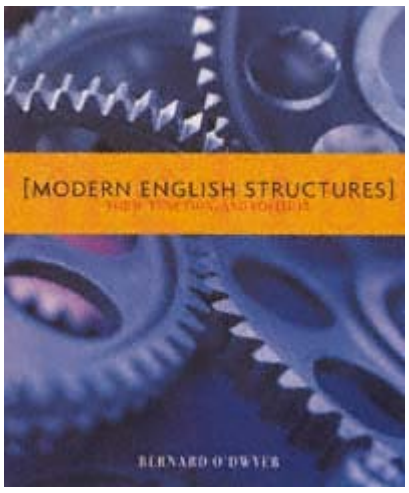

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Modern English Structures

Form, Function, and Position

Bernard T. O'Dwyer

< previous page page_3 next page >

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

PREFACE

Modern English Structures began as a compilation of notes, supplementing a number of grammar texts that I had used in an introductory grammar course. As these texts went out of print, I began using my own manuscript as the basis for my course. Encouraged by good results and constructive comments from my students, the manuscript has undergone several revisions to improve its clarity of presentation and discussion. From the revisions evolved a book of exercises, parallelling each of the text chapters, to put theory into practice. Ultimately, the grammar text has taken on its present format.

Current grammar books illustrate that there are varied approaches for analyzing modern English grammar. Some grammarians follow a holistic approach, breaking down larger structures, paragraphs, into sentences, sentences into clauses, clauses into phrases, and phrases into words. Others follow a serialist approach, starting with words, moving up to phrases, then to clauses, finally building sentence structures. Both approaches are accepted as valid; *Modern English Structures,* however, follows the latter one.

Modern English Structures follows a three-part structure of grammatical analysis of sentence constituents, by focussing on their grammatical forms *(what it is)*, grammatical functions *(what it does)*, and grammatical positions *(where it goes).* Form structures are affixes, words, phrases, and clauses that express grammatical meaning; they are the first and simplest mode of classification. Functions are the grammatical relationships constituents have with one another within sentences, and position marks constituents within sentences based on their form and function. All constituents make up sentencesour largest syntactic structure.

My objective is to bring students to a better understanding of sentence constituents and sentence structures, providing them with appropriate terminology to discuss these relationships. I realize that there is a great deal of structural analysis to be learned beyond the grammatical structures presented here, but that is beyond the scope of a basic course in English grammar. It differs from other grammars currently on the market in the ways that the analysis is structured, and by moving beyond form and function to position.

Now that I have stated what *Modern English Structures* is, let me say what it is not. This is not a linguistics text, and therefore I do not attempt to analyze modern English grammar from a linguistic perspective of phonology, morphosyntax, and semantics. Yes, there are times when I overlap with linguistic analysis

and terminology (especially in the first chapter on morphemes), but I operate from the premise that students using this book have no training in linguistics.

To illustrate the language, I have chosen examples from over forty different authors using some six thousand pages of text. My reason for using literary authors is to introduce students to the various styles of written English. Structure plus style is really the basis of understanding language in use. Wherever possible I have taken complete sentences from these authors; but at times and because of focus I have taken only part of the sentence. For example, where an author may have used a compound sentence, I may have taken only the first part of the structure, up to and excluding the coordinating conjunction. No structure has been interfered with to create a *contrived example* other than those which have been clearly identified.

There is never a more humbling experience than taking a text manuscript on a trial run before your students, especially when you ask for their comments, and comments they gave. All the more humble for the experience and thankful for the corrections and improvements, I acknowledge my students for their suggestions which, I believe, brought about many improvements to this text.

I thank my colleagues: Dr. Vit Bubenik, for his suggestions on the morpheme chapter and Dr. Ann Furlong for checking the accuracy of my examples. Mr. Ed Martin and Mr. Jason Roberts, students of mine, deserve particular thanks for their close reading of the text manuscript and the book of exercises respectively.

No textbook should ever go to press without first going through the scrutiny of a copy editor. I am very grateful to have had Martin Boyne, Trent University, assigned to *Modern English Structures.* His keen eye, critical observations, and constructive comments have enhanced my textbook considerably. Martin, I thank you for your tremendous help.

I acknowledge especially my dear mother, to whom I dedicate this book, for her patience and understanding in our household as I stole hours from weekends and holidays to bring *Modern English Structures* to its completion. To all of you, I express my deepest gratitude.

BERNARD T. O'DWYER, PH.D.
ST. JOHN'S, NEWFOUNDLAND

ABBREVIATIONS

Agr	agreement	Ph	phrase
Aj	adjective	Pl	plural
App	appositive	p-n	predicate noun
Av	adverb	PP	participle
C	complement	Pp	present participle
Cj	conjunction	Pr	pronoun
Cl	dependent clause	Prp	preposition
Cn	connector	Prp-ph	prepositional phrase
Cp	comparative	Ps	possessive
Do	direct object	Pt	past tense
Ex	example	Ptp	past participle
Fm	feminine	S	sentence that is independent
G	Greek	SC	subjective complement
Gm	German	Sg	singular
Gr	gerund	Sj	subject
HW1	head word	Sp	superlative
Ido	indirect object	TV	transitive verb
I	infinitive	VP	verb phrase
I-ph	infinitive phrase	VP2	second verb phrase
InTV	intransitive verb	V	verb
L	Latin		point in time
LV	linking verb	→	produces or gives
M	modifier	⟶	means progression
Ms	masculine	*	ungrammatical
Neg	negative	ø	zero ending
NP	noun phrase	'	primary stress
NP2	second noun phrase	'	mid stress
NP3	third noun phrase		secondary stress
OC	objective complement		
OP	object of preposition		
P	predicate		
3 p sg	third person singular		
p-aj	predicate adjective		

1 The "W" in HW can be replaced with any of the nine phrase abbreviations, for example, HN = head noun, HV = head verb, ect.

INTRODUCTION

Classification

To perceive how language works is to comprehend a crucial aspect of the complicated business of living the life of a human being.1

Why do we study grammar? This is a question often debated today in our secondary and post-secondary institutions. It is a very valid question and one that should receive some consideration here if we are going to propose a course of grammar, *Modern English Structures.*

Among those who challenge the benefits of studying grammar, George Hillocks and Michael Smith conclude that research over a period of nearly 90 years has consistently shown that the teaching of school grammar has "little or no effect" on students.2 This is not a single observation nor a new one; in recent years we have seen similar such statements, as follows:

> The impressive fact is that in all these studies the results have been consistently negative so far as the value of grammar in the improvement of language expression is concerned. Surely there is no justification in the available evidence for the great expenditure of time and effort still being devoted to formal grammar in American schools.3
>
> Diagramming sentences teaches nothing beyond the ability to diagram.4
>
> The teaching of formal grammar has a negligible or, because it usually displaces some instruction and practice in actual composition, even a harmful effect on the improvement of writing.5
>
> For most students, the systematic study of grammar is not even particularly helpful in avoiding or correcting errors.6
>
> Systematic practice in combining and expanding sentences can increase students' repertoire of syntactic structures and can also improve the quality of their sentences, when stylistic effects are discussed as well.7

1 S.I. Hayakawa and A.R. Hayakawa, *Language in Thought and Action,* 5th ed. (Orlando, FL: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1990), p. viii.

2 G. Hillocks, Jr., and M.W. Smith, "Grammar and Usage," in J. Flood, J.M. Jensen, D. Lapp, and J.R. Squires (eds.), *Handbook of Research on Teaching the English Language Arts* (New York: Macmillan, 1991).

3 J.J. DeBoer, "Grammar in Language Teaching," *Elementary English* 36 (1959): 413421.

4*Encyclopedia of Educational Research,* 4th ed. (New York: Macmillan, 1960).

5 R. Braddock, R. LloydJones, and L. Schoer. *Research in Written Composition* (Urbana, IL: NCTE, 1963).

6 W.B. Elly, I.H. Barham, H. Lamb, and M. Wyllie, "The role of grammar in a secondary English curriculum," *Research in the Teaching of English* 10 (1976): 521; F. McQuade, "Examining a grammar course: the rationale and the result," *English Journal* 69 (1980): 2630; G. Hillocks, Jr., *Research on Written Composition: New directions for teaching* (Urbana, IL: NCTE, 1986).

7 Hillocks, Jr., and Smith, pp. 591603.

Although there is some disagreement between *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* and Hillocks and Smith regarding sentence analysis, all comments focus on a single theme that we study grammar for the sole purpose of writing better sentences. This is a rather narrow view of a great discipline. Before challenging this argument, let us first briefly review why grammar has ever been studied.

Greek philosophers, the first to systematically study grammar, focussed on sounds, words, and their meanings. It was not until the fifth century B.C. that they had classified language into parts of speech, inflections, and moods. Soon afterwards, these classifications had given way to the development of the first written systematic grammars as we understand them today. The basis for these grammars, however, arose initially not out of language/linguistic questions, but out of philosophical discussions. The question centred on whether language was *natural* (instinctive or inborn tendency to speak) or *conventional* (acquired or learned).

Grammarians, through the later Roman period, focussed more on language rules by writing simple and practical descriptions of their languages. These were the first steps in developing grammar into a discipline of its own as we know it today. Furthermore, rhetoricians (those who studied the art of prose composition) and grammarians began to use grammar to teach ideas of correctness, style, and effectiveness in language use. Indeed, for many, grammar became the key to all learning.

Next came the Scholastic Period, in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, when grammarians probed further into whether our minds could be illuminated by a knowledge of grammar, especially by the parts of speech. This source of enquiry eventually gave way to the idea of a universal grammarthe view that all languages have linguistic structures in common. Many grammarians at that time thought all languages reflected certain enduring categories in our minds and in the world around us. They promoted the idea that languages were essentially the same and differed only accidentally. Rhetoric (the art of using words effectively) and pedagogy (the art or science of teaching), following the traditions of the Greeks and Romans, began to recede, especially during the eighteenth century. Internal rules of thought as expressed in language became a major grammatical focus and the idea of a universal grammar continued.

Other approaches for analyzing language, however, also became popular. Comparative philologists began studying the historical relationships of words as early as the sixteenth century, although it was not until the eighteenth century that they applied their techniques to showing relationships among Germanic8 and other Indo-European9 languages. Soon they traced relationships among Greek, Latin, and Sanskrit languages as well. Through this process, the study of language moved from being a rationalistic science to being a historical science.

Throughout the history of grammar, many models for language studies arose. Most traditional grammars were *prescriptive,* focussing on a set of rules dictating *correct usage* and how language *ought* to be used. Other traditional models followed many prescriptive rules but often cut corners. These and other grammars followed the *descriptive* model, which records actual usage and formulates observances by which sentences are generated and understood. Today most

8 Germanic means languages of the Germanic family: Norwegian, Icelandic, Faeroese, Swedish, Danish, German, Yiddish, Dutch, Flemish, and English, for example.

9 Other Indo-European languages are those spoken throughout western and eastern Europe and beyond, from Ireland to India.

language scholars agree that the study of grammar should follow the descriptive model.

We now return to our opening question, why study grammar?, and to the commentaries that studying grammar does not translate into writing better sentences. We saw from the Greeks that an interest in grammar grew out of one for language itself, not out of an interest for writing. Perhaps this is where the mistake lies, that is, during the twentieth century we have been studying grammar for the wrong reason.

Grammar should be studied for a variety of reasons, least among them simply for improving sentence structures. First we have two modes of expression, speech the older and more frequently used one and writing the more recent and static one. Grammar is first found in speech, in how we use and classify words, and in how we group them to express our thoughts. We study grammar to understand how we structure and use language. Grammar flows from language, not language from grammar. Grammar obviously existed long before we began to write our thoughts down on paper. So why restrict the study of grammar to "writing down sentences"?

Studying the grammatical structure of one's language can be very helpful in using that language and learning the origin and the power of words for all modes of communication, not just writing. It is most helpful in learning other languages using a similar structure. Understanding the structure of one's language opens for us the whole discipline of linguistics. Most importantly, studying grammar goes beyond just teaching us a skill, but also teaches us to think and to do so analytically.

Language Structure

When analyzing a language like modern English, we see an infrastructure of relationships called grammar [G. *Gramma* = writing]. To understand these relationships we break down language into three smaller areas for easier understanding. The first of these is the spoken language or sounds *(phonology / phonetics),* which we use to form other meaningful units. These units are morphemes *(morphology/morphemes),* from which we construct words *(vocabulary/lexicon).* Words are then combined to produce phrases and clauses *(syntax).* The latter three *(words, phrases and clauses)* are constituents from which we form our largest syntactic unitthe *sentence.* The focus of sentence structures is to convey completed meaning *(semantics).*

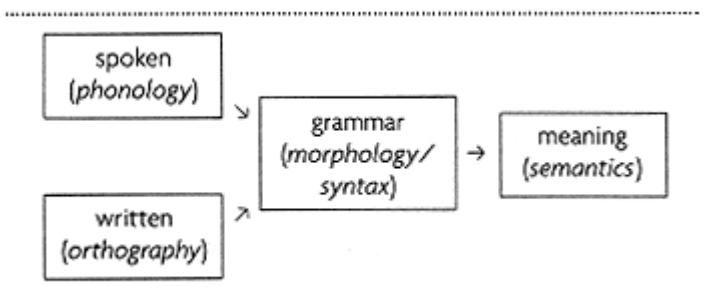


Figure 0.1
Language Analysis

Figure 0.1 illustrates these areas of language analysis.

Although structurally not studied as a separate entity, language has both a spoken and a written component.

FIGURE 0.2
HIERARCHY OF CONSTITUENTS

MORE COMPLEX

sentence	6	one or more clauses
clause	5	two or more phrases
phrase	4	one or more words
word	3	one or more morphemes
morpheme	2	one or more phonemes
phoneme	1	one sound class10

LESS COMPLEX

Figure 0.2 illustrates the different structures within our language system, from the less complex to the more complex grammatically.

As native speakers of English we learn the arrangements and relationships of sentence constituents subconsciously when we are very young. We listen to and speak with other native speakers and in this way we learn what is communicative and what is not communicative in our language system. Too frequently, however, we never learn about these relationships consciously. We know generally *when* an expression has meaning and is acceptable, but we frequently do not know *why. Modern English Structures* focusses on the *whys* and offers a basic descriptive analysis of our Modern English language.

Constituents

CONSTITUENTS are language elements forming part of a larger syntactic unit.

Constituents *(words, phrases and clauses)* are always and only part of the sentence structure, because it is the sentence that gives them meaning. Of themselves and in their relationships to one another, they make up our grammatical system. These individual words, phrases and clauses carry out particular grammatical functions and occupy particular grammatical positions. Consider the following example:

John hit the slow ball into the field.

We have here four sentence constituents:

1. John	= word	= a sentence constituent
2. hit	= word	= a sentence constituent
3. the slow ball	= phrase	= a sentence constituent
4. into the field	= phrase	= a sentence constituent

Together they make up a single sentence. Each of these, as we will see, carries out a grammatical function and occupies a grammatical position.

Form

FORM is the shape of a sentence constituent, or what it is.

Form structures identify what a sentence constituent IS, and they can be sounds *(as morphemes or words),* words, phrases and clauses that express grammatical meaning. They are the simplest mode of classification for identification purposes. As we identify each of the above groups, we learn the characteristics of that group, and this, in turn, enables us to identify other members that belong to the group. Grammatical form often reveals the relationships of constituents to one another within sentences.

10 Phonologists would argue that the phoneme is a very complex feature of our language system. From a hierarchical point of view, I categorize it as being less complex.

Morphemes

Morphemes are minimum distinctive units of grammar and generally have little or no meaning for the beginning language student. They are generally recognized in association with other morphemes *(free* or *bound)* at the word level. If free, a morpheme is identical to a word and stands alone with meaning *(ex. dog);* if bound, it relies on other free or bound morphemes to express meaning *(ex. dog + s).* Morphemes are also derivational, in that they can create new words or change word categories *(ex. happy [adjective] + -ness = happiness [noun]).* They can also be inflectional *(ex. talk + ed),* that is, they can limit the grammatical significance of other morphemes. In this last example the grammatical meaning of the word is restricted by the *-ed,* meaning the past tense. Morphemes help form the infrastructure of words and are important for building vocabulary.

Words

As a working definition (that is, one sufficient to give meaning to our discussion), words are free forms and stand alone with meaning. We categorize them into form class and structure class words. Form words are nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, and they are called *open class* because they readily accept new members. Structure words are auxiliaries, conjunctions, determiners, prepositions, and pronouns, and they are called *closed class* because they rarely admit new members. *Parts of speech* is the traditional name for such classifications.

Phrases

Phrases are word groups having internal cohesion and forming syntactic units with a head word *(HW).* A head word is the single word around which other words group for meaning. For example, a noun phrase has a head noun *(HN),* a verb phrase has a lexical head verb *(HV),* and a participle phrase has a head present or past participle *(HPP).* Identifying the head word *(HW)* is helpful when classifying a phrasal structure.

We can identify nine types of phrase: (1) noun, (2) verb, (3) adjective, (4) adverb, (5) participle, (6) gerund, (7) infinitive, (8) prepositional, and (9) absolute. The noun phrase and the verb phrase occur most frequently because they are essential to the structure of every clause and sentence. Other clauses vary in their occurrences depending upon the structure of the sentence.

Clauses

Clauses are more complex in structure than phrases. They are similar to sentences in that they must contain a noun phrase *(subject)* and a verb phrase *(predicate/finite verb).* Independent (main) clauses stand alone with completed meaning

as syntactic structures, while dependent (subordinate) clauses need other independent or dependent clauses to complete their meaning.

Independent clauses should not be equated with sentences. All independent clauses are sentences, but not all sentences are of themselves independent clauses. Most sentences comprise more than one clause; usually they have one or more dependent and one or more independent clauses. Dependent clauses are identified as (1) noun,11 (2) relative adjective, (3) relative adverb, and (4) adverb clauses.

Function

> GRAMMATICAL FUNCTION is the role a constituent has within a sentence, along with its relationship to other constituents within that sentence.

Grammatical function identifies what a sentence constituent DOES. Specifically, this means the role that a specific word or word group *(phrase or clause)* has within the larger syntactic unitthe sentence. This special role signals the grammatical meaning for that sentence constituent.

Grammatical functions, for our purposes, will be divided into major and minor functions based upon their importance and general occurrence within sentence structures. Major functions are subjects, predicates, direct and indirect objects; minor functions are adjective and adverb modifiers, appositives, complements, connectors, and objects of prepositions. Each of these functions will be discussed in detail, showing how various categories of words, phrases or clauses can carry out their respective roles.

Position

> GRAMMATICAL POSITION marks constituents within sentences based on their form and function.

Grammatical position identifies where a sentence constituent GOES. Sentence constituents occupy four grammatical positions *(nominal, verbal, adjectival,* and *adverbial),* and these terms are used only for *grammatical positions.* Depending on the sentence structure, however, one or more words, phrases or clauses can occupy these positions. Within a sentence grammatical positions are generally not difficult to identify, and knowing them is particularly helpful when narrowing down grammatical function. Position is useful in treating problematic forms like infinitives, gerunds, and participles, where the form and function information "conflict."

Sentences

> SENTENCE is the largest syntactic structure made up of constituents, but it is not a constituent of a larger syntactic structure.

Sentences have traditionally been identified as simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex. A simple sentence consists of only one main clause; this clause contains only one finite verb. A compound sentence has two or more main clauses linked by a coordinating conjunction. A complex sentence contains one main clause and at least one subordinate clause. A compound-complex sentence consists of two or more main clauses and at least one subordinate clause. While this has been the traditional way for identifying sentences, modern grammarians break sentences down into patterns.

11 The noun clause is a very simple description here. There are other classifications, e.g., temporal, final, causal, hypothetical clauses, but these distinctions are reserved for a more in-depth study of English syntax.

A sentence, like a clause, has two essential components, a noun phrase *(subject)* and a verb phrase *(predicate).* Depending on the verb type, a third component may occur, a second noun phrase or complement *(objects, subjective or adverbial complements).* Noun phrases and complements can be made up from a word, a phrase or a clause; the verb phrase can be either a word or a phrase, but it cannot be a clause. We express the above structure as:

S(entence) → N(oun) P(hrase) + V(erb) P(hrase) ± NP^2 or C(omplement)

As a guide for sentence patterns, we can formulate this structure as follows:

S → NP + VP ± NP^2 / C

The focus of *Modern English Structures* is to analyze all constituents of the sentence structure and to identify their grammatical relationships. To do this, each constituent is labelled according to its grammatical form, grammatical function, and grammatical position. Figure 0.3 illustrates a typical analysis.

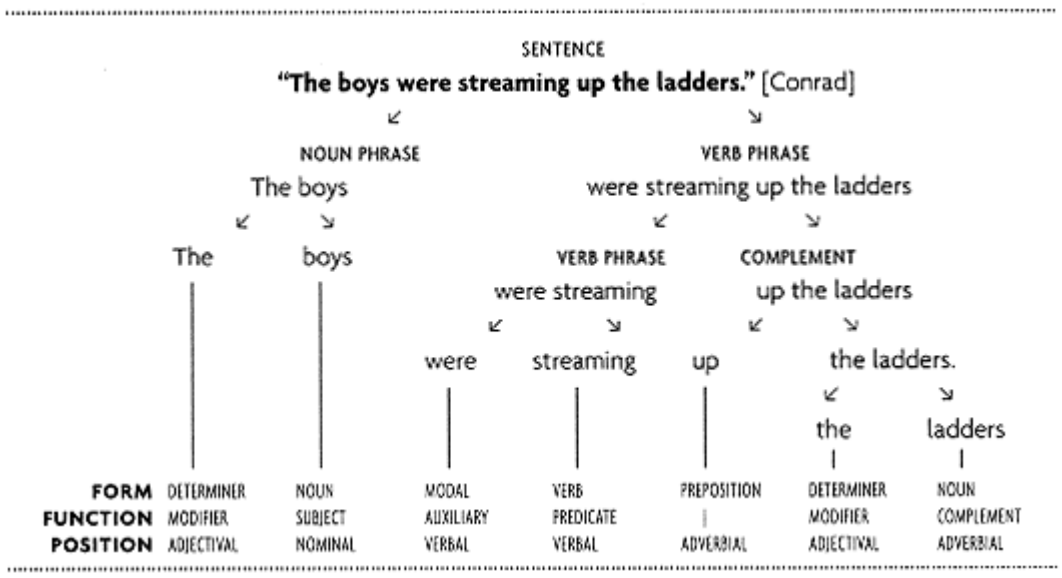


Figure 0.3
Sentence Analysis

The above sentence is simple in structure and therefore its constituents are easily identified. Most sentences are more complex and will be more difficult to analyze, because they have larger phrase and clause structures.

Style

Traditional literary scholars say that style is the *deliberate use of written language for a particular effect.* Style, however, is not restricted to poetry, drama, and novels, for example; rather it is the personal use that individuals make of language in their speech or writing. It is how words, phrases, and clauses are brought together to express meaning. Just as there are many types of individual, there are many types of style. We may contrast *formal* with *informal* style; we may speak of an *ornate* or a *comic* style. In literature we may identify a period by its writers' style, for example, the style of Augustan poetry.

To focus in depth on style would add considerable complexity to the aim of this grammar text. Therefore, I leave that area of analysis for further study. Indirectly, I introduce you to style by offering you a wide variety of sentence structures taken from a number of literary works. Just seeing and reading these sentences should make us aware of the simplicity and complexity of sentence structures, and therefore styles. In itself, it is an excellent context in which to analyze grammar.

My contribution to style will be found in exposing you to a wide variety of literary examples. By *literary*, I mean in the very broad sense; I will draw upon more than six thousand pages of text from over forty authors. These texts are representative of literature and other scientific and non-scientific writings; for example, Darwin is a scientist, Keynes is an economist, and Wells is a religious writer. All examples are selected at random and because they contain a particular focus that I wish to put forth at that time.

<><><><><><><><><><><><><><>

This introduction has focussed on presenting an overview of the organization of *Modern English Structures*, giving special emphasis to its underlying structuresgrammatical form, grammatical functions, and grammatical position. You have seen the contents of the text in a "nutshell." I have identified all of the major categories to be analyzed and I have introduced you to a great deal of the grammatical terminology to be used.

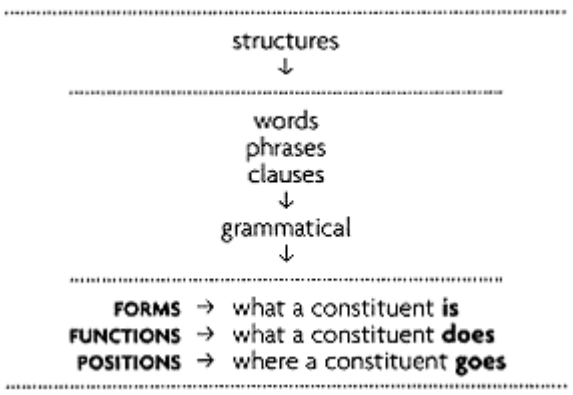


Figure 0.4
Summary Of Grammatical Structures

At this point you may be overwhelmed by the detail. However, as you move through each chapter this detail will become more expansive with many illustrations and examples to make it clearer. You must always keep in mind that if you are a native speaker of English you have already grasped the acceptable structures of your language. This subconscious mastering of the language will be very helpful as you raise it to the conscious level.

All sentence constituents will be identified by their grammatical forms, grammatical functions, and grammatical positions. You must keep each of these categories distinct as you continue your analysis.

FORM

< previous page page_23 next page >

1
Morphemes

Morphemes

MORPHEMES are the most basic meaningful units in our grammatical system.

Morphemes1 are the most basic meaningful units in our grammatical system. Understanding morphemes is important for us, because they not only carry meaning, but they also help create new words, sometimes move words from one category to another, and even extend the grammatical meanings of words.

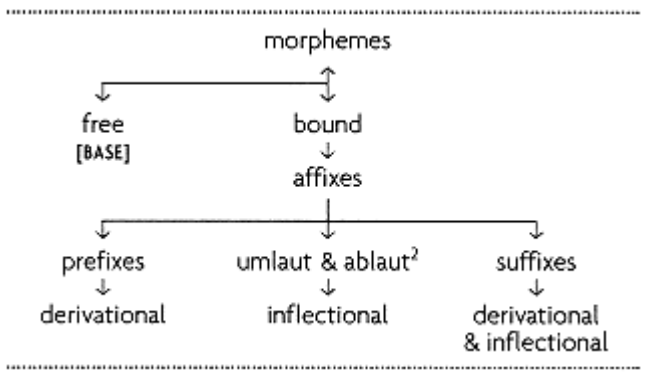


Figure 1.1
Morphemes

To analyze morphemes, however, we usually do so at the lexical [G. *lexis* = word] level, that is, units carrying the denotative *(dictionary)* meaning of words. We look words up in dictionaries to find their meanings, and frequently to learn their composition from other meaningful units *(morphemes).* Therefore, through our lexicon *(words)* we learn to understand morphemes.

It is true, however, that we can look up parts of words *(affixes: prefixes and suffixes)* in dictionaries, to learn the meaning of individual parts. In essence these individual parts are themselves morphemes and not words, but they combine to create words.

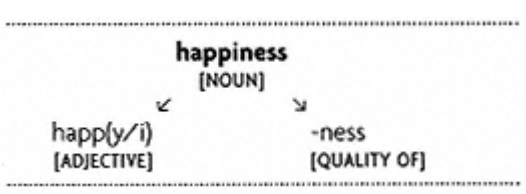


Figure 1.2
Morpheme.

To illustrate what we are saying here, let us examine the word *happiness.*

Happiness has two morphemes: the first, *happy,* is easily identified because we recognize it as a word; the second, *-ness,* may cause some difficulty because it is not a word. The morpheme *-ness,* however, does occur in other words, for example: *foulness, fullness, laziness, strangeness;* it has the meaning *"the quality of"* what it accompanies. By adding *-ness* to the adjective *happy,* we have also created a new wordthe noun *happiness.* In so doing we have also changed the word category from an adjective to a noun.

1 Morphemes and the terminology used to discuss them cause problems outside of linguistic studies, especially because we need some background in phonology/phonetics to understand the different morphological processes.

2 Umlaut and ablaut are not affixes as such; they are morphological processes, which for our purposes are *replacive morphemes.* Umlaut has to do with nouns; ablaut has to do with verbs.

Why are parts of words such as *-ness* not very meaningful when we first see them? This is because we begin our grammatical analysis at the lexical level, because words are the constituents of sentences, not morphemes. We usually consider morphemes only in their inflectional forms in nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, and some adverbs. The result is that the word becomes the first *sign* or symbol of communication for us. This leads us to think of the word as being the smallest meaningful unit for grammatical analysis whereas, in fact, the morpheme is.

Both morphemes, *happy* and *-ness,* can be found in dictionaries for their lexical meanings: *happy* is a word, and *-ness* is part of a word or a derivational *(word formation)* morpheme.

happy means "having, showing or causing great pleasure."

[ADJECTIVE]

-ness means "indicating state, quality, or instance of being."

[PART OF A WORD / MORPHEME / SUFFIX]

The adjective *happy* does not change its lexical meaning when adding the morpheme *-ness;* but it does extend its grammatical meaning. In this case, the word category is changed from an adjective to a noun.

Happy can take other morphemes to create new words, by attaching them either at the beginning or at the end of the base morpheme. Consider the variations on the base *happy* in the following paradigm. Note also where the morpheme causes a word to move from one category to another.

		MORPHEME			
	WORDS	BASE	PREFIX	SUFFIX	CATEGORY
1	happy	happy	—	—	adjective
2	happiness	happy(y/i)	—	+ ness	noun
3	happier	happy(y/i)	—	+ er	adjective
4	happiest	happy(y/i)	—	+ est	adjective
5	happily	happy(y/i)	—	+ ly	adverb
6	unhappy	happy	un +	—	adjective
7	unhappiness	happy(y/i)	un +	+ ness	noun
8	unhappier	happy(y/i)	un +	+ er	adjective
9	unhappiest	happy(y/i)	un +	+ est	adjective
10	unhappily	happy(y/i)	un +	+ ly	adverb

Figure 1.3
Combinning Morphemes

Listing variations of morphemes, such as *happy*, forms a *paradigm* [G. *para* = beside + *deigma* = example]. This is an example or model of the variations of a base.

We frequently adjust the spelling of base morphemes to accommodate the addition of new morphemes after the base. *Happy*, for example, when combined with *-ness* changes the spelling of its base from *happy* to *happi-;* the *-y* is replaced by an *-i.* To mark this variation we can show the base morpheme with both endings, *happ(y* and *i).* In this way we acknowledge the spelling of the original

morpheme, as well as the new change that occurs when another morpheme is added. This process of spelling changes can become more complicated with other morphemes. Consider the following spelling changes as different morphemes are added.

FIGURE 1.4
SPELLING CHANGES

BASE	MORPHEME	BASE + MORPHEME	CHANGES
abate	+ -ing	abating	loss of final -e
abdomen	+ -inal	abdominal	-en becomes -in
brilliant	+ -cy	brilliancy	-t is replaced by -c
constitute	+ ent	constituent	loss of final -te
prognosis	+ -icate	prognosticate	-t- is added and -is becomes -ic

Morphemes and words

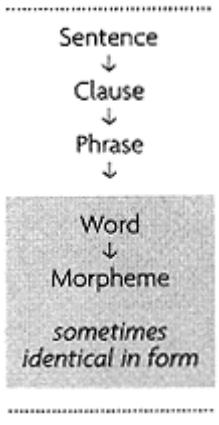


Figure 1.5

Morphemes and words often have the same form. In Figure 0.2 in the introduction, a hierarchy of structures was presented. In this hierarchy, the morpheme and the word are sometimes the same. This occurs when the word consists of a single morpheme. See Figure 1.5.

For example, the free form *dog* is a single morpheme at the morphological level, and simultaneously it is a word at the lexical level. It is a morpheme because it cannot be broken down further without destroying its lexical meaning, and it is a word because it is a free form with lexical meaning. Note the example in Figure 1.6.

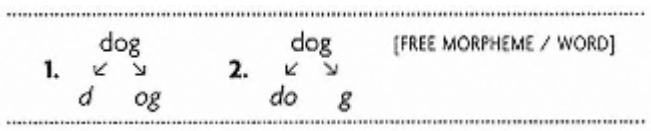


Figure 1.6
Breaking Down Morphemes

If we break down the morpheme *dog*, we quickly lose its lexical meaning. In the first example, the result is a *d* and an *og*, and neither has meaning on its own. In the second example, we end up with a *do* and a *g*. Now the first part *do* has meaning on its own, for it can be either an independent verb or a stand-in auxiliary verb. The *g* part does not have meaning on its own. To accept *do* as a meaningful unit, however, changes the original lexical meaning of the morpheme. The lexical meanings of *dog* and *do* are not in any way similar. The morpheme *dog*, therefore, cannot be further broken down without destroying the original or lexical meaning of that morpheme. At the morphological level it is a morpheme, and at the level of syntax it is a word.

Most polysyllabic English words are indivisible along the same lines as *dog*. Consider the following words as representative examples:

FIGURE 1.7
ONE-MORPHEME WORDS

belligerent	follicle	crescendo	immerse	diamond
mahogany	extreme	mushroom	fluctuate	pioneer

To break any of these words down further would result in losing the basic meaning of the morpheme.

Morphemes and syllables

When we begin to break words down into morphemes a potential problem arises with confusing morphemes with syllables *(parts of words with a vowel nucleus)* in English. *Dog*, the above example, is one morpheme and has only one syllable. Because of this, you might think that a morpheme is equivalent to a syllable. This would be a mistake because morphemes and syllables are not the same. In Figure 1.8, we analyze the word *incommunicable* by first breaking it down into syllables.

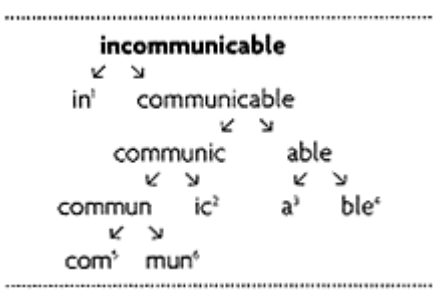


Figure 1.8
Syllables

There are six syllables in this word; each has a number to indicate that syllable. This same word, however, has only four morphemes.

The differences are found in *commun* and *-able*, which have two syllables each, yet each one is only a single morpheme. *Commun(e)* [from L. *communis]* means *common*, and *-able* [from L. *-(a)bilis]* means *able to.* The other morphemes in this word are *in-* [L. *-in]* meaning *in, into, on, toward* and *-ic* [G. *-ikos]* meaning *of, having to do with.*

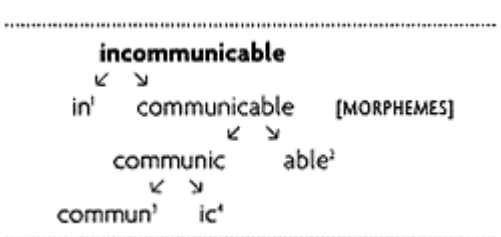


Figure 1.9
Morphens

A morpheme can consist of one or several syllables, parts of syllables, or any combination of phonemes *(individual sounds)* without regard to their status as syllables. Our first example, *dog*, has one syllable and is a single morpheme; our second example, *incommunicable*, has six syllables while consisting of four morphemes. The difference between a syllable and a morpheme is that a syllable depends on its structure, that is, a vowel as its nucleus, whereas a morpheme depends on its meaning.

Base vs. stem

BASE is a lexical morpheme minus all affixes.

I have been using the term *lexical morpheme* so far to mean the *base morpheme.* When dealing with affixes, however, we need to introduce and explain a second term*stem.* These two terms often cause confusion and so some attention should be paid to them to offset this possibility.

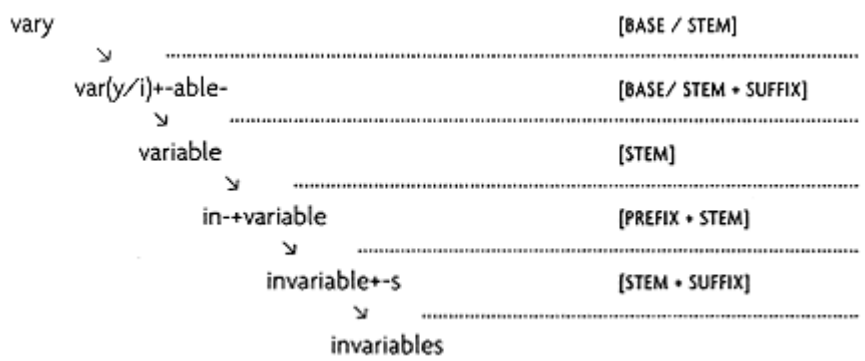
A base is a free or bound morpheme carrying the lexical meaning for that unit. It is that word or part of a word that we look up in a dictionary to find its meaning. An example of a base is shown in the word *in*vari*ables.*

in-	var(y/i)	-able	-s
[PREFIX]	[BASE]	[SUFFIX]	[SUFFIX]

In this example, if we wish to know the lexical meaning of the word, we would look up the base *vary*. Or, as we generally do, we look up the whole word and focus on the *base meaning*.

We sometimes interchange the terms, *base* and *root*. The latter is best reserved for the historical *(diachronic)* study of language, tracing the development of a base morpheme over a long time period. I illustrate this below when I give the English word *tenant* and show that it is derived from [L. *tenere* = to hold + *ant* = one that]. In this example we can see the source or origin of the word, and therefore might refer to it as the *root* of the word.

Sometimes a base morpheme will already have an affix attached, for example:



STEM is a lexical morpheme with or without an affix.

Base is the core of a word, that part of the word which is essential for looking up its meaning in the dictionary; *stem* is either the base by itself or the base plus another morpheme to which other morphemes can be added. In the above example, *vary* is both a base and a stem; when an affix is attached the base/stem is called a stem only. Other affixes can now be attached.

Free morphemes

FREE MORPHEMES can stand alone with meaning.

Free morphemes are exactly that"free," and they do not require a second free or bound morpheme to express full meaning at the word level. When we first see them, as noted, we think of them as words because that is our general level for beginning our analysis. Only when we see them as morphemes do we note the difference. Free morphemes, therefore, are identical to words, or join with other free and/or bound morphemes to create new words. This is illustrated in Figure 1.10.

FIGURE 1.10
FREE AND BOUND MORPHEMES

EXAMPLES	MORPHEME TYPE	WORD
black	free morpheme	one word
bird	free morpheme	one word
blackbird	two free morphemes	one word
black	free morpheme	one word
-ness	bound morpheme	not a word
blackness	free + bound morphemes	one word

First we see *black* and *bird* as single free morphemes/words. Yet when combined

they create only one word. Next we see *black* as a single free morpheme/word. Combine it with *-ness*, a bound morpheme, and we still create only one word. The problem that we might have with free morphemes is that we may forget to consider them as morphemes, and think of them only as words.

Bound morphemes

> BOUND MORPHEMES do not stand alone with meaning; they join other free or bound morphemes to create a word.

Bound morphemes, in contrast to free morphemes, cannot stand alone at the word level, and for this reason it may appear that they do not have meaning. This, however, is not the case, for bound morphemes similarly have meaning. It is only at the word level that this meaning is generally not apparent.3 The process, therefore, is to look up the whole word in a dictionary and to note its breakdown, if any. Many bound morphemes can also be looked up as parts of words *(affixes: prefixes and suffixes)* as noted.

Comparing similar words in a paradigm is most helpful. Consider Figure 1.11, based on [L. *-jicere (-jectus)* meaning *to throw or cast]:*

FIGURE 1.11
BOUND MORPHEMES

WORDS	BOUND PREFIX MORPHEMES	BOUND BASE MORPHEME
abject	ab- = *from, away, of*	-ject
deject	de- = *down, away from*	-ject
eject	e(x)- = *out of*	-ject
inject	in- = *in, into*	-ject
object	ob- = *to, toward, before*	-ject
project	pro- = *in front of*	-ject
reject	re- = *again, back*	-ject
subject	sub- = *lower in position*	-ject

The bound morphemes presented here depend on the base *-ject* to create words. Each of the bound morphemes has meaning, and a paradigm like this helps us to establish their meanings rather quickly. If we look up *eject* we will find the meaning *to drive or force out,* and we can compare this to *reject* with the meaning *to throw back.* The meaning of the bound base is evident in both words, and so you can apply it to similar words in the paradigm. By comparison we derive the meanings for the bound morphemes. You probably would have difficulty with *abject* using this process, but not with *inject, object, project* or *subject.* It is a helpful process; it does not always work, but it works more often than not.

A problem with many bound morphemes is that their meanings are not readily apparent, and therefore we have to consider the etymology *(the origin and development)* of the word. Often this means the unpacking of a dead or dying metaphor coined in another language, or simply looking up the root of the word in a foreign language.

Consider the examples of two bound morphemes in Figure 1.12.

FIGURE 1.12
BOUND MORPHEMES

EXAMPLES	MORPHEME TYPE	WORD
ten-	bound	not a word
-ant	bound	not a word
tenant	two bound	one word
cosm-	bound	not a word
-ic	bound	not a word
cosmic	two bound	one word

In the first example, *ten*4- and -*ant* [L. *tenere* = to hold + *ant* = one that] are both bound morphemes. Neither can stand alone with the lexical meaning of the base morpheme, which is *ten*-. Combined they form a single word *tenant*. For the second example, *cosm*- and -*ic* [G. *kosmos* = the universe + -*ikos* = like to], the same process applies.

3 At the grammatical level it would be great to have a morphological dictionary, similar to that at the lexical level.

4 To signal that *ten*- is a bound morpheme and not *ten* the free morpheme, we place a hyphen (-) after it to distinguish one from the other. The morpheme *ten*- has little meaning in English. We must rely on its Latin roots to establish its lexical meaning.

To understand the meaning of either of these bound morphemes, we really have to study the etymology of the word and find its meaning in another language.

A single bound morpheme, such as *ten-*, occurs in a derivational paradigm, which makes its meaning easier to understand.

FIGURE 1.13
BOUND MORPHEMES

BASE	BOUND MORPHEME	WORD
ten-	+ -ant	tenant
ten-	+ -able5	tenable
ten-	+ -acious	tenacious
ten-	+ -acity	tenacity
ten-	+ -ure	tenure

The bound morphemes in this paradigm become more meaningful when we can compare them to one another and see how their meanings differ. Again, finding the meanings to bound morphemes can be problematic, and requires a broader understanding of language than is our purpose here.

Since we structure our sentences based on grammatical words and not on isolated morphemes, it is sufficient to say that bound morphemes require a second morpheme, free or bound, to form a word, to move a word from one category to another, or to extend grammatical meaning.

Affixes

We are now going to change some of the terms, but not the concepts. Affixes are bound morphemes identified as *prefixes* and *suffixes,* and they occur before or after a base morpheme. As is evident from the above description, affix is an "umbrella term" used to cover three other more precise terms for morphemes. All affixes are bound morphemes mostly attached to bases/stems:

1. to create new words from pre-existing ones,

un- + happy = unhappy
[PREFIX] [BASE] [NEW WORD]

2. to move words from one word class to another by adding certain affixes,

man + -ly = manly
[NOUN] [SUFFIX] [ADJECTIVE]

3. to extend grammatical meaning,

sing +-s =sings
[VERB] [SUFFIX] [3RD PERSON SINGULAR]
[GRAMMATICAL MEANING]

Later in Chapter 2, we shall see that affixes are attached only to *form class* words, that is, nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Some structure class words, such as relative pronouns, undergo this process to a very limited degree. The relative pronoun *who,* for example, becomes *whom* to express the objective case. We can also extend the pronouns *whom, which* and *what,* to *whomever, whichever* and *whatever.*

5*Able* as a free morpheme has the meaning of "having the power, skill (to do something)"; *-able* as a suffix has the meaning "able to (durable) or capable of being."

Prefixes

PREFIXES are bound morphemes occurring before a base or stem.

Prefixes [pre- = *before* + -fix = *fasten]* are bound morphemes added to the beginning of a base or stem to create new words from pre-existing ones. Their meanings are usually those of English prepositions and adverbs, which make them easier to remember. These bound prefixes are subclassed as *derivational* morphemes, a division of morphemes which we shall cover shortly. English has approximately seventy-five prefix morphemes; Figure 1.14 is a representative list with their various meanings and examples.

FIGURE 1.14 A PARTIAL LIST OF PREFIX MORPHEMES

PREFIXES	MEANINGS	EXAMPLES	
a-	in, into, on, at	aboard	asleep
a-	not	asexual	agnostic
ab-	away, from, down	abdicate	abduct
anti-	against, opposite	antibiotic	antidote
co-	together, with	cooperate	coexist
com-	with, together with	combine	compass
con-	together	conceive	concern
de-	away, from, off	derail	decline
dis-	separation	dishonest	disjoint
in-	no, not, without	insufficient	inapt
intra-	within	intramural	intracity
mal-	bad, wrong	malcontent	maltreat
mis-	wrong(ly), no	misbehave	mishap
non-	not	nonactive	nonbasic
ob-	toward, whole	object	obsolete
post-	after in time	postmortem	postdate
pre-	before in time	precede	preclude
un-	not	unfaithful	unhappy

Prefixes expressing the negative *(a-, in-, non-, un-)* are the most common. Many of the above prefixes vary only slightly from one another in meaning, so we need to be careful when using them. Knowing these slight variations is important for understanding the meaning of the word.

Prefixes are seldom added one to another, except for the use of the negative. For example:

dependent
↓
in + dependent
↓
non + **-in** + dependent

Morphological Processes (Umlaut / Ablaut)

UMLAUT AND ABLAUT are morphological processes (internal modifications) taking place in irregular nouns and verbs respectively to extend grammatical meaning, producing different forms in the paradigm of the same word.

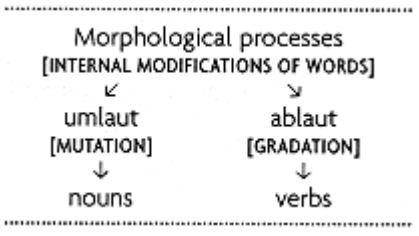


Figure 1.15
morphological Processes

Figure 1.15 shows that the internal modifications or changes that take place in irregular Modern English nouns and verbs are called *morphological processes.* These are particular kinds of affixes, somewhat like *infixes,* which work inside the word instead of at its boundaries. Two terms are of importance here.

Umlaut [Gm. um = *about* + laut = *sound]* or *mutation* is a morphological process (internal modification) taking place in irregular nouns to extend grammatical meaning, producing different forms in the paradigm of the same word.

Ablaut [Gm. ab- = *away* + laut = *sound]* or gradation is a morphological process (internal modification) taking place in irregular verbs to extend grammatical meaning, producing different forms in the paradigm of the same word.

Both processes produce changes in grammatical meaning. These influences occurred during the Old English period and many of the nouns and verbs have been retained in the language up to present times.

