallel structures:

- Mary owns **a house** and **a car**. (nouns)
- Her house is **white**, **gray**, and **green**. (adjectives)
- She takes good care **of her house** and **of her car**. (prepositional phrases)
- **Her house is old**, but **her car is new**. (independent clauses)

Below are three rules (A, B, C) for **punctuating** parallel structures:

A. Two independent clauses can be separated by a period, a semicolon, or a comma and a coordinating conjunction:

1. He sings. She dances.

2. He sings; she dances.

3. He sings, and she dances.

The comma is *optional* if at least one of the clauses is very short (five words or less), so this is also correct:

- He sings and she dances.

Note that two independent clauses **cannot** be separated by a comma only or nothing.

4. * He sings, she dances. (not correct)

This error is called a **comma splice**, which is one kind of **run-on** sentence.

5. * He sings she dances. (not correct)

This error is called a **fused sentence**, which is another kind of **run-on** sentence.

B. Two of any parallel structures other than independent clauses are separated by a coordinating conjunction only:

- **Fred** and **George** want to see Mary. (nouns)
- Mary **got** in her car and **drove** away. (verbs)
- I don't know **where she is** or **when she will return**. (subordinate clauses)

A comma is rarely used between just *two* parallel structures. Only a coordinating conjunction is used between *two*

parallel structures (unless they are independent clauses as in A. above).

Exception: a comma is sometimes used between two adjectives which precede a noun. For example:

- It is a **dark, ugly** room.

C. Three or more of any parallel structures, including independent clauses, are separated by commas and one coordinating conjunction before the last item:

1. xxxx, yyyy, cc **zzzz**

2. wwww, xxxx, yyyy, cc **zzzz**

3. vvvv, wwww, xxxx, yyyy, cc **zzzz**

4. uuuu, vvvv, wwww, xxxx, yyyy, cc **zzzz**

Note that, when there are three or more parallel structures, a coordinating conjunction (cc) comes before the last item. Also note that the *final* comma (the one before the conjunction) is *optional*.

The parallel structures can be anything: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositional phrases, subjects, predicates, subordinate clauses, independent clauses,...

Here are some examples of **C.1.** above (3 parallel structures):

- **He sings, she dances,** and **everybody claps.** (independent clauses)
- He **won the lottery, quit his job,** and **bought presents for all his friends.** (predicates)
- He bought **a car, a motorcycle,** and **a computer.** (nouns)
- The motorcycle is **red, white,** and **blue.** (adjectives)
- Everybody wants **to meet him, to talk to him,** and **to get some money from him.** (infinitive phrases)

REVISION

I. Choose the correct verb in each sentence below.

- Emily and Greg (comes – come) to my house every Friday for lunch.
- There (is – are) time to watch the movie.
- My friends who are in the band (wants – want) me to play a musical instrument.
- My father or my brothers (is – are) coming with me to the ball game.
- Everyone (needs – need) time to relax.
- That bag of oranges (looks – look) fresh.
- The lacrosse team (hopes – hope) to win the tournament next week.
- Your trousers (needs – need) to be cleaned.
- Some of the books on the shelf (is – are) dusty.
- Even though the students like the class, a few (thinks – think) that it is too complicated.
- Mumps (is, are) not common among adults.
- Viruses from third world countries (is – are) a major concern.
- Most of the sand (is – are) wet from the high tide.
- Either the two kittens or the puppy (sits – sit) in my lap while I watch television.

- A subject of great interest (is – are) rainforests.
- *Hansel and Gretel* (is – are) a famous children's story.
- The team members (is – are) arguing over the defense tactics.
- The economics of the trip (was – were) pleasing.
- Why (is – are) your parents going to Africa for a vacation?
- The mayor and the governor (hopes – hope) that the bill will soon become a law.

II. Choose the correct pronoun in each sentence below:

1. We watched the cat and mouse as (it – they) scurried around the corner.
2. Unfortunately, the committee hasn't started (its – their) search for a new president.
3. Neither of the children will do (his or her – their) work.
4. Captain Parker or his men were rescued on (his – their) fourth day at sea.
5. All of the workers feel that (he or she – they) deserve the union's support.
6. Every cat, dog, and rabbit had received (its – their) vaccine.
7. A number of people had lost (his or her – their) luggage on the flight.
8. The United Nations developed (its – their) Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948.
9. After the game, the team members talked about (his or her – their) individual playing problems.
10. Many people saw the show, but only a few reported (his or her – their) reactions to it.
11. Five of (we – us) took a cab to the play**.**
12. Are you and (they – them) attending the meeting**?**
13. Margaret and (I – me) hope to be roommates**.**
14. We discovered that it was (they – them) who started the fire**.**

15. (Who – Whom) can I go out with tonight?

III. Rewrite each sentence to correct the faulty pronoun reference:

1. When Joshua put the stapler on the chair, it fell.
2. They said on the news that the storm is heading towards the region.
3. I have always wanted to work in a pet store, and last month I did it
4. It says on the bottle to take two tablets with meals.
5. Tom has recently divorced his wife, which makes him depressed.
6. Jane's telephone rang seventeen times, but she didn't answer.
7. The heiress lived a life of luxury. This did not make her happy.
8. Take the cupcakes from the children and eat them.
9. In Hemingway's novels, he uses simple words and sentences.
10. In the book it says that the war was won after a long, bloody battle.
11. The researcher collected stories from the survivors and then put them into a book.

12. Mary was a volunteer in the campaign, which made her very happy.
13. He unpacked the dishes from the boxes and wrote on them.
14. In today's newspaper it says that there were no new cases of the disease.
15. I was late for the meeting, which embarrassed me.
16. He decided to quit his job but later regretted it.
17. I used to exercise for two hours each day. This was obsessive of me.
18. On the label it warns of possible complications from an overdose.
19. The employee's supervisor gave him an excellent rating.
20. I dropped my drink into my lap. All of my friends laughed at that.