What goes on in this process is that one unit of grammatical meaning is actually replaced by another unit of grammatical meaning. Umlauts and ablauts act like affixes in other classes, but are word internal.

The examples in Figure 1.16 are like a mathematical equation; the regular patterns have equivalents in irregular forms. The two variants resulting from the morphological process, such as umlaut in *foot* and *feet* (-oo- becoming -ee-), and ablaut in *write* and *wrote* (-i- becoming -o-) are called allomorphs, which are conditioned *morphologically.*6

FIGURE 1.16
INFLECTION

		REGULAR	IRREGULAR
NOUNS	singular	table	foot
	plural	tables [-S SUFFIX]	feet [-EE- UMLAUT]
VERBS	present	ask	write
	past	asked [-ED SUFFIX]	wrote [-O- ABLAUT]

In Figure 1.17 are representative examples of umlauts and ablauts in English.

FIGURE 1.17
UMBLAUT AND ABLAUT

NOUNS (UMLAUT)		VERBS (ABLAUT)	
SINGULAR	PLURAL	PRESENT	PAST
foot	feet	freeze	froze
tooth	teeth	find	found
goose	geese	fall	fell
mouse	mice	ring	rang
louse	lice	spring	sprang
woman	women	steal	stole

The first two columns list irregular nouns in singular and mutated plural forms. The grammatical meaning *(singular noun)* expressed by *-oo-* in *foot* is replaced by the grammatical meaning *(plural noun)* expressed by *-ee-* in *feet.* For irregular nouns this is called *umlaut or mutation.* Similarly, the grammatical meaning *(present tense)* expressed by *-ee-* in *freeze* is replaced by the grammatical meaning *(past tense)* expressed by *-o-* in *froze.* For irregular verbs this is called *ablaut* or *gradation.* Note that the characteristic of umlaut and ablaut is that the internal vowel varies with the particular noun or verb.

Suffixes

SUFFIXES are bound morphemes occurring after bases or stems.

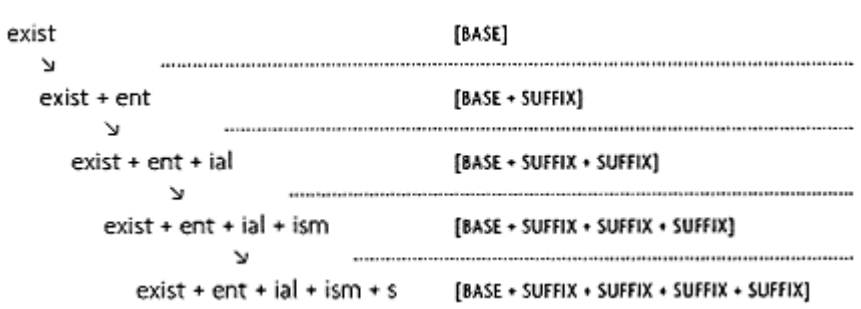
The second of our affixes is the suffix, since umlaut and ablaut are not affixes as such. Suffixes are more complex than prefixes and more numerous. The complexity grows out of the fact that suffixes can pile up on one another; as well, where there was only one type of prefix, *derivational,* there are two types of suffixes, *derivational* and *inflectional.* Just as prefixes and suffixes are variations of affixes, inflectional and derivational morphemes are similar variants. Here is a representative list of derivational suffixes:

6 This is a linguistic process beyond the level of this text. I mention it only to indicate that these differences can be explained more precisely at another level of analysis.

FIGURE 1.18
A PARTIAL LIST OF SUFFIX MORPHEMES

SUFFIX	MEANINGS	EXAMPLES	
-al	of, like	normal	formal
-able	capable	durable	loveable
-(at)ion	act, condition, result	alteration	audition
-er	one who does	player	joker
-ful	quality of	joyful	helpful
-ic	like, do with	angelic	volcanic
-ive	nature of	creative	substantive
-ize	cause to be (like)	sterilize	oxidize
-less	without, not	valueless	tireless
-ment	result, act	movement	government
-ness	state, quality	sadness	newness
-ous	full of	hazardous	dangerous
-ship	state, skill	friendship	leadership
-(t)ion	act, state of	correction	elation
-ure	result	exposure	composure
-y	little, like	kitty	dirty

Suffixes sometimes accumulate as many as three or four morphemes, extending the vocabulary of our language. For example:



To extend a base like this, it is necessary to know the difference between derivational and inflectional morphemes.

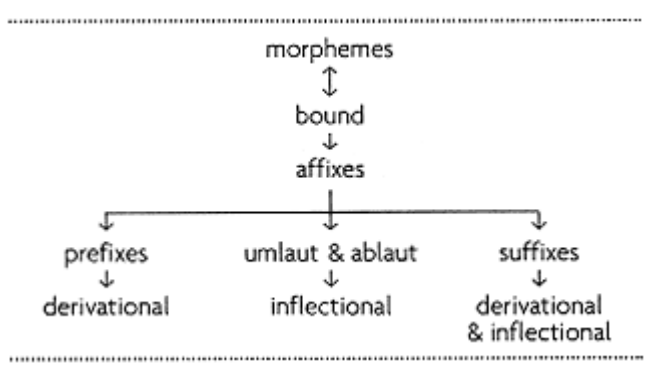


Figure 1.19
Morphemes

To see where derivational and inflectional morphemes occur, as subcategories of the above affixes, we return to part of our opening diagram for this chapter.

Prefixes are derivational morphemes; umlaut and ablaut are inflectional morphemes; and suffixes can be either derivational or inflectional morphemes. This classification should be very helpful in separating these two groups.

Derivational Affixes

> DERIVATIONAL AFFIXES are bound morphemes added to bases or stems to create new words from pre-existing ones, and sometimes to move a word from one category to another.

Derivation describes the common and productive process of forming new words by adding meaningful affixes to pre-existing word bases. Derivational affixes can be either prefixes or suffixes. As prefixes they generally close off a word to further pefixing, with the exception of the negative as shown above; as suffixes they seldom close off a word, allowing for other derivational or inflectional suffixes to be added. Also, some derivational affixes cause a change in word class; for example, many nouns can become verbs, and many adjectives can become nouns when derivational suffixes are added. As well, derivational suffixes can vary their spellings to some degree, depending on where the suffix is attached.

The following paradigm elaborates upon this process by taking a single base morpheme, phone *(sound),* and adding to it a considerable variety of prefixes and suffixes.

FIGURE 1.20
DERIVATIONAL AFFIXES

1. allophone	allo +	phone				prefix
2. allophonic	allo +	phon	+ ic			prefix + suffix
3. telephone	tele +	phone				prefix
4. telephonic	tele +	phon	+ ic			prefix + suffix
5. euphonious	eu +	phon	+ ious			prefix + suffix
6. phone		phone				lexical base
7. phonic		phon	+ ic			one suffix
8. phoneme		phon	+ eme			one suffix
9. phonemic		phon	+ em	+ ic		two suffixes
10. phonetic		phon	+ etic			one suffix
11. phonetical		phon	+ etic	+ al		two suffixes
12. phonetician		phon	+ etic	+ ian		two suffixes
13. phonograph		phon	+ o	+ graph		two suffixes
14. phonographic		phon	+ o	+ graph	+ ic	three suffixes
15. phonology		phon	+ o	+ logy		two suffixes
16. phonological		phon	+ o	+ log	+ ic + al	four suffixes
17. phonologist		phon	+ o	+ log	+ ist	three suffixes

Phon- is the base morpheme here; it is a free morpheme, and when spelled as a single word it has a final *-e.* As different derivational suffixes are added, spelling variations take place:

> the *-e* of the base morpheme is dropped when adding *-ic;* it is replaced by an *-i* when adding *-ous;*
>
> the *-e* of the base morpheme is replaced by an *-o*-7 when adding *-graph* or *-logy*.

These spelling changes occur only on the base. However, as other derivational affixes are added, other spelling changes occur:

> 7 This internal -o- is called an infix.

the *-y* of the derivational affix *-logy* is replaced by an *-i* when *-ic* and *-al* are added; *phonology* becomes *phonological.*

These changes are noted because they need to be understood if we are to fully appreciate how morphemes affect one another.

Some derivational affixes (prefixes and suffixes) when added to base morphemes move the word from one category to another. The following examples illustrate these movements.

FIGURE 1.21
CHANGING WORD CATEGORIES

BASE	ORIGINAL CATEGORY	PREFIX + BASE	NEW WORD CATEGORY
fill	verb	refill	verb/noun
city	noun	intercity	adjective
date	noun/verb	postdate	verb
plain	adjective	explain	verb
found	verb	profound	adjective
rail	noun	derail	verb
sleep	noun/verb	asleep	adjective
tempt	verb	attempt	verb/noun

BASE	ORIGINAL CATEGORY	BASE + SUFFIX	NEW WORD CATEGORY
angel	noun	angelic	adjective
correct	verb	correction	noun
improve	verb	improvement	noun
sad	adjective	sadly	adverb
sterile	adjective	sterilize	verb
together	adverb	togetherness	noun
up	adverb	upon	preposition

However, the move in word category does not necessarily happen every time an affix is added; some categories overlap. The base *fill* does not have to move categories with the addition of *re-*, because *refill* can be used either as a verb or as a noun.

It is also helpful to remember that certain derivational suffixes help to identify a word category: *-ment*, *-ness*, and *-ion* identify the noun category; *-ic* is typical of adjectives, *-ly* is typical of adverbs, although a number of adjectives end with it as well; *-ize* is reflective of verbs.

Inflectional Affixes

> INFLECTIONAL AFFIXES are bound morphemes occurring after or within a base or stem, producing different forms in the paradigm of the same word.

Inflectional morphemes are best divided into two categories: regular inflections attached to a base or stem as a suffix, or irregular inflections realized by morphological processes of umlaut or ablaut (see above). Inflectional morphemes are especially important because they extend grammatical meaning.

I have been using the phrases *lexical meaning and grammatical meaning* up to this point without specifically contrasting them. It is now time to do so as we begin our discussion of inflectional morphemes.

lexical meaning is the denotative or dictionary meaning that a speaker attaches to actual objects, events, actions, etc.;

canister: (*sg. noun*) a small box or can for tea or coffee, etc.

grammatical meaning has to do with the relationships of words within sentences.

The *canisters* were empty.

canister + s: (*pl. noun*) requires a verb in agreement with the plural.

We divide grammatical meaning or categories into primary (*nouns, verbs, etc.* or *parts of speech*) and secondary (number, gender, case, tense and aspect), which will be taken up in detail in the next chapter.

Inflectional morphemes in English specialize in expressing grammatical meaning. Several of the primary categories or *parts of speech* are inflected to show relationships to other words within sentences: *nouns, verbs, adjectives* and *adverbs.* Because these word groups also have irregular forms, we shall also see a number of variations for morphemes.

Nouns

Regular nouns are marked with three inflectional affixes to extend grammatical meanings.

The plural has slight variation in that *-s* is replaced with an *-es* for some nouns; the plural possessive can vary in proper nouns ending in an *-s*, for example, the Jones's or the Jones'.

FIGURE 1.22
REGULAR NOUN INFLECTIONS

GRAMMATICAL MEANINGS	EXAMPLES		INFLECTIONS
1. noun plural	girl	girls	-s
	church	churches	-es
2. noun singular possessive	girls	girl's	-'s
	girl	girls'	-s'
3. noun plural possessive	women	women's	-'s

Verbs

Regular verbs are marked with four inflections to express grammatical meanings.

Because inflections for the past tense and past participle are the same, it might appear to cause problems. However, this will not be the case, for as we

move into verb structures we will see that the past participle will require a supporting auxiliary verb.

FIGURE 1.23 VERB INFLECTIONS

GRAMMATICAL MEANINGS	EXAMPLES	INFLECTIONS
1. present 3rd person singular	walks	-s
2. present participle	walking	-ing
3. past tense	walked	-ed
4. past participle	walked	-ed

Adjectives

Adjectives are inflected, using *-er* and *-est* to express the grammatical meanings of *comparative* and *superlative* degrees, respectively. The stem form is called the *positive* and has no inflectional ending. Depending upon the syllabic structure of a word, the *-er* and *-est* inflections can be replaced with *more* and *most*, respectively. Of all inflections those for the adjective have the fewest variations.

FIGURE 1.24
ADJECTIVE INFLECTIONS

GRAMMATICAL MEANINGS	EXAMPLES	INFLECTIONS
1. positive	great grateful	Æ
2. comparative	greater more grateful	-er
3. superlative	greatest more grateful	-est

Adverbs

Adverbs are generally not inflected; instead, we mark them with different derivational suffixes.

Like adjectives, however, some adverbs can be inflected with suffixes to express the grammatical meanings of comparative and superlative.

FIGURE 1.25
ADVERB DERIVATIONS

ADVERBS	DERIVATIONAL SUFFIXES
1. carefully	-ly
2. clockwise	-wise
3. skyward	-ward

FIGURE 1.26
ADVERB INFLECTIONS

GRAMMATICAL MEANINGS	EXAMPLES	INFLECTIONS
1. positive	fast	*Æ*
2. comparative	faster	-er
3. superlative	fastest	-est

Also, depending on the syllabic structure of the word, adverbs can take *more* or *most* to replace the *-er* and *-est* inflections.

FIGURE 1.27
ADVERB INFLECTIONS

ADVERBS	EXAMPLES	
1. carefully	more carefully	most carefully
2. clockwise	more clockwise	most clockwise
3. skyward	more skyward	most skyward

Note: When adding suffixes to a base or stem, we follow a particular order in English; derivational suffixes always precede inflectional suffixes. The pattern is as follows:

base/stem	+ *derivational suffix*	+ *inflectional suffix*
fail	+ -ure	+ -s

Inflectional suffixes always close off a word; no other suffix can be added, neither a derivational morpheme nor another inflectional morpheme.

Morpheme Variants8

MORPHEME VARIANTS are contextual variations of morphemes.

Morpheme variants are important for understanding inflection in irregular nouns and verbs in English. We note two categories here: irregular forms which have come down to us from Old English, and irregular foreign forms which have been borrowed into our language over the years.

For the historical irregular forms, nouns have umlauts and some suffix variations; verbs have ablauts and other suffix variations. For the borrowed forms, we also have variations in their inflectional suffixes. Understanding both is necessary to explain differences in the spelling of their grammatical word forms.

Irregular noun inflections

Irregular plurality varies considerably for English nouns and is expressed by the following morphemes.

8 It is not my intent to use variant here to mean allomorphs [G. *allos* = other + *morphe* = form], which are variations of a single morpheme. By variants I simply mean different morphemes and how they occur at the lexical level; allomorphs would be discussed at the phonological level.

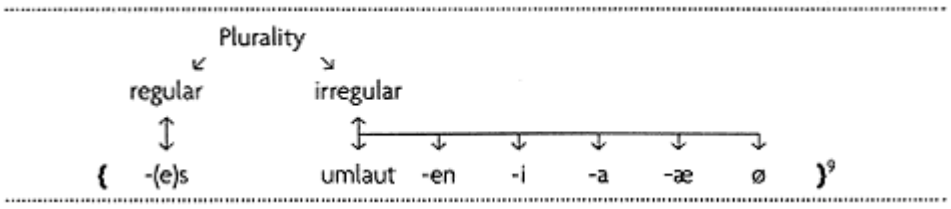


Figure 1.28
Morpheme Variants: Nouns

I illustrate these variations with the examples in Figure 1.29.

FIGURE 1.29
MORPHEME VARIANTS FOR NOUN INFLECTIONS

MORPHEMES	SINGULAR	PLURAL
-(e)a plural	dog church	dogs churches
-umlaut	goose woman	geese women
-en plural	child ox	children oxen
-i plural	alumnus stimulus	alumni stimuli
-a plural	datum criterion	data criteria
-æ plural	alumna formula	alumnæ formulæ
-Æ plural	deer fish	deer fish

A more precise linguistic description of these variations can be given in the field of phonology/phonetics (sounds); however, an understanding of phonetics would be required. But consider the following example, *louse* being replaced by *lice.*

SPELLING	SOUNDS
louse	/laws/ five letters versus three sounds
lice	/lays/ four letters versus three sounds

/aw/ and /ay/ represent one diphthong10 each. The contrast here is between grapheme *(a minimum distinctive unit of the writing system)* and phoneme *(a minimum distinctive unit of the sound system).* Although a linguistic description is more precise, an explanation using the writing system is more in keeping with students' current understanding of their language system.

These irregular inflections will be covered in greater detailed under *nouns* in chapter 2.

Irregular verb inflections

The past tense and past participle for English verbs are also expressed by different morphemes.

The examples in Figure 1.31 are illustrative of the various ablaut patterns for irregular verbs, and because patterns vary these examples are only representative forms.

Beyond irregular forms, some derivational morphemes cause problems in that they are spelled and sound the same, but their meanings

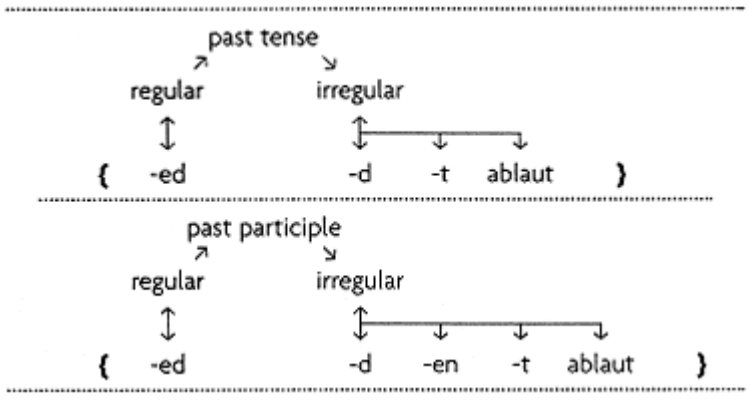


Figure 1.30
Morpheme Variants: Verbs

9 {} means morpheme.

10 Diphthong is a vowel sound within a syllable with a noticeable change in quality during production.

differ somewhat when attached to certain bases. Consider, for example, the *ex-* prefix in Figure 1.32.

FIGURE 1.31
MORPHEME VARIANTS FOR VERB INFLECTIONS

MORPHEMES	STEM	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICLE
-ed	move	moved	moved
	talk	talked	talked
-d	hear	heard	heard
	say	said	said
-t	dream	dreamt	dreamt
	weep	wept	wept
-en	know	knew	known
	take	took	taken
Æ	cut	cut	cut
ABLAUT PAST TENSE			
-o-	shine	shone	shone
-e-	fly	flew	flown
-a-	drink	drank	drunk
-a-	come	came	came
-a-	sit	sat	sat
-oo-	stand	stood	stood
-u-	hang	hung	hung

FIGURE 1.32
PREFIX MORPHEMES

EXAMPLES	ex- MEANS11	
exalt	upward	*to move upward*
excess	beyond	*to move beyond*
expel	from, out	*to move away from, out of*
ex-president	former	*the previous or former person*
exterminate	thoroughly	*to do so thoroughly*

The *ex-* morpheme in each of the words in Figure 1.31 has the same sound, but its meaning varies slightly. The *ex-* morpheme in *exalt* does not entirely have the same meaning as the *ex-* morpheme in *exterminate*. The former means *to move upward,* while the latter means *to do so thoroughly.* It is important to be aware of the context in which a particular morpheme is used because its meaning varies slightly with the base morpheme to which it is attached.

FIGURE 1.33
SUFFIX MORPHEMES

EXAMPLES	-er- MEANING12
	DERIVATIONAL

player	one who
New Yorker	one living in
sprayer	one that
flicker	repeatedly
	INFLECTIONAL
greater	comparative

Figure 1.33 contains a second example of such a morpheme, and this time it appears both as a derivational suffix and as an inflectional suffix.

Again, all of the *-er* morphemes vary in their meanings. The first four show a derivational morpheme with slight variations of meaning, whereas the last *-er* morpheme is an inflectional morpheme with an entirely different meaning.

One of the most confusing morphemes in English, however, is the *-s* suffix, because it has four possible grammatical meanings depending on its word category. See Figure 1.34. Although all four examples are of inflectional suffixes, their grammatical meanings are different.

FIGURE 1.34
INFLECTIONAL -S
MORPHEMES

EXAMPLES -s	MEANING
NOUN	
cats	plural
cat's	possessive singular
cats'	possessive plural
VERB	
sings	3rd person singular

This is the benefit of analyzing words according to their morphemic status. We not only come to understand the word as a whole, but we also learn the individual parts that make up that word, and the variation of meanings attributed to particular morphemes. Variations of morphemes may seem confusing at first, but they are very helpful in understanding word formations in Modern English.

11*Webster's New World Dictionary*, p. 212.

12*Webster's New World Dictionary*, p. 208.

Morpheme Analysis

In concluding this chapter, we focus now briefly on breaking down morphemes into their various parts. We will follow this pattern later as well when breaking down word, phrase, clause, and even sentence structures. It is a binary analysis, which means that we simply break components into two parts at each level. This lessens the possibility of error. Consider Figure 1.35.

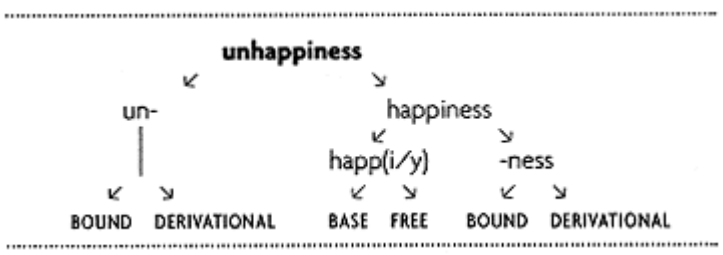


Figure 1.35
Sentence Analysis

The general pattern is to first remove the inflectional morpheme, of which there will only be one, since inflectional morphemes do not accumulate. Next we remove the derivational morphemes, beginning at the extreme right; derivational suffixes do accumulate and so there may be more than one. Often prefixes are removed before suffixes, but this is not a rule. This process continues until only the base morpheme is left. Figure 1.36 shows slightly more difficult words broken down.

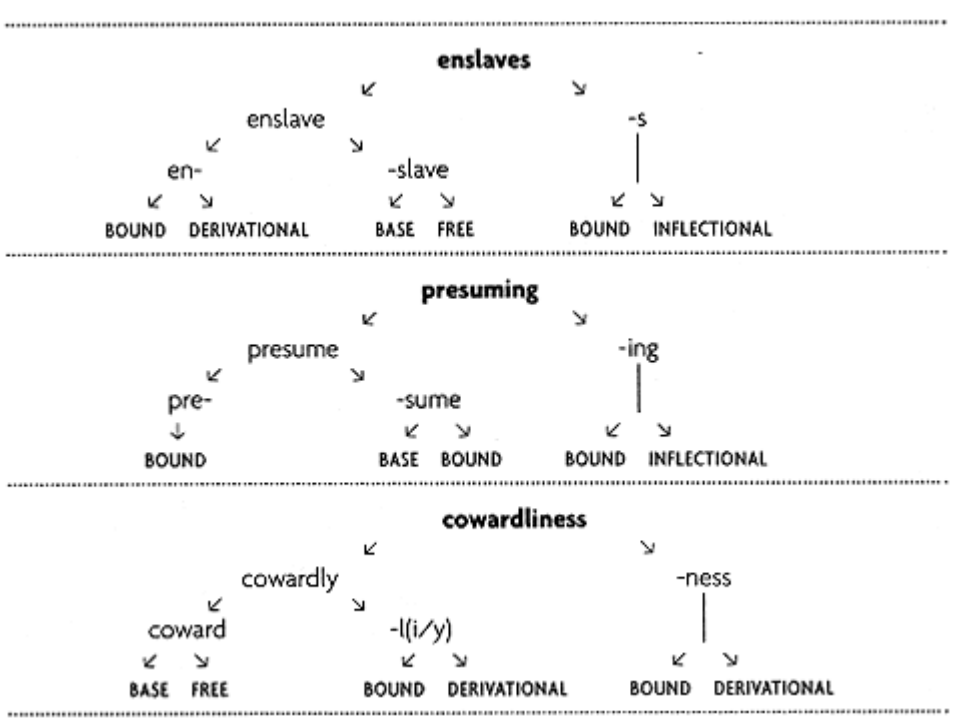
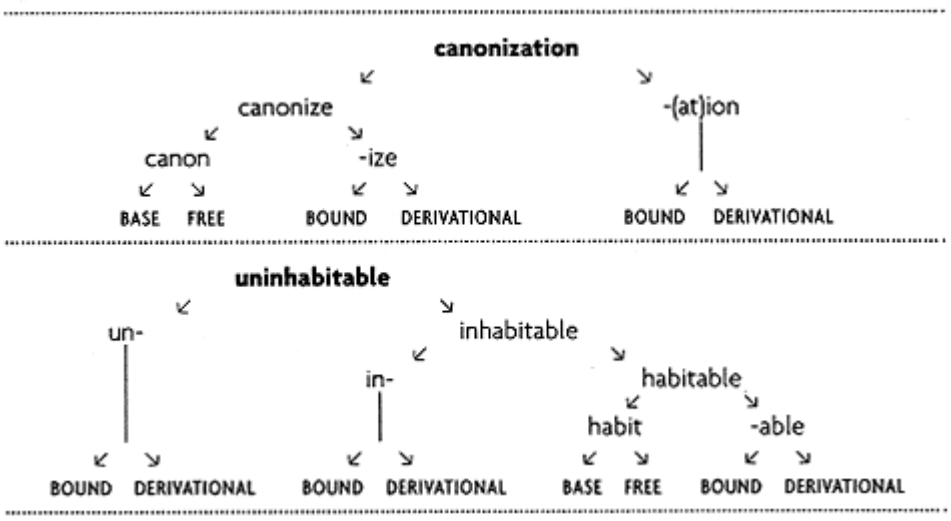


Figure 1.36
Morpheme Analysis



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Unlike its Germanic cousins, English has lost most of its inflections, which were evident in Old English. This loss of inflection has been compensated for by fixing word order, which we shall take up in later chapters.

From morphemes we create words, and by means of morphemes we also inflect words. In fact, morphemes form the basis for categorizing parts of speech. It is important to understand the make-up of words and the roles that morphemes carry out in expressing grammatical meanings. With a full understanding of this chapter on morphemes, we now move on to the different word categories.

As we analyze and discuss the forms of the various word categories, we will see again the importance of derivational and inflectional morphemes. In fact, you might wonder how it is possible to understand word categories without understanding morphemes, since the two are an integral part of each other.

2
Words Form Class

Words

> WORDS are free standing forms consisting of one or more morphemes of which one is a lexical base.

Native speakers have an intuitive understanding of the words they use and what they mean. We look up words in dictionaries, read them on pages, and often discuss or argue about their meanings. As a unit of language, however, the

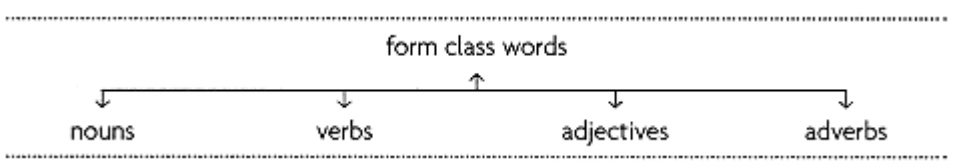


Figure 2.1
Forms Class words

word is more difficult to define. One better known definition comes from Leonard Bloomfield, a linguist, who says that a word is a *minimum free form.*1 Essentially this means that the word is the smallest unit that we can use alone to form an utterance, and it must consist of at least one free morpheme.2 Hartman and Stork note that even if we accept this definition, there are words that are marginal; for example, *the, a, of,* etc. can hardly stand alone as utterances. To avoid ambiguity it is better to define this concept within the context in which it is used. Since we are interested in the *word* as a lexical unit, we might define it as a *vocabulary item with a specific meaning.*

The form of words, *what a constituent IS,* makes up our first category of sentence constituent analysis: *form,* function, and position. These lexical units are the first category for *grammatical* analysis because they are the smallest constituents that we use to form sentences. Although morphemes were our first category of analysis, of themselves they are not sentence constituents. For this reason we analyze them in separate categories; however, they are meaningful within the context of words.

Words are classified as form *(open)* class or structure *(closed)* class categories. Form class words are nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, and they readily admit new members through the process of adding derivational affixes and through borrowings. Structure class words are pronouns, auxiliaries, determiners, prepositions and conjunctions, and these do not admit new members for they are fixed categories. Each group has common features which characterize its members.

1 L. Bloomfield, *Language*, 8th ed. (London: Allen & Unwin, 1962 [1933]).

2 R.R.K. Hartman and F.C. Stork, *Dictionary of Language and Linguistics* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1976), p. 256.

Nouns

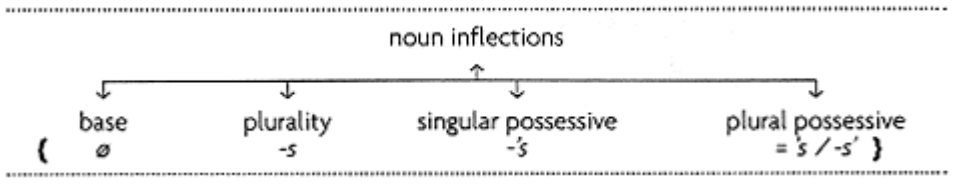


Figure 2.2
Noun Inflections

NOUNS are form class words generally completing the paradigm of inflections: *-s plurality, 's singular possessive* and *'s or s' plural possessive.*

Regular nouns

Words belonging to the noun category traditionally have been defined as naming *persons, places, things or concepts.* This is a rather general classification that often causes problems, and it says nothing about the grammatical structure of this category of words. A more precise classification is to identify nouns according to their inflectional paradigm, that is, inflected for the *-s plurality, { -'s} singular possessive,* and *{-s'} plural possessive.* Markers for these regular inflectional forms are *{-s pl}, {-s sg ps}* and *{-s pl ps}* respectively.

FIGURE 2.3
REGULAR NOUN INFLECTIONS

NOUNS	-(e)s pl	-s sg ps	-s pl ps
girl	girls	girl's	girls'
lady	ladies	lady's	ladies'
boy	boys	boy's	boys'
dog	dogs	dog's	dogs'

Figure 2.3 illustrates inflections for the regular noun paradigm.

Examples are:

a. "The shepherd himself thought he had good reason." [Eliot]3

[SINGULAR]

b. "The spinning-wheels hummed busily in the farmhouses."

[-S PLURAL]

c. "The shepherd's dog barked fiercely."

[-S SINGULAR POSSESSIVE]

d. "The fading gray light fell dimly on the walls decorated with guns, whips, and foxes' brushes."

[-S PLURAL POSSESSIVE]

All regular nouns are inflected in this way for the plural and the singular and plural possessives. These inflections cover most words in the noun category with the exception of irregular nouns to follow.

3 Most examples are taken from works of literature and the authors' names will be indicated. Several examples may be taken from the same author, and so the name will only appear after the first example. Until a new author is mentioned, attribute all examples to the author indicated.

Irregular nouns

Not all words categorized as nouns follow the regular noun paradigm. Some nouns, for example, have no contrasting singular and plural forms; others have irregular plurals. Except for nouns denoting inanimate objects, all irregular nouns have regular singular and plural possessives.

1. Nouns without singulars: Some nouns have only plural forms; there is no equivalent singular form. See Figure 2.4.

FIGURE 2.4
PLURAL FORMS
ONLY

clothes

goods

measles

oats

pliers

scissors

spectacles

vitals

Examples are:

a. "When he moved, a skeleton seemed to sway loose in his clothes." [Conrad]

b. "Here, maybe her scissors are in hereand her things." [Gaspell]

c. I had rather longed for the wounded to arrive, for rheumatism wasn't heroic, neither was liver complaint, or measles." [Alcott]

[PLURAL]

Occasionally, there is an exception where the noun may be expressed with a singular verb, as well as a plural verb.

a. Measles is a contagious disease.

[SINGULAR AGREEMENT]

b. Measles are all over the child's body.

[PLURAL AGREEMENT]

These nouns are not inflected for the possessive according to the regular paradigm. The reason is that *possessiveness* is *usually* attributed only to animate beings and not to inanimate objects. Nouns in this group are inanimate objects.

Consider the following examples.

a. "I have been held by some whose opinions I respect to have denied men's responsibility for their actions." [Butler]

[ANIMATE]

b. "The expense of getting wool down to the ship's side would eat up the farmer's profits."

[INANIMATE]

For the inanimate noun here, we might expect the following phrasing:

c. "The expense of getting wool down to the side of the ship would eat up the farmer's profits."

[PERIPHRASTIC POSSESSIVE]

In the first example, *men* is animate and the regular possessive is used; in the second example, *ship* is inanimate and the regular possessive is generally not used. In the third example, to attribute possessiveness to inanimate nouns we generally use the *periphrastic possessive,* that is, a prepositional phrase beginning with *of* and followed by the noun. For most inanimate things we attribute possessiveness in this way.

Exceptions, of course, always occur. For example, when the possessive is attributed to some inanimate objects we have:

a. "One of the ship's instructors had seen the accident." [Conrad]

b. "'A hair's-breadth,' he muttered."

c. "He waited till the boat was an oar's length from the shore, and then up and away."

d. "There was nothing to be heard then but the slight wash about the boat's sides."

or even places:

e. "The respectable sword of his country's law was suspended over his head."

and concepts:

f. "He wanted to go on talking for truth's sake, perhaps for his own sake also."

especially time:

g. "But to scrub some dozen lords of creation at a moment's notice, was reallyreally." [Alcott]

h. "If any needed a reward for that day's work, they surely received it."

i. "Next morning we found our last night's tealeaves frozen at the bottom of the pannikins."

2. Singular and plural forms are alike: A second group of irregular nouns has no contrast between singular and plural forms. They show only the existing4 plural form. These nouns generally name animals. See Figure 2.5.

FIGURE 2.5
SINGULAR FORMS ONLY

SINGULAR	PLURAL	INFLECTION
buck	buck	
deer	deer	zero
fish	fish	ending
salmon	salmon	= &oset;
sheep	sheep	
trout	trout	

4 It is necessary to note change in grammatical meaning, and because there is no inflection we mark this plural as having a zero (written ø) ending.

Examples are:

a. "Now and again a fish broke, or a great bird swooped down and slit the surface." [Churchill]

[SINGULAR]

b. "The soul leaped forth to meet: the myriad green of the sun playing with the leaves, the fish swimming lazily in the brown pool."

[PLURAL]

Occasionally, in spoken dialects5 you will hear the regular plural for some of these forms:

c. "'Begob,' said he, 'tis fine weather for fishes.'"

[PLURAL]

d. "One voyage, I recollect, I tipped him a live sheep out of the remnant of my sea-stock." [Conrad]

[SINGULAR]

e. "Sheep and cattle were introduced, and bred with extreme rapidity." [Butler]

[PLURAL]

Seeing these words in the context of the whole phrase or sentence is necessary for distinguishing between singular and plural forms.

3. Irregular plural nouns: Some nouns have irregular plural forms; their singular and possessive forms, however, are regular.

FIGURE 2.6
IRREGULAR PLURAL NOUNS

SINGULAR	PLURAL	INFLECTIONS
brother	brethren	-(r)en
ox	oxen	-en
foot	feet	-ee-
leaf	leaves	-(v)es
mouse	mice	-i-
woman	women	-e-

Examples are:

a. "At one o'clock I was at the foot of the saddle." [Butler]

[SINGULAR]

b. "He set his feet close together, heel to heel and toe to toe."

[PLURAL]

c. "So saying, the energetic little woman twirled her hair into a button at the back of her head." [Alcott]

[SINGULAR]

d. "For all women thought a wound the best decoration a brave soldier could wear."

[PLURAL]

These irregular plurals date to the Old and Middle English periods, when nouns were categorized as *weak* and *strong* and distinguished by inflectional suffixes.

5 A variety of language, differing in pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary from the standard language.

4. Foreign inflections: English has two sources of irregular word formations, those reflecting earlier formations of the language and those borrowed from foreign languages. We saw that earlier forms can be patterned and explained rather easily. Foreign words are not as easily grouped because they come from languages that have different formations. Some borrowed words often retain their foreign forms for a long time in the host language, while others undergo the process of fitting into regular inflected paradigms more rapidly. During this process, two forms often exist simultaneously. The representative examples in figure 2.7 come from Latin and Greek; all forms currently in use are given.

FIGURE 2.7
FOREIGN INFLECTIONS

SINGULAR	PLURAL	INFLECTIONS
appendix	appendices	-ces
	appendixes6	-es
alumnus	alumni	-i
alumna	alumnæ	-æ
criterion	criteria	-a
datum	data	-a
formula	formulæ	-æ
	formulas	-s
hippopotamus	hippopotami	-i
	hippopotamuses	-es
indes	indices	-ces
	indexes7	-es
nucleus	nuclei	-i
stadium	stadia	-a
	stadiums	-s
stimulus	stimuli	-i

Examples are:8

a. The city needs a new stadium.

[SINGULAR]

b. Two stadia would be ideal.

[PLURAL]

c. Many cities have two stadiums.

[PLURAL]

Although the forms listed in the last three sections do not follow the regular inflectional noun paradigm, they are quite regular in that they have singular and plural forms. As well, their possessives follow the regular inflectional noun paradigm. We categorize these foreign words as nouns because they function as nouns, regardless of their forms. The following paradigm shows the regular possessive formations.

FIGURE 2.8
IRREGULAR PLURALS, BUT REGULAR POSSESSIVES

NOUNS	-s pl	-s sg ps	-s pl ps
brother	brethren	brother's	brethren's
ox	oxen	ox's	oxen's
women	women	woman's	women's
sheep	sheep	sheep's	sheep's

salmon	salmon	salmon's	salmon's
alumnus	alumni	alumnus's	alumni's
alumna	alumnæ	alumna's	alumnæ's
hippopotamus	hippopotami	hippopotamus's	hippopotami's

6 "Appendices" is used to refer to supplementary sections at the end of books or reports, while "appendixes" refers to parts of the anatomy.

7 "Indexes" is used to refer to alphabetical lists at the end of books; "indices" is used elsewhere.

8 At times it is difficult to find examples in the literature to illustrate particular points, such as variations on foreign words; therefore, contrived examples must be substituted.

Noun groups

We also group nouns according to characteristics other than inflection.

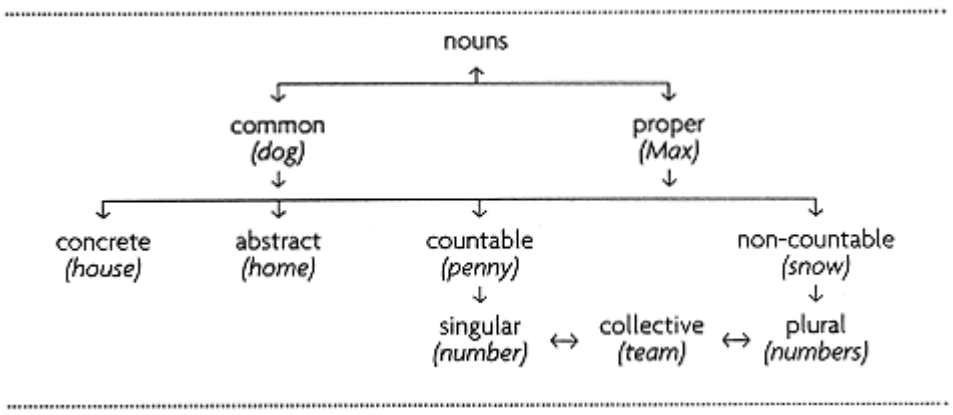


Figure 2.9 Nouns

Common nouns designate a general class of objects or concepts; proper nouns refer to specific persons, places, things, or concepts.

FIGURE 2.10
COMMON AND PROPER NOUNS

COMMON	PROPER	
chap	Symons	*person*
city	London	*place*
car	Subaru Forester	*thing*
faith	Christianity	*concept*

Examples are:

a. "Old Symons is a fine old chap." [Conrad]

[PROPER VERSUS COMMON PERSON]

b. "Also that Scrooge had as little of what is called fancy about him as any man in the city of London." [Dickens]

[COMMON VERSUS PROPER PLACE]

c. "Tom McChesney kept his faith." [Churchill]

[COMMON CONCEPT]

Common nouns are also *concrete* or *abstract*, and *countable* or *non-countable*. Concrete nouns have material substance and abstract nouns refer to concepts, qualities and states.

FIGURE 2.11
CONCRETE AND
ABSTRACT NOUNS

CONCRETE	ABSTRACT
heart	heartiness
house	home
blood	bloodshed

Examples are:

a. "And she went slowly away with her little girl, whilst her son stood watching her, cut to the heart to let her go, and yet unable to leave the wakes" [Lawrence]

[CONCRETE]

b. "The sun was just flooding the slopes when our guest arose to leave, and my father bade him God-speed with a heartiness that was rare to him." [Churchill]

[ABSTRACT]

c. "They remained for a long time within the house."

[CONCRETE]

d. "I must go home," said Nick; "she will be worried."

[ABSTRACT]

Countable nouns occur as singular or plural in a countable number; *noncountable* nouns are not similarly counted.

FIGURE 2.12
COUNTABLE AND NON-COUNTABLE NOUNS

COUNTABLE	NON-COUNTABLE
a dollar	clothes
two apples	rain
three chairs	furniture

Examples are:

a. "It fetched us a dollar a day apiece all the year round." [Twain]

[COUNTABLE]

b. "She put me in them new clothes again."

[NON-COUNTABLE]

c. "Harper and Ben Rogers, and two or three more of the boys, hid in the old tanyard."

[COUNTABLE]

d. "I made a kind of a tent out of my blankets to put my things under so the rain couldn't get at them."

[NON-COUNTABLE]

Collective nouns refer to a group of persons, things or ideas. They are inflected like regular nouns, but their usage often varies depending on whether we consider them to be singular or plural. A representative group of these nouns in shown in Figure 2.13.

FIGURE 2.13
COLLECTIVE NOUNS

committee

majority

choir

minority

family

people

government

team

group

class

Examples are:

a. "You are extinctas a county family." [Hardy]

[COLLECTIVE SG]

b. "The family have to change their name." [Stevenson]

[COLLECTIVE PL]

c. "Among these on-lookers were three young men of a superior class." [Hardy]

[COLLECTIVE SG]

d. "It was true that he was at present out of his class."

[COLLECTIVE SG OR PL]

e. "English and French, who wrote much of squalor and strife and sin and little of those qualities that go to the conquest of an empire and the making of a people." [Churchill]

[COLLECTIVE SG]

f. "He swung around and faced the people."

[COLLECTIVE PL]

The key to quickly recognizing whether these collective nouns are being used in the singular or the plural is to check other words in the sentence. In the first sentence, the preceding article *a* signals singularity; in the second sentence the plural pronoun *their* signals plurality. Not all contexts will provide this, as is evident by sentence (d) above, but many do.

Nouns are not restricted to a particular category; that is, a single noun can occupy several of these categories. For example,

three dogs	can be	[COMMON, CONCRETE & COUNTABLE]
American Government	can be	[PROPER, CONCRETE & COLLECTIVE]
Christian faith	can be	[PROPER, ABSTRACT & COUNTABLE]

Verbs

> VERBS are form class words having distinctions for *a stem, a third person singular* and a *present participle*. (Verbs also have past tense and participle forms that may not be distinctive.)

Verbs have been traditionally defined as *action words.* This definition, however, like the traditional definition for nouns, is rather vague. A more precise way of identifying words belonging to this category is again by inflection. Verbs are marked with four inflections, but note that the base is not inflected:

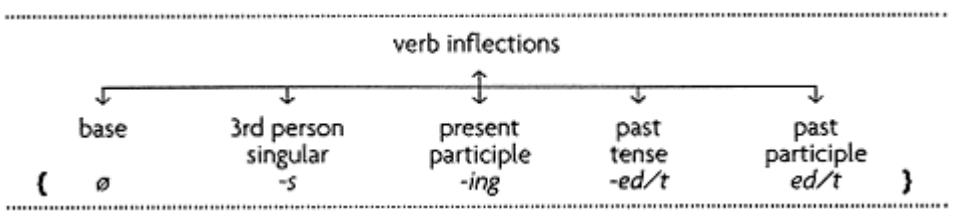


Figure 2.14
Verb Inflection

Of these, to classify words as verbs we need a base, a third person singular, and a present participle. Verbs must also have a past tense and a past participle, but these latter forms need not be distinctive. They can be similar in form to the base or to one another.

We also classify verbs as regular and irregular. In Old English these verbs were called weak and strong verbs respectively. Strong verbs formed their past tense and past participle with an *ablaut* or *vowel gradation (a means of marking differ-*

ent functions of a word by varying the vowel sound in its base). Weak verbs formed their past tense and past participle with an inflectional suffix, that is, a *{-d}* or *{-t}* suffix. With the loss of inflection during the Middle English period, all new verbs took on the weak verb formation with an *{-ed}* or *{-t}* in past forms. This weak formation soon became the norm for what are now called regular verbs. Strong verbs then became known as irregular verbs, the opposite of what they were in Old English. Knowing even a little of the history of our language helps us to understand current forms and classifications.

Regular verbs

Regular verbs are formed by adding an *-s* to the *base* for the third person singular, an *{-ing}* for the present participle, and an *{-ed}* for the past tense and also for the past participle. Note that the past tense and past participle of regular verbs take the same inflectional *{-ed}* suffix.

FIGURE 2.15
REGULAR VERB FORMATION

STEM Ø	3 p sg	-ing pp	-ed pt	-ed pt-p
look	looks	looking	looked	looked
talk	talks	talking	talked	talked
want	wants	wanting	wanted	wanted

Examples are:

a. "One must look at it logically." [Christie]

[VERB BASE]

b. "Yet that is what it looks like."

[3RD PERSON SINGULAR]

c. "You're looking very tired."

[PRESENT PARTICIPLE]

d. "I looked with some curiosity at 'Alfred darling.'"

[PAST TENSE]

e. "Now Cynthia had looked charming."

[PAST PARTICIPLE]

Some spelling conventions cause additional changes to the bases of verbs when they take on the various inflectional suffixes of the verb paradigm. Many of these we saw in our analysis of morphemes. Here are five common spelling changes.

FIGURE 2.16
SPELLING CHANGES

BASE	PAST TENSE	CHANGES
slap	slapped	1. Doubling a final consonant
hope	hoped	2. Dropping the final *e*
carry	carried	3. Changing a final *y* to *i*
keep	kept	4. Loss of *-e-* and taking *-t* rather than *-ed*
dream	dreamt dreamed	5. Verbs taking *-t* and/or *-ed*

FIGURE 2.17
DOUBLING CONSONANTS

BASE	PRESENT PARTICIPLE
begin	beginning
bet	betting
bid	bidding
cut	cutting
dig	digging
forget	forgetting
get	getting
sit	sitting
spin	spinning
spit	spitting
swim	swimming
win	winning

Doubling a final consonant on the base is also a frequent occurrence for a number of verbs when forming the present participle. Such verbs also double the final consonant of the stem in past tense and past participle forms. See Figure 2.17.

Irregular verbs

Irregular verbs that have been retained in the language from Middle English strong verbs show differences in the past tense and past participle forms from regular verbs. Where an *{-ed}* inflectional suffix is added to regular verbs, ablaut variations occur for many other verbs. The following divisions point out some of the major characteristics, and a more complete list can be found in the appendix.

1. Some verbs have an ablaut or internal vowel change, taking an *{-a-}* for the past tense and an *{-u-}* for the past participle.

FIGURE 2.18
INTERNAL VOWEL CHANGE

STEM Ø	3 p sg	-ing pp	-ed pt	-ed pt-p
begin	begins	beginning	began	begun
drink	drinks	drinking	drank	drunk
ring	rings	ringing	rang	rung
sing	sings	singing	sang	sung

sink	sinks	sinking	sank	sunk
spring	springs	springing	sprang	sprung
swim	swims	swimming	swam	swum

Examples are:

a. "For if you begin telling tales, I'll follow." [Eliot]

[PRESENT TENSE]

b. "The other persons present, however, began to inquire where Silas meant to say that the knife was."

[PAST TENSE]

c. "'He's been staked and killed,' he said, as soon as his father was silent, and had begun to cut his meat."

[PAST PARTICIPLE]

2. In other verbs we have an ablaut or internal vowel change in the past tense and usually a similar change in the past participle, but not always the same vowel. We add an inflectional *-(e)n* suffix to the past participle.

FIGURE 2.19
INTERNAL VOWEL CHANGE

BASE Ø	3 p sg	-ing pp	-ed pt	-ed pt-p
arise	arises	arising	arose	arisen
awake	awakes	awaking	awoke	awoken
eat	eats	eating	ate	eaten
fall	falls	falling	fell	fallen
grow	grows	growing	grew	grown
rise	rises	rising	rose	risen
throw	throws	throwing	threw	thrown
wake	wakes	waking	woke	woken
wear	wears	wearing	wore	worn

Examples are:

a. "The atmosphere turned pale, the birds shook themselves in the hedges, arose, and twittered." [Hardy]

[PAST TENSE]

b. "As he fell out of the dance his eyes lighted on Tess Durbeyfield."

[PAST TENSE]

c. "She had risen at five o'clock every morning of that week."

[PAST PARTICIPLE]

d. "She had been staying indoors a good deal, and her complexion had grown delicate."

[PAST PARTICIPLE]

3. The past tense and past participle frequently have identical forms in other verbs, without the inflectional *{-ed}* suffix. The past tense and past participle forms simply take a *{-t}* or *{-d}* suffix.

FIGURE 2.20
IDENTICAL PAST TENSE AND PAST PARTICIPLE

BASE Ø	3 p sg	-ing pp	-ed pt	-ed pt-p
behold	beholds	beholding	beheld	beheld
feel	feels	feeling	felt	felt
get	gets	getting	got	got
sell	sells	selling	sold	sold

Examples are:

a. "Last night, when I was driving over to Verg Gunch's, I felt a pain in my stomach, too." [Lewis]

[PAST TENSE]

b. "Without them he would have felt naked."

[PAST PARTICIPLE]

c. "They haven't got any intellectual stimulus such as you get up here in the city."

[PAST PARTICIPLE]

4. Other verbs have identical forms for the base, past tense, and past participle.

FIGURE 2.21
IDENTICAL BASE, PAST TENSE AND PAST PARTICIPLE

BASE Ø	3 p sg	-ing pp	-ed pt	-ed pt-p
bid	bids	bidding	bid	bid
cut	cuts	cutting	cut	cut
bet	bets	betting	bet	bet

Examples are:

a. "This matter cuts very deep." [Doyle]

[PRESENT TENSE]

b. "'Mr. Holmes,' said Sir Henry Baskerville, 'someone cut out this message with a scissors.'"

[PAST TENSE]

c. "A steep, boulder-sprinkled hill lay upon the right which had in bygone days been cut into a granite quarry."

[PAST PARTICIPLE]

Finite vs. non-finite verbs

FINITE VERBS express tense and are marked for person and number; non-finite verbs express aspect and voice.

The verb paradigm has three finite and two non-finite forms.

FIGURE 2.22
FINITE VS. NON-FINITE

VERB PARADIGM	VERB FORMS	STATUS
base	drive	
3rd per sg	drives	
past tense	drove	finite
present participle	driving	
past participle	driven	non-finite

The base, third person singular and past tense are finite forms of verbs because they can be contrasted for tense *(present and past)*, and marked for person *(1st, 2nd and 3rd)* and number *(singular and plural)*.

a. I drive a car. [1ST PERSON, SINGULAR, PRESENT TENSE]

a. he drives car. [3RD PERSON, SINGULAR, PRESENT TENSE]

a. I/he drove car. [1ST AND 3RD PERSON, SINGULAR, PAST TENSE]

These three forms of the verb paradigm do not require additional helping verbs to express their meanings.

The present and the past participles are non-finite forms of verbs.

b. *I/he driving a car.

*I/he driven a car.

As we shall see later these forms of the verb paradigm are used in constructing aspect and voice. Because they cannot stand alone, both of these verb forms require an additional helping verb to express tense, person, and number. The presence of this auxiliary verb allows us to distinguish between past tense and past participle forms of the verb.

c. I/he am/is driving a car. [1ST AND 3RD PERSON, SINGULAR, PREENT TENSE]

I/he had driven a car. [1ST AND 3RD PERSON, SINGULAR, PAST TENSE]

The finite helping verbs, *am/is* and *had*, carry the tense, person, and number for the non-finite verb forms.

Infinitives, participles, and gerunds

Three forms of the verb paradigm are also used in ways other than expressing tense.

Infinitives

Infinitives are base forms of verbs not limited by person, number or tense, and therefore, they are also non-finite (i.e., "infinitive") verbs. They usually consist of at least two words and are actually phrases by form. We generally recognize them as bases preceded by the particle *to.*

Examples are:

a "To drive along a soft road in May in a comfortable carriage with springs was a real pleasure." [Chekhov]

[INFINITIVE]

b. "Very opportunely a long letter came from Tanya Pesotsky, who asked him to come and stay with them at Borissovka."

[DOUBLE INFINITIVE]

The only verb with an infinitive form different from the base as used in the present tense is the verb *be.* Here we use:

c. "To be sure, it's not for nothing he's a Master of Arts!"

[INFINITIVE]

Participles (Present and Past)

Besides being non-finite forms of the verb paradigm, the present participle ending in -*ing* and the past participle in its various forms are also used to modify (to qualify) nouns and verbs.

Examples are:

a. "Hell Row was a block of thatched, bulging cottages that stood by the brookside on Greenhill Lane." [Lawrence]

b. "'Isn't it done?' he cried, his blue eyes staring at her in indignation."

[PRESENT PARTICIPLE]

c. "To edge his way along the crowded paths of life, warning all human sympathy to keep its distance, was what the knowing ones call 'nuts' to Scrooge." [Dickens]

d. "Scrooge resumed his labours with an improved opinion of himself."

[PAST PARTICIPLE]

Gerunds

The *-ing* or present participle form of the verb is also used as a *gerund* to name actions, behaviours or states, sometimes called a *verbal noun.* Gerunds look like present participles because of the *-ing* suffix and this can be confusing, but they differ in their grammatical functions and positions.

Examples are:

a. "I knelt down to take off his shoes, he 'flopped' also, and wouldn't hear of my touching them dirty craters." [Alcott]

[GERUND IN A NOUN ROLE]

b. "I'm first rate here, for it's nuts to lie still on this bed, after knocking about in those confounded ambulances."

[GERUND IN A NOUN ROLE]

Infinitives, participles, and gerunds will be discussed more thoroughly as phrases and in their various grammatical roles in subsequent chapters. Although they appear frequently as words and for that reason are noted here, they appear just as frequently as phrases.

Transitive, intransitive, and linking verbs

Verbs are also identified as transitive, intransitive, or linking. Each verb type has characteristics that guide us in our understanding of that verb category and its relationship to the other sentence constituents. Knowing the differences among these three types will help considerably in the analysis of grammatical functions.

Transitive Verbs

TRANSITIVE VERBS take objects.

Transitive verbs always require at least one noun or its equivalent, which function as objects. Later in Chapter 5, we shall identify these in their grammatical roles as *direct* and *indirect* objects. Verbs of this type do not require both objects, although both frequently occur. However, there has to be at least a direct object. Of the three types, transitive verbs are most common because we tend to

attribute actions or descriptions to something more so than not. We can illustrate this verb type with the following examples.

1. transitive verbs with a following object:

a. "I took *the book* to Messrs. Chapman and Hall 1st May, 1871." [Butler]

[TV + NOUN]

b. "I took *it* to Mr. Trubner early in 1872."

[TV + PRONOUN]

c. "On my return, I purposely avoided *looking* into it."

[TV + GERUND]

2. transitive verbs with two objects:

a. "If I can be the first to profit by it, [it]9 will bring *me a recompense* beyond all money computation."

[TV + 1ST OBJECT + 2ND OBJECT]

b. "I gave *it him;* but as soon as he had drunk it he began shamming intoxication."

[TV + 1ST OBJECT + 2ND OBJECT]

Intransitive Verbs

INTRANSITIVE VERBS do not require objects, but often take complements.

Intransitive verbs do not require objects; frequently, however, they do take complements *(words that identify or complete).* Some intransitive verbs almost seem to need a complement; otherwise the sentence seems incomplete.

1. intransitive verbs without a complement:

a. "Father Brown laughed." [Chesterton]

b. "And then the curious thing happened."

c. "The dog knows."

[InTV]

In these examples, the intransitive verbs stand alone and the meaning of the sentence is clear; they do not require a complement.

9 [ ] within quoted texts means my adding an understood word or phrase.

2. intransitive verbs with complements:

a. "Fiennes spoke quite slowly for him."

[InTV + ADVERB + PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE]

b. "He had been somewhat annoyed earlier in the day."

[InTV + ADVERB + PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE]

If we leave off the complements here, the meanings of the sentences *seem* incomplete, even though the sentences are grammatically complete and correct.

a. Fiennes spoke10

b. He had been somewhat annoyed

[InTV]

The tendency is to ask *Fiennes spokehow, why, when?* or *He had been annoyedhow, why, when?* The phrases actually complete the meanings of the sentences, and are desired, if not necessary.

Many verbs, however, can be used either intransitively or transitively, and this is where problems occur, distinguishing one from the other. For this reason it is important to identify the constituents following the verb. In this way the distinction can be made. Consider the following examples:

a. Traill, the solicitor, says he left

b. I can see

[InTV]

Both of these sentences show their verbs as intransitive; they have been shortened from the original sentences which follow for illustration purposes.

a. Traill, the solicitor, says he left the Colonel entirely alone.

b. I can see him now

[TV + OBJECT]

By recognizing the following noun objects, we know that we have transitive verbs. However, complications can occur. Consider these sentences again, but with following complements:

a. Traill, the solicitor, says he left entirely alone.

b. I can see now

[InTV + COMPLEMENT]

10 Three dots (, also known as ellipsis), means that part of the text has been removed.

Here the intransitive verbs take complements and it is necessary to be able to recognize the difference between an object and a complement; otherwise the verb type can be confusing. The distinction between objects and complements will be discussed in Chapter 6, under grammatical functions.

FIGURE 2.23
INTRANSITIVE AND
TRANSITIVE VERBS

INTRANSITIVE	TRANSITIVE
lie	lay
sit	set
rise	raise

The three verbs in Figure 2.23 are of particular interest when we discuss transitive and intransitive verbs.

The verbs in the first column never take objects and therefore are always intransitive; those in the second column require a direct object and are therefore always transitive. What complicates matters is when we examine the parts of the verbs and notice the number of internal vowel changes which take place.

FIGURE 2.24
SPECIAL INTRANSITIVE VS. TRANSITIVE VERBS

	STEM	3 p sg	-ing pp	pt	pt-p
	lie	lies	lying	lay	lain
	sit	sits	sitting	sat	sat
INTRANSITIVE	rise	rises	rising	rose	risen
	lay	lays	laying	laid	laid
	set	sets	setting	set	set
TRANSITIVE	raise	raises	raising	raised	raised

Intransitive examples are:

a. "She let her hand lie listlessly." [Chopin]

b. "She did not sit there inwardly upbraiding her husband."

c. "There are mountains there that rise among the clouds." [Churchill]

Transitive examples are:

a. "She might lay the child comfortably in his bed." [Churchill]

b. "Mademoiselle set the tray which she brought in upon a small table." [Twain]

c. "Presently I saw him raise himself, reach in, and duck quickly." [Churchill]

Linking Verbs

LINKING VERBS express states rather than actions.

Linking or copulative verbs express states rather than actions, and their primary function is *to relate.* They relate the subject of a sentence to the complement that follows after the verb; both have the same *referent (referring to the same person, place or thing).* The most common linking verb is *be* and its variants. They have little meaning in themselves apart from equating subjects and complements. As well, there are a few others which have slightly more meaning with the same joining function. See Figure 2.25.

FIGURE 2.25
LINKING
VERBS

be: am, are, is,
was, were

become seem
sound

Examples are:

a. "For more than forty years this was our home in all that the word implies." [Davis].

b. "Do you think I could not become an artist?" [Chopin]

c. "It seemed almost impossible to believe that, not so very far away, a great war was running its appointed course." [Christie]

d. "It sounded wild and stormy, yet it was not cold, and we were all together." [Brontë]

FIGURE 2.26
SOMETIMES
LINKING
VERBS

SOMETIMES
OCCURRING
AS LINKING
VERBS

appear,
continue, feel,
get, go, grow,
look, remain,
taste, smell, stay

As noted above, many verbs are used transitively as well as intransitively depending upon what follows the verb. This overlapping occurs as well with linking verbs. Figure 2.26 contains a list of verbs which at times occur as linking verbs, and for that reason you might give consideration to them in that category.

Examples are:

a. "They took no notice of my intrusion, a circumstance which, in the manner of dreams, appeared entirely natural."

[LINKING VERB]

b. "Great trays of bread, meat, soup and coffee appeared." [Alcott]

[INTRANSITIVE VERB]

c. "The sunshade continued to approach slowly." [Chopin]

[LINKING VERB]

d. "Then, suddenly dropping his voice to a low pitch of singular sweetness, he continued." [Bierce]

[INTRANSITIVE VERB]

e. "In vapid listlessness I leant my head against the window, and continued spelling over Catherine EarnshawHeathcliffLinton, till my eyes closed."

[TRANSITIVE VERB]

Notice the identifiers in these examples showing what type of verb occurs.

Adjectives

> ADJECTIVES are form class words completing the paradigm of inflections, *-er (or more)* for the comparative and *-est (or most)* for the superlative.

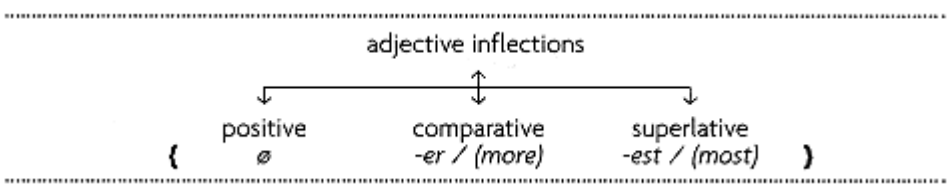


Figure 2.27
Adjective Inflections

Regular adjectives

Words belonging to the adjective category take one of two inflections: an *-er* suffix for the comparative, or an *-est* suffix for the superlative. These inflectional suffixes can be replaced with *more* or *most* respectively. The base form of adjectives is the positive form. Adjectives can also form adverbs with *-ly,* although not all do.

Adjectives have been classified in many ways; one such method is as *descriptive* and *limiting* adjectives. Another slightly more straightforward method is to identify them as monosyllabic, disyllabic, and polysyllabic adjectives.

Monosyllabic

Monosyllabic adjectives are easiest to inflect because they always take *{-er}* and *{-est}* inflectional suffixes. Following this pattern are some words whose second syllable is rather weak; technically they are disyllabic words, but more often they follow the monosyllabic pattern.

FIGURE 2.28
MONOSYLLABIC ADJECTIVES

TYPE	Ø POSITIVE	-er cp	-est sp
MONOSYLLABIC	big	bigger	biggest
	long	longer	longest
	short	shorter	shortest
DISYLLABIC	little	littler	littlest
	noble	nobler	noblest
	simple	simpler	simplest

Examples are:

Positive

a. "Little impalpable worlds were those soap-bubbles, with the big world depicted, in hues bright as imagination, on the nothing of their surface." [Hawthorne]

b. "The vanity of women had long memories, but she was making no claim on him of a compliment or a mistake." [James]

c. "Do you intend parting with the little ones, madam?" [Brontë]

d. "But with more feeling and discernment he would have recognized the noble beauty of its modeling." [Chopin]

Comparative

a. "He shall become a great tracker; he shall become greater than I, even I, Machua Appa!" [Kipling]

b. "No wind that blew was bitterer than he." [Dickens]

c. "I'd put him at forty years of age, and he was of a middle height, two or three inches shorter than you, sir." [Doyle]

Superlative

a. "Throughout those three centuries, the centuries of its greatest achievements and noblest martyrdoms, Christianity had not defined its God." [Wells]

b. "I might have been inclined, myself, to regard a coffin-nail as the deadest piece of ironmongery in the trade." [Dickens]

c. "The simplest explanation is always the most likely." [Christie]

Disyllabic

Disyllabic adjectives take either *{-er}* and *{-est}* inflectional suffixes, or *more* for the comparative and *most* for the superlative.

FIGURE 2.29
DISYLLABIC ADJECTIVES

TYPE	Ø POSITIVE	-er cp / more	-est sp / most
DISYLLABIC	happy	happier	happiest
	narrow	narrower	narrowest
	stupid	stupider	stupidest
	childish	more childish	most childish
	slender	more slender	most slender
	frequent	more frequent	most frequent

Examples are:

Positive

a. "Her mother's intelligence was that of a happy child." [Hardy]

b. "I was oppressed by a sad sense of resigned wisdom, mingled with the amused and profound pity of an old man helpless before a childish disaster." [Conrad]

Comparative

a. "And there is no part of the county where opinion is narrower than it is here." [Eliot]

b. "One would not have wanted her white neck a mite less full or her beautiful arms more slender." [Chopin]

Superlative

a. "It's the stupidest tea-party I ever was at in all my life!" [Carroll]

b. "One of the most frequent topics of conversation between the two friends was Assurance of salvation."

Polysyllabic

Polysyllabic adjectives take *more* for the comparative and *most* for the superlative.

FIGURE 2.30
POLYSYLLABIC ADJECTIVES

TYPE	Ø POSITIVE	cp / more	sp / most
POLYSYLLABIC	beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
	fortunate	more fortunate	most fortunate
	powerful	more powerful	most powerful

Examples are:

Positive

a. "He was a beautiful child, with dark gold ringlets, and dark-blue eyes which changed gradually to a clear grey." [Lawrence]

b. "But he likewise believed in a law of progressive development." [Darwin]

Comparative

a. "The more highly a man is developed on the intellectual and moral side, the more independent he is, the more pleasure life gives him." [Chekhov]

b. "Here, in the valley, the world seems to be constructed upon a smaller and more delicate scale." [Hardy]

Superlative

a. "It was the ugliest and most uncanny thing I ever knew." [Chesterton]

b. "Archie's the most sensitive shipping-master in the two hemispheres." [Conrad]

Irregular adjectives

FIGURE 2.31
IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
bad	worse	worst
good	better	best
far	farther further	farthest furthest
old	older elder	oldest eldest

Adjectives also have irregular forms. Although there are some similarities in the comparative and superlative forms, they are generally distinctive in the positive forms. The paradigm in Figure 2.31 illustrates these differences.

Examples are:

a. "Yes, they're bad competition." [Lewis]

[POSITIVE]

b. "Old married women like Zilla are worse than any bobbed-haired girl."

[COMPARATIVE]

c. "The worst thing about these fellows is that they're so good."

[SUPERLATIVE]

Adverbs

ADVERBS are form class words generally noted by the derivational suffixes *-ly, -wise,* and *-ward.*

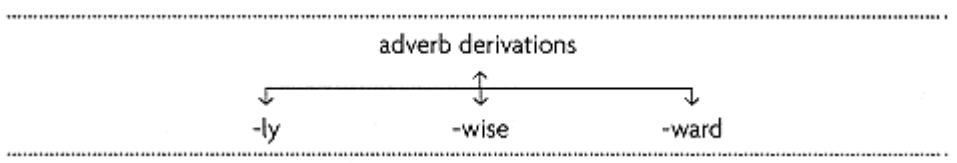


Figure 2.32
Adverb Derivations

Unlike other form class words, adverbs are an entirely mixed group and often thought to be the most difficult form class group to analyze. Adverb suffixes are generally derivational rather than inflectional. They can, however, be inflected for the comparative and superlative as adjectives are, but in a limited way. Adverbs generally qualify verbs, although they also modify adjectives and other adverbs, contributing information about time, place, reason, manner, etc.

The three possible derivational suffixes are:

1. Adverbs in *-ly:* The best-known adverb indicator is the derivational suffix *-ly.* This suffix means *like or characteristic of,* and is used to derive adverbs of manner from adjectives. However, it is not entirely reliable because *-ly* appears also with some nouns, for example, *folly, bully,* and also with some adjectives, *friendly, homely, lovely, ugly.* One has to be careful with this indicator.

FIGURE 2.33
ADVERB SUFFIX -LY

ADJECTIVES	SUFFIX	ADVERBS
careful		carefully
happy	+ ly	happily
slow		slowly

Examples are:

a. "Beneath the marble seat, the fragments carefully put together, was a smashed teacup." [Lewis]

b. "Then he goes happily to bed, his conscience clear."

c. "He sang, very slowly and richly, 'Loch Lomond.'"

2. Adverbs in *-wise:* This suffix has the meaning *in a specified direction, position, or manner.* Used during earlier periods of English, it was going out of use, but now its use is increasing. This derivational suffix is added to many nouns to create adverbs. Note that some adverb forms in *-wise* can also be adjectival in function.

FIGURE 2.34
ADVERB SUFFIX -WISE

NOUNS	SUFFIX	ADVERB
clock		clockwise
street	+ wise	streetwise
length		lengthwise

Examples are:

a. "He stood on the sleeping-porch and did his day's exercises: arms out sidewise for two minutes, up for two minutes."

b. "Would he not far rather lay him down lengthwise along the line of the equator." [Melville]

c. "This account cleared up the otherwise unaccountable mystery."

3. Adverbs in *-ward:* This suffix has the meaning *in a specific direction* and it is also added to nouns to create adverbs. In addition, *-ward* can be added to prepositions and other adverbs to express directions.

FIGURE 2.35
ADVERB SUFFIX - WARD

NOUNS	SUFFIX	ADVERB
north		northward
heaven	+ ward	heavenward
sky		skyward

Examples are:

a. "Two men left the town of St. Helena at the first glimmer of dawn, and walked along the road northward up the valley toward Calistoga." [Bierce]

b. "She turned her face seaward to gather in an impression of space and solitude, which the vast expanse of water, meeting and melting with the moonlit sky, conveyed to her excited fancy." [Chopin]

c. "In the fine rain that came at dawn to hide the crests, the company rode wearily homeward through the notches." [Churchill]

Inflected adverbs

Adverbs, like adjectives, can also be inflected for the comparative and superlative by taking *-er* and *-est,* or *more* and *most* respectively.

FIGURE 2.36
ADVERB SUFFIXES -ER AND -EST

ADVERBS	-er cp	-est sp
early	earlier	earliest
fast11	faster	fastest
often	more often	most often
willingly	more willingly	most willingly

Examples are:

a. "Let some of the men come early to-morrow, with a float. It is to go to the kennels." [Malet]

[POSITIVE]

b. "The teeth chattered faster, stopped, and began again twice before the man could master his shiver sufficiently to say, "Ju-ju-st in ti-ti-me. Brrrr." [Conrad]

c. "The shafts of sunshine fell more obliquely across the eastern end of the gallery." [Malet]

[COMPARATIVE]

d. "I was early bitten with an interest in structure, and it is what lies most directly in my profession." [Eliot]

[SUPERLATIVE]

Irregular adverbs

Some adverbs are also irregular. Like the irregular adjectives, the positive forms differ more than the comparative or superlative forms from one another.

FIGURE 2.37 IRREGULAR ADVERBS

ADVERBS	-er cp	-est sp
badly	worse	worst
far	farther further	farthest furthest
little	less	least
much	more	most
well	better	best

Examples are:

a. "Jane suddenly realized that she had behaved badly."

[Locke]

[POSITIVE]

b. "Billy edged farther away."

c. "Another town, a little further off, with five or six millions of inhabitants, was also, through its newspapers, aware of Miss Winwood."

[COMPARATIVE]

d. "She favoured her mother, loved her mother best of all." [Lawrence]

[SUPERLATIVE]

11 Both "early" and "fast" can also be adjectives.

Other adverbs

Many adverbs do not follow any of the patterns presented above. Instead we recognize them as adverbs only by the information they provide and the function they perform within sentences. The following list is fairly complete and expresses many aspects of the adverb and its complexity.

EXPRESSION	ADVERBS
1. comparison:	as as, better than, less than

"The clergyman explained that, as far as he was aware, it had quite died out of knowledge." [Hardy]

2. concession: still, yet

"Nevertheless, she still continued to strive with him." [Lawrence]

3. degree: higher, faster

"Higher and higher did the flood of Greek manners and Greek customs rise, when suddenly Alexander was stricken with a fever and died in the old palace of King Hammurabi of Babylon in the year 323." [Van Loon]

4. direction: away, thence

"Then the echo of the far-off trumpet drifted down the hillsides, and the sun rose, and the flower was melted away in light." [Van Dyke]

5. duration: always, still

"Truth, its believers declare; it has always been here; it has always been visible to those who had eyes to see." [Wells]

6. frequency: often, seldom, never, sometimes

"David often wore, during those first few days at the Holly farmhouse, a thoughtful face and a troubled frown." [Porter]

7. intensifiers: slightly, too, very

"In the complexion of a third still lingers a tropic tawn, but slightly bleached withal; he doubtless has tarried whole weeks ashore." [Melville]

8. place: there, here, somewhere, upstairs, where

"I am stranded here for to night and will push on to Newport to-morrow." [Davis]

9. time: now, today, frequently, when

"That's right; now we'll sing 'Pull fer the shore'." [Hegan]

<><><><><><><><><><><><><><>

Knowing words by form is basic to understanding how they function as sentence constituents. At first, it may appear that there is a great deal of information to remember here. As native speakers, you should remember two things at this point: first, you already are familiar with a great number of these words; second, because they fall together into different classes, patterns for remembering them will emerge.

We now move from form class to structure class words. The latter are more diversified, and with the exception of pronouns are not inflected for grammatical meaning.

3
Words Structure Class

Structure class words make up our second category for analysis. Again, we are concerned with *what a constituent IS.* We call words falling into these categories closed classes because they do not readily admit new members. Unlike form class words where, for example, nouns can be made into verbs and so forth, structure words are fixed. They belong to set categories and generally are not altered by derivational affixes.

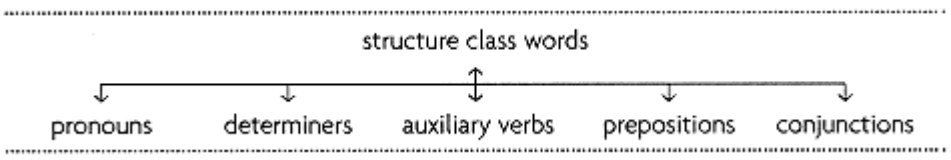


Figure 3.1
Structure Class Words

Pronouns

PRONOUNS are structure class words that substitute for nouns.

Pronouns are the most complex of the structure class words. We inflect many pronouns for *number, gender, case* and some for *person;* other pronouns we do not inflect. Because they are inflected, it might seem that they are misplaced in this word class. They are placed here only because they do not readily admit new members; that is the key contrast in this text between *form* and *structure* class words. Pronouns generally replace nouns and can stand alone as head words in various structures.

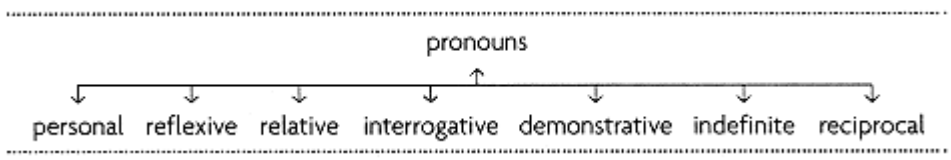


Figure 3.2
Pronouns

Inflection is an important characteristic for many pronouns, especially for the personal pronouns. Distinctions are found for gender, number, case and person.

Gender is a grammatical category noting masculine, feminine and neuter genders. We call these natural genders. This is a fairly general rule for Modern English, although some exceptions occur.

Number is a grammatical category referring to singular and plural forms. Singular refers to one person speaking or spoken to; plural refers to more than one person speaking or spoken to.

Case is a grammatical category for inflected nouns, and mostly personal pronouns, showing their relationships to other sentence constituents. English has *subjective, objective* and *possessive* cases. The subjective case applies when nouns/pronouns appear as subjects of finite verbs or as subjective complements of linking verbs. The objective case applies when nouns/pronouns appear as objects of finite verbs or as objects of prepositions. The possessive case applies when we wish to note ownership by animate beings.

Person is a grammatical category that points out and notes the speaker. Generally we have a speaker and a person who is addressed. Often they are the same; other times they are not. The first person is *I* or *we,* the second person is *you,* and the third is *he, she, it,* or *they.*

Personal pronouns

PERSONAL PRONOUNS name specific persons or things.

Personal pronouns relate to us as persons. Their complexity dates to the Old and Middle English periods when the language was much more inflected, and they still show much of that inflection today. They are distinctive in number *(singular and plural)*, case *(subjective, objective and possessive)*, and person *(first, second, third).* Personal pronouns are also distinctive in gender *(masculine, feminine and neuter)* for the third person singular pronouns.

FIGURE 3.3
SUBJECTIVE AND OBJECTIVE PERSONAL PRONOUNS

	PERSON	SUBJECTIVE CASE	OBJECTIVE CASE
SINGULAR NUMBER	1st person	I	me
	2nd person	you	you
	3rd person masculine	he	him
	3rd person feminine	she	her
	3rd person neuter	it	it
PLURAL NUMBER	1st person	we	us
	2nd person	you	you
	3rd person	they	them

Subjective and Objective Cases

Examples are:

Subjective Case

a. "I sprang up in my bed, prepared." [Alcott]

[1ST PERSON SINGULAR]

b. "We shall have our hands."

[1ST PERSON PLURAL]

c. "Now you will begin to see hospital life in earnest."

[2ND PERSON SINGULAR AND PLURAL]

d. "He lay on a bed, with one leg gone."

[3RD PERSON SINGULAR MASCULINE]

e. "She would admire the honorable scar."

[3RD PERSON SINGULAR FEMININE]

f. "It was a lively scene; the long room lined with rows of beds, each filled by an occupant."

[3RD PERSON SINGULAR NEUTER]

g. "There they were!"

[3RD PERSON PLURAL]

Objective Case

a. "I determined that he should tell me before I gave him any." [Butler]

[1ST PERSON SINGULAR]

b. "Behind us rose the lowest spurs of the second range."

[1ST PERSON PLURAL]

c. "I should have given you six months' hard labour."

[1ST PERSON SINGULAR AND PLURAL]

d. "The narrative would be tedious to him and painful to myself."

[3RD PERSON SINGULAR MASCULINE]

e. "I gazed upon her with admiration."

[3RD PERSON SINGULAR FEMININE]

f. "I disliked the condolences and the inquiries, and found it most comfortable to keep my natural temper."

[3RD PERSON SINGULAR NEUTER]

g. "I believe their reader advised them quite wisely."

[3RD PERSON PLURAL]

Possessive Case

Personal pronouns are also inflected for the possessive case. Similarly inflected for gender and number, they also mark the distinction of *prenominal* (coming before a noun) or *substitutional* (substituting for a noun). Prenominal possessives are pronouns by form, since they replace a noun form, but as we will see in Chapter 6, they are adjectival (modifiers) by function, since they describe the noun that follows.

FIGURE 3.4
PRENOMINAL AND SUBSTITUTIONAL PERSONAL PRONOUNS

	PERSON	PRENOMINAL	SUBSTITUTIONAL
SINGULAR NUMBER	1st person	my	mine
	2nd person	your	yours
	3rd person masculine	his	his
		her	hers
	feminine	its	its
	neuter		
PLURAL NUMBER	1st person	our	ours
	2nd person	your	yours
	3rd person	their	theirs

Examples for prenominal pronouns are:

a. "Dinah, my dear, I wish you were down here with me!" [Carroll]

[1ST PERSON SINGULAR]

b. "'Oh, I beg your pardon!' cried Alice hastily."

[2ND PERSON SINGULAR AND PLURAL]

c. "'He took me for his housemaid,' she said to herself as she ran."

[3rd person singular masculine]

d. "Once or twice she had peeped into the book her sister was reading."

[3RD PERSON SINGULAR FEMININE]

e. "And the Eaglet bent down its head to hide a smile."

[3RD PERSON SINGULAR NEUTER]

f. "And yet I wish I could show you our cat Dinah."

[1ST PERSON PLURAL]

g. "I should frighten them out of their wits!"

[3RD PERSON PLURAL]

For example, the possessive pronoun *my* signals that a noun will follow, as in *my book;* this phrase is then substituted with the possessive pronoun *mine*. The other substitutional pronouns follow similarly.

Examples for substitutional pronouns are:

a. "My father paused, and the hand he held to mine trembled." [Churchill]

[1ST PERSON SINGULAR]

b. "'Harry,' said he, 'here's something of yours I found last night.'"

[2ND PERSON SINGULAR AND PLURAL]

c. "The anger of his many followers against Clark and Harrod was nigh as great as his."

[3RD PERSON SINGULAR MASCULINE]

d. "Probably Bo's thought was like hershere was a real Western man." [Grey]

[3RD PERSON SINGULAR FEMININE]

e. "Now at ours they had at the end of the bill 'French, music, and washingextra.'" [Carroll]

[1ST PERSON PLURAL]

f. "And on the other hand the capitalist classes were allowed to call the best part of the cake theirs." [Keynes]

[3RD PERSON PLURAL]

Reflexive/intensive pronouns

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS refer back or intensify something.

Reflexive or intensive pronouns *rename* or *intensify* a previous noun or pronoun in the sentence. They usually refer to subjects or objects of sentences. The pronoun and the noun always have the same *referent,* that is, the person or thing that a word names or refers to. These pronouns are somewhat similar to personal pronouns in that they have number and person, but they do not have case.

FIGURE 3.5
REFLEXIVE/INTENSIVE PRONOUNS

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1st person	my	mine
2nd person	your	yours
3rd person		
	his	his
masculine		
	her	hers
feminine		
	its	its
neuter		
1st person	our	ours
2nd person	your	yours
3rd person	their	theirs

Examples are:

a. "So when I offer myself to you, I am only bringing back to you the gift you gave me for a little while." [Norris]

[1ST PERSON SINGULAR]

b. "'You will give yourself away,' said Page."

[2ND PERSON SINGULAR]

c. "If he had introduced himself to her, had forced himself upon her, she could not be more lofty, more reserved."

[3RD PERSON SINGULAR MASCULINE]

d. "She was a tall young girl of about twenty-two or three, holding herself erect and with fine dignity."

[3RD PERSON SINGULAR FEMININE]

e. "The room itself was in lamentable confusion."

[3RD PERSON SINGULAR NEUTER]

f. "The sudden sight of oneself as one appears in another's eyes is always a shock." [Locke]

[3RD PERSON SINGULAR NEUTER]

g. "We are going to kill ourselves making land." [Hemon]

[1ST PERSON PLURAL]

h. "'Did you picture it to yourselves as you have found it,' Chapdelaine persisted, 'the country here, the life?'"

[2ND PERSON PLURAL]

i. "They set themselves to cutting and uprooting the alders."

[3RD PERSON PLURAL]

In each example the bold words refer back to the same person/people, or there is a sense of intensification focussed on the subject of the sentence.

Relative pronouns

RELATIVE PRONOUNS relate or refer back to other words in the sentence.

Although relative pronouns *relate* or *refer back* to other words in the sentence, they do not rename it as reflexive pronouns do. Three of the five relative pronouns have inflections for case but not for gender or person; the other two have no such distinctions.

FIGURE 3.6
RELATIVE PRONOUNS

	PRONOUN	CASE
PERSONAL	who/that	subjective
	whom/that	objective
	whose	possessive
NON-PERSONAL	that	
	which	

Examples are:

a. "The people who had turned out were the girl's own family." [Stevenson]

[SUBJECTIVE PERSONAL]

b. "His friends were those of his own blood or those whom he had known the longest."

[OBJECTIVE PERSONAL]

c. "The searchers came to the cheval-glass, into whose depths they looked with an involuntary horror."

[POSSESSIVE PERSONAL]

d. "Mr. Utterson the lawyer was a man of a rugged countenance that was never lighted by a smile."

[NON-PERSONAL]

e. "The door, which was equipped with neither bell nor knocker, was blistered and distained."

[NON-PERSONAL]

The relative pronoun *that* is frequently interchangeable with other relative pronouns. For example, in the sentence:

f. "I want to ask the name of that man who walked over the child."

[SUBJECTIVE PERSONAL]

The pronoun *who* can easily be replaced with *that:*

a. "For my man was a fellow that nobody could have to do with, a really damnable man."

[SUBJECTIVE PERSONAL]

We also use relatives in particular ways.

Who and *Whom* refer only to humans:

a. "There lived the colliers who worked in the little gin-pits two fields away." [Lawrence]

b. *There lived the colliers which worked in the little gin-pits two fields away.

Which refers to non-humans:

a. "Then it was that, while he continued to stare, a light broke for him and the blood slowly came to his face, which began to burn with recognition." [James]

b. *Then it was that, while he continued to stare, a light broke for him and the blood slowly came to his face, who began to burn with recognition.

That refers to both.

a. "Then he went across to his mother whilst I unbolted the door that gave on the corridor." [Christie]

b. "How funny it'll seem to come out among the people that walk with their heads downwards!" [Carroll]

Relative pronouns are also used as conjunctions to introduce relative clauses. In all of the examples above, the relative pronoun has a dual role: as a pronoun and as a conjunction introducing a relative clause. Let us look at some other examples:

a. "Forty beds were prepared, many already tenanted by tired men who fell down anywhere, and drowsed till the smell of food roused them." [Alcott]

b. "Its original owner, for whom it was made, was my great-grandfather, Bramwell Olcott Bartine, a wealthy planter of Colonial Virginia." [Bierce]

c. "I leant forward also, for the purpose of signing to Heathcliff, whose step I recognized, not to come farther." [Brontë]

d. "The country was the grandest that can be imagined." [Butler]

e. "She found herself in a long, low hall, which was lit up by a row of lamps hanging from the roof." [Carroll]

[RELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS]

These pronouns will be discussed in considerable detail in Chapter 8 on clauses.

Interrogative pronouns

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS are used to ask questions.

Interrogative pronouns are *question-words* which produce information, in contrast to *yes/no* questions. Generally, they occur at the beginning of sentences, and they are similar in form to relative pronouns in that we inflect them for case.

FIGURE 3.7
INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

	PRONOUN	CASE
PERSONAL	who	subjective
	whom	objective
	whose	possessive
NON-PERSONAL	which	
	what	

Three of these interrogatives refer to person.

a. "'Who said I had such a thought?' asked Joan." [Hardy]

[SUBJECTIVE PERSONAL]

b. "'And whom mean you by Indian partisans?' the undaunted governor had demanded." [Churchill]

[OBJECTIVE PERSONAL]

c. "If it was not a mother's place to look after children, whose on earth was it?" [Chopin]

[POSSESSIVE PERSONAL]

Which refers to persons or things.

a. "We can do without lobsters, you know. Which shall sing?" [Carroll]

[PERSONAL]

b. "Which do we live ona splendid one or a blighted one?" [Hardy]

[NON-PERSONAL]

What refers only to nonpersons.

a. "'What are you going to do, Angel?' asked the eldest." [Hardy]

[NON-PERSONAL]

Whose, which and *what* may also occur directly before nouns, much like adjectives do.

For example:

a. "Whose hand could it be, if not that of the man to whom the knife belonged?" [Eliot]

b. "'Which trace did he take?' he demanded of me." [Churchill]

c. "What rascality have you been in?"

When you look at the pronouns in these examples, the question should arise: *How can you call these pronouns?* They are not replacing nouns; in fact, they are introducing nouns. The answer to this question is simply that these interrogatives are pronouns by form, but as we shall see later in Chapter 6 they are modifiers by function.

Demonstrative pronouns

> DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS substitute for nouns and carry out the role of determiners.

We use demonstrative pronouns to point out or to indicate persons or things specifically. Inflected for number, singular and plural, they have the feature of proximity and distance.

FIGURE 3.8
DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
NEARBY	this	these
FAR AWAY	that	those

Examples are:

a. "'This is nicer than our house,' thought Maria to herself." [Hemon]

[SINGULAR-NEARBY]

b. "These are still accounted happiness in the Province of Quebec."

[PLURAL-NEARBY]

c. "That is good, François, we will expect you."

[SINGULAR-FARAWAY]

d. "Those looking for a job should see me before vespers."

[PLURAL-FARAWAY]

Demonstratives, like interrogatives, can also occur directly before nouns. Once again, they are pronouns by form but modifiers by function. Consider the following examples:

a. "You were surprised this evening that we have so many of your photographs." [Chekhov]

[SINGULAR-NEARBY]

b. "In these works he upholds the doctrine that species, including man, are descended from other species." [Darwin]

[PLURAL-NEARBY]

c. "But these early days in the city were not at all the happiest days of that period in Richard's life." [Davis]

[SINGULAR-FARAWAY]

d. "'Didn't I give him those lavender trousers?' he roared." [Crane]

[PLURAL-FARAWAY]

Reciprocal pronouns

RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS refer to previously named nouns or pronouns.

Reciprocal pronouns express mutual relationships, and they are inflected for the possessive case only.

The reciprocal pronoun *each other* refers to each of two; *one another* usually refers to three or more in number.

FIGURE 3.9
RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS

PRONOUNS	POSSESSIVES
each other	each other's
one another	one another's

Examples are:

a. "Both of us thought the same thing of each other for the first second that our eyes met." [Michelson]

b. "They got up and walked about and changed places and seemed to know one another better than we do at home." [Davis]

c. "All hands should rub each other's shoulder-blades, and be content." [Melville]

d. "They push an' bend one another's branches aside an' choke them." [Grey]

[POSSESSIVE]

Indefinite pronouns

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS form a large class of words, often identified as specifiers, quantifiers.

Indefinite pronouns are those that do not refer to a definite person or thing. They are often grouped into two categories as specifiers and quantifiers, those that specifically point out and those that refer to the presence or absence of quantity.

FIGURE 3.10
INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

SPECIFIERS (SINGULAR)		QUANTIFIERS (PLURAL)		
anyone	someone	all	any	other
anybody	somebody	both	enough	some
anything	something	every	few	several
everyone	no one	less	little	single
everybody	nobody	many (a)	more	such (a)
everything	nothing	most	much	

1. Specifiers (singular in number)

a. "'If anyone knows, it will be Lanyon,' he had thought." [Stevenson]

b. "Does it mean nothing to you that you are everything to me?" [Norris]

c. "Behind him was someone unknown to them, who bowed and smiled in a very mannerly way." [Hemon]

d. "No one could have heard this low droning of the gathering clans." [Crane]

2. Quantifiers (plural in number)

a. "These all spoke of a harsh existence in a stern land." [Hemon]

b. "The sound of many feet and voices made that usually quiet hour as noisy as noon." [Alcott]

c. "In they came, some on stretchers, some in men's arms, some feebly staggering along propped on rude crutches." [Alcott]

d. "Just such a glimpse, as through that opened door, is all we know of those we call our friends." [Aikens]

The concepts expressed by each of these pronouns are sufficiently vague to suggest that they are indefinite.

Determiners

DETERMINERS are structure class words signalling a forthcoming noun or noun phrase.

Determiner is a *catch-all term* covering a number of word classes already discussed as form and structure class words. I now present them under this "umbrella" term to prepare for how they will function later. It is important to note, however, that *determiner* refers to the *classification* and not to the *form* of the word. We call them determiners because they carry out a similar role of signalling that a noun or noun phrase will follow.

We identify the following pronouns as *determiners.*

1. Possessives	my, your, his, her, its, our, your, their
2. relatives	whose, which, that
3. interrogatives	whose, which, what
4. demonstratives	this, that, these, those
5. indefinite	any, each, either, enough, much, no, some neither

Examples are:

a. "Heathcliff kicked his to the same place." [Brontë]

[POSSESSIVE PRONOUN]

b. "He stopped before the door of his own cottage, which was the fourth one from the main building and next to the last." [Chopin]

[POSSESSIVE PRONOUN / DETERMINER]

Note that in the first example the possessive is used simply as a pronoun, whereas in the second example it is used as a determiner to signal a forthcoming noun.

a. "More wise than those who go on until the wheel turns against them, he realized his gains and returned to England with them."

[DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUN]

b. "At least enough has been done to dispose of those rumours to which local superstition has given rise."

[DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUN / DETERMINER]

c. "'It's log-cabin pattern,' she said, putting several of them together." [Gaspell]

[INDEFINITE PRONOUN]

d. "It gives us the basis for several deductions." [Doyle]

[INDEFINITE PRONOUN / DETERMINER]

Other word groups identified as determiners are:

1. articles	definite indefinite	the a(n)
2. possessive of proper names	John's, Mary's, New Yorker's	
3. multipliers and fractions	double, twice, half, a third	
4. numbers	cardinal ordinal	one, two, three, etc. first, second, third, etc.
5. words such as	what (a), such (a)	

Examples are:

a. "A shallow pool in the guttered depression of an old wheel rut, as from a recent rain, met his eye with a crimson gleam." [Bierce]

b. "'What a noise for nothing!' I cried, though rather uneasy myself. 'What a trifle scares you!'" [Brontë]

c. "You know Druce's house and garden are by the sea." [Chesterton]

[DETERMINER + NOUN]

If the noun is preceded by adjectives and/or other nouns, the determiner precedes all these modifiers.

For example:

a. "But he was a tight-fisted hand at the grindstone, Scrooge. a squeezing, wrenching, grasping, scraping, clutching, covetous old sinner!" [Dickens]

b. "Holmes was silent, but his little darting glances showed me the interest which he took in our curious companion." [Doyle]

[DETERMINER + ADJECTIVE + NOUN]

Sometimes when a determiner is not present, the sentence will produce an ambiguity. These are often seen in newspaper headlines.