IV. Rewrite each sentence, moving the misplaced modifier to its correct position:

1. No one can shoot anything on this property except the owner.
2. He sat very quietly, rolling his eyes in his chair.
3. The book was missing from the library that we needed to finish our research.

4. The robber was a tall man with a mustache weighing 160 pounds.
5. We watched the newscast with anxious eyes.
6. You will only need to plant one row of corn.
7. She had a meal in a restaurant that was low in price.
8. I gave the woman an umbrella who was interviewing for the job.
9. He promised never to remarry at her deathbed.
10. I nearly waited two hours for the bus.
11. Making only minimum wage, I nearly earned $2,000 last summer.
12. The bus station was located by a river which was made of red brick.
13. A fish was found in the Pacific Ocean that had been considered extinct.
14. The cowboy was thrown by the bull in a leather vest.
15. Sam asked me to go for a ride on the telephone.
16. She was making a sweater for her lover that was warm.
17. The results will only be known after all the votes have been counted.
18. The contractors needed all kinds of artists to paint the mural badly.

19. The opera singer was upstaged by the mime with the robust voice.
20. Left alone in the house, the thunderstorm terrified the two small children.

V. Rewrite the following sentences to repair any dangling modifiers:

1. Writing carefully, the essay was finished in time to hand in.
2. My flesh felt creepy after seeing a monster movie.
3. At the age of four, my grandmother taught me to knit.
4. To do well in college, good grades are essential.
5. Crowded in the car, the trip was uncomfortable.
6. While still a student, a job offer was received.
7. Driving over the hill, the ocean came into view.
8. Confused by complicated wording, the contract made no sense.
9. After clearing his throat, his voice sounded much better to me.
10. After walking for hours, the car looked wonderful.
11. While watching a classic film, commercials are irritating.
12. To please the children, some fireworks were set off early.

VI. Rewrite each sentence to fix all parallelism errors:

1. Tell me where you were, what you were doing, and your reasons for doing it.
2. Clark's daily exercises include running, swimming, and to lift weights.
3. To donate money to the homeless shelter is helping people stay warm in the winter.
4. We followed the path through the forest, over the hill, and we went across the river.
5. After the party, we want to either go to a movie or the diner.
6. She told Jake to take out the trash, to mow the lawn, and be listening for the phone call.
7. Marcie studied for the test by reviewing her class notes and she read her textbook.
8. It is easier to tell the truth than lying to people you love.
9. For her birthday, Marsha received a cake, some clothes, and she got a new CD player.
10. Jim wanted to scare us by telling us a ghost story and he showed us a horror movie.
11. The witness described the suspect as tall, light-skinned, and with a beard.
12. Spending the day with you is better than if we were apart.

13. An actor knows how to memorize his lines and getting into character.
14. The writer was brilliant but a recluse.
15. Tom taught his children the importance of knowledge, virtue, and working hard.

VII. Revise each comma splice or fused sentence into a correct compound sentence with a coordinating conjunction and appropriate punctuation.

1. In March, Harry was transferred to a new plant in Detroit, then he was laid off in June.
2. The CEO received a subscription to his favorite magazine, it arrived in the mail within two weeks.
3. The jury members deliberated for over two months, the judge has asked to meet with them today.
4. We will travel to Bermuda this summer, we will stay home.
5. The weather forecaster asked everyone to remain indoors, a storm was heading our way.
6. My sister has over two thousand old record albums, she has very little storage space left.
7. The sun is 93 million miles away it can still burn a person’s skin badly.

8. My mother was born in Madrid, I had very little trouble learning Spanish.
9. The new oil painting is very colorful, it will look good with our bright furnishings.
10. Many people believe in the curative powers of this water they have felt relief after bathing in it.

VIII. Use semicolons and/or commas to revise each comma splice or fused sentence into a correct compound sentence.

1. The sun is a star, however, the earth is a planet.
2. Most people taste their food first, they salt it later.
3. The shortstop dropped the ball the runner scored.
4. We saw a light in Tom's room, therefore, we knew he was home.
5. I'm planting a garden again this year, in fact, I'm adding two rows of peas.
6. The plane was one hour late, nevertheless, it arrived at its final destination on time.
7. The wedding took place in the chapel then the guests threw handfuls of rice.
8. Selfish people are rarely happy, on the other hand, happy people are rarely selfish.

9. I read the novel in one afternoon, it had a compelling plot.
10. Dr. Pratt attended a conference in Illinois, meanwhile, his patients saw his colleague.

IX. Rewrite the following sentences to repair any of the following errors: fragments, comma splices, subject-verb agreement, pronoun-antecedent agreement, pronoun case, faulty pronoun reference, apostrophe misuse, comma misuse, dangling modifiers, misplaced modifiers, or non-parallel structure.

1. Marianne hit the ball hard, nobody could catch it.
2. A collection of new songs arrive in the mail every day.
3. My friends are more likely than me to get the answer right.
4. Distracted by the lights, the oncoming car was not seen by Mel.
5. One of the girls lost their surfboard in the undertow.
6. After Joe paid Bill, he seemed happier.
7. The musicians nearly earned $400 for the evening's work.
8. The camp offered it's program to children of all ages.
9. Yoga often helps people lose weight, increase flexibility, and it reduces stress.
10. Ruling is easy; to govern is difficult.

11. Anyone, who enjoys seafood, will like the food at Bill’s Eatery.
12. My mother who is from Chicago speaks very clearly.
13. A friend gave me a ride to the mall, otherwise, I wouldn’t have gone.
14. The action of the coaches look suspicious.
15. A person who saves wisely rarely finds themselves in debt.

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