For example:

a. Government demands increase. [AMBIGUOUS]

This sentence has two possible meanings:

b. The government demands an increase.

c. The government increases its demands.

Determiner positions

Determiners have been presented in a number of ways for understanding, and one of these is to subclass them according to the position they hold in relationship to one another.

1. Determiner plus a pre-determiner: Many of the above determiners can take another determiner preceding it. Those that generally occupy that pre-position are:

1. Multipliers and fractions:	double, twice, half, a third
2. Words such as:	all, both, what, such

Examples are:

a. "'It's double Dutch to me.' It ordered a fine to the State of double the money embezzled." [Butler]

b. "They took all his money and one of the children and stole his boat." [Chopin]

[PRE-DETERMINER + DETERMINER]

This is not to say that these pre-determiners are restricted to this position; it simply means that they often occur there. Here are the same pre-determiners occupying the determiner position.

a. "The fold of his double chin hung like a bag triced up close under the hinge of his jaw." [Conrad]

b. "At all events Robert proposed it, and there was not a dissenting voice." [Chopin]

[DETERMINER + NOUN]

2. Determiner plus a post-determiner: This same group of determiners can also take a second determiner after it. Those that usually follow a first determiner are:

1. Numbers:	ordinal: first, second, third, fourth, etc. cardinal: one, two, three, four etc.
2. Indefinite:	every, few, less, little, many (a), more, most, other, same, several, single, such (a)

Examples are:

a "The three possible causes of misquotation must have had its share in the apparent blunder." [Butler]

b. "She stood for a few moments helplessly staring at the glistening great rhubarb leaves near the door." [Lawrence]

[DETERMINER + POST-DETERMINER]

Again, this is not to suggest that these post-determiners are restricted to this position. Many determiners that occupy this position can occur with or without other determiners.

Examples are:

a. "It is surprising how soon the eye becomes accustomed to missing twenty sheep out of two or three hundred." [Butler]

b. "Lydgate believed that he should not marry for several years: not marry until he had trodden out a good clear path for himself away from the broad road which was quite ready made." [Eliot]

c. "Among other things I bought these brown bootsgave six dollars for themand had one stolen before ever I had them on my feet." [Doyle]

Auxiliaries

> AUXILIARIES are structure class words making distinctions for tense, aspect, and voice in verb phrases.

Auxiliary verbs, sometimes called *helping verbs,* have no common forms. We mark them as *primary verbs, modals* and the *stand-in verb, do.* We use them as adjuncts or secondary verbs to extend the grammatical meaning of lexical verbs, that is, to express *tense, aspect* and *voice.* Primary verbs and the verb *to do* also have full verbal paradigms, whereas modals do not occur independently from lexical verbs, unless an ellipsis occurs.

With auxiliaries we now return to the finite versus non-finite forms of a verb; auxiliaries are used with non-finite verbs. It is their role to mark non-finite verb forms for tense, aspect and voice, which non-finite verbs cannot express. Finite verbs mark these features on their own.

The most important statement to be made here is that when an auxiliary verb occurs with a non-finite form of a verb, the auxiliary is always the finite verb; if more than one auxiliary occurs, the first auxiliary is always the finite verb.

Primary auxiliaries

> PRIMARY AUXILIARIES *have* and *be* are verbs used to mark tense, aspect, mood and voice.

Have and *be* are lexical verbs with full paradigms; they also carry out the role of primary auxiliary verbs. Both verbs are quite distinctive and are without doubt the most common verb forms in the English language. As lexical verbs they *express a state* or *describe a person, thing or event. Have* is more regular in form than *be,* and when they occur together in a verb phrase, the order is *have* + *be*, never

the reverse. We frequently refer to *be* as primary one and *have* as primary two to distinguish them.

FIGURE 3.11
PRIMARY AUXILIARIES

FORMS	HAVE	BE
stem	have	be
present tense	has/have	am/is/are
present participle	having	being
past tense	had	was/were
past participle	had	been

As lexical verbs *have* and *be* have a full verbal paradigm with both finite and non-finite forms.

FIGURE 3.12
have AND *be* AS LEXICAL VERBS

STEM	3 p sg	-ing pp	pt	pt-p
have	has	having	had	had
be	is	being	been	been
finite	finite	non-finite	finite	non-finite

Primary auxiliary verbs frequently join with non-finite verb forms to create verb phrases.

Examples are:

a. "He is waiting for me there, you know." [Porter]

[FINITE + NON-FINITE]

b. "He had been playing softly when he came upon the boys."

[FINITE + NON-FINITE + NON-FINITE]

c. "David, on the lowest step, was very evidently not hearing a word of what was being said."

[FINITE + NON-FINITE + NON-FINITE]

In each of these examples, the primary auxiliary introduces a verb phrase, that is, a cohesive word group focusing on a head lexical verb (HV). Because the auxiliary occupies the first position, it becomes the finite verb and, therefore, the tense marker for that phrase. The final non-finite verb is the lexical verb in that it carries the meaning for the verb phrase. We say the final non-finite verb because as the last two examples show, a verb phrase can have more than one non-finite form.

It is important to remember that the first auxiliary in the verb phrase is always the finite verb and tense marker of the verb. All other verbs within the phrase are non-finite

Modals

> MODAL AUXILIARIES are adjunct verbs expressing such features as probability, possibility, and obligation.

Modals make up our second group of auxiliary verbs. Unlike the primary verbs, modals do not have a full verbal paradigm and so they do not have a third person singular *-s* or non-finite verb forms. Although more than one modal will not occur in the same verb phrase, auxiliaries can combine with other auxiliaries to form verb phrases.

The first four modals have correlatives for the present and past tenses.

FIGURE 3.13
MODALS

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE
can	could
may	might
shall	should
will	would
must	[had to]
ought (to)	[ought to have + past participle]

Examples are:

a. "Such energy, once it exists, can easily be forced into new channels." [Van Loon]

[PRESENT TENSE]

b. "They had much spare time in which they could practise."

[PAST TENSE]

c. "We may have borrowed other ideas from the Sumerians."

[PRESENT TENSE]

d. "It is safe to say that in due course of time they would have given up the ways of savages and would have developed a civilisation of their own."

[PAST TENSE]

The last two modals, *must* and *ought (to)*, do not have past forms; however, their meaning of obligation can be expressed in the past with equivalent past tense forms that are components of other verbs.

Examples are:

a. "The Source must be found again and reopened." [Van Dyke]

[PRESENT TENSE]

b. "By this time it was clear to me that I had to do with a case lying far outside of the common routine of life."

[PAST TENSE]

An important characteristic of modal auxiliaries is that they express the *attitude* or *mood* of the speaker. We can identify six different attitudes or moods; each is signalled by a modal. Note carefully that some modals can express more than one mood/attitude.

1. ability: can, could

a. "His principles for the peace can be expressed simply." [Keynes]

b. "Directly I could just barely hear a 'me-yow! me-yow!' down there." [Twain]

2. futurity: shall, will

a. "Yes, sir; three, think of that! I shall look into that to-morrow." [Norris]

b. "Another day will do just as well." [Malet]

3. permission: may, might

a. "'Here! you may nurse it a bit, if you like!' the Duchess said to Alice." [Carroll]

b. "'And who is Dinah, if I might venture to ask the question?' said the Lory."

4. possibility: may, might

a. "Now I have no doubt but you might engage her if you wish to do so and the sooner your application is made the better." [Jefferson]

b. "Well, she understood pretty well what he might or might not have been." [Lawrence]

probability: shall, will

a. "I shall probably send you a letter." [Eliot]

b. "Before them, too, will most likely be standing a soldier wrapped in his cloak, a dealer from the old-clothes mart." [Gogol]

6. obligation: should, must, ought to

a. "'Ah if you haven't why should I?' he asked." [James]

b. "When you have youngsters like me at dinner you must look for a little nonsense." [Hemon]

c. "It is time for me to begin work, indeed! Or, to speak the truth, I have just begun, when I ought to be giving it up." [Hawthorne]

Like primary verbs, modals when helping lexical verbs also follow a hierarchical order. Within the verb phrase they always occupy the initial position, and therefore become the finite verb, tense marker, for that verb phrase.

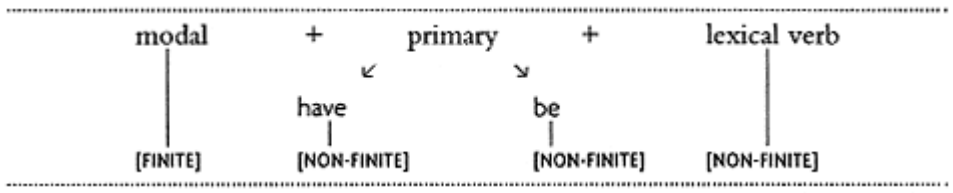


Figure 3.14 Heirarchy of verbs

Examples are:

a. "The story of The Other Wise Man			came to me." [Van Dyke] [LEXICAL VERB] [FINITE]
b. "'What	are you [PRIMARY] [FINITE]		going to do, Angel?' asked the eldest." [Hardy] [LEXICAL VERB] [NON-FINITE]
c. "And he	would [MODAL] [FINITE]		kept his oath." [Gogol] [LEXICAL VERB] [NON-FINITE]
d. "No horse	should [MODAL] [FINITE]	have [PRIMARY] [NON-FINITE]	ridden down there." [Hardy] [LEXICAL VERB] [NON-FINITE]

Stand-in auxiliary do

FIGURE 3.15
STAND-IN AUXILIARY *do*

FORMS	DO
stem	do
present-tense	does
present participle	doing
past tense	did
past participle	done

We often use the verb *do* as a *stand-in auxiliary*, much in the same way as we use primary and modal auxiliaries. Like primary verbs, it can function as an auxiliary or as a principal verb because it has a full verb inflectional paradigm.

Do as an auxiliary verb:

a. "This! Why, father, what do you mean? This is home!" [Porter]

b. "Does everybody at the academy dress like that?" [Gogol]

[AUXILIARY VERB]

Do as a lexical verb:

a. "But that the most acceptable service of God is doing good to man." [Franklin]

b. "Sane people did what their neighbors did, so that if any lunatics were at large, one might know and avoid them." [Eliot]

c. "The thick-iron ferrule is worn down, so it is evident that he has done a great amount of walking with it." [Doyle]

[LEXICAL VERB]

Because of the flexibility of this verb (it is also used to form questions, negatives, and for emphasis), it is important to pay close attention to how it is used. When it is used as an auxiliary, like the primary and modal verbs, it will occupy the initial position in the verb phrase, and there will always be a non-finite lexical verb to follow. When it is used as a lexical verb, it may be preceded by an auxiliary verb or simply stand alone.

Prepositions

PREPOSITIONS are structure words introducing a phrase structure.

A preposition, as its name states, *precedes* the position held by a noun or its replacement. As a *structure class* group, they are difficult to classify. If we look them up in a dictionary, we will find several variations of meaning for a single preposition. While many of them show relationships either in time or space, others have a number of different associations. The following examples illustrate some of these:

1. about: shows a relationship with the subject matter of thought, speech, or feeling.

"It offers no theory whatever about the origin of the universe. [Wells]

2. at: relates to a point on a numerical scale and also to rate.

"Then in some way the idea of God comes into the distressed mind, at first simply as an idea, without substance or belief."

by: relates to agent, means or measure.

"This is a religious book written by a believer."

4. in: relates to a process or condition.

"The first idea was perhaps developed most highly and completely in the God of Spinoza."

Categorizing prepositions in this way is complicated since the focus is on meaning, and the meaning frequently varies with the context. As an alternative, I offer a simple three-way grouping based on their distinctive characteristics of form: *simple*, *-ing*, and *phrasal* prepositions.

Simple prepositions

These prepositions are probably the most frequently used, as you can see from the examples below, and therefore they are the better known ones.

FIGURE 3.16
SIMPLE PREPOSITIONS1

about	before	down	onto	upon
above	behind	for	opposite	with
after	below	from	out	within
along	beneath	in	outside	without
against	beside	inside	over	
among	between	into	through	
around	beyond	near	to	
as	by	of	under	
at	despite	on	until	

1 These lists of prepositions are not exhaustive.

Examples are:

a. "The whistles rolled out in greeting a chorus cheerful as the April dawn." [Lewis]

b. "He is a professional brother of yours, and your presence may be of assistance to me." [Doyle]

c. "For my part, my curiosity and interest were at least equal to the child's, for child she certainly was, although I thought it probably from what I could make out, that her very small and delicate frame imparted a peculiar youthfulness to her appearance." [Dickens]

d. "But once, when my father said something about Indians, the eyes grew hard as flint. It was then I remarked, with a boy's wonder, that despite his dark hair he had yellow eyebrows." [Churchill]

e. "But a plant on the edge of a desert is said to struggle for life against the drought, though more properly it should be said to be dependent on the moisture." [Darwin]

f. "Directly he could walk without a stick, he descended into the town to look for some opportunity to get home." [Conrad]

-ing prepositions

Prepositions ending in *-ing* are the most difficult group to identify because, at first, they look like present participles; their bases are verbs and they end in the *-ing* suffix. However, upon closer examination, we will see that sometimes some of these same forms are used not in a verbal structure, but in a prepositional phrase structure. They will signal a forthcoming noun or its equivalent. When this occurs we call them prepositions. It is in the role they carry out that distinguishes them.

FIGURE 3.17
-ing PREPOSITIONS

assuming	considering	including	regarding
barring	during	involving	succeeding
concerning	following	pending	

Examples are:

a. "Then these two would commune subtly and without words concerning their moon." [Crane]

b. "A new appreciation of Babbitt filled all of them, including Babbitt." [Lewis]

c. "I saw him quit the kitchen just as she complained of her brother's conduct regarding him." [Brontë]

Phrasal prepositions

Phrasal prepositions may be the most complex of this structure class, because the phrase generally embeds other prepositions. This makes it look as though there is more than one prepositional phrase. For example, the prepositional phrase *by way of* looks like a combination of two prepositions (1) *by way*, and (2) *of* + *object.* Its structure, however, is as one phrasal preposition functioning in the same way as a single-word preposition.

FIGURE 3.18
PHRASAL PREPOSITIONS

ahead of	in addition to	instead of
apart of	in advance of	on account of
as far as	in comparison with	on behalf of
because of	in lieu of	together with
by way of	in place of	up at
contrary to	in spite of	up to
due to	inside of	with regard to

Examples are:

a. "I got the gravest notion of the daring of this undertaking, and of the dangers ahead of us." [Churchill]

b. "It was doomed to be a failure as far as the principal person was concerned, but he approached the others with fussy importance." [Conrad]

c. "Then I had much pleasure in reading it, but was indeed surprised at the many little points of similarity between the two books, in spite of their entire independence of one another." [Butler]

[PHRASAL PREPOSITIONS]

Prepositional phrases, as we will see later, carry out a number of grammatical functions, and for this reason it is important to know their various structures.

Conjunctions

> CONJUNCTIONS are structure class words identifying subordination, coordination, and conjunctiveness.

We use conjunctions to connect words, phrases, clauses, and even sentences. Coordinating and subordinating conjunctions are the better known; correlative conjunctions and conjunctive adverbs are probably the least known. As a form class category they have no common form; however, as we shall see later they do carry out a common grammatical function.

Coordinating conjunctions

Coordinating conjunctions join units of equal value: *and*, *but*, *for*, *or*, *nor*, *yet.*

Examples are:

a. "It was only by looking intently that one could recognise these trees as gooseberries or currants." [Chekhov]

b. "He thought it odd, and with a little perfunctory shiver, as if in deference to a seasonal presumption that the night was chill, he lay down again and went to sleep." [Bierce]

c. "I was greatly amused to behold an excellent caricature of my friend Joseph, rudely yet powerfully sketched." [Brontë]

[COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS]

Subordinating conjunctions

Subordinating conjunctions join units (especially clauses) where one depends upon another for its completed meaning, and in so doing they express particular meanings.

Examples are:

1. concession: although, even if, even though, if, though, while

a. "Although it looks on the terrace, the dining-room at Brockhurst is among the least cheerful of the living rooms." [Malet]

2. condition: as long as, if, in case, provided that, unless

b. "Nothing could excuse it, unless you were having your throat cut!" [Brontë]

3. comparison: as, as if, just as

c. "I had soon dressed, as well as I was able, in clothes of my own size." [Stevenson]

4. contingency: if, once

d. "'If you've lived away from it,' she smiled, 'so much the better.'" [James]

5. contrast: whereas, while

e. "So he strode around the corner and met the boy, took the pot from his hand and disappeared into the mist while the boy howled with fear." [Kipling]

6. reason: as long as, because, since

f. "It is only incidentally and because it is unavoidable that he attacks doctrinal Christianity." [Wells]

7. result: so, so that

g. "He looked after the dikes so that the countryside should not be flooded (just as the first noblemen had done in the valley of the Nile four thousand years before)." [Van Loon]

8. time: after, as, as long as, as soon as, before, now that, once, since, till, until, when, whenever, while

h. "Since then she had fought steadily, with a certain lofty cheerfulness, for the life she so desired to save." [Malet]

Relative Pronouns

who (whom, whose), which, that

Examples are:

a. "There was nothing of the giant in the aspect of the man who was beginning to awaken on the sleeping-porch." [Lewis]

b. "Everybody that wants to join has got to take an oath, and write his name in blood." [Twain]

Relative Adverbs

when, where, why

Examples are:

a. "Or else he would see a room in a rich house, where his friend lay asleep, dreaming and smiling at his dreams." [Stevenson]

b. "She explained why she had not written you and also incidentally why she had written Childs." [Davis]

Indefinite Relative Pronouns

whoever (whomever, whosever), whichever, whatever

Examples are:

a. "Kegworthy, whoever he might have been, was wrapt in mystery." [Locke]

b. "It seems he had slipped out to look for this drug or whatever it is." [Stevenson]

Correlative conjunctions

Correlative conjunctions connect both complete sentences and units within sentences.

bothand	eitheror
neithernor	not onlybut also

Examples are:

a "I took care not only to be in reality industrious and frugal, but to avoid all appearances to the contrary." [Franklin]

b. "Either he went rabbiting in the woods, like a poacher, or he stayed in Nottingham all night instead of coming home." [Lawrence]

Conjunctive adverbs

Conjunctive adverbs, like coordinating conjunctions, join units of equal value but they do so with adverbial emphasis.

1. addition:	also, furthermore, in addition, moreover
2. apposition:	for example, namely, that is
3. concession:	at any rate, however, nevertheless
4. contrast:	instead, on the other hand, on the contrary
5. result:	as a result, consequently, therefore
6. time:	in the meantime, meanwhile

Examples are:

a. "It forms a nearly regular waxen comb of cylindrical cells, in which the young are hatched, and, in addition, some large cells of wax for holding honey." [Darwin]

[ADDITION]

b. "Although much remains obscure, and will long remain obscure, I can entertain no doubt, after the most deliberate study and dispassionate judgement of which I am capable, that the view which most naturalists entertain, and which I formerly entertainednamely, that each species has been independently createdis erroneous."

[APPOSITION]

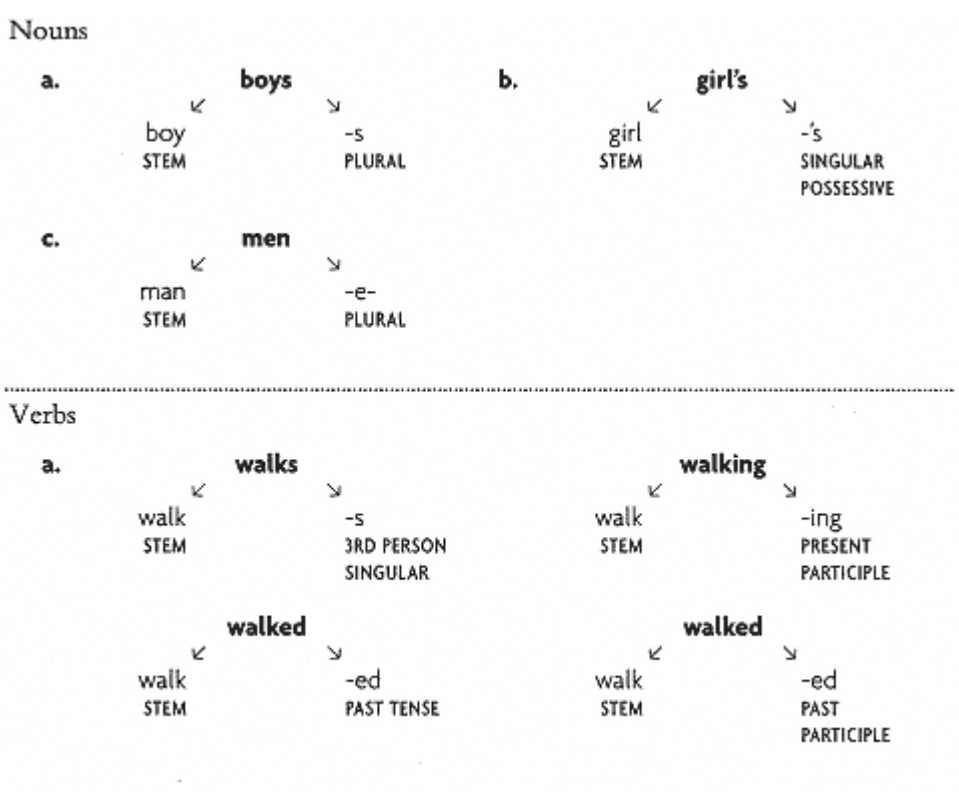
c. "The whole subject must, I think, remain vague; nevertheless, I may, without here entering on any details, state that, from geographical and other considerations, I think it highly probable that our domestic dogs have descended from several wild species."

[CONCESSION]

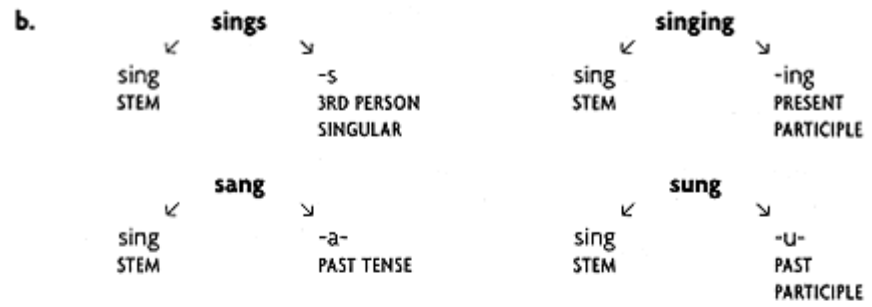
Conjunctions are a very mixed group of words that play an important role in our grammatical system. They are numerous and therefore difficult to remember. Coordinating and relative conjunctions should cause few problems; the adverb conjunctions will come with usage.

Word Analysis

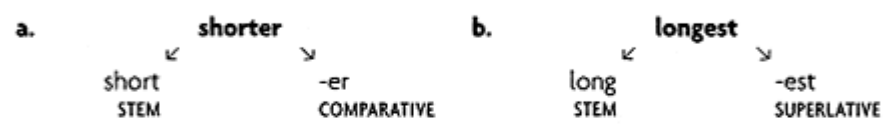
As with morphemes, to understand the structure of words, it is important that we are able to break them down into their bases and morphemic parts. As we do this, we should also label the individual parts. The following representative samples cover most of the word classes that we inflect.



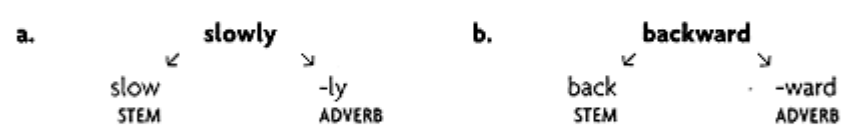
Verbs



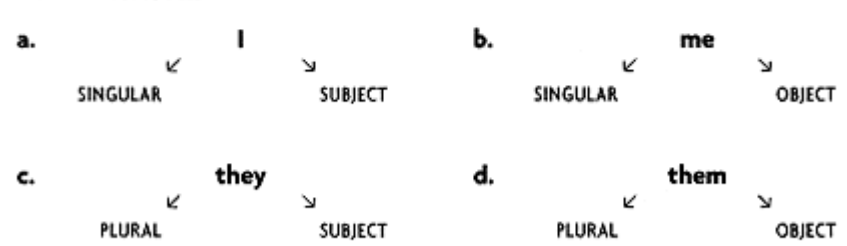
Adjectives



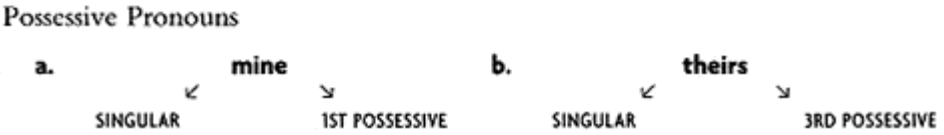
Adverbs

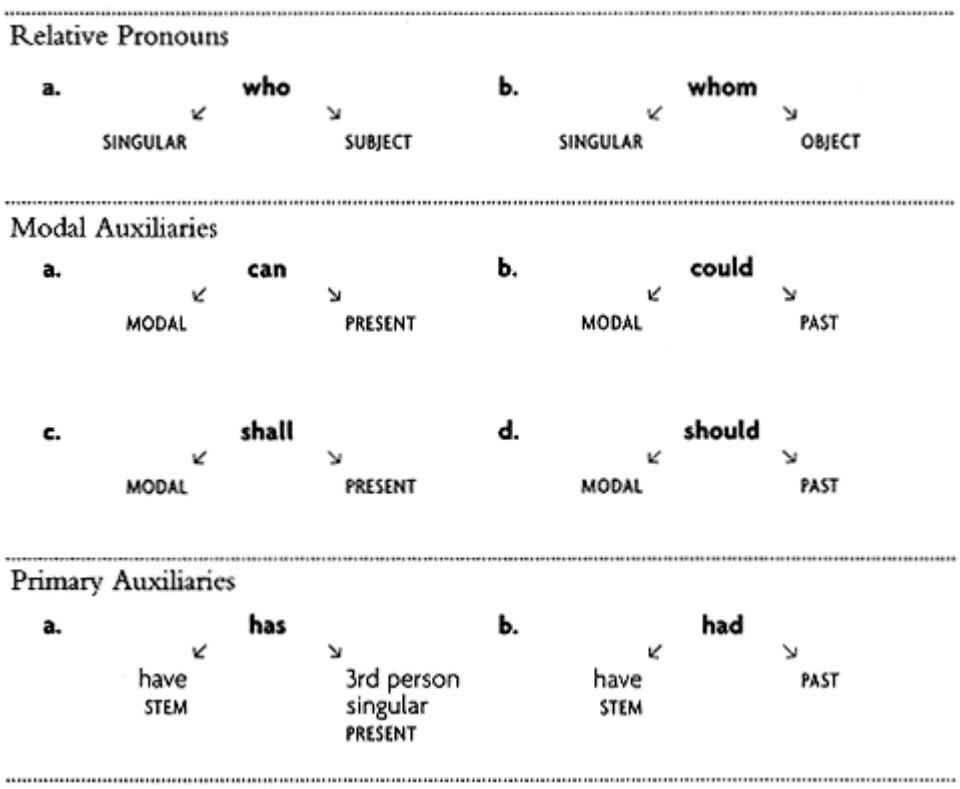


Personal Pronouns



Possessive Pronouns





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From words we create phrases, our next category for analysis. However, we are still concerned with form and so we will continue to identify basic structures. We shall now see that as constituents of sentences, words and phrases are interchangeable. In fact, the names given to many word groups are the same as those given to many phrases. There is a good deal of overlap in terminology here.

4
Phrases

Phrases

PHRASES are cohesive word groups forming full syntactic units within sentences.

Sentence constituents can also be cohesive word groups, such as *phrases* or *clauses.* Phrase structures are syntactic units having two or more words that "hang together"; clause structures, on the other hand, are more complex and are covered thoroughly in Chapter 7. Although we now move from words to phrases, we continue to focus on *what a constituent IS,* since phrases, like words, can be single sentence constituents.

English has nine distinctive phrases:

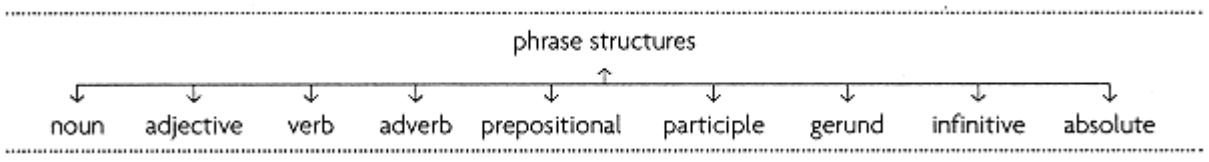


Figure 4.1
Phrases

All phrases are marked principally by a head word (HW) that identifies its structure. Depending on the phrase structure, the HW can be any one of the nine phrase identifiers as seen in Figure 4.1, with the exception of the *absolute phrase.* This phrase can be represented by a number of structures having different HW identifiers.

Before identifying the different phrase types we should first consider the phrase concept in its most important rolewithin the sentence. All sentences have two essential phrase structures: a *noun phrase* and a *verb phrase.* We express these components in the following way:

S(entence) →[1] N(oun) P(hrase) + V(erb) P(hrase)

and we abbreviate this structure as:

S ® NP + VP

These are grammatical functional roles, which we shall take up in Chapter 5. However, it is important to introduce them here because the terminology

1 The synbol ® means produces.

overlaps: we have a noun phrase by form and we have a noun phrase by function; similarly we have a verb phrase by form and a verb phrase by function. As stated, a noun or verb phrase by form is "a cohesive word group," whereas a noun phrase by function may or may not be a word group; it can be a single word, or as we shall see later in Chapter 7, it can also be a clause.

Here are two examples:

a. "ALICE was beginning to get very tired of sitting by her sister on the bank." [Carroll]

[NOUN PHRASE BY FUNCTION]

Here we have a single word filling the position of a noun phrase; by form it is a word and by function it is a noun phrase.

b. "Scrooge and he were partners for I don't know how many years." [Dickens]

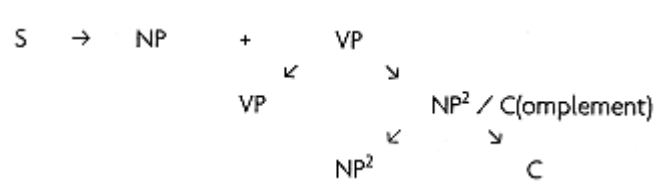
[NOUN PHRASE BY FORM]

In this example, the noun phrase is actually a phrase by form as well as by function.

When analyzing a sentence, we first identify these structures by isolating all words belonging to the noun phrase (NP), and then those belonging to the verb phrase (VP). The verb phrase often contains other words, phrases or clauses that play further distinctive roles within the sentence. When this occurs the structure is then broken down into the verb phrase itself and any other words, phrases or clauses.

The best guide to identifying the following elements is to know the verb types. Transitive verbs always take objects, making up a third possible sentence structure, a second noun phrase (NP2). Intransitive verbs generally, but not always, take complements (C). Linking verbs must take complements (C), generally different from those occurring after intransitive verbs.

If a second structure follows, the verb phrase is further broken down as such:



and is further abbreviated as:

S ® NP + VP ± NP2 / C

The ± symbol means "plus or minus" noting that other noun phrases or complements can follow, and they usually do. I will use this formula throughout the text when analyzing grammatical functions, and grammatical positions as well.

Noun Phrase

NOUN PHRASES are cohesive word groups focusing on a head noun or its replacement.

Noun phrases are cohesive word groups focusing on head nouns (HN) or their equivalents. Included in the noun phrase are all the pre-noun and post-noun qualifiers. Some of these can be quite complex because they can be phrases themselves or even clauses. To avoid confusion, therefore, one should always seek the HW and take guidance from that.

S ® NP + VP + NP2 / C

Examples are:

The examples presented here focus on the *form* of the NP only.

a. "Father Brown's friend and companion was a young man with a stream of ideas and stories." [Chesterton]

b. "The door of Scrooge's counting-house was open that he might keep his eye upon his clerk." [Dickens]

c. "All its varied expanse was bathed in the last bright glow of the sun." [Gogol]

d. "Just then the train jerked, and started slowly." [Grey]

e. "The differences of Mr Matthew's view from mine are not of much importance." [Darwin]

[NOUN / HN PHRASES]

The first example shows a compound noun, *friend and companion,* preceded by a possessive of names determiner, *Father Brown's,* forming the noun phrase; the second example shows a simple determiner, *the,* plus noun, *door,* followed by a post-noun prepositional phrase modifier, *of Scrooge's counting-house;* next we have two pre-determiners, *all its,* plus a past participle, *varied,* as an adjective, before the noun, *expanse;* the fourth example has two pre-determiners, *just then,* which is an adverb here and is not part of the noun phrase proper, plus a determiner, *the,* preceding the head noun, *train;* lastly, we have a simple determiner plus noun, *the difference,* followed by two post-noun prepositional phrase modifiers, *of Mr Matthew's view from mine.*

The various forms of these structures show how simple and yet how complex the noun phrase can be.

Adjective Phrase

> ADJECTIVE PHRASES are cohesive word groups describing or qualifying a noun or its replacement.

Adjective phrases are cohesive word groups that are often little more than a series of adjectives or words that go with adjectives to modify nouns or their replacements. The head word or the head adjective (HAj) of the phrase is generally the last adjective. Although adjective phrases usually precede the words they modify, they can occur after them as well. The following examples illustrate adjective phrases in both positions.

S ® NP + VP + NP2 / C

a. "It was cold, bleak, biting weather." [Dickens]

b. "He's an extraordinary looking man, and yet I really can name nothing out of the way." [Stevenson]

[ADJECTIVES PRECEDING THE NOUN]

c. "Not so much in obedience, as in surprise and fear: for on the raising of the hand, he became sensible of confused noises in the air; incoherent sounds of lamentation and regret; wailings inexpressibly sorrowful and self-accusatory."

d. "This was a hearty, healthy, dapper, red-faced gentleman, with a shock of hair prematurely white, and a boisterous and decided manner."

[ADJECTIVES FOLLOWING THE NOUN]

Adjective phrases, like noun phrases, can be combinations of simple adjectives as illustrated, or other words and phrases that can carry out the role of an adjective.

The difference between a noun phrase and an adjective phrase is not very much, since most noun phrases consist of a head noun plus one or more adjectives, or indeed an adjective phrase itself. Consider the last example above:

d. "This was a hearty, healthy, dapper, red-faced gentleman, with a shock of hair prematurely white, and a boisterous and decided manner."

[ADJECTIVE PHRASE]

d. "This was a hearty, healthy, dapper, red-faced gentleman, with a shock of hair prematurely white, and a boisterous and decided manner."

[NOUN PHRASE]

In this example, if we include the head noun *gentleman*, we have a noun phrase with an embedded adjective phrase; without the head noun we have an adjective phrase. The focus is always on the head word (HW).

Verb Phrase

VERB PHRASES are cohesive word groups focusing on a lexical verb.

Verb phrases are cohesive word groups consisting of all auxiliaries and qualifiers and focusing on a lexical verb (HV). This head verb can be either finite or non-finite in form. The following examples illustrate various compositions of verb phrases.

S ® NP + VP + NP2 / C

a. "Halpin Frayser came to his death by exposure." [Bierce]

b. "I have been watching about the place generally."

c. "'Look quickly! in a moment it will be gone.'"

d. "Frayser had already attained the age of thirty-two."

[VERB PHRASES]

Each verb phrase focuses on a lexical head verb (HV). In the first example, we have a single verb filling the component of the verb phrase. The second example shows a primary auxiliary verb helping a non-finite lexical verb. The third example has a modal auxiliary and a primary auxiliary helping a non-finite lexical verb. The last example illustrates a verb phrase consisting of a primary auxiliary, plus an adverb, and a lexical verb.

Tense

TENSE is the grammatical feature of verbs relating to time.

English regular and irregular verbs have two tense forms, *present* and *past.* The *future tense* does not have a distinctive tense form, but it is expressed by an auxiliary modal verb plus a present tense form. Regardless of formation, we can still identify three English tenses.

Present Tense

FIGURE 4.2
PRESENT TENSE

	REGULAR VERB	IRREGULAR VERB
I	walk	sing
you	walk	sing
he/she/it	walks	sings
we	walk	sing
you	walk	sing
they	walk	sing

The present tense is expressed by a combination of a personal pronoun plus a verb base; the base takes the inflectional *-s* suffix for the third person singular.

Uses for present tense are more numerous than those for the past tense; for example, present tense is used:

1. to express habitual actions;

2. to express a present state;

3. for general truths;

4. as historical present to relate most actions and states in literature, especially stage directions;

5. in most adverb clauses and in some noun clauses to express future time [future tense is usually not permitted in these kinds of dependent clauses].

1. Habitual actions

a. "That always seems the difficulty to me." [Christie]

b. "I drill with the volunteers twice a week, and lend a hand at the farms."

[PRESENT TENSE]

2. A present state

a. "She works in the Red Cross Hospital at Tadminster, seven miles away."

b. "This is a pleasure, Mr. Hastings."

[PRESENT TENSE]

3. General truths

a. "The power to become habituated to his surroundings is a marked characteristic of mankind." [Keynes]

b. "In this paper he distinctly recognises the principle of natural selection, and this is the first recognition which has been indicated." [Darwin]

[PRESENT TENSE]

4. Historical present

a. "He and Cassio fight again." [Shakespeare]

[PRESENT TENSE]

5. To express future tense

a. "But, if you be ashamed of your touchiness, you must ask pardon, mind, when she comes in."

b. "I shall love it, as long as I live!' cried Scrooge, patting it with his hand." [Dickens]

[PRESENT TENSE]

Past Tense

FIGURE 4.3
PAST TENSE

	REGULAR VERB	IRREGULAR VERB
I	walked	sang
you	walked	sang
he/she/it	walked	sang
we	walked	sang
you	walked	sang
they	walked	sang

The past tense, as we have seen, is marked by an *-(e)d* or *-t* inflectional suffix for regular verbs and frequently an ablaut for irregular verbs. It marks the time of events and actions taking place before those of the present.

Verb *form* expresses *tense;* verb meaning expresses *time* of the action or state. English has three main uses of the past tense:

1. to express action and states in past time;

2. to express past truths no longer valid and habitual actions no longer occurring;

3. to preserve tense sequence, although the state named may still be in effect.

1. Action and states in past time

a. "Along the darkening road he hurried alone, with his eyes cast down." [Akin]

b. "The yellow lights went climbing towards the sky."

[PAST TENSE]

2a. Past truths no longer valid

a. "In those days the world in general was more ignorant of good and evil by forty years than it is at present." [Eliot]

2b. Habitual actions no longer occurring

a. "Sometimes he stayed at home on Wednesday and Thursday evenings, or was only out for an hour." [Lawrence]

[PAST TENSE]

3. To preserve tense sequence

a. "She was a most generous woman, and possessed a considerable fortune of her own." [Christie]

b. "He had married two years ago, and had taken his wife to live at Styles."

[PAST TENSE]

Future Tense

English forms the future tense by adding the modal auxiliaries *shall or will* to the present tense of a base verb. Unlike the present and past tenses, there is no separate future tense form.

FIGURE 4.4
FUTURE TENSE

	REGULAR VERB	IRREGULAR VERB
I	shall2 walk	shall sing
you	will walk	will sing
he/she/it	will walk	will sing
we	shall walk	shall sing
you	will walk	will sing
they	will walk	will sing

Examples are:

a. "We shall go to death as unresistingly as tired children go to bed." [Wells]

b. "When you return, you too will understand the reason for my enthusiasm." [Van Loon]

c. "'In that month I will come again,' said he, 'for by that time it may fortune that I shall achieve my quest, but now forth must I fare.'"

Apart from using the future tense, we also indicate future *intention* with some adverbs of time, and other time references consisting of adjectives and nouns. This is not an uncommon usage, and for this reason such structures are often thought of as being in the future tense, when they are actually in the present tense *with future intention.*

Examples are:

a. "The future is what I look to, for you." [Davis]

b. "Tomorrow we can discuss details." [Locke]

c. "I needed all the time until the next Saturday to think the question through, to decide what should be done." [Van Dyke]

[FUTURE INTENTION]

In our first example, the overall meaning of the sentence is to denote time in the future, and this is done by using the noun *future* to convey that intention. However, the verb form determines the tense of the structure, and in this case it

2 In modern English, *will* is frequently used as the modal auxiliary in all persons to indicate the future tense. *Shall*, which was formerly the first person singular and plural form, is now typically reserved for emphasis or for stylistic purposes.

is the simple present*is*. The second example uses an adverb of time *tomorrow* to convey this notion; however, if we look at the finite verb in this structure the modal *can* is in the present tense, and therefore the tense of the sentence is present. The third example uses the phrase *next Saturday*, an adjective plus noun to mark the future intention; the verb form is simple past. Regardless of the many ways in which we express future time in English, only those using *shall* and *will* are called the future tense.

Aspect

> ASPECT expresses grammatical meanings concerned with the continuity or distribution of events in time.3

Besides time distinctions made overtly in the verb tense, English can also make distinctions relating to the continuity or non-continuity of an action. Aspect is a grammatical category of the verb, noting not so much the location of an event in time (tense), but the duration and type of action that it expresses. It considers such features as progressiveness, habituality, boundedness, duration, and instantaneousness.4 Kaplan expands upon each of these features and their meanings, and it is worth having a look at them. English expresses four5 aspects, *simple, progressive, perfect,* and *perfect progressive,* and within each we have *present, past* and *future tenses.*

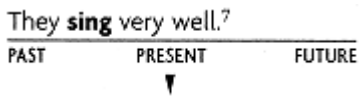
FIGURE 4.5
ASPECTS

simple	simple present, past or future tense of lexical verb
progressive	be + present participle of lexical verb
perfect	have + past participle of lexical verb
perfect progressive	have + be + present participle of lexical verb

Simple Aspect

Verbs occurring in the simple present, simple past, or simple future tense express *simple aspect.*6

1. Present: In the simple present tense the verb formation is [base or base + -s]; the action or event occurs now, or is habitual or timeless.



"It gives us the basis for several deductions." [Doyle]

3 N. Stageberg, *An Introductory English Grammar* (Orlando, FL: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1981), p. 144.

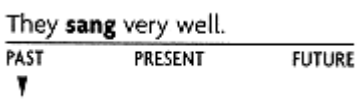
4 J.P. Kaplan, *English Grammar: Principles and Facts* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1989), p. 177.

5 Some authors (e.g., S. Greenbaum) say that there are only two aspects: progressive and perfect. For our purposes, I wish to illustrate four to give a more complete presentation on verb expansion.

6 Note that in the following examples a ▼ indicates the tense.

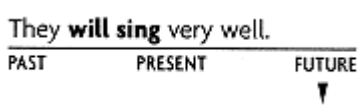
7 For aspect, all examples have been simplified to focus attention on the time sequence.

2. Past: In the simple past tense the verb formation is [base + -(e)d/t or ablaut]; the action or event occurred at some single point in the past and is now completed.



"Mr. Pontellier gave his wife half of the money." [Chopin]

3. Future: In future tense the verb formation is [modal (shall/will) + base]; the action or event will occur at some point in the future.



"It will give me great pleasure to accept the invitation." [Bierce]

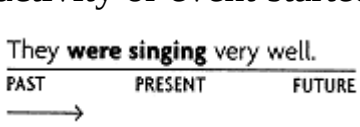
Progressive Aspect

Verbs noting progressive aspect express continuity of action or time of an event. They can also refer to habitual actions or general truths. The lexical verb is in the present participle form, with an *-ing* suffix, and has a form of the primary auxiliary verb *to be* to signal the tense. The lexical verb in its non-finite form remains unchanged for all three progressive aspects.8

1. Present progressive: The verb formation in the present progressive is [be (present) + present participle]; it expresses an activity or event that is occurring now and continuing, and its duration is limited.

"We are going through my mother's papers." [Christie]

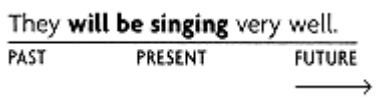
2. Past progressive: The verb formation in the past progressive is [be (past) + present participle]; it expresses an activity or event started at a particular point in the past and its action is of limited duration.



8 Note that in the following examples the ⟶ indicates the progressive aspect.

"The slaves were going to work." [Churchill]

3. Future progressive: The verb formation in the future progressive is [shall/will + be + present participle]; it expresses an activity or event that will begin in the future and continue into the future:

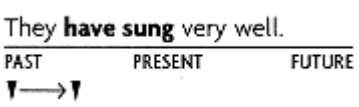


"Ah, I thought, there will be no saving him." [Brontë]

Perfect Aspect

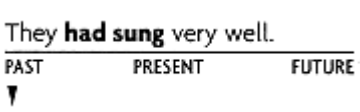
The perfect aspect describes an action either completed in the past or to be completed in the future. The lexical verb has the past participle form and is assisted with a form of the primary auxiliary *to have*, which signals the tense. The non-finite lexical verb remains unchanged for all three aspects.

1. Present perfect: The verb formation in the present perfect is [have + past participle]; it expresses an activity or event completed in the past but with some relationship to the present.



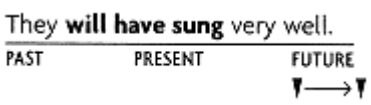
"How often have | sat on the mountain side and watched the waving downs?" [Butler]

2. Past perfect: The verb formation in the past perfect is [had + past participle]; it expresses an activity or event completed before another action or event in the past.



"Meanwhile, the young man had slung on to his person a decidedly shabby upper garment." [Brontë]

3. Future perfect: The verb formation in the future perfect is [shall/will + have + past participle]; it expresses an activity begun, continued, and ended.

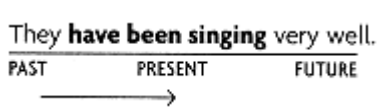


"No doubt errors will have crept in." [Darwin]

Perfect Progressive Aspect

The perfect progressive aspect can also refer to habitual actions or general truths. It is formed with the lexical verb in the present participle form, and with both auxiliaries, *have* and *be*. The first auxiliary always carries the tense of the verb.

1. Present perfect progressive: The verb formation in the present perfect progressive is [have + been + present participle]; it expresses an activity or event that began in the past and is continuing into the present.

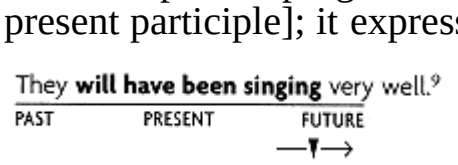


"Surely you have been enterprising, Tom." [Churchill]

2. Past perfect progressive: The verb formation in the past perfect progressive is [had + been + present participle]; it expresses an activity or event that has continuing past action completed before another action (signaled by ▼) in the past.

"She had been sitting alone." [Lawrence]

3. Future perfect progressive: the verb formation in the future perfect progressive is [shall/will + have + been + present participle]; it expresses an activity or event that will begin before another action and still be in progress.



9 Over six thousand pages of literature failed to produce a single example.

This whole presentation of aspect is often discussed under the heading of *verb expansion rules*, because essentially that is what occurs here. The verb phrase is being expanded to express greater variations in meaning. If we take the number of modals that we can use with or without the possible variations of *have* and *be*, the result will give us quite a number of expanded verb phrases for each lexical verb. Of course, we do not cover all of these possibilities here.

The following chart summarizes the different aspects just presented and is an excellent reference point for comparison.

FIGURE 4.6
TENSE AND ASPECT

TENSE	ASPECT	REGULAR VERB	IRREGULAR VERB
present		we walk	we sing
past		we walked	we sang
future	simple	we will walk	we will sing
present		we are walking	we are singing
past		we were walking	we were singing
future	progressive	we will be walking	we will be singing
present		we have walked	we have sung
past		we had walked	we had sung
future	perfect	we will have walked	we will have sung
		we have been walking	we have been singing
present		we had been walking	we had been singing
past	perfect	we will have been	we will have been
future	progressive	walking	singing

Adverb Phrase

Adverb Phrases are cohesive word groups focusing on adverbs as their head word.

Adverb phrases, as cohesive word groups, are similar to adjective phrases in that they consist of one or more adverbs, or words that can act as adverbs, such as prepositional phrases. Like the simple adverb it can be found at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of sentence structures.

S ® NP + VP + C

a. "She watched more keenly than ever." [Grey]

b. "One night I had roamed into the City, and was walking slowly on in my usual way." [Dickens]

c. He was clad in a professional but rather slovenly fashion, for his frock-coat was dingy and his trousers frayed." [ADVERB PHRASE/HAv]

Like adverbs, adverb phrases can cause confusion because there is some flexibility in where they occur within sentences, and even in modifying the sentence structure. As well, adverb phrases are sometimes embedded into other phrases.

Examples are:

a. "Laura, a better, gentler, more beautiful Laura, whom everybody, everybody loved dearly and tenderly." [Norris]

[ADVERB PHRASE]

b. "He had taken her hand sympathizingly, forgivingly, but his silence made me curious." [Michelson]

[ADVERB PHRASE]

c. "David, on the lowest step, was very evidently not hearing a word of what was being said." [Porter]

[ADVERB PHRASE EMBEDDED INTO VERB PHRASE]

Our first example identifies an adverb phrase following the verb *loved;* the next example shows an adverb phrase following the noun *hand* and removed from the verb it modifies; the third example has an adverb phrase embedded into a verb phrase *was hearing.* Such flexibility makes it more difficult to identify these phrases; therefore, noting the head adverb can be of help.

Participle Phrase

> PARTICIPLE PHRASES are cohesive word groups consisting of non-finite verb forms, present or past participles, as head words.

Present and past participles, as we have seen, are non-finite verb forms expressing actions. The terms *present* and *past* are not very accurate when distinguishing these two forms because non-finite forms do not show tense distinctions; they are not fixed in time. Instead, their distinction is one of aspect. As we saw, although participles frequently occur by themselves, they also act as head words in participle phrases.

1. Present participle with *-ing* suffix:

S ® NP + VP + NP2 / C

a. "No wind that blew was bitterer than he, no falling snow was more intent upon its purpose, no pelting rain less open to entreaty." [Dickens]

b. "Scrooge was a squeezing, wrenching, grasping, scraping, clutching, covetous old sinner."

[HPP / PRESENT PARTICIPLE PHRASE]

2. Past participle with *-ed* suffix:

a. "But the wisdom of our ancestors is in the simile; and my unhallowed hands shall not disturb it, or the Country's done for." [Dickens]

b. "The owner of one scant young nose, gnawed and mumbled by the hungry cold as bones are gnawed by dogs, stooped down at Scrooge's keyhole to regale him with a Christmas carol."

[HPtP / PAST PARTICIPLE PHRASE]

3. Past participle with *-en* suffix:

a. "There are only little, broken chapters from the long story of life." [Van Dyke]

b. "Now, it opened into a broad space in which stood two of those great stones, still to be seen there, which were set by certain forgotten peoples in the days of old." [Doyle]

[HPtP / PAST PARTICIPLE PHRASE]

The present participle is more easily recognizable with its *-ing* suffix than the past participle with its many varied regular and irregular forms.

Although easily recognizable, present participles, *-ing* nouns, and gerunds are identical in form, and they can cause ambiguity in a sentence. A distinction must be made between a participle phrase and a gerund phrase (see below). For instance, contrast the following sentences:

a. Painting the walls, she realized the work that was involved.

[PARTICIPLE PHRASE]

b. Painting the walls was a challenge for her.

[GERUND PHRASE]

c. The painting on the wall was admired.

[GERUND WITH SPECIFIC MEANING]

In (a), the participle *painting* modifies the noun *she*, while in (b) *painting the walls* functions as a noun. In (c) the gerund *painting* has taken on a specific meaning as a different noun.

Gerund Phrase

GERUND PHRASES are cohesive word groups with a non-finite *-ing* verb as its head word.

Gerunds also head cohesive word groups to form a phrase. As noted in our analysis of word categories, gerunds, like nouns, have a naming role. Unlike nouns, they do not name persons, places, things or events; they name actions, states and behaviours. They can substitute for nouns and noun phrases and, therefore, we often call them *verbal nouns.*

Following is a representative list of verbs that take gerunds as complements:

FIGURE 4.7
VERBS TAKING GERUNDS

admit	deny	finish	postpone	
appreciate	detest	imagine	practice	
avoid	dislike	keep	recall	stop
consider	enjoy	mind	regret	suggest
delay	escape	miss	risk	understand

There are also a number of verb combinations that belong to this group: *burst out, can't help, feel like, fond of, get accustomed to, get through, give up, go on, leave off, keep on, tired of,* and *used to.*

Gerund and participle phrases are similar in form in that the HW is inflected with an *-ing* suffix, and both are nonfinite forms of verbs. However, they differ in their grammatical functions. Participles modify nouns, while gerunds replace nouns.

a. "It was a long, long time before Nick's breathing told me that he was asleep." [Churchill]

b. "They looked at each other as with the feeling of an occasion missed." [James]

c. "Some distance away could be heard the first small braying of a merry-go-round." [Lawrence]

[HG/GERUND PHRASE]

Gerund phrases sometimes begin with possessives, and when these are not present they can be easily added to help distinguish a gerund from a present participle. The following examples show gerund phrases beginning with possessives:

a. "Siddhartha asked Channa what had been the cause of this man's suffering." [Van Loon]

b. "Jehovah had spoken unto the people of Israel amidst the crash of his thunder and the blinding flashes of his lightning."

c. "I see no harm at all in Tantripp's talking to me." [Eliot]

[GERUND PHRASE / POSSESSIVE + HG]

Sometimes it is easier to understand a concept by proposing what it is not rather than saying what it is. The gerund falls into this category.

1. Words such as *evening, gosling, herring, morning, shilling, sterling,* and *thing* are not gerunds because the *-ing* is not a verbal suffix, but rather part of the base word.

"And that is a thing which one cannot get in haste, neither can it be made to order." [Van Dyke]

2. Proper names, for example *Canning, Darling,* and *Twining,* and the title *king* are not gerunds, because here again the *-ing* is not a verbal suffix but is part of the word base.

"They came to take truage of King Arthur." [Van Dyke]

3. Some nouns take an *-ing* suffix, such as *coupling, lodging, matting, stocking, clothing, flooring, grating, piping, siding.* These words are technically gerunds, but they have developed into common nouns with little relationship to the verbal forms.

a. "'A night's lodging and a day's cheer,' quoth Martimor." [Van Dyke]

[GERUND]

b. "The next evening I came late to my lodgings." [Bierce]

[NOUN]

Infinitive Phrase

> INFINITIVE PHRASES are cohesive word groups consisting of the particle *to* plus a verb base as the head word.

Infinitive phrases are cohesive word groups with a verb base plus a particle as its head word: the particle *to* + verb *talk* = infinitive *to talk.* Like participles and gerunds, infinitives are not marked for tense.

Following is a representative list of verbs that take infinitives:

FIGURE 4.8
VERBS TAKING INFINITIVES

agree	decide	intend	plan	refuse
be	fail	learn	prefer	remember
begin	hesitate	neglect	pretend	try
continue	hope	offer	promise	wait

Gerunds are used more frequently in English than are infinitives.

Examples are:

a. "But Tom Sawyer he hunted me up and said he was going to start a band of robbers." [Twain]

b. "You had to wait for the widow1 to tuck down her head2 and grumble a little over the victuals."

c. "Pretty soon I wanted to smoke, and asked the widow to let me."

[HI / INFINITIVE PHRASE]

Although we tend to think of the infinitive phrase structure as consisting only of a particle plus a verb base, with or without other modifiers, another variant of the infinitive phrase begins with *for* and is often followed by a personal noun or pronoun.

Examples are:

a. "One time Tom sent a boy to run about town with a blazing stick, which he called a slogan (which was the sign for the Gang to get together)." [Twain]

b. "There warn't a window to it big enough for a dog to get through."

c. "So I dropped the canoe down the river under some willows that hung over the bank, and waited for the moon to rise."

[FOR + NOUN / PRONOUN + HI / INFINITIVE PHRASE]

In general speech and writing, we tend to shorten infinitives to the particle plus verb base for general reference.

a. "I said, all right; then the thing for us to do was to go for the magicians."

[TWAIN]

b. "I said, all right; then the thing to do was to go for the magicians."

[HI / INFINITIVE PHRASE REDUCED]

However, if the reference is specific to a person, thing or topic, it is necessary to include it. For example:

a. "It was no new thing for David to 'play' the sunset." [Porter]

b. "By the end of a fortnight David had brought his father's violin for Joe to practice on."

c. "Whichever way it was, there was always sure to be something waiting at the end for him and his violin to discover."

[SPECIFIC NOUN + INFINITIVE PHRASE / HI]

Because the reference is made specifically to *David, Joe* and *him and his violin,* the infinitive phrase cannot be shortened without losing part of the meaning.

Prepositional Phrase

> Prepositional Phrases are cohesive word groups forming syntactic units, consisting of a preposition plus a noun or its replacement.

The structure of a prepositional phrase is more significant than the preposition that introduces it. Although the preposition is the head word (HPrp) in the phrase, it is the full structure that acts as a sentence constituent. To understand the form of the prepositional phrase, however, it is necessary to consider its internal structure, which consists of a preposition plus a noun, a noun phrase, or its equivalent.

Prepositional phrase structures:

in	+the forest
into	+the room
during	+the game
because of	+the situation

[PREPOSITION] [OBJECT OF THE PREPOSITION]
+

Prepositional phrase structures within sentences are:

S ® NP + VP + C

a. "For all the icy blasts1 that burst occasionally through the storm doors,2 the vestibule was uncomfortably warm." [Norris]

b. "On this occasion1 at the side of the topmost coil,2 a white aigrette scintillated and trembled with her every movement."3

c. "She disengaged herself from any responsibility1 in the situation and, while waiting, found a vague amusement in counting the number2 of people3 who filtered in single file4 through the wicket5 where the tickets were presented."

[HPrp + PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE]

The first example shows two prepositional phrases, each identified by a number; the second contains three; the third sentence has five prepositional phrases. This last example especially shows that prepositional phrases occur frequently within sentence structures. Recognizing and understanding their structures and later their grammatical functions is most important.

Prepositions and particles

A number of prepositions by form can also be used to create other phrase structures. We have just seen the preposition *to* join with a verb base to form an infinitive phrase. In this case, we no longer refer to the preposition by form, but call it a particle. One might say that the term *particle* is more reflective of its *func-*

tion than its *form.* Other prepositions by form also function as particles in forming phrasal verbs or *two-word verbs (verb + particle).*

Sometimes it is unclear whether we have a preposition or a particle, and this can cause problems in understanding the meaning expressed in the sentence. To make the distinction clear it is necessary to focus on the verb type. Consider the following example.

S ® NP + VP + NP2 / C

a. Max looked up the chimney.

Is the word *up* part of the verb as in *look up,* or is it the head word for the prepositional phrase *up the chimney?* If it is a two-word verb, then we have the following sentence structure:

S ® NP + VP + NP2

	looked up		the
a.	[TRANSITIVE VERB +		chimney.
*Max	PARTICLE]		[OBJECT]

In this case, *look up* is a transitive verb followed by an object. However, if it is a head word introducing a prepositional phrase, we have:

S ® NP + VP + C

	looked	up the chimney.
b.	[INTRANSITIVE	[PREPOSITIONAL
Max	VERB]	PHRASE]

Here, *up the chimney* is a prepositional phrase occurring after an intransitive verb.

The true test of any sentence is its meaning, and that may be difficult to establish. For the first example, we ask how can you *look up + the chimney?* You may *look up a number* in a telephone book, but not a *chimney.* You look up a *chimney sweeper*, but not *a chimney.* For the second example, if you are imaginative, *Max* could be standing at the base of a tall chimney structure and *looked* in the direction of *up the chimney*.

As well, two-word verbs can often be split. For example, we can say:

	looked up		the
a.	[TRANSITIVE VERB +		number.
Max	PARTICLE]		[OBJECT]

			the	
			number	
b.	looked		[OBJECT]	up.
Max	[TRANSITIVE VERB]	+		[PARTICLE]

However, we do not say:

a. *Max	looked up [TRANSITIVE VERB + PARTICLE]	the chimney. [OBJECT]
b. *Max	looked [TRANSITIVE VERB]	the chimney [OBJECT] + up. [PARTICLE]

Sentence meaning is not always the solution to this problem, because we can say:

S ® NP + VP + NP2

a. Barbara	looked up [TRANSITIVE VERB + PARTICLE]	the street. [OBJECT]

S ® NP + VP + C

b. Barbara	looked [INTRANSITIVE VERB]	up the street. [PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE]

In these examples, both meanings are possible. In the first example, *Barbara looked up the street on the map because she did not know where it was located;* in the second, *Barbara went out and looked in the direction up the street.* Ambiguity can occur.

The following prepositions by form are those most frequently used as particles to help form phrasal verbs.

FIGURE 4.9
PARTICLES

about	down	on	through	
across	in	out	to	
around	off	over	up	with

These particles can occur with any number of verbs to form two-word verbs or *phrasal verbs.*

Absolute Phrase

> ABSOLUTE PHRASES are cohesive word groups not linked to the main clause syntactically or semantically by shared elements.

Absolute phrases10 conceptually relate to the sentence as a whole, rather than to a specific constituent within the sentence. Within its own structure the absolute phrase consists of a *noun (phrase)* plus a *participle (phrase),*11 or a noun phrase that includes a post-noun modifier.

Generally, the modifier is an *(-ing)* present participle or an *(-en/-ed)* past participle; other times, it can be another noun phrase, a prepositional phrase, or even an adjective phrase. When the *(-ing)* present participle is not present it is understood in the present participle of the verb *be, (being).*

Unlike participle phrases, absolute phrases usually contain a word that has the grammatical function of subject, but there is no finite verb to act as a predi-

10 Absolute phrases are also know as nominative absolutes.

11 It may simply be a noun and a participle, rather than phrases.

cate. They generally occur at the beginning of sentences, but sometimes we find them embedded or at the end of sentences. The choice depends upon emphasis and variety, and not on the meaning. As a structure it is therefore set aside from the rest of the sentence by one or more commas.

Examples are:

a. "Mr. Heathcliff followed, his accidental merriment expiring quickly in his habitual moroseness." [Brontë]

b. "Yet, since in all things material and mortal there is always a little spot of darkness, a germ of canker, at least the echo of a cry of fearlest life being too sweet, man should grow proud to the point of forgetting he is, after all, but a pawn upon the board." [Malet]

[NOUN PHRASE + PRESENT PARTICIPLE]

c. "The door being opened, the child addressed him as grandfather, and told him the little story of our companionship." [Dickens]

[NOUN PHRASE + PAST PARTICIPLE]

d. "I opened my mouth for a 'good-morning,' but closed it again, the salutation unachieved." [Brontë]

[NOUN PHRASE + PAST PARTICIPLE]

Like participle phrases, absolute phrases can be active or passive, transitive or intransitive. Absolute phrases do not have tense.

Absolute phrases are of two kinds, each with different purposes and different effects:

1. Absolute phrases can explain *cause* or *condition.* Such phrases can be rewritten as subordinate clauses beginning with *if, because, when,* or *since.*

a. "That's the judge," she said to herself, "because of his great wig." [Carroll] [CAUSE]

2. An absolute phrase can also add detail or focus to the idea in the main clause.

a. "To be sure, it might be nothing but a good coat of tropical tanning." [Melville] [INFINITIVE PHRASE]

Often the idea underlying the absolute phrase dominates the structure, when grammatically and structurally it is subordinate to the sentence.

By way of summary,

1. Absolute phrases may contain participles or any other structures that follow *be.*

2. Whenever a participle is not present, *being* is understood as part of the absolute phrase.

3. An absolute phrase consists of a subject and a participle phrase.

4. Like other participle phrases, the absolute phrase may be active or passive, transitive or intransitive, etc.

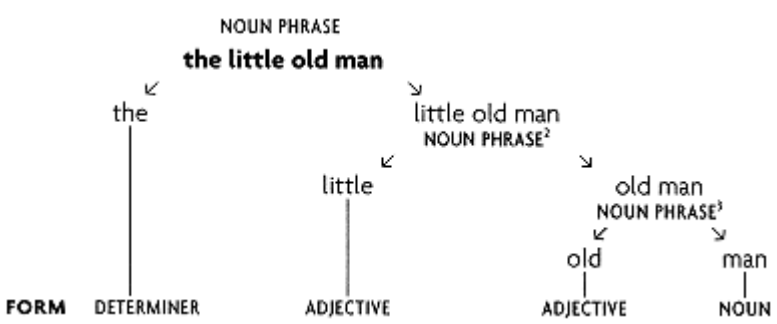
5. Absolute phrases do not have tense.

6. Just as adverbs may be found at the beginning or end of a sentence, absolute phrases may occur in either place. The choice depends upon emphasis and variety, not meaning.

Phrase Analysis

As with words and morphemes, it is important to be able to break phrases down into individual constituents. The phrase may be a constituent itself within the sentence, but of itself, it has constituents.

1. Noun phrase with pre-noun modifiers:



All words are simply identified by form. The first cut isolates *the*, a determiner; the second isolates *little*, an adjective; the third *old*, an adjective; the head word is *man,* a noun.

NP stands for the full noun phrase structure; NP2 identifies a second noun within the NP; NP3 identifies a third noun within NP2. This order of cutting pre-noun modifiers is a simple binary analysis. Begin at the extreme left and cut one constituent at a time moving towards the HN at the extreme right. The maximum number of such modifying categories is five.

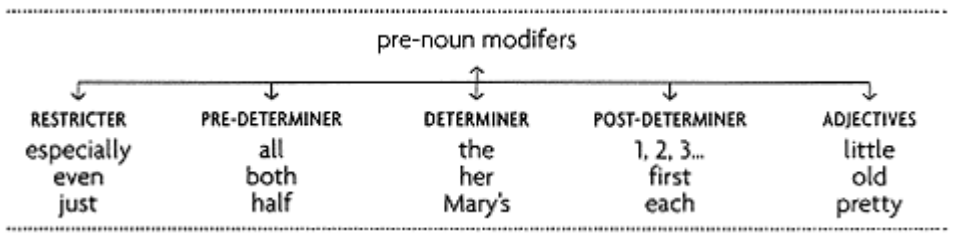
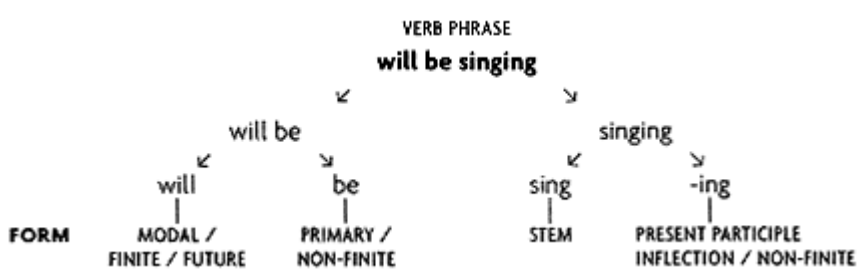


Figure 4.10
Pre-Noun Modifiers

From the above examples, we can form any number of noun phrases, for example, *especially all the first little school houses.* Although we identify five pre-noun categories, that is not to say that the longest noun phrase can only be six words (including the noun itself). On the contrary, several adjectives may precede the noun, as in: the *fragile little old* man. Here we have three modifying adjectives. Also, nouns can modify nouns, as in: *college student, school house,* etc.

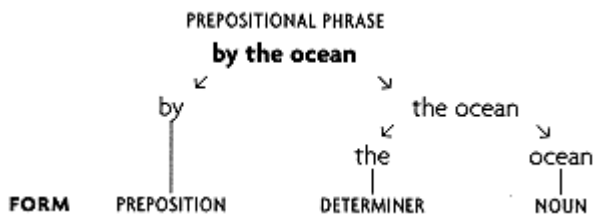
While this figure identifies the pre-noun modifiers, it does not account for post-noun modifiers, which are generally phrases and clauses, as we shall see later. So the above example might also read, *Especially all the first little school houses in the rural districts of the country.* Here we have the addition of two post-noun prepositional phrase modifiers.

2. Verb phrase with auxiliary verbs



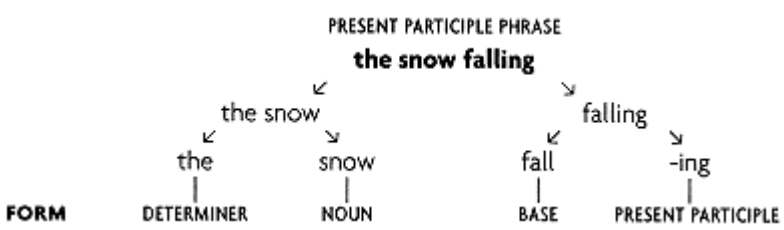
Verb phrases are obviously different from noun phrases, but not that different. Head lexical verbs (HV) are generally found to the extreme right of the phrase. However, for verbs the inflectional endings have to be accounted for as well, because they frequently state aspect. In the above phrase we begin by first cutting the auxiliaries from the main verb. Next we divide auxiliaries into modal and primary auxiliaries; then we separate the base of the main verb and the inflectional suffix noting the aspect. Like noun phrases, verb phrases can also become quite complicated. For example, we might hear: *he may have been very willing to go.*

3. Prepositional phrase



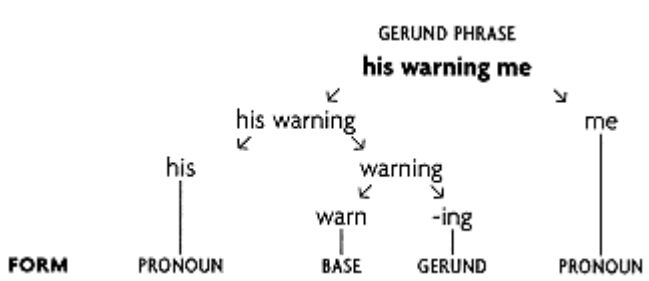
Prepositional phrases tend to be very simple. Generally they consist of a preposition, a modifier, and a noun or its substitute. Occasionally there may be more than one modifier. To break down a prepositional phrase, the cutting begins at the left with the preposition and moves to the right towards the noun object.

4. Participle phrase



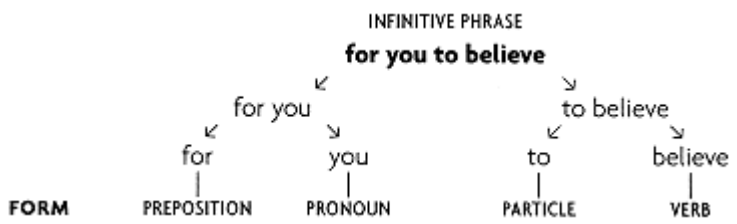
Participle phrases pose no more complexity than other phrase structures. In the above structure the noun phrase and the participle constitute the first cut; then the noun phrase is broken down further. To determine the grammatical function of the noun, it would be necessary to have a larger structure where it could be identified as a subject or object.

5. Gerund phrase



Gerund phrases are similar to participle phrases. The first cut separates the gerund and its modifier from all other constituents; next we separate the modifier and the gerund itself.

6. Infinitive phrase



Infinitive phrases have essentially two components, the prepositional phrase and the actual infinitive.

<><><><><><><><><><><><><><>

Morphemes, words, and phrases have now been covered *by form*, which is our first category of analysis. The only other sentence constituent to be covered by form is the clause, which I leave until chapter 7. To understand clausal structures it is necessary to understand grammatical functions. Therefore, we will now move on to grammatical function, and then we will return to clauses before taking up grammatical positions.

At this point, it may be wise to briefly run through the various word and phrase categories:

words	® phrases	&rarr: clauses
–	–	–
nouns	noun	Chapter 7
verbs	verb	
adjectives	adjective	
adverbs	adverb	
pronouns	participle	
determiners	gerund	
auxiliaries	infinitive	
prepositions	prepositional	
conjunctions	absolute	

FUNCTION

< previous page page_131 next page >

5
Major Grammatical Functions

Grammatical Function

> FUNCTION (grammatical function) is the role a constituent has within a sentence, along with its syntactic relationship to other constituents within that sentence.

Grammatical function is our second category of analysisform, *function,* and positionthat is, *what a constituent DOES.* Identifying words by *form* gives limited information about the characteristics of a word class; identifying words by *grammatical function*, however, reveals the ongoing and often changing relationships sentence constituents have with one another.

I have arbitrarily divided grammatical functions into *major* and *minor* based on their importance in sentence structures. Major functions are more essential to sentence structures than are minor functions.

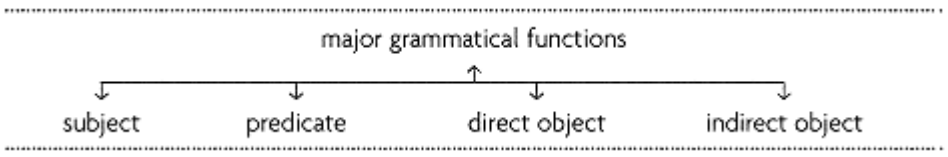


Figure 5.1
Major Grammatical Functions

The basic components of all sentences, the noun phrase (NP) and the verb phrase (VP), are always expressed as the *subject* and the *predicate* respectively. When the predicate is a transitive verb, a direct object must follow and an indirect object may or may not follow. I presented this structuring at the beginning of the chapter on phrases, and it may be beneficial to review it before proceeding.

We now make a major shift in the terminology that we shall use to describe grammatical *functions* as opposed to *forms.* When we discuss form categories, *what a constituent IS,* we use terms such as noun, pronoun, verb, etc., and each time we use these terms we are referring to the *form of the constituent.* For example, a *noun is always the form of that constituent.* Now we move on to functional categories, *what a constituent DOES,* and we shall use new parallelling terms (subject, predicate, complement, etc.). Each time we use these terms, we shall be referring to the grammatical functions of these constituents. A noun by form now becomes, for example, a subject by function, or a direct object by function. Later we shall consider positional categories, *where a given constituent GOES,* and here again we shall make some slight adjustments in terminology. A noun by *form* may be a subject by *function,* but a nominal by *position.* We use a distinctive set of terms

for each of the grammatical categories of analysis. This allows us, therefore, to know whether we are discussing form, function or position.

The following figure summarizes the parallels between terms for grammatical form and grammatical function:

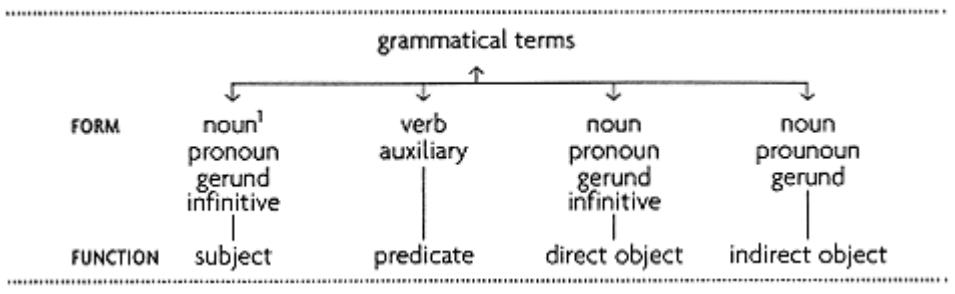


Figure 5.2
Major Grammatical Form and Functions

Subject

> SUBJECT is the first of two essential grammatical functions of a sentence structure, having the grammatical meanings of that which performs, describes, identifies or asserts.

The subject is one of two essential grammatical functions needed in creating the sentence structure, and it always occupies the noun phrase (NP) component of sentences. By form it can be any structure that has a *noun*, a *pronoun*, a *gerund* or an *infinitive* as a head word (HW). A *noun clause* can also carry out this grammatical function, as we shall discuss later. Subjects are easy to identify because they generally occur at the beginning of sentences before the predicate. The first group of following examples notes the various form class structures that can carry out this grammatical function.

$$S \rightarrow \underset{Sj}{NP} + VP + NP^{2} / C$$

a. "Mrs. Cressler showed them to their rooms." [Norris]

[PROPER NOUN / SUBJECT]

b. "'I just don't see,' she exclaimed decisively."

[PRONOUN / SUBJECT]

c. "The whole neighbourhood was alive, and this, though it was close upon one o'clock in the morning!"

[NOUN PHRASE / SUBJECT]

d. "The brute's wailing and whining died away on the desolate shore." [Chesterton]

[GERUND / SUBJECT]

1 Note that where applicable, the term applies to both word and phrase groups.

e. "To complete his written appeal to the benign powers, traversing the haunted wood, might sometime rescue him if he should be denied the blessing of annihilation." [Bierce]

[INFINITIVE PHRASE / SUBJECT]

Grammatical meaning: Meaning is the intention conveyed by a word or a word group. Lexical meaning, as we have seen, is the dictionary meaning of a word. Of themselves words always carry this lexical meaning in that category, but when we group words in special ways to form sentences we then create new *grammatical meaning* in another category.

Words grouped together randomly have little or no meaning on their own, unless it occurs accidentally. For example, each of the following words has lexical meaning at the word level, as is shown in a dictionary, but they convey no grammatical meaning as a group.

a. Lights the leap him before the down hill purple.

However when a special order is given to these words, grammatical meaning is created because of the relationships they have to one another.

S → NP + VP + C
Sj P C

a. "The purple lights leap down the hill before him." [Aiken]

Subjects can express one of five grammatical meanings:

1. To express the grammatical meaning of the subject performing an action, we use either an intransitive or a transitive verb.

S → NP + VP + NP^2 / C
Sj

a. "She uttered a scream." [Chesterton]

[PRONOUN + TRANSITIVE VERB]

b. "Miss Druce went down the path."

[PROPER NOUN + INTRANSITIVE VERB]

c. "All Moxon's expounding had failed to make me a convert." [Bierce]

[GERUND PHRASE + INTRANSITIVE VERB]

[SUBJECT]

2. To express the grammatical meaning of the subject receiving an action, we similarly use either an intransitive or a transitive verb. This occurs when the verb is in the passive.

a. "You were surprised this evening that we have so many of your photographs." [Chekhov]

[PRONOUN + INTRANSITIVE VERB]

b. "So Nora's hat is gone but I am going to get another and save myself from sunstroke again." [Davis]

[NOUN + INTRANSITIVE VERB]

c. "The child's fresh and rosy lip was lowered." [Crane]

[NOUN + INTRANSITIVE VERB]

[SUBJECT]

3. To express the grammatical meaning of the subject as being the person or thing described, we use linking verbs. The subject and the adjective/complement have the same referent.

a. "That lady seemed at a loss to make a selection." [Chopin]

[NOUN PHRASE + LINKING VERB]

b. "I don't remember what;and he became so insulting and abusive that Robert gave him a thrashing on the spot."

[PRONOUN + LINKING VERB]

c. "His coming was in the nature of a welcome disturbance."

[GERUND + LINKING VERB]

d. "To watch his face was like watching a darkening sky before a clap of thunder."

[INFINITIVE + LINKING VERB]

[SUBJECT SAME REFERENT]

4. To express the grammatical meaning of the subject as being identified, we also use linking verbs. The subject and the noun/complement have the same referent.

a. "Jake Rogers was the first man to reach the home of Tuscarora Hose Company Number Six." [Crane]

[PROPER NOUN + LINKING VERB]

b. "They were footmen to death, and the crowd made subtle obeisance to this august dignity derived from three prospective graves."

[PRONOUN + LINKING VERB]

c. "Shaving was not an easy task, for his hand continued to shake very much."

[GERUND + LINKING VERB]

d. "To edge his way along the crowded paths of life, warning all human sympathy to keep its distance, was what the knowing ones call 'nuts' to Scrooge." [Dickens]

[INFINITIVE PHRASE + LINKING VERB]

[SUBJECT SAME REFERENT]

5. To express the grammatical meaning of an assertion being made, we generally use the verb *be*. The assertion, however, does not have to be true. It is the grammatical meaning of the subject that is most important. The subject and following complement have the same referent.

a. "No eye at all is better than an evil eye, dark master!" [Dickens]

[COMMON NOUN + VERB *BE]*

b. "Horse-dealing is only one of many human transactions carried on in this ingenious manner!" [Eliot]

[GERUND + VERB *BE]*

c."To know of a man that he is dead should be enough!" [Bierce]

[INFINITIVE PHRASE + VERB *BE]*

[SUBJECT SAME REFERENT]

When discussing the subject, the phrase *doer of the action* is often used. As shown here, only the first grammatical meaning expresses the *doer of an action;* all others are *receivers* of an action, a *description*, an *identity*, or an *assertion.*

Extra-posed subjects

Subjects are sometimes extra-posed to a position after their predicates. When this occurs, the subject is replaced with one of two *expletives*, *it* or *there.* Expletives are *dummy* words that have *structural* rather than *grammatical* functions. We use them to replace the extra-posed subject or object. They can also shift stress within a sentence.

"It occurred to him that the fact was fortunate." [Conrad]

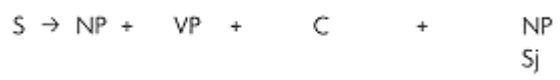
[DELAYED SUBJECT]

S → NP + VP + C
Sj

"That the fact was fortunate occurred to him."

[SUBJECT IN ITS NORMAL POSITION]

The subject moves to the position after the predicate.



"It [EXPLETIVE] occurred [COMPLEMENT] to him that the fact was fortunate[2]." [DELAYED SUBJECT]

Sometimes it is necessary to extra-pose a subject to a position after the predicate to avoid an awkward sentence.

a. "There is some rascally mystery here." [Bierce]

"There ends the dream."

[EXTRA-POSED]

b. "Some rascally mystery is here."

"The dream ends."

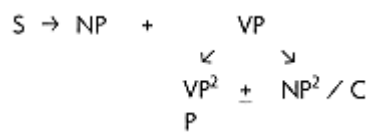
[REGULAR]

Predicate

> PREDICATE is the second of two essential grammatical functions of a sentence structure, having the grammatical meaning of asserting, describing, or identifying.

The predicate occupies the verb phrase (VP) component of sentences. Predicates by form can be a single finite lexical verb, or a combination of auxiliary verbs including finite and nonfinite forms. If it is a phrase combination, there will be a head verb (HV), which is always the lexical verb. As well, predicates can take objects, other verbals and/or complements. While we have sentences without visible subjects, for example, an imperative sentence that gives a command, we generally[3] do not have sentences without visible predicates.

Before analyzing predicate structures, it is necessary for us to return to our binary system of analysis where we first separated the NP from the VP. In that analysis we saw that the VP, providing that constituents follow it, is further divided into the VP2/P(predicate) and the other components. This usually results in a second NP2 (noun phrase) or a C (complement). Let us review the structure as previously presented, but this time with examples:



	saw	the heart of time." [Van
a.	[SIMPLE	Loon]
"I	PREDICATE/TV]	[NP2]

2 This is a noun clause, and noun clauses are the structures most frequently extra-posed.

3 There are no absolutes in language analysis. In the literature an ellipsis is often used, that is, omitting the predicate in one sentence because it is understood in the context of another.

b. "The industrious rat	had built [PHRASE PREDICATE/TV]	his nest." [NP2]
c. "Suddenly the steam	ceased [SIMPLE PREDICATE/INTV]	blowing off." [Conrad] [COMPLEMENT]

d. "Now, for some space the revellers stood agape, unable to understand all that

	had been done [PHRASE PREDICATE/INTV]	in such haste." [Doyle] [COMPLEMENT]

Once we have separated the three components, we turn our attention strictly to the verb phrase and the constituents following the predicate.

Grammatical meaning: Predicates indicate *actions* or denote *states*, and in so doing, they express time in *progress, completed,* or *recurrent.* They also denote speakers' attitude, for example, *promise, obligation,* and *prediction.* This latter information is expressed in part by auxiliary verbs and adverbs making up the verb phrase.

1. To express the grammatical meaning of a predicate asserting an action, we use transitive, intransitive or linking verbs.

$$S \rightarrow NP + \underset{P}{VP} + NP^2/C$$

a. "The clock on the wall ticked loudly and lazily." [Van Dyke]

[INTRANSITIVE VERB + COMPLEMENT]

b. "Gradually the boy lost himself in sweet fancies."

[TRANSITIVE VERB + NP2]

c. "The county attorney seemed suddenly to remember his mannersand think of his future." [Gaspell]

[LINKING VERB + COMPLEMENT]

2. To express the grammatical meaning of the predicate which describes, we use linking verbs.

a. "You don't seem to know anything." [Twain]

b. "I felt so lonesome I most wished I was dead."

[LINKING VERB + COMPLEMENT]

3. To express the grammatical meaning of the predicate which identifies, we also use linking verbs.

a. "I became his zealous partisan, and contributed all I could to raise a party in his favour." [Franklin]

[LINKING VERB + COMPLEMENT]

b. "He had been one of the very best of Cossacks, and had accomplished a great deal as a commander on naval expeditions." [Gogol]

[LINKING VERB + COMPLEMENT]

Subject-predicate agreement

Since the two essential grammatical functions of sentences are subjects and predicates, it is reasonable to assume that there is a special relationship between them. The relationship that exists between two or more sentence constituents is called *agreement.* Subject-predicate agreement occurs when a third-person singular subject in the present tense takes the inflectional *-s* form of the verb. It also occurs when a plural subject takes the stem form of the verb.

a. My foot pains terribly today.

[3RD PERSON SINGULAR PRESENT]

b. My feet pain terribly today.

[3RD PERSON PLURAL PRESENT]

This agreement of subject and predicate, however, is restricted to the present tense. In the past tense no indicators mark agreement between subject and predicate.

a. The boy opened the door.

[SINGULAR NOUN + PAST TENSE]

b. The boys opened the door.

[PLURAL NOUN + PAST TENSE]

The exception is the verb *be,* which shows agreement in both present and past forms. This is because *be* is highly inflected and has retained equivalents to its earlier forms.

a. The student is in class.

[3RD PERSON SINGULAR PRESENT]

b. The students are in class.

[3RD PERSON PLURAL PRESENT]

c. The student was in class.

[3RD PERSON SINGULAR PAST]

d. The students were in class.

[3RD PERSON PLURAL PAST]

The agreement of a subject and predicate can easily be confused when prepositional phrases occur between them.

a. The papers on the desk are for exams.

[AGREEMENT]

b. *The papers on the desk is for exams.

[NO-AGREEMENT]

Both examples have plural subjects. The first shows number agreement between the subject and the predicate; the second shows number agreement between the object of the preposition and the predicate. The confusion occurs because the object of the preposition is closer to the predicate than to the subject. Therefore, the agreement is made between the object of the preposition and the predicate.

Mood

> MOOD (mode) is the grammatical distinction in a verb form that expresses a fact, a condition contrary to fact, probability or possibility, or a command.

Mood4 is an attitude that can be expressed as, for example, a *fact*, a *wish,* a *command* or a *statement.* English has three moods.

Indicative Mood

Indicative mood states a fact or asks a question. This mood is marked by the inflectional *-s* indicating third person singular.

a. "*The Styles Case* has now somewhat subsided." [Christie]

[STATEMENT]

b. "Then you'll write to the Princess after tea, Alfred?Or shall we wait until we hear from the Princess?"

[QUESTION]

Imperative Mood

Imperative mood expresses a command or requires/forbids an action to be carried out. The subject is deleted and understood as the second person pronoun, *you.*

4 Do not confuse the mood of a verb with the mood or attitude of a speaker expressed by modal verbs.

a. "O powerful Goodness! bountiful Father! merciful Guide! increase in me that wisdom which discovers my truest interest." [Franklin]

"O powerful Goodness! bountiful Father! merciful Guide! [you] increase in me that wisdom which discovers my truest interest!"

[IMPERATIVE]

b. "Spring it, kid! Don't look so serious!" [Aiken]

"[you] Spring it, kid! Don't [you] look so serious!"

A distinction must be made between the grammatical imperative and the meaning of the word, *command*. Not all commands are imperatives.

a. "'Now, Billy,' she commanded, 'put this bucket of tallow down there in the hottest part of the fire.'" [Hegan]

[INDICATIVE]

b. "'Who are you? What are you doing here?' he demanded sharply." [Porter]

[INDICATIVE]

c. "Boy, boy, stop that!"

[IMPERATIVE]

The first two examples are indirect commands, but the highlighted verbs are not imperatives, whereas in the third example the verb is an imperative.

Subjunctive Mood

Subjunctive mood does not state a fact. It expresses the *hypothetical, doubtful, desirable* or *obligatory*. It is used to express conditions contrary to fact, has present and past forms, and there is no inflection for the lexical verb.

The present subjunctive is formed from the stem of the verb. It is most distinctive in the verb *be* and the third-person singular of other verbs, which lack the inflectional *-s*.

1. The present subjunctive is found in noun clauses beginning with *that*.

a. "He is weak, nobody denies it." [Hegan]

[INDICATIVE]

b. "The lawyer who had the hardihood to move that he be 'admonished' was solemnly informed that the Court regarded the proposal with 'surprise.'" [Bierce]

[SUBJUNCTIVE]

2. The subjunctive is frequently used with the word *whether*, indicating choice or option.

a. "Let no one underrate the sustaining power of costume, whether it take the form of ballet-skirt or monk's frock." [Malet]

[SUBJUNCTIVE]

3. The subjunctive follows certain verbs, for example: *recommend, suggest, demand, insist.*

a. "He comes in fifty minutes." [Doyle]

[INDICATIVE]

b. "Because I had suggested that hecome over."5

[SUBJUNCTIVE]

4. The subjunctive follows certain nouns, for example: *recommendation, suggestion, insistence.*

a. I know when he goes.

[INDICATIVE]

b. My recommendation is that he go.

[SUBJUNCTIVE]

5. The subjunctive follows certain adjectives, for example: *necessary, essential.*

a. She asked where he was going.

[INDICATIVE]

b. It is essential that she come.

[SUBJUNCTIVE]

In meaning, these uses are closer to the imperative.

6. The subjunctive is also used in certain set phrases, for example:

a. God bless you.

b. God save the Queen.

c. Come what may.

[SUBJUNCTIVE]

5 My literature failed to produce a suitable example, so I contrived this one with help from Arthur Conan Doyle.

7. The past subjunctive has the same form as the past indicative, and is often used in conditional sentences.

a. If I had a lot of money, I would be rich.

[SUBJUNCTIVE]

8. The verb *be* is expressed as *were* and never *was.*6

a. "For a moment the boy looked as if he were going to let them remain where they were." [Porter]

[SUBJUNCTIVE]

b. *For a moment the boy looked as if he was going to let them remain where they were.

Voice

> VOICE is a syntactic construction indicating particular relationships between the subject and object of the predicate.

English has two voices, *active* and *passive.*

Active Voice

We use the active voice to describe a verb category concerned with the relationship between the subject and the object; the action is expressed by transitive verbs.

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	NP^2
		Sj	+	P	+	Do

"The shepherd's dog barked fiercely." [Eliot]

[ACTIVE VOICE]

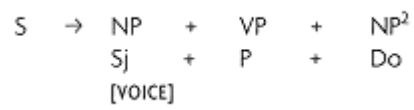
In this example the subject acts as the agent or performer of the action that the predicate describes. This relationship between the subject and the predicate is called an active relationship.

Passive Voice

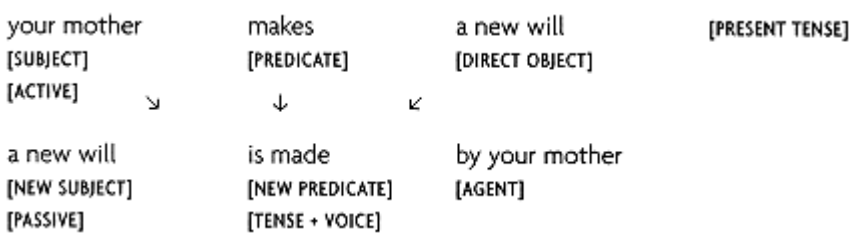
Passive or inactive voice is a feature of transitive sentences in which the grammatical subject of the predicate becomes the goal of the expressed action. *Passive* refers to the relationship between the subject and predicate. This means that passive structures do not occur with intransitive or linking verbs.

6 Although in speech, at least, this is rapidly changing.

Consider the following sentence transition:

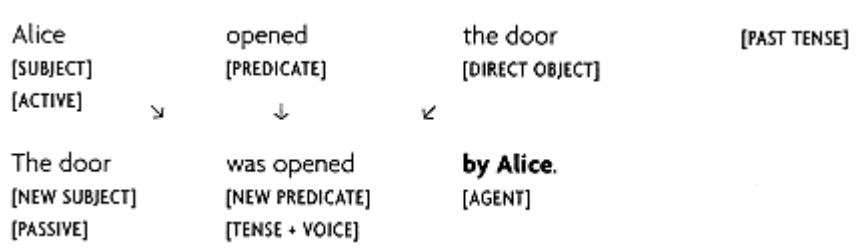


a. "In consequence of that quarrel, your mother very suddenly and hurriedly makes a new will." [Christie]



In consequence of that quarrel, a new will very suddenly and hurriedly is made by your mother.

b. "Alice opened the door and found that it led into a small passage, not much larger than a rat-hole." ['Carroll]



The door was opened by Alice and [it was] found that it led into a small passage, not much larger than a rat-hole.

Three changes occur:

1. The subject of the active structure becomes the agent of the passive structure.

2. The direct object of the active structure becomes the new subject of the passive structure.

3. The tense7 of the predicate is retained in a form of the verb *be;* the lexical verb is replaced by its form in the past participle.

7 Examples to illustrate the passive voice are often given in the past tense, as in the second example above. Pay particular attention to passive transitions with the present tense because they tend to be overlooked.

The agent of the passive structure forms a prepositional phrase, *by + agentas object of the preposition.* We identify this structure as passive because the subject of the sentence is seen as passively undergoing the action of the verb. The importance of the performer of the action is not emphasized.

Two grammatical meanings have been shifted.

Consider the first example:

1. *Your mother*, the performer of the action, is now the agent, expressed as object of the preposition, *by your mother*.

2. *A new will,* the undergoer, is now the subject of the passive sentence.

All transitions from active to passive are not as simple, however, as the above examples. There are many features of active sentences that may have to be considered when structuring passive sentences.

1. Passive with deleted agents

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	NP^2	
		Sj		P		Do	[VOICE]

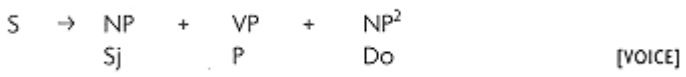
"Someone, then, cut out the message with a pair of short-bladed scissors, pasted it with paste" [Doyle]

Someone [ACTIVE]	↘	cut out ↓	↙ this message.
This message [PASSIVE]		was cut out	**(by someone)**.

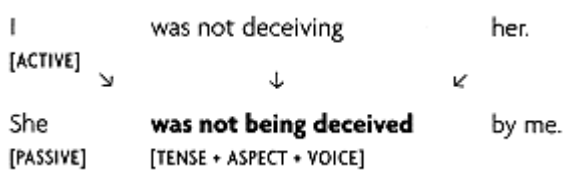
The message, then, was cut out with a pair of short-bladed scissors, pasted with paste

In the above transition the subject, *someone,* is vague and as far as meaning is concerned, it does not add much to the passive transition. In such cases the subject/agent can be deleted. The *by* phrase is deleted; when returning to the active one simply replaces the subject. Many indefinite words and the personal pronoun *they* fall into this category. It is only when the subject agent contributes meaningfulness to the sentence that it is necessary to keep it in the passive transition.

2. Passive with progressive aspect

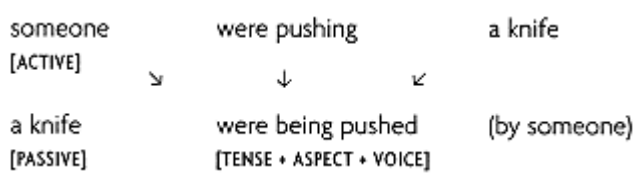


a. "I observed that every now and then she stole a curious look at my face, as if to make quite sure that I was not deceiving her." [Dickens]



I observed that every now and then she stole a curious look at my face, as if to make quite sure that she was not being deceived by me.

b. "He felt as if someone were pushing a knife in his chest." [Lawrence]



He felt as if a knife were being pushed in his chest.

When the progressive is used in the active voice, an extra step is required in the transition to the passive. The subject and object transitions are the same. However, the predicate must now show the progressive aspect. We use an appropriate form of the verb *be* with the past participle of the lexical verb as found in regular passives. The progressive aspect of the active predicate is now expressed in the present participle of the verb *be*. The progressive aspect has to be retained. Where there were only two verbs in the active predicate there are now three verbs in the passive predicate.

In addition, in example (a) above, the personal pronouns change cases. The active sentence shows that *I* is in the subjective case and *her* is in the objective case; the passive sentence shows *she* in the subjective case and *me* in the objective cases. The transition takes place because personal pronouns must reflect the case of the function they hold.

3. Passive with auxiliaries

i. The stem *be* occurs after a *modal.*

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	NP^2	
		Sj		P		Do	[VOICE]

"'You may thank your stars I've come back to-night,' he said, looking up from under his dropped head, sulkily, trying to be impressive." [Lawrence]

You	may thank	your stars.
[ACTIVE]	↘ ↓ ↙	
Your stars	**may be thanked**	by you.
[PASSIVE]	[TENSE + VOICE]	

'Your stars may be thanked by you I've come back to-night," he said, looking up from under his dropped head, sulkily, trying to be impressive.

The predicate of the active voice can frequently have an auxiliary verb. When this occurs the subject and object transitions are the same. The passive predicate is expressed as modal plus *be* plus the past participle of the lexical verb. We determine the form of the passive *be* by the preceding auxiliary.

ii. The present participle *being* occurs after *be.*

he	should be spending	his money
[ACTIVE]	↘ ↓ ↙	
his money	should be being spent	by him
[PASSIVE]	[TENSE + ASPECT + VOICE]	

"So it galled her bitterly to think he should be out taking his pleasure and spending money, whilst she remained at home, harassed." [Lawrence]

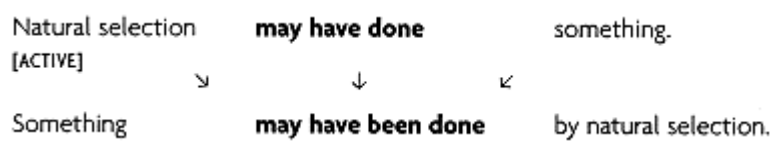
S	→	NP	+	VP	+	NP^2	
		Sj		P		Do	[VOICE]

So it galled her bitterly to think his money should be being spent whilst she remained at home, harassed.

iii. The past participle *been* occurs after *have.*

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	NP^2	
		Sj		P		Do	[VOICE]

"Professor Owen admitted that natural selection may have done something in the formation of a new species." [Darwin]

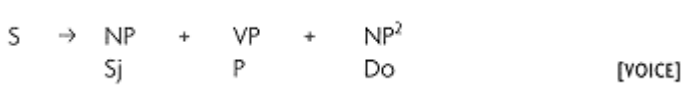


Professor Owen admitted that something may have been done by natural selection in the formation of a new species.

Notice that both active and passive versions have the same meaning, including that provided by the auxiliaries. The aspect of the active structure is carried over to the passive structure.

4. Passive: past participles versus adjectives

In passive transitions the past participle can be confused with a predicate adjective. Passive sentences with deleted agents admit two separate readings.



"Quite satisfied, he closed his door, and locked himself in." [Dickens]

If we leave out *by him*, leaving the meaning that *someone closed the door*, we can have a confused structure:

b. his door was closed. [PASSIVE]

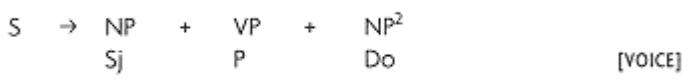
c. his door was closed [ADJECTIVE]

d. his door was green. [ADJECTIVE]

The active to passive transition is acceptable, but the passive can be confusing. Is the final sentence constituent a past participle or an adjective? There is really no way of knowing, unless we know the intent of the speaker. Any substitution of one adjective for another simply implies that it was an adjective in the first place.

5. Passive with *get*

English also has a passive in which the verb *get* replaces the verb *be.*



"She brings the ends of the bond together, and kneels on the sheaf while she ties it, beating back her skirts now and then when lifted by the breeze." [Hardy]

b. the ends of the bond are brought together by her

c. the ends of the bond got brought together by her

[PASSIVE]

The ends of the bond got brought together by her, , beating back her skirts now and then when lifted by the breeze

The meaning of *got* here is very close to that of *becomes.* This form of the passive is very useful in avoiding ambiguity.

a. The door was shut at 10:00 PM.

b. The door got shut at 10:00 PM.

In the first example two meanings are possible.

1. Some person shut the door at 10:00 PM.

2. When we arrived at 10:00 PM, the door was shut, that is, not open.

The *get* passive specifies the first meaning only and therefore removes any possible ambiguity.

The *get* passive also has other meanings. Whenever we intend responsibility by the subject, a reflexive pronoun (herself, themselves, myself, etc.) is either expressed or understood.

a. Tom got caught in the tree.

b. Tom got himself caught in the tree.

In summary, we use the passive most frequently for the following reasons.

1. The subject/agent is unimportant, unknown, or not easily stated.

a. Mary was hurt (by someone) in an accident. [PASSIVE]

2. We wish to suppress the agent for objectivity.

a. The by phrase is deleted in some passives. [PASSIVE]

b. We delete the by phrase in some passives. [ACTIVE]

3. We emphasize the object/patient rather than the subject/agent.

a. Mary was sent as our representative. [PASSIVE]

b. The committee sent Mary as our representative. [ACTIVE]

4. We wish to avoid vague pronoun references.

a. You and I chose Tim as the best student. [ACTIVE]

b. Tim was chosen as the best student. [PASSIVE]

5. The subject/agent is rather long.

a. That everything might be ready on time
gave Tom a reason to come. [ACTIVE]

b. Tom was given a reason to come. [PASSIVE]

6. We wish to avoid the indefinite pronouns *one* and *you,* where the context makes these words inappropriate.

a. You answered the questions correctly. [ACTIVE]

b. The questions were answered correctly. [PASSIVE]

Direct Object

> DIRECT OBJECT is the person or thing that undergoes the action of transitive verbs. Its grammatical meaning is that which undergoes the action of the predicate, or is affected by it.

Direct objects always follow transitive verbs, forming a second noun phrase NP2, which is similar in structure in every way to the noun phrase NP. By form it can be any structure that has a *noun,* a *pronoun,* a *gerund* or *an infinitive* as a head word (HW). A noun clause can also carry out this function. The difference between subjects and direct objects is found in grammatical function and not in form. Direct objects have a high rate of occurrence because we frequently use transitive verbs as our predicates.

Grammatical meaning: Unlike the subject and the predicate, no general statement for grammatical meaning suffices for the direct object. It has many semantic and logical relationships. The description as presented is acceptable enough for most sentences; for others, it falls short, because the object neither receives the action nor is affected in any way by it. We can understand the direct object best by noting its position within the sentence structure.

S → NP + VP + NP^2
TrV Do

a. "His classical training disposes him to a realistic exaggeration of individual difference." [Wells]

[PRONOUN / DIRECT OBJECT]

b. "Sir Harry in fact clears the ground for God very ably."

[NOUN PHRASE / DIRECT OBJECT]

c. "After opening the forepeak hatch I heard splashing in there." [Conrad]

[GERUND / DIRECT OBJECT]

d. "Vainly he sought, by tracing life backward in memory, to reproduce the moment of his sin." [Bierce]

[INFINITIVE PHRASE / DIRECT OBJECT]

Extra-posed direct object

Direct objects, similar to subjects, can also be extra-posed (sometimes called extra-posed object) and replaced with an expletive, *it* or *there.* The extra-posed object is frequently a noun clause beginning with *that.*

S → NP + VP + NP^2
TrV Do

a. "I thought it right and necessary to solicit his assistance for obtaining it." [Franklin]

I thought to solicit his assistance for obtaining it right and necessary.

b. "The author wishes it to be understood that Erewhon is pronounced as a word of three syllables." [Butler]

The author wishes that Erewhon is pronounced as a word of three syllables to be understood.

Both extra-posed subjects and objects read as though they are less formal. This example taken from literature illustrates a very extended extra-posed object and proves the point of formality.

Indirect Object

> INDIRECT OBJECT is the second of two objects that follows transitive verbs. Its grammatical meaning is *to* or *for whom the action is performed.*

The indirect object also follows transitive verbs and it is placed between the predicate and the direct object. By form it can be theoretically any structure that focuses on a *noun*, a *pronoun*, or a *gerund* as a head word (HW). It is similar in every way to other noun phrases. The indirect object differs from the direct object in its grammatical function and not in its form.

The indirect object is very restrictive in its composition. Words and short phrases are common, while longer structures such as clauses are very rare. Its alternative structure, coming after the direct object as a prepositional phrase, occurs more frequently in the literature.

Our sentence structure now changes with the addition of the indirect object.

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	NP^2	+	NP^3
		Sj		P		Ido		Do

NP2 now becomes the indirect object, and the direct object moves to be a third noun phrase NP3.

Grammatical meaning: The grammatical meaning for the indirect object is quite clear in that it is *to* or *for whom* an action is carried out. It has no variations like the subject or predicate and it is much more precise than the direct object.

We identify a small class of transitive verbs that frequently take indirect objects. The following are representative examples:

FIGURE 5.3
TRANSITIVE VERBS FREQUENTLY TAKING INDIRECT OBJECTS

bake	build	give	pass	send	throw
bring	cook	make	pitch	teach	toss

Although indirect objects usually name humans or animals, a few verbs also take inanimate indirect objects. The following examples illustrate indirect objects after transitive verbs.

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	NP^2	+	NP^3
		Sj		TV		Ido		Do

a. "Polly, give Mis' McChesney some salt." [Churchill]

[PROPER NOUN / INDIRECT OBJECT]

b. "Don't write, but come, and bring me something from Edgar."

[PRONOUN / INDIRECT OBJECT]

c. "'Will not Virginia and the Congress send you men, sir?' I asked wonderingly." [Churchill]

[PRONOUN / INDIRECT OBJECT]

d. "Poirot seized his hat, gave his moustache a ferocious twist and, carefully brushing an imaginary speck of dust from his sleeve, motioned me to precede him down the stairs." [Christie]

[NOUN PHRASE / INDIRECT OBJECT]

Indirect objects do not occur as frequently as direct objects, possibly because we can also convey their meaning by a prepositional phrase occurring after the direct object.

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	NP^2		
		Sj		P		Do	+	OP

a. "Thoma Grigorovitch was on the point of setting his spectacles astride of his nose, but recollected that he had forgotten to wind thread about them and stick them together with wax, so he passed it over to me." [Gogol]

[PRONOUN / OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION]

b. "I would forward it to Sir Charles Lyell, who sent it to the Linnean Society."

[PROPER NOUNS / OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION]

c. "I hope they'll bring good to you, Master Marner." [Eliot]

[PRONOUN / OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION]

d. We will give an award for his singing.

[GERUND / OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION]

In these sentences the indirect object is replaced by a prepositional phrase occurring after the direct object. Therefore, the structure is no longer an indirect object, although essentially the same meaning is retained.

Here are the features of the indirect object:

1. Indirect objects usually name humans or animals; a few verbs may take inanimate indirect objects.

2. A small class of transitive verbs takes indirect objects, for example: *throw, toss, send, pitch, give,* and such verbs as *bake, make, cook, build, pass,* and *bring.*

3. Verbs taking both a direct and an indirect object have the word order of: Sj+P+Ido+Do.

4. A sentence is sometimes incomplete without an indirect object.

5. Direct objects as nouns have the choice of expressing the beneficiary of the action as an indirect object or as the object of a preposition.

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The roles of the major grammatical functions are not difficult to understand. Grammatical meanings pose the greatest difficulty here, not understanding them but remembering them. The subject is the most complex with five possible meanings, and the predicate is next with three. Only the direct object might present some problem in this category; the indirect object is very clear.

The subject is also the most varied in the forms of words and phrases that can carry out this function. The predicate is slightly complicated by the use of mood and voice. Subject and predicate relationships should be given particular note here, while direct and indirect objects should cause no problems.

From here, we move on to the minor grammatical functions. Although no more difficult than the major functions, they are more varied and will require more attention because of the detail. Consider the following parallels between form and function:

FORMS	FUNCTIONS
1. nouns	subjects direct objects indirect objects
2. pronouns	subjects direct objects indirect objects
3. noun phrases	subjects direct objects indirect objects
4. verbs	predicates

6
Minor Grammatical Functions

Grammatical Functions Continued

Minor grammatical functions are not essential constituents in sentence structures, although we seldom have sentences without some of them. There is really nothing *minor* about them as far as the syntax of our language is concerned.

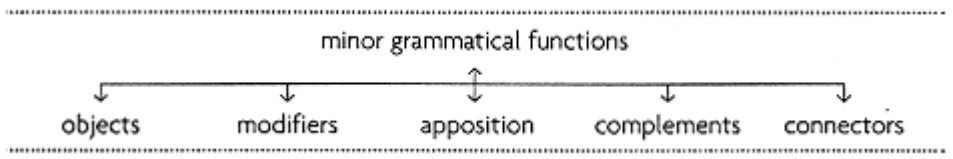


Figure 6.1
Minor Grammatical Functions

Minor grammatical functions are more varied than major functions. As noted in figure 6.1, we identify five minor functions: object refers specifically to the object of prepositions; modifiers are adjectives, adverbs, and prepositional phrases; apposition is a noun form and follows immediately after the noun or pronoun to which it refers; complements can be a range of form class words; finally, connectors, a mixed group of form class words, are conjunctions by form.

Again, many new terms are being introduced here in order to keep the categories of analysis distinct. Consider the following aligning of form class words with their grammatical functions:

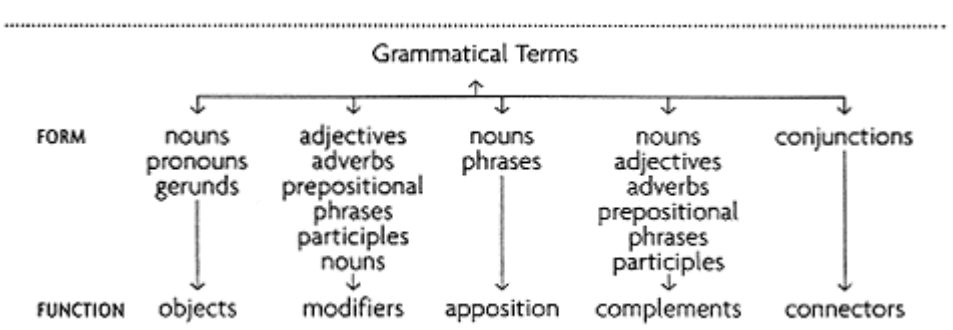


Figure 6.2
Grammatical Functions

Objects of Prepositions

> OBJECT of preposition has the grammatical meaning of that which *relates to a noun* or its replacement.

We generally think of the prepositional phrase as a single sentence constituent carrying out the particular grammatical function of modifier. However, within its structure there is another grammatical function called the *object* of the preposition. The signal word here is a *preposition,* which notes that a noun or its replacement is forthcoming; that noun or replacement in turn becomes the *object* of the preposition. Objects of prepositions can be a word, a phrase or even a clause.

PREPOSITION	OBJECT	PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE
by	+ [NOUN]	by war
with	+ [PRONOUN]	with him
on	+ [PHRASE]	on this sandy and false foundation
to	+ [CLAUSE]	to whom we wish to be just

Examples are:

a. "'You know what there is in the house,' she said, so coldly, it sounded impersonal." [Lawrence]

[OBJECT OF PREPOSITION AS SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT]

b. "He had travelled in his younger years, and was held in this part of the county to have contracted a too rambling habit of mind." [Eliot]

[OBJECT OF PREPOSITION AS COMPLEMENT/MODIFIER]

Modifiers

> MODIFIER gives grammatical or lexical information about another word in the sentence. It has the grammatical meaning *that it modifies, limits or adds to the meaning* of a word.

English has essentially two types of modifiers: adjective and adverb. However, prepositional phrases and some nouns also carry out this function. The adjective modifiers qualify *nouns, pronouns* and other *adjectives;* the adverb modifiers qualify *predicates, adjectives,* other *adverbs,* or even *complete sentences.* Although they both have different focuses, they carry out the same grammatical function.

Adjective modifiers

> ADJECTIVE MODIFIERS occupy either a pre- or post-position modifying nouns, pronouns, and other adjectives.

Initially, one associates adjective modifiers with nouns because that is where they are found most frequently. They function to modify words, phrases or clauses in the noun position or in other adjective positions. These modifiers can be as simple in structure as an adjective word, as complex as an adjective, participle or prepositional phrase, or more complex as a relative adjective clause, which we shall see in the next chapter. Most sentences generally contain adjective modifiers.

1. Adjective modifiers of nouns

a. "The little church on a hill had the mossy greyness of a rock seen through a ragged screen of leaves." [Conrad]

[ADJECTIVE MODIFIERS / PRE-NOUN]

b. "Out they toddled from rugged Avila, wide-eyed and helpless-looking as two fawns." [Eliot]

[ADJECTIVE MODIFIER / POST-NOUN]

The following examples show adjective phrases replacing single words as adjective modifiers.

a. "It was cold, bleak, biting weather: foggy withal." [Dickens]

b. "Clergymen, judges, statesmen,the wisest, calmest, holiest persons of their day,stood in the inner circle round about the gallows." [Hawthorne]

[ADJECTIVE PHRASE MODIFIER/PRE-NOUN]

c. "And under the sinister splendour of that sky the sea, blue and profound, remained still, without a stir, without a ripple, without a wrinkleviscous, stagnant, dead." [Conrad]

[ADJECTIVE PHRASE MODIFIER/POST-NOUN]

These next examples illustrate other form class words and phrases functioning as adjective modifiers in pre- and post-noun positions.

a. "At length he learned that she was the daughter of the Waiwode of Koven, who had come thither for a time." [Gogol]

[ADJECTIVE MODIFIER/PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE]

b. "Old Taras's thoughts were far away: before him passed his youth, his yearsthe swift-flying years, over which the Cossack always weeps."

c. "The hungry student running about the streets of Kief forced every one to be on his guard."

[ADJECTIVE MODIFIER/PRESENT PARTICIPLE]

d. "She smoothed with a comb their carelessly tangled locks and moistened them with her tears."

e. "Men deprived of house and home grew brave there."

[ADJECTIVE MODIFIER/PAST PARTICIPLE]

2. Adjective modifiers of adjectives

Adjective modifiers also modify other adjectives. One might expect this, since adjectives modifying other adjectives generally make adjective phrases.

a. "Hence, too, might be drawn a weighty lesson from the little-regarded truth, that the act of the passing generation is the germ which may and must produce good or evil fruit, in a far distant time." [Hawthorne]

[ADJECTIVE MODIFYING ADJECTIVE]

b. "This wandering forest life of his did not indicate that he did not care for the villagers." [Grey]

[PRESENT PARTICIPLE MODIFYING ADJECTIVE]

c. "But we could have borne all this, had not a fortune-telling gypsy woman come to raise us into perfect sublimity." [Goldsmith]

[PRESENT PARTICIPLE MODIFYING ADJECTIVE]

We restrict the number of adjective modifiers only by the awkwardness of the phrase structure. Having more than three adjectives generally creates this problem. However, literary style being what it is does not limit some authors. Consider the following example:

a. "About a mile up the river there was an islandit's a very small, prettily wooded, sandy-beached little place, but it seemed big enough in those days" [Davis]

3. Compound nouns vs. adjective modifiers

Compound nouns can often be mistaken for a combination of an adjective modifier plus a noun. This occurs because we sometimes spell compound nouns as separate words. The meaning of a compound noun is often more restricted than that of an adjective modifier plus noun structure.

a. We saw a blackbird.

[COMPOUND NOUN]

b. We saw a black bird.

c. We saw an attractive bird.

d. We saw a fancy bird.

[ADJECTIVE MODIFIER + NOUN]

If we can substitute another adjective modifier for the first element, then it is a modifier plus noun; if not, it is a compound noun. The real test is found in the next example.

a. They are hôt dógs. = The dogs are hot

b. They are hót dogs. = They are edible (sausages)

In the first example *hot* is an adjective modifying *dogs;* in the second example *hot dogs* is a compound noun. We make the distinction by noting the stress markers. In speech when we place a secondary stress on the root syllable of the first word, it becomes a modifier plus noun. When we place a primary stress on the root syllable of the first word, it becomes a compound noun.

Pronouns by form, adjectives by function

The possessive, demonstrative, relative, interrogative, and indefinite pronouns also function as adjective modifiers. By form they are pronouns, but by function they can be adjective modifiers because they signal a forthcoming noun or its replacement, and they limit the word they modify in some way.

FIGURE 6.3
POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES

1ST PERSON	
SG	PL
my	our
2ND PERSON	
SG	PL
your	your
3RD PERSON	
SG	PL
his	
her	their
its	

Possessive Adjectives

Examples are:

a. "I just saw his head bobbing, and I dashed my boat-hook in the water." [Conrad]

b. "'Your pop done wallop yer, didn't he?' he said at last." [Crane]

c. "Mrs. John Drew and her daughter Georgie Barrymore spent their summers in a near-by hostelry." [Davis]

Demonstrative Adjectives

FIGURE 6.4
DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES

SG	PL
this	these
that	those

Examples are:

a. "This house of dust was the house I lived in." [Aiken]

b. "'I ought to be able to overlook it,' the lady replied with composure; 'you have so many times asked me to in those very words.'" [Bierce]

Relative Adjectives

FIGURE 6.5
RELATIVE
ADJECTIVES

which

whose

Examples are:

a. "He neither spoke nor loosed his hold for some five minutes, during which period he bestowed more kisses than ever he gave in his life before, I dare say." [Brontë]

b. "I have been held by some whose opinions I respect to have denied men's responsibility for their actions." [Butler]

Interrogative Adjectives

FIGURE 6.6
INTERROGATIVE
ADJECTIVES

which
whose
what

Examples are:

a. "She ate a little bit, and said anxiously to herself, 'Which way? Which way?'" [Carroll]

b. "Where, in what land or in what planet, was that optical absurdity moving now?" [Chekhov]

Indefinite Adjectives

FIGURE 6.7
INDEFINITE ADJECTIVES

SINGULAR	SINGULAR AND PLURAL		PLURAL
a, an	all	whatever	all
another	any	whatsoever	both
each	no	which	few
either	other	whichever	many
every	such		other
neither	what		several

Examples are:

a. "She was growing a little stout, but it did not seem to detract an iota from the grace of every step, pose, gesture." [Chopin]

b. "Miss Howard, in particular, took no pains to conceal her feelings." [Christie]

c. "But whichever way Lydgate began to incline, there was something to make him wince." [Eliot]

d. "Several tributaries cut across, but made no real boundary line." [Gogol]

Adverb modifiers

> ADVERB MODIFIERS occupy pre- or post-modifying positions, referring to circumstances such as *how, why,* or *when.*

We associate adverb modifiers with verb structures that make up predicates. As adverb modifiers they function to modify words, phrases or clauses in the predicate position, in other adverb positions, in adjective positions, and even complete sentences. These modifiers can be as simple in structure as an adverb word, as complex as an adverb, participle or prepositional phrase, or more complex as a relative adverb or adverb clause. As modifiers they express comparison, concession, condition, contrast, degree, direction, duration, frequency, intensity, manner, place, reason, and time.

1. Adverb modifiers of predicates

Adverb modifiers frequently modify predicates.

a. "One redeeming trait he certainly did possess, as the floor speedily testified; for his ablutions were so vigorously performed." [Alcott]

[ADVERB MODIFIERS]

b. "Nature has very evidently given him up." [Crane]

[ADVERB PHRASE MODIFIER]

2. Adverb modifiers of adverbs

Adverb modifiers also modify or intensify other adverbs.

a. "'But I wouldn't think of those things so much, Laura,' answered Aunt Wess, rather seriously." [Norris]

[ADVERB MODIFYING ADVERB]

b. "But David was very evidently not somewheres round." [Porter]

[ADVERB PHRASE MODIFYING ADVERB]

c. "Aunt Wess, whose count was confused by all these figures murmured just behind her, began over again, her lips silently forming the words." [Norris]

d. "'It is Mr. Jadwin,' murmured Page, looking quickly away."

[ADVERB MODIFYING PARTICIPLE]

3. Adverb modifiers of adjectives

Adverb modifiers even modify or intensify adjectives.

a. "'Yes. It was in his pocket, you see. Theyfound it.' David's voice was very low, and not quite steady." [Porter]

[ADVERB MODIFIER + ADJECTIVE]

b. "Especially he loved to see the great birds cut through the air with a wide sweep of wings, so alive, so gloriously free!"

[ADVERB PHRASE MODIFIER + ADJECTIVE]

4. Adverb modifiers of sentences

Adverb modifiers are often used to modify complete sentences. In these examples the modifiers are set off from the sentence by a comma. Their function is to modify the whole sentence and not a particular constituent within that sentence. They are moveable and can appear at the beginning, in the middle or at the end of sentences. They are quite flexible in the structures that they modify.

a. "Evidently something very momentous had occurred that afternoon." [Christie]

[ADVERB MODIFYING SENTENCE]

b. "Plainly, and very simply, I love you with all my heart." [Norris]

[ADVERB PHRASE MODIFYING SENTENCE]

c. "During the preparations for the wedding, I need not describe the busy importance of my wife, nor the sly looks of my daughters." [Goldsmith]

[ADVERB PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE MODIFYING SENTENCE]

d. "At sunset hour the forest was still, lonely, sweet with tang of fir and spruce, blazing in gold and red and green." [Grey]

[ADVERB PRESENT PARTICIPLE PHRASE MODIFYING SENTENCE]

e. "The tawny sibyl no sooner appeared than my girls came running to me for a shilling apiece, to cross her hand with silver."

[ADVERB INFINITIVE PHRASE MODIFYING SENTENCE]

Adverb Nouns

A noun and adverb combination may seem strange at first; however, a few nouns can occupy an adverb position and carry out the grammatical function of modifier. When they function in this way, we call them *adverb nouns.* For example:

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	C
		Sj		P		

a. Mark Feltham studied for four years for his doctoral degree.

[SUBJECT + PREDICATE + PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES]

The noun phrase *four years* is an object of the preposition *for*. This is a typical grammatical function for nouns. *Years* is a noun because it can be inflected for plurality. However, if we delete the preposition *for*, we have:

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	C
		Sj		P		Av noun

a. Mark Feltham studied four years for his doctoral degree.

[SUBJECT + PREDICATE + ADVERBIAL NOUN]

The noun phrase here comes immediately after what might first appear as a transitive verb, *studied*. Upon closer analysis, we are using *studied* intransitively here. It is one of those typically English verbs that we use either transitively or intransitively. One does not study *four years* as one might study *a book*. We are actually giving the noun phrase the function of an adverb complement, noting length of time.

Consider the following example from Nikolai Gogol.

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	C
		Sj		P		Av noun

a. "Lieutenant-Colonel Potogonkin has lived with me seven years, seven years already." [Gogol]

In this example, *seven years* is actually an adverbial noun denoting a length of time, and it is a complement to the predicate *has lived*. Here is another example.

b. "They were very black and very frizzled, and had been bought at a reduced price from a traveling salesman some ten years before." [Hegan]

[ADVERB NOUNS]

In view of this, consider the next example:

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	NP^2
		Sj		P		Do

c. Bernard *studied* English language.

[SUBJECT + TV PREDICATE + DIRECT OBJECT]

In this example, we use the verb *studied* transitively, followed by a noun phrase, *English language*, as its direct object. In the above examples, we cannot replace the adverb complement with the pronouns *it, them* or *what.* This would be the case if it were a direct object. This switch can take place in the *c* example, however.

d. Bernard *studied* what?

e. Bernard *studied* it.

Again, we must always remember to note the category of analysis that we are considering. Form and function are different categories of analysis, and a word by form may not necessarily suggest its grammatical function.

Prepositional phrase modifiers

> PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE MODIFIERS can also occupy adjective and adverb post-modifying positions.

Prepositional phrases are themselves sentence constituents and we use them frequently as adjective and as adverb modifiers.

Prepositional Phrases as Adjective Modifiers

1. Prepositional phrase modifying a noun

a. "His most notable service in home politics was his reform of the postal system." [Franklin]

[SUBJECT + PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE ADJECTIVE MODIFIER]

b. "His most notable service in home politics was his reform of the postal system."

[SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT + PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE ADJECTIVE MODIFIER]

2. Prepositional phrase modifying an adjective

a. "He was also much of a politician; too much, perhaps, for his station."

[ADJECTIVE MODIFIER + PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE ADJECTIVE MODIFIER]

Prepositional Phrases as Adverb Modifiers

1. Prepositional phrase modifying a verb

a. "This obscure family of ours was early in the Reformation, and continued Protestants through the reign of Queen Mary." [Franklin]

[PREDICATE + PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE ADVERB MODIFIER]

b. "When my great-great-grandfather read it to his family, he turned up the joint-stool upon his knees."

[PREDICATE + PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE ADVERB MODIFIER]

2. Prepositional phrase modifying an adverb

a. "Being a heavy stick the dog has held it tightly by the middle, and the marks of his teeth are very plainly visible." [Doyle]

[ADVERB MODIFIER + PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE ADVERB MODIFIER]

3. Prepositional phrase modifying a sentence

a. "By much trampling, we had made it a mere quagmire." [Franklin]

[PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE ADVERB MODIFIER OF A SENTENCE]

Note that prepositional phrases usually occur after the word or words they modify. Contrived examples for pre-noun prepositional phrase modifiers can be found, however, especially in speech.

a. The in-the-mood students danced all night.

[PRE-NOUN PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE MODIFIER]

b. His with-it attitude was awful.

[PRE-NOUN PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE MODIFIER]

These pre-noun prepositional phrases are highly idiomatic and often new coinages.

Apposition

APPOSITION is essentially *that which renames.* It is a referent to the noun it qualifies.

An appositive is a noun renaming the noun it follows, and it can replace the noun phrase carrying out the same grammatical function. Appositives are optional because they can be left out without affecting the syntax of the sentence. They have several qualifications: *post-modification, additional information*, or *description* by way of identification. As well, they can be restrictive or nonrestrictive regarding the information they rename. Restrictive appositives add essential information; nonrestrictive appositives add nonessential information.

1. Restrictive appositive (no commas)

a. "The story goes that a boat of Her Majesty's ship Wolverine found him kneeling on the kelp, naked as the day he was born, and chanting some psalm-tune or other." [Conrad]

b. "Thus in the course of years he was known successively in Bombay, in Calcutta, in Rangoon, in Penang, in Bataviaand in each of these halting-places was just Jim the water-clerk."

[RESTRICTIVE APPOSITIVE]

2. Nonrestrictive appositive (commas)

a. "To Jim that gossiping crowd, viewed as seamen, seemed at first more unsubstantial than so many shadows." [Conrad]

b. "An Arab, the leader of that pious voyage, came last."

c. "To the white men in the waterside business and to the captains of ships he was just Jimnothing more."

[NONRESTRICTIVE APPOSITIVE]

Although appositives generally follow the noun that they qualify, occasionally we have examples where the appositive is somewhat removed from its noun. Such is the case for some clausal structures or intervening modifying phrases.

a. This is the most important thing in his life, a scholarship.

[NONRESTRICTIVE APPOSITIVE]

Complements

COMPLEMENT has the grammatical meaning of that which *identifies* or *completes.*

Complement is a catch-all expression for a single grammatical function. While the grammatical function is the same, the grammatical positions in which this function takes place vary.

We have three types of complements in our language system: subjective complement, adverb complement, and objective complement. Only the subjective complement is further divided into predicate noun and predicate adjective.

Subjective complements

SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT has the grammatical meaning of *that which follows a linking verb* and has the same referent as the subject.

Subjective complements have a similar relationship to linking verbs as direct objects have to transitive verbs. Once the verb is identified, we know that the grammatical function is limited. Linking verbs require a following subjective complement, which is a predicate noun or predicate adjective, or an adverb complement.

Predicate Nouns

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	C
		Sj		LV		SC / p-n

a. "'He is a good creature, and more sensible than any one would imagine,' said Dorothea, inconsiderately." [Eliot]

[SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT / NOUN]

b. "But he is liked and respected in the place and is a skilled and devoted surgeon." [Chesterton]

[SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT / NOUN PHRASE]

c. "In fact, they are all yours, dear." [Eliot]

[SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT / PRONOUN]

d. "Still, there was no knowing when the dormant faculty might wake and smite the lyre." [Bierce]

[SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT / GERUND]

e. "His eyes, roaming about the line of the horizon, seemed to gaze hungrily into the unattainable" [Conrad]

[SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT / INFINITIVE]

All of these examples have linking verbs. Each predicate carries out the act of linking the subject of the sentence to the predicate noun that follows it. The predicate noun refers back to the subject, hence its name *subjective complement.*

Predicate nouns are sometimes confused with direct objects. Both occur in a similar position after the predicate. Two features, however, distinguish them. Subjective complements occur only after *linking verbs* and *must* refer back to the subject. Direct objects occur only after *transitive verbs* and they *do not* refer back to the subject.

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	C
		Sj		LV		SC / p-n

a. Dr. Roger Butler is my physician.

[My physician and Dr. Roger Butler are the same person.]

[SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT / NOUN]

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	NP^2
		Sj		TV		Do

b. Dr. Butler examined the patient.

[The patient is not Dr. Butler.]

[DIRECT OBJECT]

In the first example, the subject and subjective complement/predicate noun have the same referent. In the second example, the subject and the direct object do not have the same referent.

Predicate Adjectives

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	C
		Sj		LV		SC / p-aj

a. "But in proportion as he became contemptible to others, he became despicable to himself." [Goldsmith]

[SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT / ADJECTIVE]

b. "The two ladies, who affected to be ignorant of the rest, seemed highly displeased with this last stroke of freedom."

[SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT / ADJECTIVE PHRASE]

c. "As it now remained with me to make the young couple happy, I readily gave a promise of making the settlement he required."

[SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT / PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE]

d. "The young children were still above, as was also her father, it being Sunday morning, when he felt justified in lying an additional half-hour."

[SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT / PAST PARTICIPLE]

The subjective complement in each of the above sentences is carried out by a different form class word or phrase. However, they all have the same grammatical function of a subjective complement/predicate adjective. Again, the adjective refers back to the subject.

Adverb complements

> ADVERB COMPLEMENTS have the grammatical meaning of an adverb or adverb phrase which *completes.*

Adverb complements occur in two positions, after linking verbs and after intransitive verbs. They occur after linking verbs much like the subjective complement, but they do not qualify the subject in the same way.

1. Adverb complements after linking verbs

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	C
		Sj		LV		Av

a. "The house, however, was there, most of it." [Bierce]

[ADVERB]

b. "I had a presentiment in the bottom of my heart that he had better have remained away." [Brontë]

[ADVERB]

c. "Nobody but I could have seized that chance or seen that it was then or never." [Chesterton]

[ADVERB PHRASE]

2. Adverb complements after intransitive verbs

Adverb complements also occur after intransitive verbs and do so quite frequently. In fact, many intransitive verbs seem to require a complement to complete the meaning of the predicate.

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	C
		Sj		InTV		Av

a. "I do not speak" [Hawthorne]

"I do not speak wildly."

[INTRANSITIVE VERB + ADVERB]

b. "To Hepzibah's blunt observation, therefore, Phoebe replied."

"To Hepzibah's blunt observation, therefore, Phoebe replied, as frankly, and more cheerfully."

[INTRANSITIVE VERB + ADVERB PHRASE]

c. "He succeeded"

"He succeeded in protecting the acre or two of earth."

[INTRANSITIVE VERB + PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE]

All words, phrases or clauses that can occupy adverb positions can function as adverb complements. Be careful here because adverb complements are sometimes confused with direct objects. Transitive verbs take objects which are nouns or their replacements; intransitive verbs do not take objects, but they may take adverb complements.

3. Prepositional phrases as adverb complements

We have seen under modifiers that prepositional phrases can function to modify, as adjectives and adverbs do. Therefore, they can be modifiers or complements. As adverb complements, they occur after linking verbs and after intransitive verbs.

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	C
		Sj		LV		OP

a. "Sometimes he stayed at home on Wednesday and Thursday evenings, or was only out for an hour." [Lawrence]

[PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE / ADVERB COMPLEMENT AFTER A LINKING VERB]

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	C
		Sj		InTV		OP

b. "Mrs. Pontellier sprang out of bed and went into the next room."

[PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE / ADVERB COMPLEMENT AFTER INTRANSITIVE VERB]

The prepositional phrase is a very versatile structure and one to which you should pay close attention. Here is a summary of its roles:

AS A MODIFIER	post-adjective post-adverb
AS A COMPLEMENT	adverb

Complement vs. modifier

Adverb complements and adverb modifiers often appear to overlap. When is an adverb a complement and when is it a modifier? Are these distinctive terms? To answer these questions, we need to return to the basic sentence structure and the types of verbs that we use.

S ® NP + VP

TV + NP2

"Germany gave her neighbours an outlet for their products." [Keynes]

InTV + C

"Madame Lebrun was bustlingin and out." [Chopin]

LV + C

"Her mind was theoretic." [Eliot]

Transitive verbs take objects and they take adverb modifiers; intransitive and linking verbs take complements. We saw that the grammatical meaning for an adverb modifier is one *that modifies, limits, or adds to the meaning* of a word or words. The grammatical meaning for a complement is that which *identifies* or *completes*. This, however, is not to say that adverb modifiers cannot occur in some other part of sentences using intransitive and linking verbs.

1. adverb modifiers do not occur after *linking verbs;* adverb complements do occur there.

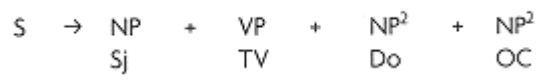
2. adverb modifiers generally occur after intransitive verbs; adverb complements also occur after intransitive verbs.

3. adverb modifiers occur wherever an adverb can occur.

Objective complements

> OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT has the grammatical meaning of *that which describes or identifies* a direct object.

Objective complements follow direct objects, after certain transitive verbs. They can be nouns or adjectives; unlike subjective complements, they are not distinguished as predicate nouns and predicate adjectives, although both nouns and adjectives can be objective complements.



a. "To my intense surprise, Cynthia burst out laughing, and called me a 'funny dear.'" [Christie]

[OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT / NOUN PHRASE]

The direct object of the transitive verb *called* is *me; a 'funny dear'* is the noun objective complement. Both have the same referent and can carry out the same grammatical function.

b. "Dr. Bauerstein considered it advisable."

[OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT / ADJECTIVE]

In this example, *it* is the direct object and *advisable* is the adjective objective complement.

c. "I had thought to find him elated with victory." [Churchill]

[OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT / ADJECTIVE PHRASE]

In this third example, the objective complement is *elated with victory*.

Not all transitive verbs allow their direct objects to take objective complements. Here is a representative list of those verbs that do.

FIGURE 6.8
TRANSITIVE VERBS TAKING OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENTS

appoint	declare	get	like	paint	
call	elect	have	make	prefer	think
consider	find	keep	name	take	want

Connectors

> CONNECTORS are structure class conjunctions, used to note subordination, coordination, and conjunctiveness; they have the grammatical meaning of *that which connects.*

The structure class words coordinating conjunctions, subordinating conjunctions, correlative conjunctions, conjunctive adverbs, prepositions, and relatives are by grammatical function *connectors.* They connect words, phrases, clauses and even sentences

1. Coordinating conjunctions join units of equal value.

a. "Lamarck seems to have been chiefly led to his conclusion on the gradual change of species, by the difficulty of distinguishing species and varieties." [Darwin]

[CONNECTOR / NOUNS]

b. "Thus living plants and animals are not separated from the extinct by new creations, but are to be regarded as their descendants through continued reproduction."

[CONNECTORS / VERB PHRASES]

2. Subordinating conjunctions join units where one depends on another for its completed meaning.

a. "Habit also has a deciding influence, as in the period of flowering with plants when transported from one climate to another."

[CONNECTOR / RELATIVE ADVERB CLAUSE]

b. "As I believe that our domestic animals were originally chosen by uncivilised man because they were useful and bred readily under confinement."

[CONNECTOR / ADVERB CLAUSE]

3. Correlative conjunctions connect both complete sentences and units within sentences.

a. "I am strongly inclined to suspect that, both in the vegetable and animal kingdoms, an occasional intercross with a distinct individual is a law of nature."

[CONNECTOR / NOUN PHRASE]

b. "Let us now briefly consider the steps by which domestic races have been produced, either from one or from several allied species."

[CONNECTOR / PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES]

4. Conjunctive adverbs, like coordinating conjunctions, join units of equal value, but they do so with adverb emphasis.

a. "Moreover she, and Clare also, stood as yet on the debatable land between predilection and love." [Hardy]

b. "What tragic dignity, for example, can be wrought into a scene like this!" [Hawthorne]

c. "But the Cabbage Patch knew it was spring, nevertheless; something whispered it in the air, a dozen little signs gave the secret away." [Hegan]

d. "And on the other hand the capitalist classes were allowed to call the best part of the cake theirs and were theoretically free to consume it." [Keynes]

e. "The Senate promised the help of the Latin armies, but the preparation for this expedition took some time, and meanwhile Saguntum had been taken and had been destroyed." [Van Loon]

[CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS]

5. The preposition, meaning to place before, carries out the grammatical function of connector, that is, it connects a preceding word to a noun or its replacement to form a phrase.

a. In the meanwhile he glowed with the ambition to leave it in his newly acquired splendour." [Locke]

b. "I was told by the village doctor, about the only person with whom he held any relations, that during his retirement he had devoted himself to a single line of study." [Bierce]

[PREPOSITIONS]

6. Relatives are also connectors, because they join dependent and independent clauses.

a. "'Hearken, hearken; shoo's cursing on 'em!' muttered Joseph, towards whom I had been steering." [Brontë]

b. "I have no right in your assembly; but the Law of the Jungle says that if there is a doubt which is not a killing matter in regard to a new cub, the life of that cub may be bought at a price." [Kipling]

[RELATIVE PRONOUNS]

<><><><><><><><><><><><><><>

Grammatical functions are the most important part of our grammar, because they are the core of the syntax of our language. We need to fully understand grammatical functions if we are to grasp the various relationships among sentence constituents.

We now move on to clauses, looking first at their internal structures and then at them as sentence constituents. As well, we will examine how clauses can interchange with words and phrases in many, but not all, functions. To understand the structure of clauses, it is necessary to understand grammatical function, and that is why it is left until this latter part of the text. Consider now the parallels between structures by form and structures by function.

FORMS	FUNCTIONS
	subjects
	direct objects
	indirect objects
	objects of prepositions
	subjective complements
	objective complements
1. nouns	appositions
	subjects
	direct objects
	indirect objects
	objects of prepositions
	subjective complements
	objective complements
2. pronouns	connectors
	subjects
	direct objects
	indirect objects
	objects of prepositions
	subjective complements
	objective complements
3. noun phrases	appositions
	subjects
	direct objects
	indirect objects
	objects of prepositions
	subjective complements
4. gerunds	objective complements

FORMS	FUNCTIONS
	subjects direct objects modifiers
5. infinitives	adverb complements
6. verbs and auxiliaries	predicates
	modifiers subjective complements
7. adjectives adjective phrases	objective complements
8. participles participle phrases prepositional phrases relative adjective clauses	modifiers subjective complements
9. adverbs adverb phrases participles participle phrases prepositional phrases relative adverb clauses adverb clauses	modifiers adverb complements
10. absolute phrases	modifiers
11. determiners	modifiers
12. conjunctions	connectors

7
Clauses

> CLAUSES are independent and dependent structures, both generally consisting of a noun phrase and a finite verb phrase, that is, a subject and a predicate.

To begin our discussion of clauses, we must first return to *form*, or *to what a constituent IS.*

It was necessary to cover grammatical function before discussing clauses, because to understand clauses we need to know the grammatical functions of subject, predicate, and objects, etc. Indirectly, we have already learned a great deal concerning clauses, especially through the examples used to illustrate the different grammatical functions. Now we shall bring all of this into focus for a more detailed discussion.

Independent Clauses

> INDEPENDENT CLAUSES are subject and finite verb structures that stand alone with completed meaning.

An *independent clause* or *simple sentence* is the largest syntactic structure in our language system. Do not assume, however, that clauses and sentences are identical. While some sentences are simple in structure and are independent clauses, most sentences consist of more than one clause, usually a combination of independent and/or dependent clauses. We also call independent clauses *main* or *matrix* clauses.

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	NP^2
		Sj		TV/P		Do

Figure 7.1 identifies the types of clauses we construct. The basis of any clause is that it contains a noun phrase *NP (subject)* and a verb phrase *VP (predicate)*. The subject can be expressed in a number of ways, but the verb phrase must always show tense. This is a distinguishing feature between the phrase and the clause. Phrases frequently contain verb forms that are nonfinite; clauses must always contain a finite verb.

The following are examples of independent clauses, because they have completed meaning as they stand.

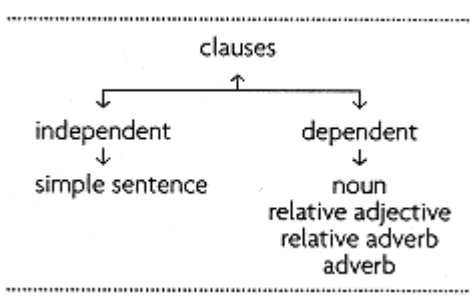


Figure 7.1
Clauses

"The vine at once altered its course." [Bierce]

S	→	NP	+	VP +	C
		Sj		InTV/P	C
		"The young man		pointed	to the old clerk in the office." [Lawrence]

S	→	NP	+	VP +	C
		Sj		LV/P	C
		"This		is	a religious book written by a believer." [Wells]

[INDEPENDENT CLAUSE / SIMPLE SENTENCE]

We have no difficulty understanding the meaning of these sentences, because they contain simple subjects, predicates and a direct object or complement. The predicate is a finite verb.

Perhaps the most common cause of sentence fragments is the use of a non-finite verb instead of a finite one. The ungrammaticality of "sentences" becomes clearer with present participles, that is, non-finite verbs being used for finite ones. If we take this last sentence above, for example, and rewrite it as:

*This being a religious book written by a believer.

we can see how fragile independent structures can be. Simply by changing the finite verb *is* to its non-finite form *being*, we have an ungrammatical sentence. Although there are two verb forms here *(being, written)*, it is not an independent clause because neither verb is finite.

A second example to illustrate this point can be found with the following structure:

The reason being that she left town.	[NON-FINITE]
The reason being she left town.	[NON-FINITE]
The reason is [that] she left town.	[FINITE]

This is a common mistake carried over from spoken English, where the non-finite verb replaces the finite verb. There are two verb forms here, but the second one is the finite verb of the dependent clause. The independent clause has only a non-finite verb, and therefore has no tense marker. The occurrence of the finite verb in the dependent clause probably lessens the awkwardness of the structure, whereas the occurrence of two non-finite verbs reads a little more strangely.

Dependent Clauses

> DEPENDENT CLAUSES are subject and predicate (finite verb) structures needing a second clause structure for completed meaning.

Dependent clauses, although they contain a subject and a predicate, rely on an independent or another dependent clause for completed meaning. The predicate of the dependent clause must also contain a finite verb, which can be a transitive, intransitive or linking verb. Depending on the verb type, it may also take objects or complements. We identify three types of dependent clauses: *noun, relative (adjective and adverb)* and *adverb.* Note that the relative clause can be further divided into two categories.

The constituents of a dependent clause are the same as those for an independent clause. In analyzing these structures, constituents of the main clause will always appear above the structure in *upper-key* letters, as we have been doing so far. Constituents of the dependent clause will always appear below the structure in *lower-key italic* letters. This will enable us to distinguish between independent and dependent clause constituents within the same presentation. As so often happens in language discussion, terminology overlaps.

S	→			NP	+	VP	+	NP^2 / C	= [SENTENCE]
				Sj		P		Do / C	
cl	→	*cj*	+	*np*	+	*vp*	+	*np^2 / c*	= [CLAUSE]
		cn		*sj*		*p*		*do / c*	

All that has been said about grammatical functions of sentence constituents is equally valid for constituents of dependent clauses. *Conjunctions* by form introduce dependent clauses; by grammatical function they are *connectors* (cn).1

The following is an example of a dependent clause:

		"If		he		were		alive to-day..." [Van Loon]
cl	→	*cj*	+	*np*	+	*vp*	+	*c*
		cn		*sj*		*p*		*c*
		[DEPENDENT CLAUSE]						

The conjunction signal that the clause is dependent, and that it must rely upon a second clause to give it full meaning. The *if* conjuction also adds something further to the clause; it makes it *conditional.*

This depentend clause now requires a second clause for completed meaning.

S	→							NP	+ VP +	C
								Sj	P	C
		"If	**he**	**were**	**alive to-day,**			he	would write	in Dutch."
cl	→	*cj*	+ *np*	+ *vp*	+ *c*					
		cn	*sj*	*p*	*c*					
		[DEPENDENT CLAUSE]						[MAIN CLAUSE]		

1 The brackets placed around cn indicate that the conjunction can sometimes be left out.

In this structure, both the dependent and the independent clauses are necessary for completed meaning. The main clause *he would write in Dutch* does not make sense on its own, and therefore requires the dependent clause to complete its meaning.

This is not always the case; in fact, more frequently than not the independent clause is exactly that*independent.* Consider the following examples:

a. "It is enough that I have thought of it, and can release you." [Dickens]

b. "I expressed my appreciation, and John took me into the house and up the broad staircase, which forked right and left half-way to different wings of the building." [Christie]

c. "Whatever she may have deserved one could not allow her to go hopelessly to the bad." [Doyle]

d. "Stoke-d'Urberville took her back to the lawn and into the tent, where he left her." [Hardy]

[INDEPENDENT CLAUSES]

Each of these bold clauses is independent and does not require another clause for expressing completed meaning.

Noun clauses

> NOUN CLAUSES are subject and predicate (finite verb) structures carrying out the grammatical functions attributed to a noun.

Noun clauses parallel noun words and noun phrases by *form* and *function*, and they can carry out most of the grammatical functions attributed to a noun or a noun phrase. The conjunction of a noun clause has a single grammatical function within the clause that it introduces; it is the *connector.*

FIGURE 7.2
NOUN CONJUNCTIONS

WH- WORDS	CONJUNCTIONS
who	that
whom	how
whose	if2
which	when
	why
what	where
whether	
whoever	
whomever	
whosever	
whichever	
whatever	

We connect noun clauses to independent or other dependent clauses with conjunctions, that is, the conjunction *that* and what we generally call *wh*-words. See Figure 7.2.

The *wh*-words are generally a combination of pronouns; many of which also occur as relative and interrogative pronouns, and those ending in *-ever* are often called relative indefinite pronouns. Because of this overlap, confusion sometimes arises in recognizing the clause type. Generally, when we see *who, whom, whose* and *which* we think of relative adjective clauses; *when, why* and *where* suggest relative adverb clauses. The *that* conjunction

2 In the sense of *whether*.

can cause a problem because it introduces both noun and relative adjective clauses, and in both cases it can sometimes be deleted; the *wh-* conjunctions, however, cannot be deleted.

a. "The name of the eclipsing girl, **whatever** **it** **was**, has not been handed down." [Hardy]

clause → *cn* + *np* + *vp*

[MAIN CLAUSE] [NOUN CLAUSE]

b. "That indeed was what he liked best." [Van Dyke]

[MAIN CLAUSE] [NOUN CLAUSE]

c. "'I can't pretend that I shall ever like him,' said the lawyer." [Stevenson]

[MAIN CLAUSE] [NOUN CLAUSE]

If the noun clause occurs at the beginning of a sentence, the *that* conjunction must be present or we have no way of knowing which clause is the main one.

a. "That she was by no means destitute was obvious." [Locke]

[NOUN CLAUSE] [MAIN CLAUSE]

b. "she was by no means destitute was obvious."

[MAIN CLAUSE??] [MAIN CLAUSE??]

c. She was by no means destitute that was obvious.

[MAIN CLAUSE] [RELATIVE CLAUSE]

To distinguish one clause from the other, the pronoun *it* can generally be substituted for the noun clause.

a. It was obvious.

b. *That she was by no means destitute it.

Grammatical Functions

Noun clauses carry out grammatical functions similar to noun words and noun phrases.3

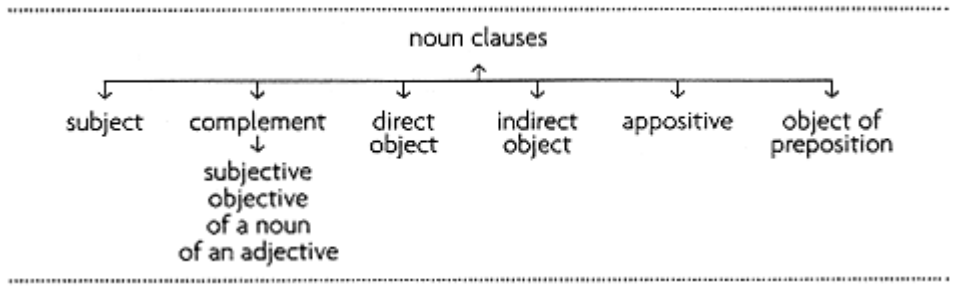


Figure 7.3
Noun Clauses

3 Examples of noun clauses in all of the noun functions are difficult to find, but this may be for stylistic reasons more so than for grammatical reasons.

In the following examples, the noun clause is a single sentence constituent carrying out the same grammatical functions as a noun word or a noun phrase as presented in Chapter 5.

1. Noun clause as subject of a predicate

$$S \rightarrow \underset{Sj}{NP} + VP + NP^2 / C$$

a. "That she had not been an impalpable creature of his fancy was proven by the precious cornelian heart." [Locke]

b. "Whatever she did, too, was done without conscious effort." [Hawthorne]

[NOUN CLAUSE / SUBJECT]

Here we illustrate noun clauses as subjects of sentences. Consider the second example again.

b. "Whatever she did, too, was done without conscious effort."

[Hawthorne]

[NOUN CLAUSE / SUBJECT]

The noun clause in this sentence can be replaced by a single pronoun, a noun or a noun phrase.

It was done without conscious effort.

[PRONOUN / SUBJECT]

The matter was done without conscious effort.

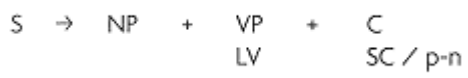
[NOUN / SUBJECT]

The very easy task was done without conscious effort.

[NOUN PHRASE / SUBJECT]

Each is a sentence constituent and is interchangeable with the other. This also applies to similar grammatical categories for the noun: direct and indirect objects, complements and appositives, for example. It also applies to other word, phrase and clause categories: adjective words, phrases and clauses are interchangeable, as are adverb words, phrases and clauses. For verbs/predicates, however, there are only simple word predicates and phrase predicates; no verb/predicate clauses exist. That is not to say, however, that an adverb clause cannot occur within a verb/predicate phrase as an adverb modifier, and frequently they do. In such cases, the structure is an adverb clause and not a verb clause.

2. Noun clause as subjective complement/predicate noun

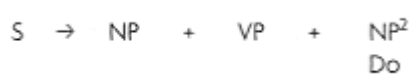


a. "Well, Fred, I don't mind telling you that the secret is that I'm one of a noble race." [Hardy]

b. "Her gaze never left the bear even while she was falling, and it seemed she alighted in an upright position with her back against a bush." [Grey]

[NOUN CLAUSE / SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT]

3. Noun clause as direct object



a. "I discovered that he was most violently attached to the contrary opinion." [Goldsmith]

[NOUN CLAUSE / DIRECT OBJECT]

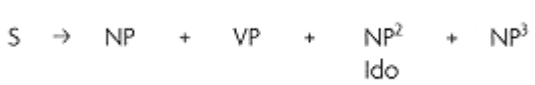
b. "She cried that he was gay and valiant, that she would wait for him, that they would sail." [Lewis]

[NOUN CLAUSES / DIRECT OBJECT]

c. "For the Zaporozhtzi never cared for bargaining, and paid whatever money their hand chanced to grasp in their pocket." [Gogol]

[NOUN CLAUSE / DIRECT OBJECT]

4. Noun clause as indirect object4



a. The school gave whatever he did support.

b. The company gave those they liked the contract.

[NOUN CLAUSE / INDIRECT OBJECT]

4 As noted earlier, noun clauses used as indirect objects are difficult to find in the literature; even contrived examples read a little stilted.

5. Noun clause as an appositive

i. Restrictive appositives

a. "It is only now and then that there appears on the face of facts a sinister violence of intentionthat indefinable something which forces it upon the mind and the heart of a man." [Conrad]

b. "A man who half starves himself, and goes the length in family prayers, and so on, that you do, believes in his religion whatever it may be." [Eliot]

[NOUN CLAUSE / RESTRICTIVE APPOSITIVE]

ii. Nonrestrictive appositives

a. "She still had the letter, or whatever it was, in her hand?" [Christie]

b. "'It's dead, whatever it is,' said Holmes." [Doyle]

[NOUN CLAUSE / NONRESTRICTIVE APPOSITIVE]

6. Noun clause as object of a preposition

a. "Say it is thus with what you show me!" [Dickens]

b. "'I reckon I don't know much about what the Rebels is fighting for,' said John Duff." [Churchill]

[NOUN CLAUSE / OBJECT OF PREPOSITION]

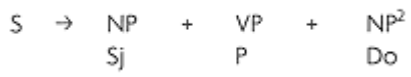
7. Complements of nouns or adjectives

Complements of nouns or adjectives are restricted to a small group of English words derived from verbs and taking a noun clause. Here are representatives of this group:

FIGURE 7.4
COMPLEMENTS OF NOUNS OR ADJECTIVES

VERBS		NOUN		ADJECTIVE
a. I assert	®	my assertion	®	assertive
b. I believe	®	my belief	®	believable
c. I contend	®	my contention	®	contentious
d. I fear	®	my fear	®	fearful
e. I hope	®	my hope	®	hopeful
f. I suspect	®	my suspicion	®	suspicious

First let us consider the verb group:



a. "'Then I *hope* his ghost will haunt you; and I *hope* Mr. Heathcliff will never get another tenant till the Grange is a ruin!' she answered sharply." [Brontë]

[NOUN CLAUSE / DIRECT OBJECT]

In both of these clauses the *that* conjunction introducing the noun clause is left out.

b. "He does not *fear* that you will let yourself die of hunger."

[NOUN CLAUSE / DIRECT OBJECT]

In these examples, the predicates *hope* and *fear* take following noun clauses which function as direct objects.

If these predicates were the nouns, *hope* and *fear*, then the grammatical function of the noun clauses would change from direct objects of predicates to complements of nouns.

a. "I do myself the honour of calling as soon as possible after my arrival, to express *the hope* that I have not inconvenienced you by my perseverance in soliciting the occupation of Thrushcross Grange."

[NOUN CLAUSE / COMPLEMENT OF A NOUN]

b. "I wish you had sincerity enough to tell me whether Catherine would suffer greatly from his loss; *the fear* that she would restrain me."

[NOUN CLAUSE / COMPLEMENT OF A NOUN]

In these examples, the noun clauses follow nouns and are complements of these nouns. The question may arise, how do these complements differ from appositives? In Chapter 6 where we discussed appositives, we noted that they are optional, that is, they can be left out without affecting the syntax of the sentence, but complements cannot be left out.

"I do myself the honour of calling as soon as possible after my arrival, to express *the hope"*

"I wish you had sincerity enough to tell me whether Catherine would suffer greatly from his loss; *the fear"*

Similarly, we can have these same words functioning as adjectives taking noun clauses as complements of adjectives.

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	NP^2
		Sj		P		Do

a. "I dared not think of getting down at all, unless I committed myself to the rift, of which I was hopeful that the rock was soft, and that the water might have worn its channel tolerably evenly through the whole extent." [Butler]

[NOUN CLAUSE / COMPLEMENT OF AN ADJECTIVE]

b. "'But are you not *fearful,'* said I, 'that you may misunderstand a charge so tender?'" [Dickens]

[NOUN CLAUSE / COMPLEMENT OF AN ADJECTIVE]

In these examples, the adjectives have following noun clauses which are functioning as complements of adjectives. It is important to remember that noun clauses as complements of nouns or adjectives occur only after certain words.

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	C	
				LV		p-aj	
a.		I		was		*hopeful*	**that they would come.**
b.		I		became		*fearful*	**that she would fall.**
		[NOUN CLAUSE]					

Extra-Posed Noun Clauses

Previously, I illustrated subjects and objects being extra-posed to positions after the predicate or direct object respectively. These are generally noun clauses that are extra-posed, and as noted, the expletives *it* or *there* replace the clause in the original subject or direct object positions. When the subject or direct object is not extra-posed the words *the fact* can be used before the conjunction *that.* This supports the notion that the clause in question is actually a noun clause (since *fact* is a noun).

a. "That he should be regarded as a suitor to herself would have seemed to her a ridiculous irrelevance." [Eliot]

[The fact] that he should be regarded as a suitor to herself would have seemed to her a ridiculous irrelevance.

Extra-Posed Subjects

a. "There could be no doubt that it had a very turn-up nose." [Carroll]

[SUBJECT / EXTRA-POSED NOUN CLAUSE]

b. "It flashed upon me it was enough to start a panic." [Conrad]

The sentence reads awkwardly if we move the subject noun clause to the position before the predicate, although it is still grammatically correct.

a. That it had a very turn-up nose could be no doubt.

[EXTRA-POSED SUBJECT / NOUN CLAUSE]

b. [That] it was enough to start a panic flashed upon me.

[EXTRA-POSED SUBJECT / NOUN CLAUSE]

In the second example, the pronoun *that* can be deleted when the clause occurs after the predicate; however, it must be reinstated when the clause is moved to the position before the predicate. One has to be very careful not to take the expletive for the subject and the extra-posed noun clause for the direct object.

At times when the predicate has no object or modifier following it, extra-position is obligatory.

a. "It appears he was under some hazy apprehension as to his personal safety." [Conrad]

b. *That he was under some hazy apprehension as to his personal safety appears.

[EXTRA-POSED SUBJECT / NOUN CLAUSE]

In this example, the intransitive verb *appears* requires a subjective complement, predicate noun or predicate adjective. Although the noun clause is functioning as an extra-posed subject, it also covers for the missing predicate noun or predicate adjective in this case.

EXTRA-POSED DIRECT OBJECTS Noun clauses occurring after the predicate as direct objects can also be extra-posed to the end of the structure. Its position then is filled with an expletive.

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	NP^2	+	NP^3
		Sj		P		Do		C

a. "This, however, he deemed a business below him, and confident of future better fortune, when he should be unwilling to have it known that he once was so meanly employed, he changed his name, and did me the honor to assume mine." [Franklin]

b. This, however, he deemed a business below him, and confident of future better fortune, when he should be unwilling to have that he once was so meanly employed known, he changed his name, and did me the honor to assume mine.

[EXTRA-POSED DIRECT OBJECT / NOUN CLAUSE]

Extra-posed direct objects can often be overlooked, since the expletive is so embedded into the structure that little attention is drawn to it. For extra-posed subjects the expletive is right up front, beginning the sentence.

Relative Clauses

> RELATIVE CLAUSES are subject and predicate (finite verb) structures carrying out the grammatical functions attributed to a modifier.

Relative clauses *(adjective and adverb)* by their very name mean *to relate,* that is, to relate back to an antecedent.5 The grammatical function of this relationship is called *modifier,* it limits the person, place, thing, event or action that it modifies. By *form* and *function* they parallel their counterparts, *adjectives* and *adverbs,* in the word and phrase categories. Relative clauses are also *restrictive* or *nonrestrictive,* much in the same way as we saw appositives.

Relative adjective clauses are introduced by the relative pronouns *who, whom, whose, which* and *that,* whereas relative adverb clauses are introduced by the relative adverbs *when, where,* and *why,* expressing such meanings as *time, place,* and *reason.* These relatives carry out the grammatical function of *connector.*

Unlike conjunctions introducing noun clauses and those, as we shall see later, introducing adverb clauses, relatives carry out a dual role within the sentence structure. Initially, they act as conjunctions introducing subordinate clauses, referring back to an antecedent; secondarily they are constituents within their own clauses and carry out grammatical functions there.

Relative pronoun conjunctions

```
S → NP + VP + C
    Sj    P

We are like dreamers   who      walk      beneath a sea. [Aiken]
                cl →   cj/np  +  vp    +  c
                       cn/sj     p        av
[RELATIVE CLAUSE]
```

This is a relative adjective clause modifying the preceding noun *dreamers.* This antecedent is a subjective complement/predicate noun within the independent clause. The pronoun/conjunction *who* is a *connector,* linking the dependent to the independent clause; second, this pronoun has the grammatical function of *subject* within the dependent clause. This is indicated by the dual identifiers *cj (conjunction) / sj (subject).*

5 The antecedent (Latin for "coming before") is the noun or noun replacement to which the relative pronoun relates.

Although relative conjunctions generally introduce their clauses, they are not restricted to a particular grammatical function. They carry out all six grammatical functions attributed to nouns and pronouns; after all, by form they are pronounsnoun replacements.

1. Relative conjunction as subject within its own clause

"It was I *who* told him to be off." [Brontë]

	who		**told**		**him to be off."**
cl →	*np*	+	*vp*	+	*c*
	cn/sj		*p*		*av*

[RELATIVE AS SUBJECT]

The focus here is on the relative pronoun *who* carrying out the dual grammatical functions of clause *connector* and *subject* within its own clause.

2. Relative conjunction as a direct object within its own clause

"'You remember Branscom?' said Jaralson, treating his companion's wit with the inattention that it deserved." [Bierce]

	it		**deserved**		**that**
cl →	*np*	+	*vp*	+	*np²*
	sj		*p*		*cn/do*

[RELATIVE AS DIRECT OBJECT]

3. Relative conjunction as an object of the preposition within its own clause

The indirect object relative pronoun is technically an object of a preposition.

"He was the first boy with whom I had ever had any intimacy." [Churchill]

	I		**had ever had**	**any intimacy with**	**whom**
cl →	*np*	+	*vp*	+ *c*	
	sj		*p*		*cn/op*

[RELATIVE AFTER A PREPOSITION]

In this clause the conjunction *whom* may or may not introduce the clause. It can occur after the preposition at the beginning of the clause, or it can begin the clause with the preposition occurring at the end of the clause, but not in both places. Its grammatical function is as object of the preposition.

Relative conjunctions can sometimes be omitted, but only when they carry out the grammatical functions of objects. Consider the above examples again:

> "'You remember Branscom?' said Jaralson, treating his companion's wit with the inattention that it deserved." [Bierce]
>
> [RELATIVE AS DIRECT OBJECT]

This sentence could have been written as:

> You remember Branscom?' said Jaralson, treating his companion's wit with the inattention it deserved.

Similarly,

> "He was the first boy with whom I had ever had any intimacy." [Churchill]

could have been written as:

> He was the first boy I had ever had any intimacy with.

However, when the relative is subject we cannot delete it.

> "It was I *who* told him to be off." [Brontë]

This sentence cannot be rewritten as:

> *It was I told him to be off.

In this structure we do not know which is the main clause when the relative is left out.

Relative adverb conjunctions

Like relative pronoun conjunctions, relative adverb conjunctions also have a dual role within their sentence structure. Initially, they act as conjunctions introducing subordinate clauses, referring back to an antecedent; secondarily they carry out an adverbial function within their own clauses, expressing *time, place* and *reason.*

1. Adverb of time within its own clause

```
S  →  NP  +  VP  +  C
      Sj     P     C
```

a. "Finally the hour came when the sun broke through the clouds." [Van Loon]

```
cl  →  cn        np   +  vp   +   c
       m/av      sj       p
```

[RELATIVE ADVERB CLAUSE / TIME]

when the sun broke through the clouds

```
cl  →  cn      np     +  vp   +   c
       av      sj        p
```

the sun broke through the clouds *when*

the sun broke through the clouds *quickly*

the sun broke through the clouds *at ten o'clock*

2. Adverb of place within its own clause

a. "My wish is that the Blue Flower may grow in the garden where you work." [Van Dyke]

[RELATIVE ADVERB CLAUSE / PLACE]

where you work

you work *where*

you work *at Harrod's*

3. Adverb of reason within its own clause

a. "But there was no reason why every one should not dance." [Chopin]

[RELATIVE ADVERB CLAUSE / REASON]

why every one should not dance

every one should not dance *because*

Relative adjective clauses

We now consider relative clauses as sentence constituents within the independent clause. As a constituent, it carries out the grammatical function as modifier referring back to an antecedent, which is a noun or its replacement.

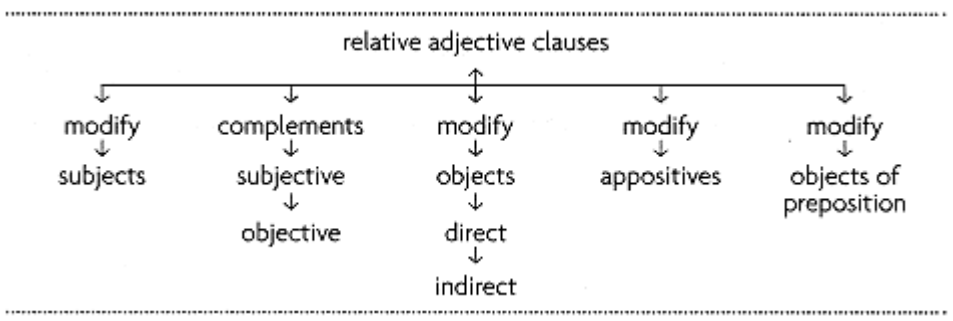


Figure 7.5
Relative Adjective Clauses

1. Relative adjective clause modifying the subject of a predicate

a. "Those whom she sentenced were taken into custody by the soldiers." [Carroll]

b. "Then he said, 'The only boy that doesn't deny it is Davis'." [Davis]

c. "Oh! ye whose dead lie buried beneath the green grass; who standing among flowers can sayhere, here lies my beloved." [Melville]

[RELATIVE ADJECTIVE CLAUSE MODIFYING A SUBJECT]

2. Relative adjective clause modifying a subjective complement

a. "Mrs. Cavendish, however, was a lady who liked to make her own plans, and expected other people to fall in with them." [Christie]

[RELATIVE ADJECTIVE CLAUSE MODIFYING A SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT / PREDICATE NOUN]

b. "Whence and whither it led, and why he travelled it, he did not know, though all seemed simple and natural, which is the way in dreams." [Eliot]

[RELATIVE ADJECTIVE CLAUSE MODIFYING A SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT / PREDICATE ADJECTIVE]

3. Relative adjective clause modifying an objective complement

a. "I obeyed, and hemmed, and called the villain Juno, who deigned, at this second interview, to move the extreme tip of her tail, in token of owning my acquaintance." [Brontë]

[RELATIVE ADJECTIVE CLAUSE MODIFYING AN OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT]

4. Relative adjective clause modifying a direct object

a. "He took a great liking to Richard in those days, sent him a churchwarden's pipe that he had used as Corporal Brewster." [Davis]

b. "I remember once bringing back from the Cross-Roads a crumpled newspaper, which my father read again and again, and then folded up and put in his pocket." [Churchill]

[RELATIVE ADJECTIVE CLAUSE MODIFYING A DIRECT OBJECT>

5. Relative adjective clause modifying an indirect object

As noted earlier in our discussion of the indirect object, structures that make up its composition are very restrictive and clausal structures carrying out this grammatical function are difficult to find in the literature. I offer here a *contrived* example to show that structurally they can occur, even if stylistically they are not popular.

a. Kirk bought the girl whom he dated a gift

b. The family sent Mary whom we missed a Christmas package.

[RELATIVE ADJECTIVE CLAUSE MODIFYING AN INDIRECT OBJECT]

6. Relative adjective clause modifying an appositive

a. "Mr. Stapleton, a mutual friend who was much concerned at his state of health, was of the same opinion." [Doyle]

b. "And I remember a battle with one of these urchins in the briers, an affair which did not add to the love of their family for ours." [Churchill]

[RELATIVE ADJECTIVE CLAUSE MODIFYING AN APPOSITIVE]

7. Relative adjective clause modifying an object of the preposition

a. "He thought he was walking along a dusty road that showed white in the gathering darkness of a summer night." [Bierce]

b. "But, for some reason which his immature mind could not fathom, he felt a pariah even among his coverals." [Locke]

[RELATIVE ADJECTIVE CLAUSE MODIFYING AN OBJECT OF PREPOSITION]

Relative adverb clauses

Relative adverb clauses differ from relative adjective clauses only with regard to the grammatical functions that the pronouns carry out within their own clauses, as illustrated above. As sentence constituents they both modify or refer back to an antecedent in the independent clause, which is a noun or its replacement.

Grammatical Functions

1. Relative adverb clause modifying a subject

a. "To stay where I was would be impossible; I must either go backwards or forwards." [Christie]

b. "The danger, when not seen, has the imperfect vagueness of human thought." [Conrad]

[RELATIVE ADVERB CLAUSE MODIFYING A SUBJECT]

2. Relative adverb clause modifying a subjective complement

a. "He noticed this, and thrust at an inner door with the end of his spade, intimating by an inarticulate sound that there was the place where I must go if I changed my locality." [Brontë]

b. "There are times when a man must act as though life were equally sweet in any company." [Conrad]

[RELATIVE ADVERB CLAUSE MODIFYING A SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT]

3. Relative adverb clause modifying a direct object

a. "Most men thought her bewitching when she was on horseback." [Eliot]

b. "I do not see any reason why I should not answer your question." [Christie]

[RELATIVE ADVERB CLAUSE MODIFYING A DIRECT OBJECT]

4. Relative adverb clause modifying an object of the preposition.

a. "Kovrin remembered the raptures of the previous summer when there had been the same scent of the marvel of Peru and the moon had shone in at the window." [Chekhov]

[RELATIVE ADVERB CLAUSE MODIFYING AN OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION]

Expressed Antecedent Vs. Implied Antecedent

Deletions or ellipses are common in sentence structures, and this often causes a problem in identifying a relative adverb clause when it is the antecedent. The first examples here have expressed antecedents:

a. "On the second floor he entered a room where Dr. Trescott was working about the bedside of Henry Johnson." [Crane]

b. "So he hadn't been home when the sheriff stopped to say he wanted Mr. Hale to come over to the Wright place."

[ANTECEDENT IS PRESENT]

These examples show the presence of the antecedent, which is easily identifiable coming immediately before the relative adverb: *room* where and *home* when. When the antecedent is expressed the grammatical function of the clause is readily seen.

Now consider examples with implied antecedents:

a. "You'll be where you can't stop me." [Michelson]

b. "He wrote to me that he should come soon to Philadelphia, but knew not where he could lodge when there." [Franklin]

[ANTECEDENT IS MISSING]

In these examples the antecedent is absent; however, it is implied and we can easily re-insert it.

a. You'll be *[in the place]* where you can't stop me.

b. He wrote to me that he should come soon to Philadelphia, but knew not *[the place]* where he could lodge when there.

The fact that we can insert an antecedent helps us see the grammatical function of the clause.

Relative restrictive/nonrestrictive clauses

Relative clauses are also *restrictive* or *nonrestrictive.* The restrictive clause gives *essential* information; the nonrestrictive clause gives *additional* information. The meaning of the former clause is not clear without this information; the meaning of the latter clause does not depend on this information. Nonrestrictive clauses are also set off by commas.

Restrictive Clauses

a. "He was to a dot the kind of man who could get himself elected sheriff." [Gaspell]

b. "Hence, too, might be drawn a weighty lesson from the little-regarded truth, that the act of the passing generation is the germ which may and must produce good or evil fruit, in a far distant time." [Hawthorne]

[RELATIVE ADJECTIVE RESTRICTIVE CLAUSE]

c. "He grinned fraternally when he saw jimmie coming." [Crane]

[RELATIVE ADVERB RESTRICTIVE CLAUSE]

The above relative adjective clauses restrict the nouns they modify. It is essential information for the understanding of *the kind of man* and *the germ* respectively. Because of their significance, the clauses are not separated from the nouns they modify.

The following are features of *restrictive* clause modifiers.

1. A relative clause beginning with the *that* conjunction is always restrictive.

"It was no ordinary thing that called her away." [Gaspell]

2. A clause with an omitted relative is restrictive.

"And she still had the Bible [that] John Field had given her." [Lawrence]

3. If you can substitute *that* for *who, whom,* or *which* the clause is restrictive.

a. "His cheeks were pads, and the unroughened hand which lay helpless upon the khaki-colored blanket was slightly puffy." [Lewis]

b. "His cheeks were pads, and the unroughened hand [that] lay helpless upon the khaki-colored blanket was slightly puffy."

Nonrestrictive Clauses

a. "This inordinate growth in the population of Russia, which has not been widely noticed in England, has been nevertheless one of the most significant facts of recent years." [Keynes]

b. "'We'll be right out, Mr. Hale,' said the sheriff to the farmer, who was still waiting by the door." [Gaspell]

[RELATIVE ADJECTIVE NONRESTRICTIVE CLAUSE]

c. "In consequence, when he swung around the curve at the flower-bed, a wheel of his cart destroyed a peony." [Crane]

[RELATIVE ADVERB NONRESTRICTIVE CLAUSE]

In the relative adjective examples, the relative clauses give only additional but unnecessary information about the antecedents "growth in the population of Russia" and "the farmer."

The following are features of *nonrestrictive* clause modifiers.

1. Nonrestrictive clauses are separated from the main clause by commas.

"The shrieks gradually diminished to spasmodic sobs, which in turn gave place to ominous silence." [Hegan]

2. After personal or geographical names, John Smith or St. John's, the clause is usually nonrestrictive.

"In the Austro-Hungarian empire, which grew from about 40 million in 1890 to at least 50 million at the outbreak of war, the same tendency was present in a less degree." [Keynes]

3. Nonrestrictive clauses can be omitted without affecting the meaning of the main clause.

We now turn from relative clauses to adverb clauses.

Adverb Clauses

> ADVERB CLAUSES are subject and predicate (finite verb) structures carrying out the grammatical functions attributed to adverbs.

Adverb clauses are formed by adding a subordinating adverb conjunction to a noun phrase NP plus verb phrase VP structure. These adverbs denote time *(after, before, as soon as, etc.)*, manner *(as, as if, like, etc.)*, contrast or opposition *(although, whereas, while, etc.)*, cause and effect *(because, in that, since, etc.)*, condition *(in case, provided that, unless, etc.)*, purpose *(so that, in order that, etc.)*, and comparison *(more than, less than, etc.)*. They modify words, phrases, and clauses of a verb/adverb composition.

Unlike relative adverb conjunctions, adverb conjunctions do not have grammatical functions within the clauses they introduce; in this respect they are similar to the conjunctions introducing noun clauses. Their only grammatical function is as a *connector* of the subordinate clause.

Grammatical functions

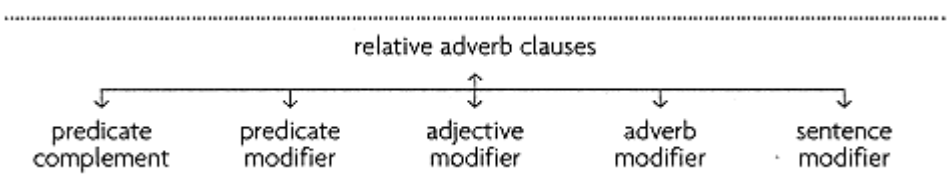


Figure 7.6
Realtive Adverb Clauses

1. Adverb clause as a predicate complement

a. "He took but little interest even in the social or the athletic side of his school life, and his failures in his studies troubled him sorely, only I fear, however, because it troubled his mother and father." [Davis]

[ADVERB CLAUSE / REASON]

b. "He danced well, as if it were natural and joyous in him to dance." [Lawrence]

[ADVERB CLAUSE / CONDITION]

2. Adverb clause as a predicate modifier

a. "Mowgli forgot it because he was only a boythough he would have called himself a wolf if he had been able to speak in any human tongue." [Kipling]

[ADVERB CLAUSE / CAUSE AND EFFECT]

b. "The doctor was shaving this lawn as if it were a priest's chin." [Crane]

[ADVERB CLAUSE / MANNER]

3. Adverb clause as an adjective modifier

a. "If my friend would undertake it there is no man who is better worth having at your side when you are in a tight place." [Doyle]

[ADVERB CLAUSE / TIME]

b. "Minds that have been unhinged from their old faith and love, which perhaps sought this Lethean influence of exile, in which the past becomes dreamy because its symbols have all vanished, and the present too is dreamy because it is linked with no memories." [Eliot]

[ADVERB CLAUSE / REASON]

4. Adverb clause as an adverb modifier

a. "He was clad in a professional but rather slovenly fashion, for his frockcoat was dingy and his trousers frayed." [Dickens]

[ADVERB CLAUSE / REASON]

b. "He was walking up and down, as if thinking something out." [Gaspell]

[ADVERB CLAUSE / MANNER]

5. Adverb clause as a sentence modifier

a. "'Make it go!' cried Dixey, with a most contemptuous expression, as if the very idea were impossible to be conceived." [Hawthorne]

[ADVERB CLAUSE / CONCESSION]

b. "And presently, after the ladies were gone, the gentlemen tossed off their wine and roared over their jokes, and followed into the drawingroom." [Churchill]

[ADVERB CLAUSE / TIME]

Relative adverb vs. adverb clauses

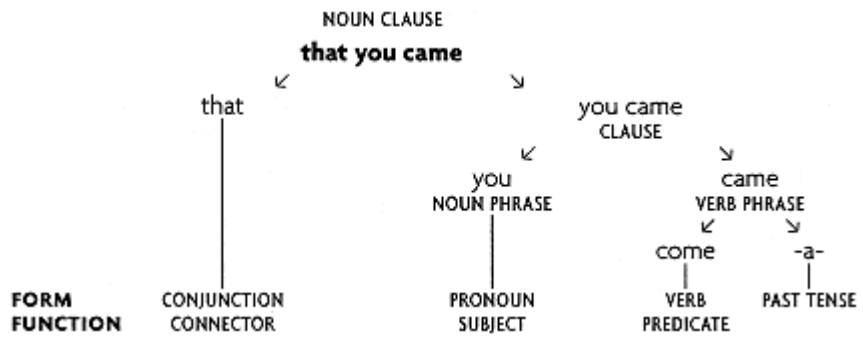
Some confusion may occur between *relative adverb clauses and adverb clauses.* To distinguish between them structurally the following points should be remembered.

1. Relative adverb clauses begin with *when, where and why* only; adverb clauses begin with a mixture of *adverbs* and *adverb phrases.*

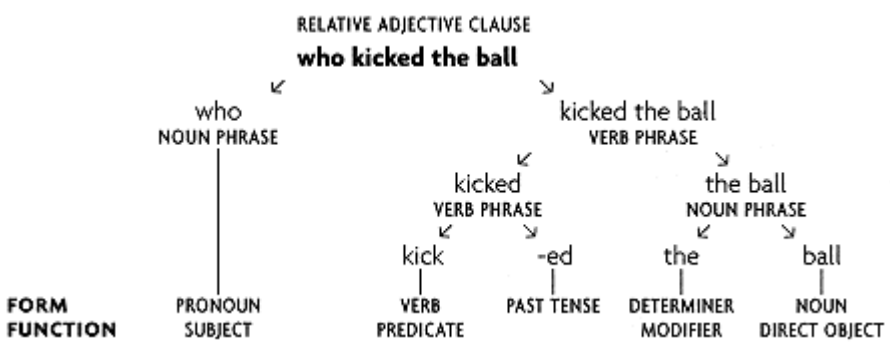
2. The conjunction of a relative adverb clause has two functions: one as connector of the clause to the main clause, and secondly a grammatical function within that clause. The conjunction of an adverb clause has only one grammatical function; it is as connector of the clause to the main clause.

Clause Analysis

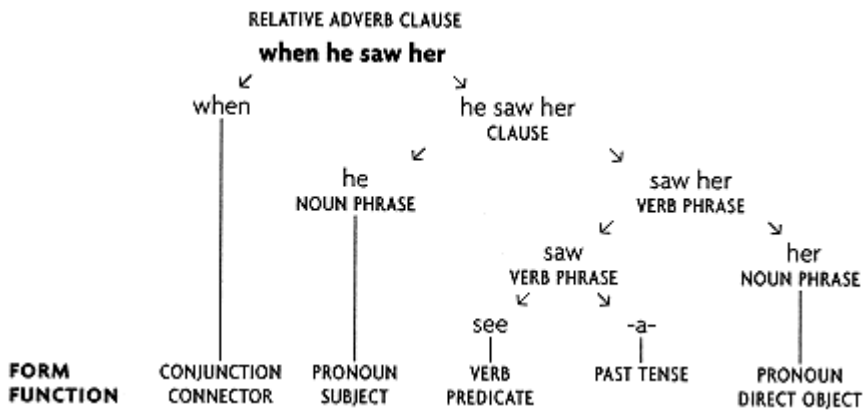
1. Noun clause



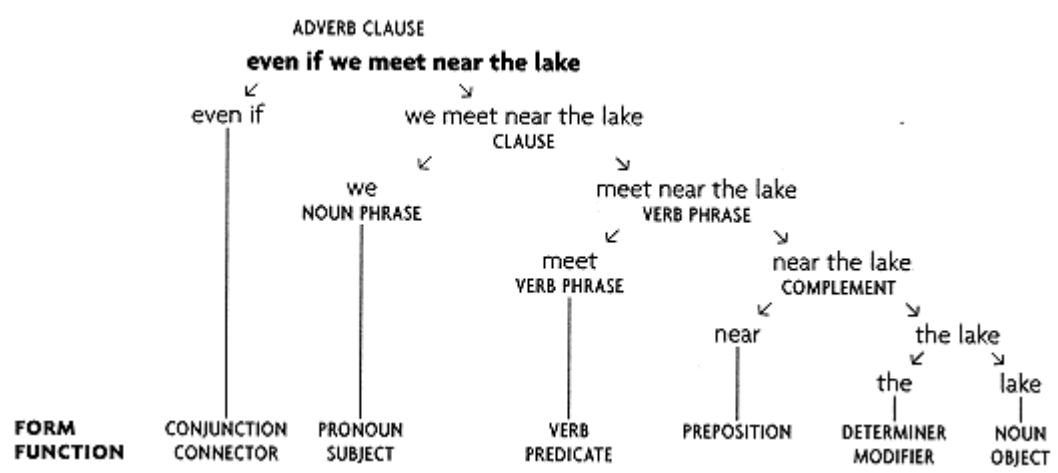
2. Relative adjective clause



3. Relative adverb clause



4. Adverb clause



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We have now completed our analysis of all the grammatical functions for sentence constituents. These last two chapters are particularly important, so this may be a good time to review them together.

Having categorized words, phrases and clauses by form and analyzed their grammatical functions, we now move on to our third and final category of analysisgrammatical positions. When analyzing sentence constituents, it will always be important to know their forms, their functions, and their positions. Each of these categories interrelates grammatically with the other. Usually when we get two of them right for a sentence constituent, the third one becomes obvious.

POSITION

< previous page page_205 next page >

8
Grammatical Positions

Grammatical Position

GRAMMATICAL POSITION restricts sentence constituents based on form and function.

Grammatical position is our third category of analysis, that is, *where a constituent GOES.* Constituents do not arbitrarily occupy any position within a sentence. We restrict them to particular positions based on form and function. Knowing the form of a sentence constituent helps us to identify its grammatical function; but together they also tell us the grammatical position of the constituent.

We may identify four grammatical positions.

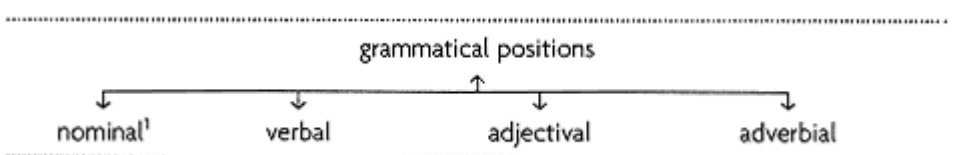


Figure 8.1
Grammatical Positions

Again, we introduce four new terms for this category of analysis. The nominal position takes nouns, noun phrases and clauses, and their replacements, carrying out the various grammatical functions attributed to them. The verbal position takes *lexical verbs* and also auxiliaries, which carry out the grammatical function of the predicate. The adjectival position accepts adjectives, adjective phrases and clauses, and words that carry out the grammatical function attributed to them. The adverbial position accepts adverbs, adverb phrases and clauses, and words that perform the same grammatical function. Beyond these, there are no other positions for identifying sentence constituents.

In the grammar literature we often seen terms like *a nominal phrase* or *an adjectival clause* when discussing grammatical functions, and this can be confusing. We may think that the terms nominal and adjectival refer to functions. What these actually mean is that a phrase or clause in the nominal or adjectival position is carrying out a grammatical function attributed to that position. Keeping the terminology straight helps us with the category of analysis.

Again, we return to our basic sentence structure S ® NP + VP ± NP2/C, where we analyzed sentence constituents in their various grammatical functions.

I Note that the -al ending has the meaning-like. Hence, any word or word group that occupies a nominal position behaves -like a noun and can carry out the grammatical functions attributed to a noun. This is similar for the other three positions as well.

Understanding this structure will be very helpful in identifying the grammatical positions of sentence constituents.

Nominal

NOMINAL POSITION is reserved for nouns, noun phrases and clauses, and their replacements.

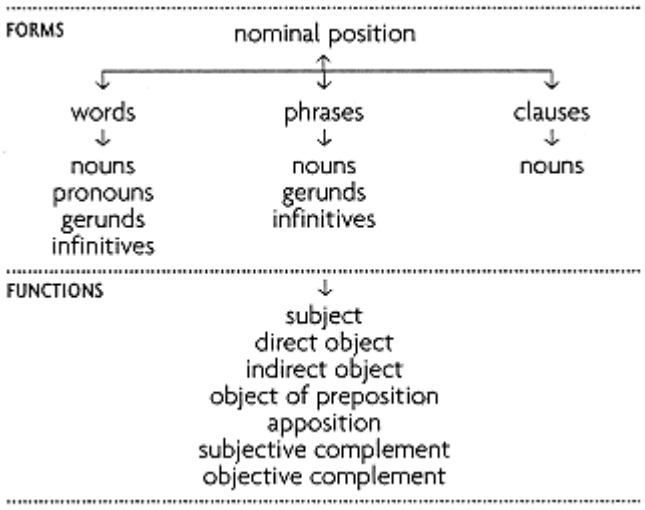


Figure 8.2
Nominal Position

The nominal position is reserved for the form class categories and their grammatical functions listed in Figure 8.2.

This is not to say that all of the form class categories noted here carry out all of the functions identified. Many of them do, but not all exclusively. For example, the form class word *noun* can carry out all of the noted grammatical functions; the form class phrase *infinitive* cannot carry out all of these functions. An infinitive would not occur as an indirect object, nor as an apposition and so forth. For an overview of all grammatical terms by form, function and position see the appendix under *grammatical terms.*

The following examples illustrate representative occurrences of the nominal position in sentence structures, providing examples of words, phrases and clauses. The emphasis here is on the particular grammatical position.

1. Nominal position containing a subject of a predicate

S → NP + VP + NP^2 / C
Sj P

a. "Cologne, with its seven and seventy evil savors, was a posy-bed to it." [Alcott]

[NOMINAL SUBJECT POSITION / NOUN]

b. "Some such thoughts were in my mind as I watched the man from the shadow of my hat, pulled low to shut out the firelight." [Bierce]

[NOMINAL SUBJECT POSITION / NOUN PHRASE]

c. "This proceeding roused the whole hive." [Brontë]

[NOMINAL SUBJECT POSITION / GERUND]

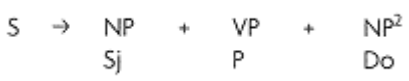
d. "To stay where I was would be impossible; I must either go backwards or forwards." [Butler]

[NOMINAL SUBJECT POSITION / INFINITIVE PHRASE]

e. "That he should turn around because his mood changed seems to me unthinkable." [Chesterton]

[NOMINAL SUBJECT POSITION / NOUN CLAUSE]

2. Nominal position containing a direct object of a predicate



a. "Alice heard the Rabbit say, 'A barrowful will do, to begin with.'" [Carroll]

[NOMINAL DIRECT OBJECT POSITION / NOUN]

b. "And he hugged the old man and kissed him affectionately." [Chekhov]

[NOMINAL DIRECT OBJECT POSITION / NOUN PHRASE]

c. "Stop a minute; I believe I've got a cutting that will give you all the particulars." [Chesterton]

[NOMINAL DIRECT OBJECT POSITION / GERUND]

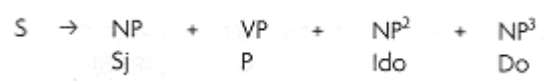
d. "Then clasping her knees, she looked across at Robert and began to laugh." [Chopin]

[NOMINAL DIRECT OBJECT POSITION / INFINITIVE PHRASE]

e. "You can say what you like to me, but remember what I've told you." [Christie]

[NOMINAL DIRECT OBJECT POSITION / NOUN CLAUSE]

3. Nominal position containing an indirect object of a predicate



a. "But when I questioned my father on these matters he would give me no answers." [Churchill]

[NOMINAL INDIRECT OBJECT POSITION / PRONOUN]

b. "With this latter idea in my mind, I examined all the coffee-cups most carefully, remembering that it was Mrs. Cavendish who had brought Mademoiselle Cynthia her coffee the night before."

[NOMINAL INDIRECT OBJECT POSITION / NOUN PHRASE]

c. The committee gave his singing an award.

[NOMINAL INDIRECT OBJECT POSITION / GERUND]

d. The young princess threw whomever she met a smile.

[NOMINAL INDIRECT OBJECT POSITION / NOUN CLAUSE]

4. Nominal position containing a subjective complement

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	C
		Sj		P		SC / p-n

a. "This is a copy of the first book of mine published." [Davis]

[NOMINAL POSITION / NOUN]

b. "In time, when yet very young, he became chief mate of a fine ship." [Conrad]

[NOMINAL POSITION / NOUN PHRASE]

c. "It seemed that the importance of the whole thing had taken away the boy's vocabulary." [Crane]

[NOMINAL POSITION / NOUN CLAUSE]

5. Nominal position containing an appositive

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	NP^2 / C
		Sj (app)		P		Do / SC (app)

a. "His father, Josiah Franklin, was a tallow chandler who married twice, and of his seventeen children Benjamin was the youngest son." [Franklin]

[NOMINAL POSITION / PROPER NOUN]

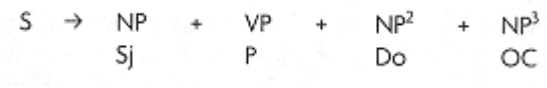
b. "There were George Lambdin, Margaret Ruff, and Milne Ramsay, all painters of some note." [Davis]

[NOMINAL POSITION / NOUN PHRASE]

c. "The picture of that girl, the fact that she had lived neighbor to that girl for twenty years, and had let her die for lack of life, was suddenly more than she could bear." [Gaspell]

[NOMINAL POSITION / NOUN CLAUSE]

6. Nominal position containing an objective complement



a. "Fancy their saying it's brown. Your mother calls it mouse-colour." [Lawrence]

[NOMINAL POSITION / OBJECTIVE NOUN COMPLEMENT]

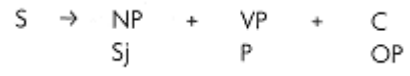
b. "They had not, like me, made it the subject of long contemplation." [Goldsmith]

[NOMINAL POSITION / NOUN PHRASE]

c. "'I call it purring, not growling,' said Alice." [Carroll]

[NOMINAL POSITION / GERUND]

7. Nominal position containing an object of the preposition



a. "'Come you to my room,' he murmured." [Lawrence]

[NOMINAL POSITION / NOUN]

b. "The charm, happily, was in other things too." [James]

[NOMINAL POSITION / NOUN PHRASE]

c. "When I knelt down to take off his shoes, he 'flopped' also, and wouldn't hear of my touching 'them dirty craters.'" [Alcott]

[NOMINAL POSITION / GERUND]

d. "Father Brown's lips moved only faintly, and there was nothing practical about what he was sayingnothing that had anything to do with this story or this world." [Chesterton]

[NOMINAL POSITION / NOUN CLAUSE]

All seven of these grammatical functions occupy the position called nominal. This is the most varied, in grammatical functions, of the four positions. Knowing these grammatical positions helps identifies the respective grammatical function.

Verbal

VERBAL POSITION is reserved for verbs and auxiliaries carrying out the function of the predicate.

The verbal position is reserved for the lexical verb and all auxiliary verbs used to express tense and aspect. This can be a single verb or a verb phrase. Adverbs and prepositional phrases, because of their close association with predicates as modifiers, may appear to belong to the verb phrase and therefore to the verbal position. Although they may be found within predicate structures, as we shall see they are still adverbial by position.

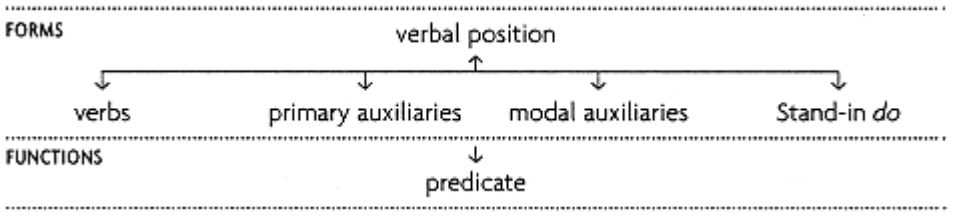


Figure 8.3
Verbal Position

The following examples illustrate a range of possibilities for the verbal position.

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	C
		Sj		P		av

a. "They call it here 'the house' pre-eminently." [Brontë]

[PRESENT TENSE / SIMPLE ASPECT]

b. "Out they toddled from rugged Avila, wide-eyed and helpless-looking as two fawns." [Eliot]

[PAST TENSE / SIMPLE ASPECT]

c. "I will not submit unheard." [Bierce]

[FUTURE TENSE / SIMPLE ASPECT]

d. "'And you are going back?' asked my father, presently." [Churchill]

[PRESENT TENSE / PROGRESSIVE ASPECT]

e. "I was complaining once to a friend that though Erewhon had met with such a warm reception, my subsequent books had been all of them practically still-born." [Butler]

[PAST TENSE / PROGRESSIVE ASPECT]

f. "Ah, I thought, there will be no saving him; he's doomed." [Brontë]

[FUTURE TENSE / PROGRESSIVE ASPECT]

g. "How often have | sat on the mountain side and watched the waving downs, with the two white specks of huts in the distance." [Butler]

[PRESENT TENSE / PERFECT ASPECT]

h. "Alice had learnt several things of this sort in her lessons in the schoolroom." [Carroll]

[PAST TENSE / PERFECT ASPEC]

i. "They will have forgotten it by that time." [Christie]

[FUTURE TENSE / PERFECT ASPECT]

j. "Slowly, but with persistent courage, we have been pushing this question mark further and further towards that distant line." [Van Loon]

[PRESENT TENSE / PERFECT PROGRESSIVE ASPECT]

k. "However, when they had been running half an hour or so, and were quite dry again, the Dodo suddenly called out 'The race is over!'" [Carroll]

[PAST TENSE / PERFECT PROGRESSIVE ASPECT]

l. For they will have been supplanting the very process of perfection through natural selection.2 [Darwin]

[FUTURE TENSE / PERFECT PROGRESSIVE ASPECT]

The verbal position is the easiest of the grammatical positions to identify. Unlike other positions that occur in several places, verbal positions centre around the lexical verb that forms the predicate.

Adjectival

> ADJECTIVAL POSITION is reserved for adjective words, phrases, and clauses carrying out the function of a modifier as attributed to an adjective.

The adjectival position takes words, phrases, and clauses that carry out the grammatical function of an adjectival modifier. The position itself is as varied as that for the noun. In fact, it is more numerous because of its prenominal and postnominal occurrences. Wherever a noun or its replacement occurs, an adjective or its replacement can occur either before or after it, and each of these is an adjectival position. As well, we have seen that adjectives modify other adjectives; finally there is the predicate adjective as a subjective complement after linking verbs.

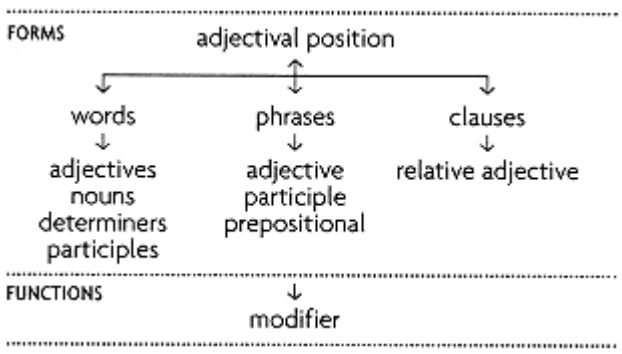
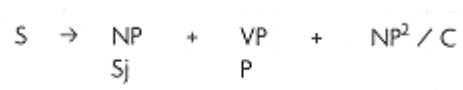


Figure 8.4
Adjectival Position

1. Adjectival position focussing on a subject



a. "The little church on a hill had the mossy greyness of a rock seen through a ragged screen of leaves." [Conrad]

2 Sentences without quotations have been modified to illustrate the grammatical point.

b. "Pete, who was very dirty, being at work in a potato-patch, responded in a mixture of abasement and appreciation." [Crane]

[ADJECTIVAL POSITION]

2. Adjectival position focussing on a direct object

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	NP^2
		Sj		P		Do

a. "All the channels and the basins were supplied with water, and men made new channels which were also filled." [Van Dyke]

b. "They won't touch a man whom they think is an agent or an officer." [Davis]

[ADJECTIVAL POSITION]

3. Adjectival position focussing on an indirect object

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	NP^2	+	NP^3
		Sj		P		Ido		Do

a. "He gave the old grey cap a parting squeeze, in which his hand relaxed." [Dickens]

b. "Watson, you will send good old Stapleton a note to tell him that you regret that you cannot come." [Doyle]

[ADJECTIVAL POSITION]

4. Adjectival position focussing on a subjective complement

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	SC
		Sj		P		P-n

a. "'Ay, ay, make him sit down,' said several voices at once, well pleased that the reality of ghosts remained still an open question." [Eliot]

b. "That as soon as a party has gain'd its general point, each member becomes intent upon his particular interest." [Franklin]

[ADJECTIVAL POSITION]

5. Adjectival position focussing on an appositive

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	NP^2
		Sj		P		Do

a. "Mrs. Gorman, sheriff's wife before Gorman went out and Peters came in, had a voice that somehow seemed to be backing up the law with every word." [Gaspell]

b. "This constant menace, this perpetual pressure of foes on all sides, acted at last like a fierce hammer shaping and hardening resistance against itself." [Gogol]

[ADJECTIVAL POSITION]

6. Adjectival position focussing on an objective complement

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	NP^2	+	NP^3
		Sj		P		Do		OC

a. "Some of my friends called this my weak side." [Goldsmith]

b. "Whereupon she found herself actually hungry, and while she ate she glanced out of the stage, first from one side and then from the other." [Grey]

[ADJECTIVAL POSITION]

7. Adjectival position focussing on an object of the preposition

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	C
		Sj		P		Prp-ph

a. "The women at the Cross-Roads, twelve miles away, were dressed in coarse butternut wool and huge sunbonnets." [Churchill]

b. "Don't you really know, Durbeyfield, that you are the lineal representative of the ancient and knightly family of the d'Urbervilles."[Hardy]

[ADJECTIVAL POSITION]

Adverbial

ADVERBIAL POSITION is reserved for words carrying out the function of a modifier as attributed to adverbs.

The adverbial position takes words, phrases or clauses that carry out the grammatical function attributed to the adverb as modifier. While the adjective is repetitive because of its prenominal and postnominal positions, the adverbial position can occur just about anywhere in the sentence structure. However, because its function is modification, it will be generally found near verbs, adjectives, other adverbs and as sentence modifiers, which is just about anywhere.

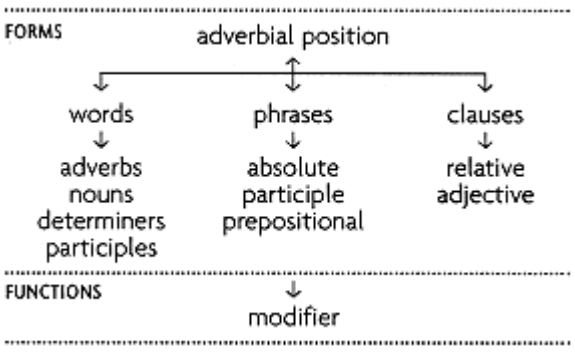


Figure 8.5
Adverbial Position

1. Adverbial position focussing on a predicate

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	NP^2
		Sj		P		Do

a. On every side, the seven gables pointed sharply towards the sky, and presented the aspect of a whole sisterhood of edifices, breathing through the spiracles of one great chimney." [Hawthorne]

b. "Billy Wiggs was differently constituted; responsibilities rested upon him as lightly as the freckles on his nose." [Hegan]

[ADVERBIAL POSITION]

2. Adverbial position focussing on an adjective

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	C
		Sj		P		P-aj

a. "After that it was rather late in the season." [Hemon]

b. "His health is not materially changed since you left us." [Jefferson]

[ADVERBIAL POSITION]

3. Adverbial position focussing on another adverb

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	C
		Sj		P		Av

a. "He said this so lucidly and consistently that he could see it further impose itself." [James]

b. "The whole front was draped in ivy, with a patch clipped bare here and there where a window or a coat of arms broke through the dark veil." [Doyle]

[ADVERBIAL POSITION]

4. Adverbial position focussing on a sentence

S	→	NP	+	VP	+	C
		Sj		P		Av

a. "Wherever I turned my eyes, that terrible picture was before me." [Michelson]

b. "Since then, whenever I have had the opportunity, I have gone to the top of the tower and enjoyed myself." [Van Loon]

[ADVERBIAL POSITION]

Position vs. form and Function

As I have been emphasizing, the key to grammatical analysis is knowing what a constituent *IS (form),* what a constituent *DOES (function),* and where a constituent *GOES (position).* Identifying grammatical positions is often a good way to arrive at the function of a word, phrase or clause. We have seen, for example, that nouns carry out seven different grammatical functions, and that gerunds and infinitives also carry out some of these functions. Because of this overlap, doubt may arise over the function of a particular constituent. Grammatical position is often the key to this doubt. Following are a number of troublesome areas where focussing on the position may be helpful.

Pronouns vs. adjectives

The demonstrative, relative, interrogative and indefinite pronouns are pronouns by form, but they can be adjective modifiers by grammatical function. Here is a case where form and function overlap, and grammatical position can be very helpful in making the distinction as to when they are pronouns and when they are adjectives. If these pronouns stand alone they occupy a nominal position;

if they signal a noun they are in the adjectival position. Consider the following examples:

a. "'My son,' he answered, 'this is the city which was called Ablis, that is to say, Forsaken.'" [Van Dyke]

[DEMONSTRATIVE / PRONOUN / NOMINAL POSITION]

b. "This indefiniteness of statement and relationship is probably only the opening phase of the new faith." [Wells]

[DEMONSTRATIVE / ADJECTIVE / ADJECTIVAL POSITION]

c. "Covered with many inches of dust, there lay the abandoned symbols of a venerable faith which had been discarded by the good people of the city many years ago." [Van Loon]

[RELATIVE / PRONOUN / NOMINAL POSITION]

d. "All manner of hints as to his indiscretions, all manner of half-told tales as to his debts, his extravagance, which rumour had conveyed to her unwilling ears, seemed suddenly to gather weight and probability." [Twain]

[RELATIVE / ADJECTIVE / ADJECTIVAL POSITION]

e. "'Now,' says Ben Rogers, 'what's the line of business of this Gang?'" [Twain]

[INTERROGATIVE / PRONOUN / NOMINAL POSITION]

f. "'Hm,' said Mr. Utterson. 'What sort of a man is he to see?'" [Stevenson]

[INTERROGATIVE / ADJECTIVE / ADJECTIVAL POSITION]

g. "These all spoke of a harsh existence in a stern land." [Hemon]

[INDEFINITE / PRONOUN / NOMINAL POSITION]

h. "At all events Robert proposed it, and there was not a dissenting voice." [Chopin]

[INDEFINITE / ADJECTIVE / ADJECTIVAL POSITION]

These examples contrast *form* and *function.* The first example in each pair shows the pronoun form and its nominal position; the second shows the adjective modifier function and the adjectival position. Where form and function seem to overlap, grammatical position can clear the confusion. In each of the second examples, the pronoun/adjective precedes a noun. By position, it is adjectival, and by grammatical function, it is a modifier.

Prepositions and particles

Earlier, I also covered prepositions and particles, noting that they look alike and belong by form to the same word group, prepositions, but that they carry out different grammatical roles. Particles can either signal an infinitive or mark a two-word verb.

a. "His wife, his clamoring friends, sought to follow, but he escaped." [Lewis]

[PARTICLE / VERBAL]

b. "That always seems the difficulty to me." [Christie]

[PREPOSITION / NOMINAL]

In the first example, the preposition / particle *to* precedes a verbal to form an infinitive; in the second example, *into* precedes a nominal to form a prepositional phrase. Knowing its position before a verbal or signalling a forthcoming noun helps us decide whether it is a particle or a preposition.

Signalling a Two-Word Verb

Prepositions and the particles of two-word verbs can cause a problem because they are also both alike in form. This problem is exacerbated after transitive verbs with their direct objects. First let us consider the preposition by itself.

a. "In a little while, however, she again heard a little pattering of footsteps in the distance, and she looked up eagerly." [Carroll]

[PARTICLE / VERBAL]

By *form* we classified *up* as a preposition; yet, by *function* it is carrying out a grammatical function other than signalling a forthcoming noun. In the above example, *look up* can pose a problem. Is it an intransitive two-word verb*look up,* or is it an intransitive verb *look* plus an adverb complement *up?*

The positioning of the particle does help, because for two-word verbs the particle can generally be extra-posed to a place after words that follow. So we can have:

> In a little while, however, she again heard a little pattering of footsteps in the distance, and she looked eagerly up.
>
> Being able to reposition the particle indicates that it is a two-word verb, and not an intransitive verb plus an adverb complement. But there are *no absolutes* in language, and these are just guidelines focussing more on *position* than on *form* or *function.*

Let us consider the above example along with a similar one:

a. "In a little while, however, she again heard a little pattering of footsteps in the distance, and she looked up eagerly." [Carroll]

[PARTICLE / VERBAL]

b. "'You're crazy!' cried Helen, as Bo looked up the slope, searching for open ground." [Grey]

[PREPOSITION / NOMINAL]

Here we have the same preposition / particle *up*, following a verbal in both cases, but in one case preceding an adverbial and in the other preceding a nominal. What is the role of *up* in each of these? In the first example the following adverbial indicates that *up* is part of the predicate and therefore a verbal; in the second example the following nominal suggests that it may be a connector and form a prepositional phrase.

We saw above that in the first example, the particle *up* could be repositioned; in the second example, we would have:

"You're crazy!" cried Helen, as Bo looked the slope up, searching for open ground.

The sentence would be ungrammatical because the particle cannot be repositioned; therefore, it is not a particle but rather a preposition introducing a prepositional phrase*up the slope.*

Present participles and gerunds

Present participles and gerunds are frequently confused because they both are verbals and have *-ing* suffixes. Grammatical position is the key to separating these verbals.

a. "Without waiting for breakfast, Rikki-tikki ran to the thorn-bush where Darzee was singing a song of triumph at the top of his voice." [Kipling]

[GERUND / NOMINAL]

b. "Several of them gathered round him; and Mr. Clare tasted, Tess tasted, also the other indoor milkmaids, one or two of the milking-men, and last of all Mrs. Crick, who came out from the waiting breakfast-table." [Hardy]

[PARTICIPLE / ADJECTIVAL]

c. "Mrs. Morel sat waiting." [Lawrence]

[PARTICIPLE / ADVERBIAL]

In the first example, waiting comes after a preposition; this is a nominal position carrying out the grammatical function of object of the preposition. In the second example, waiting comes before a nominal, carrying out the grammatical function of modifier; this is an adjectival position. The third example shows waiting coming after a verb, and functioning as an adverb complement; this is an adverbial position.

Past participles

Similarly, past participles can often be confusing. Consider the many grammatical positions of the past participle *discouraged.*

a. "I got discouraged long ago of anybody's ever making it out." [Porter]

[COMPLEMENT / ADJECTIVAL]

b. "Poirot, I noticed, was looking profoundly discouraged." [Christie]

[COMPLEMENT / ADJECTIVAL]

c. "David sighed in a discouraged. way." [Porter]

[MODIFIER / ADJECTIVAL]

d. "Fortunately we were not discouraged, and we determined to try again." [Doyle]

[PREDICATE / VERBAL] OR [COMPLEMENT / ADJECTIVAL]

e. "To say he discouraged me in so doing would be saying the rain is wet." [Davis]

[PREDICATE / VERBAL]

In the first and second examples, *discouraged* follows a linking verb carrying out the grammatical function of subjective complement/predicate adjective. If we did not know the function, the position following a linking verb can only be nominal or adjectival. *Discouraged* is not a noun, so it must be an adjective. In the third example, *discouraged* precedes a nominal, and the position preceding a nominal is generally adjectival. Its function then is as an adjective modifier. In the fourth example, *discouraged* could again be an adjectival with a complement function, or it could be seen as part of a passive construction and thus verbal. In the fifth example *discouraged* is clearly carrying out a predicate function and is therefore in a verbal position.

Subjects: noun, infinitive, and gerund phrases

By form we have no difficulty distinguishing among noun, infinitive and gerund phrases. However, by function we may have some difficulty, especially with infinitives because they can carry out a few grammatical functions.

a. "The only trees in flower were the cherries, plums, and certain sorts of apples." [Chekhov]

[NOUN PHRASE / SUBJECT / NOMINAL]

b. "To be found with a sword-stick, let alone a blood-stained sword-stick, would be fatal in the search that was certain to follow." [Chesterton]

[INFINITIVE PHRASE / SUBJECT / NOMINAL]

c. "Hannigan's bawling was for a minute incoherent, but she understood that it was not about croup." [Crane]

[GERUND PHRASE / SUBJECT / NOMINAL]

In each of these examples the form of the phrase differs and could cause problems. However, if we first consider their grammatical position, we can see that it is nominal. Coming before the predicate, the nominal position carries the grammatical function of subject.

Direct objects: noun, infinitive, and gerund phrases

Similarly for the direct object, each of these phrases can also occur in that position, as well.

a. "Richard and I had discovered this tight little piece of land." [Davis]

[NOUN PHRASE / DIRECT OBJECT / NOMINAL]

b. "I turned hastily round and found at my elbow a pretty little girl, who begged to be directed to a certain street at a considerable distance." [Dickens]

[INFINITIVE PHRASE / DIRECT OBJECT / NOMINAL]

c. "Hale stopped speaking, and stood staring at the rocker." [Gaspell]

[GERUND PHRASE / DIRECT OBJECT / NOMINAL]

The above words and phrases differ considerably by form, and because of this their function may be in doubt. However, if we recognize their position after a transitive verb, identifying their function as direct objects should follow.

Extra-posed subjects

a. "It was Halpin Frayser's impression that he was to be garroted on his native heath." [Bierce]

[EXTRA-POSED SUBJECT / NOMINAL]

In examples such as these, the expletive *it* appears to be the subject of the sentence, because it occupies the nominal position of subject. As we have seen this is not the case. First we should look at the verb type; realizing that it is a linking verb we know it takes a complement. The subject complement / predicate noun is there in *Halpin Frayser's impression.* What is the function of the noun clause? Its position tells us that it has to be an extra-posed subject.

Extra-posed objects

a. "I thought it odd that anyone else should be in there." [Bierce]

[EXTRA-POSED OBJECT / NOMINAL]

Similarly for extra-posed objects, here we have a transitive verb requiring a direct object. The expletive occupies that position. What position does the noun clause hold? Because *it* and the noun clause have the same referent, and we have no grammatical position for the clause, we can only conclude that the clause is an extra-posed direct object.

Modifiers: infinitives, prepositional phrases, and participles

A major problem solved by position is found with modifiers. We have already noted that infinitives can occupy nominal positions; however, they can also occupy adverbial positions, which can make understanding the infinitive confusing. Infinitives can also carry out the grammatical functions of adverb modifier and adverb complement.

a. "But he seemed to recollect himself, presently, and smothered the storm in a brutal curse, muttered on my behalf, which however, I took care not to notice." [Brontë]

[COMPLEMENT / ADVERBIAL]

In this example, the infinitive *to recollect* might look like a direct object following a transitive verb. However, if we recognize the verb as a linking verb, then we know that the grammatical position can only be that of an adverb complement.

b. "To save the country from civil war, Pilatus finally sacrificed his prisoner, Joshua, who behaved with great dignity and who forgave all those who hated him." [Van Loon]

[MODIFIER / ADVERBIAL]

In this example, the infinitive phrase, separated from the sentence by a comma, is a sentence modifier and, therefore, in an adverbial position.

c. "To stay where I was would be impossible." [Butler]

[SUBJECT / NOMINAL]

Now we have an infinitive as subject; again position before the predicate helps to identify this grammatical function.

Prepositional phrases can also cause us problems regarding form and function. By form they are the same, by function they are modifiers or a complement, and because of this they differ by position.

a. "A monk, dressed in black, with a grey head and black eyebrows, his arms crossed over his breast, floated by him." [Chekhov]

[MODIFIER / ADJECTIVAL]

b. "Their country-place, Styles Court, had been purchased by Mr. Cavendish early in their married life."

[MODIFIER / ADVERBIAL]

c. "His wife stood smiling and waving, the boys shouting, as he disappeared in the old rockaway down the sandy road."

[COMPLEMENT / ADVERBIAL]

The position of the prepositional phrase after an adjective signals its function as modifier and its position as adjectival. Similarly, a prepositional phrase occurring after an adverb signals that it is a modifier by function and adverbial by position. Lastly, a prepositional phrase coming after an intransitive verb signals that it is a complement by function and adverbial by position.

We have already seen that participles can be confused with gerunds by form; however, they can also be confused by function because participles can modify nouns and their replacements, as well as verbs and adverbs. Hence their position can be either adjectival or adverbial.

a. "I can see him now, with his hunting shirt and leggings and moccasins; his powder horn, engraved with wondrous scenes; his bullet pouch and tomahawk and hunting knife." [Churchill]

[MODIFIER / ADJECTIVAL]

b. "'It is Mr. Jadwin,' murmured Page, looking quickly away."

[MODIFIER / ADVERBIAL]

In the first example, the participle *hunting* precedes the nouns *shirt* and *knife;* this is an adjectival position for modifiers. In the second sentence, the participle *looking* precedes an adverb; this is an adverbial position for modifiers.

Knowing grammatical position does not solve all of these overlaps; but of the threeform, function and positionposition with one or the other most often solves the confusion.

<><><><><><><><><><><><><><>

We now move on to focus on our largest syntactic structurethe sentence. In building up to this category of analysis, we have covered sentence constituents by form, by function, and by position. The following illustrates the constituents of a simple sentence and identifies their grammatical forms, functions and positions.

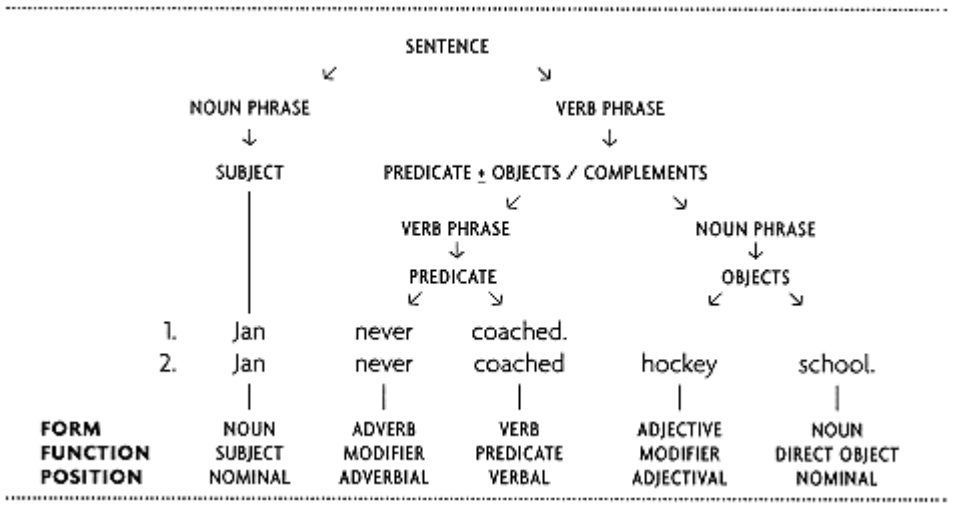


Figure 8.6
Sentence Constituients

In the next chapter we turn our attention to the sentence as a complete structure, starting with the sentence as a whole and breaking it down into its possible structures. Although we know the basic structure of the sentence to be S ® NP + VP ± NP2 / C, we will see how this structure can vary.

9
Sentences

Sentences

S → NP + VP ± NP^2 / C

SENTENCE is the largest syntactic structure, consisting of constituents structured as a noun phrase and a verb phrase; it is not a constituent of a larger syntactic structure.

Having covered all the constituents of the sentence by *form (what it IS)*, *function (what it DOES)*, and *position (where it GOES)*, we now come to see these constituents interrelate fully within the complete sentence structure. Generally, we do not write our thoughts in words or phrases, but we express them in full and meaningful syntactic unitssentences. Similarly when talking, we speak our thoughts through structures that are more representative of sentences in that they are structures with completed meaning.

At this point you have already been presented with a great variety of sentence structures, varying in styles because of the many authors and their disciplines. Therefore, you already have a good basis on which to begin your analysis of the basic structures of sentences, but not the stylistic structures.

Sentence structures are analyzed in a number of different ways, and the following figure summarizes most of these categories.

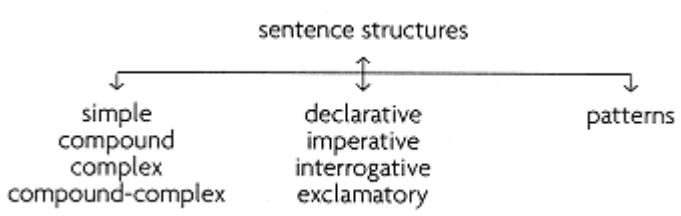


Figure 9.1
Sentence Structures

Sentence structures

One common method of analyzing sentence structures is according to the *subject*, *verb* and *object* order, which we abbreviate as *SVO*, with variations for changes in sentence patterning. Another, but more traditional way, has been to

identify sentences as *simple*, *compound*, *complex*, and *compound-complex*. This is a more acceptable approach to identifying these structures, because it tells us something about the structure as a whole.

Simple Sentences

Simple sentences consist of only one independent clause, having a noun phrase and a verb phrase with a finite verb. Although the noun phrase/subject is not evident in imperative sentences, it is understood. Typically, sentences also have a second noun phrase or complement.

S	→	NP Sj	+	VP P	+	NP^2 / C
a.		"I		nodded." [Christie]		
b.		"The street		is		Pyncheon street." [Hawthorne] C
c.		"She		could read		any English book without much spelling." [Goldsmith] Do
d.		[You][1]		"Put		another coal on the fire." [Dickens] Do

[SIMPLE SENTENCES / INDEPENDENT CLAUSES]

Compound Sentences

Compound sentences contain two or more independent clauses linked by a coordinating conjunction. Because these independent clauses are identical to those of simple sentences, their structural variations are the same.

a.			"The wind		began to moan		in the trees
	S	→	NP Sj	+	VP P	+	C C
			and Cj	there NP Sj	+	was VP P	+	a feeling of rain in the air." [Grey] C C

1 Note that the subject "You" is understood here.

b.

		"The forests		have departed		
S	→	NP	+	VP		
		Sj		P		
		but	some old customs of their shades			remain." [Hardy]
		Cj	NP		+	VP
			Sj			P

[COMPOUND SENTENCES / TWO INDEPENDENT CLAUSES]

Complex Sentences

Complex sentences consist of only one independent clause and at least one dependent clause, and often more than one dependent clause.

a.

		"I		jumped		the fence		
S	→	NP	+	VP	+	NP^2		
		Sj		P		Do		
		where	the gate		was		low." [Michelson]	
cl	→	cj	+	np	+	vp	+	c
				sj		p		av

[COMPLEX SENTENCE / INDEPENDENT + DEPENDENT CLAUSE]

b.

		"You and I		must be		the two oldest friends		
S	→	NP	+	VP	+	NP^2		
		Sj		P		C		
		that	Henry Jekyll		has?" [Stevenson]			
cl	→	cj	+	np	+	vp		
		cn/do		sj		p		

[COMPLEX SENTENCE / INDEPENDENT + DEPENDENT CLAUSE]

Compound - Complex Sentences

Compound-complex sentences consist of a combination of two or more independent clauses and at least one dependent clause.

		"Henry		saw		it all,	but	he		preserved		the polite demeanor of a guest
S	→	NP	+	VP	+	NP^2	Cj	NP	+	VP	+	NP^2
		Sj		P		Do						

		when		a waiter		spills		claret down his cuff" [Crane]	
cl	→	cj	+	np	+	vp	+	np^2	c
		cn		sj		p		do	

[COMPOUND / COMPLEX SENTENCE / TWO INDEPENDENT + ONE DEPENDENT CLAUSES]

Sentence types

Apart from *sentence structures,* we also identify sentences by *type;* they are characterized *by form.* We have covered features of these sentences in our discussion of verb mood in chapter 6. English identifies four basic sentence types.

Declarative Sentences

A simple statement, declaration or assertion is a declarative sentence. It has a word order of *subject plus predicate plus object or complement,* which has been the underlying structure used for our analysis. Such sentences can be either affirmative or negative.

a. "The friends of the University in the Assembly seem to have a delicate task on their hands." [Jefferson]

[STATEMENT]

b. "'I'm not going any more,' he declared." [Lawrence]

[DECLARATION]

c. "I assure you, riding is the most healthy of exercises." [Eliot]

[ASSERTION]

Imperative Sentences

To express a command or a request, or to forbid an action, we use an imperative sentence. They are generally used with the force of commands or directives. Such sentences can also be affirmative or negative.

a. "Open the window, then!" [Doyle]

b. "TURN round, my boy!" [Gogol]

[COMMAND]

c. "Oblige me!" [Eliot]

d. "Let me loose!" [Davis]

[REQUEST]

e. "'Don't leave me now,' he went on." [James]

f. "'God forbid that he should try!' answered the black villain." [Brontë]

[FORBID]

Not all sentences that imply commands are imperative sentences. The following are declarative sentences.

a. "I want to have a talk with you." [Van Dyke]

b. "You should be out, whipping up the circulation like Mr. Enfield and me." [Stevenson]

Interrogative Sentences

Interrogative sentences simply ask questions. Interrogatives can also be affirmative or negative. English distinguishes two types of interrogatives:

1. Interrogative "yes-no" questions: As indicated by the name, this question expects a simple *yes* or *no* answer. These sentences are characterized by inverted word order and the use of the auxiliary *do*.

a. "Do you know why?" [Wells]

b. "But was there a way out?" [Van Loon]

2. *Wh*-questions: These questions are formed with interrogative pronouns. Unless the pronoun is subject of the sentence, an inverted word order is also used here.

a. "Where had she walked that morning?" [Aiken]

[INVERTED FORMAT]

b. "'Who has sent you so far by yourself?' said I." [Dickens]

[DECLARATIVE FORMAT]

English also has a *tag question* structure. This is a combination of a declarative statement followed by an inverted question that is actually tagged on. The tag structure comprises an auxiliary verb plus a pronoun. Notice that if the declarative statement is affirmative, the tag is negative, and vice versa.

a. "Your talisman didn't save you, did it?" [Alcott]

b. "But it can't be mine, can it?" [Michelson]

Exclamatory Sentences

Exclamatory sentences denote the speaker's attitude or opinion toward the subject. Although these exclamations tend to be affirmative, negatives also occur.

a. "My God! Mr. Chace, what is the matter?" [Melville]

b. "'But this is superb!' she cried gaily." [Malet]

FIGURE 9.2
SENTENCE PATTERNS

LINKING VERBS	1. NP	VP / LV	SC / P-n	
	2. NP	VP / LV	SC / P-aj	
	3. NP	VP / LV	C / Av	
INTRANSITIVE VERB	1. NP	VP / InTV		
	2. NP	VP / InTV	C / Av	
TRANSITIVE VERB	1. NP	VP / TV	NP2	
	2. NP	VP / TV	NP2	NP3
	3a. NP	VP / TV	NP2	NP2
	b. NP	VP / TV	NP2	Aj
	c. NP	VP / TV	NP2	Pr
	d. NP	VP / TV	NP2	Av (place)
	e. NP	VP / TV	NP2	Pp
	f. NP	VP / TV	NP2	Ptp
	g. NP	VP / TV	NP2	Prp-ph
	h. NP	VP / TV	NP2	I-ph + BE

Sentence patterns

A more detailed analysis of sentence structures is to identify the basic constituents according to their particular patterns. In this analysis, the verb type becomes the focus of the pattern. Consider the patterns in Figure 9.2

Each of these divisions and substructures will now be broken down and illustrated, noting the roles and grammatical meanings for the constituents of each pattern. All structures are based on the verb type, *transitive*, *intransitive* or *linking verb.* The linking verb has three possible structures depending upon the type of

complement that follows. The intransitive verb has only two possible structures both based on whether a complement follows or not. The transitive verb has three variations; however, the third pattern has eight possible variations in its fourth component. Together these structures cover the basic sentences that we use. The basic patterns may occur more than once in compound and complex sentences, but essentially it is only a duplication of a similar pattern.

Linking Verbs

1.	S	→	NP	+	VP	+	C
			Sj		LV		SC / p-n
			"The stationer		became		his banker." [Locke]

FUNCTION		GRAMMATICAL MEANING
SUBJECT	The stationer	about whom an assertion is made.
PREDICATE	became	classifies.
COMPLEMENT	Sj his banker	completes the subject.

2.	S	→	NP	+	VP	+	C
			Sj		LV		SC / p-aj
			"It		seems		hard." [Locke]

FUNCTION		GRAMMATICAL MEANING
SUBJECT	It	what is described.
PREDICATE	seems	describes.
COMPLEMENT	Sj hard	completes the subject.

3.	S	→	NP	+	VP	+	C
			Sj		LV		C / av
			"She		remained		upstairs." [Locke]

FUNCTION		GRAMMATICAL MEANING
SUBJECT	She	who is identified.
PREDICATE	remained	locates.
COMPLEMENT	Upstairs	completes the verb.

Intransitive Verbs

1.	S	→	NP Sj	+	VP InTV	+	(C) (C / av)
			a. "Holker		laughed...." [Bierce]		
			b. "Holker		laughed		good-humouredly."

a. "Holker laughed." [Bierce]

b. "Holker laughed good-humouredly."

FUNCTION	GRAMMATICAL MEANING
SUBJECTHolker	performer of action.
PREDICATElaughed	independent action.
COMPLEMENTgood-humouredly	completes the verb.

Transitive Verbs

1.	S	→	NP Sj	+	VP TV	+	NP^2 Do
			"Alice		soon began		talking again." [Carroll]

"Alice soon began talking again." [Carroll]

FUNCTION	GRAMMATICAL MEANING
SUBJECTAlice	performer of action.
PREDICATEsoon began	asserts an action.
COMPLEMENTtalking	affected by action.
MODIFIERagain	describes predicate.

2.	S	→	NP Sj	+	VP TV	+	NP^2 Ido	+	NP^3 Do
			"You		give		me		the creeps sometimes." [Carroll]

"You give me the creeps sometimes." [Carroll]

FUNCTION	GRAMMATICAL MEANING
SUBJECTYou	performer of action.
PREDICATEgive	asserts an action.
INDIRECT OBJECTme	to/for whom an action is performed.
DIRECT OBJECTthe creeps	affected by action.
MODIFIERsometimes	describes predicate.

NP NP2
NP3 have different referents.

3a.	S	→	NP Sj	+	VP TV	+	NP^2 Do	+	NP^2 OC
			"But she		called		it		'Solitude.'" [Chopin]

FUNCTION		GRAMMATICAL MEANING
SUBJECT	She	performer of action.
PREDICATE	Called	asserts an action.
DIRECT OBJECT	it	affected by action.
OBJ COMPLEMENT	Solitude	identifies object.

The *direct object* and the *objective complement* have the *same referent.*

All of the following variations are based on the S > NP + VP + NP2 + C pattern. The only differences are found in the *complement position.*

3b.	S	→	NP Sj	+	VP TV	+	NP^2 Do	+	C Aj
			"Privately I		thought		it		**lucky**." [Christie]
3c.	S	→	NP Sj	+	VP TV	+	NP^2 Do	+	C Av(place)
			"But I		found		no vacancy		there." [Franklin]
3d.	S	→	NP Sj	+	VP TV	+	NP^2 Do	+	C Pp
			"I just		saw		his head		**bobbing**." [Conrad]
3e.	S	→	NP Sj	+	VP TV	+	NP^2 Do	+	C Ptp
			"We		found		them		gone." [Churchill]
3f.	S	→	NP Sj	+	VP TV	+	NP^2 Do	+	C Prp-ph
			"He		now took		the stick		from my hands." [Doyle]

3g.	S	→	NP	+	VP	+	NP^2	+	C
			Sj		TV		Do		I-ph + BE
			"I		knew		him		to be friendly." [Goldsmith]

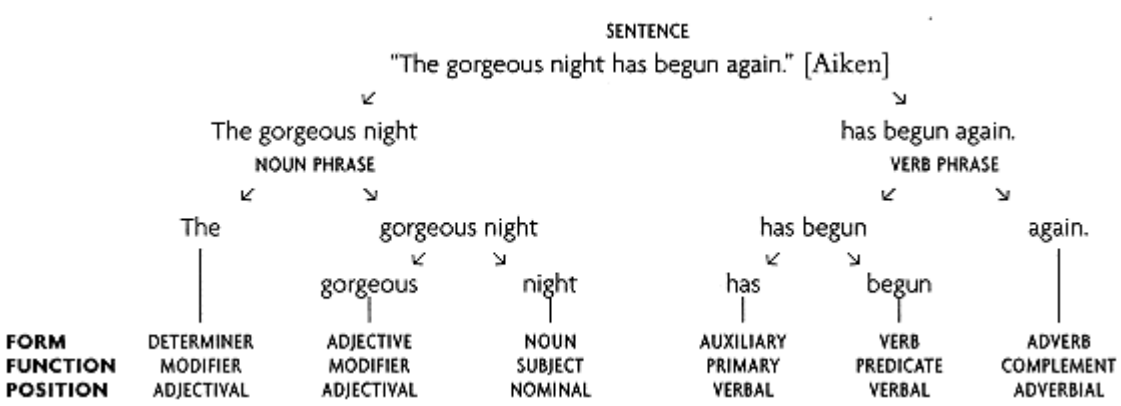
"I knew him to be friendly." [Goldsmith]

All of the words in the complement position suggest that an underlying infinitive phrase, *to be plus the complement*, is implied.

Sentence Analysis

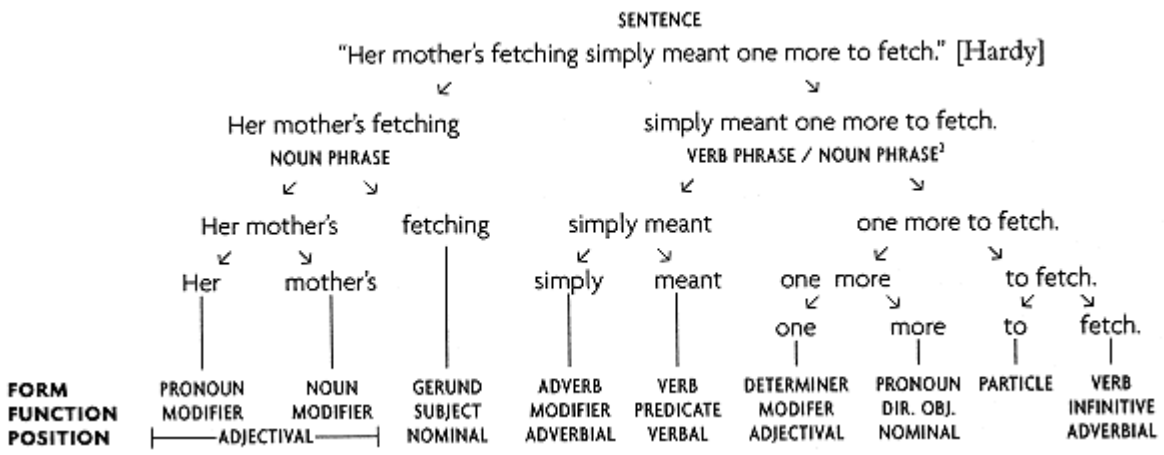
We have seen that the basic sentence S has two parts, a noun phrase NP and a verb phrase VP. Depending on the number of constituents within the sentence to be analyzed, the verb phrase VP can be further broken down into VP ± a second noun phrase NP2 or complement C. If there are constituents occurring after the verb phrase, then one has to acknowledge them with appropriate markers. At the sentence level we must analyze all constituents.

Once the structure has been fully broken down, we identify each constituent by its form, by its grammatical position, and finally by its grammatical function. In all, after the breakdown analysis there are three identifiers: *form*, *function*, and *position.* Consider the following analysis:

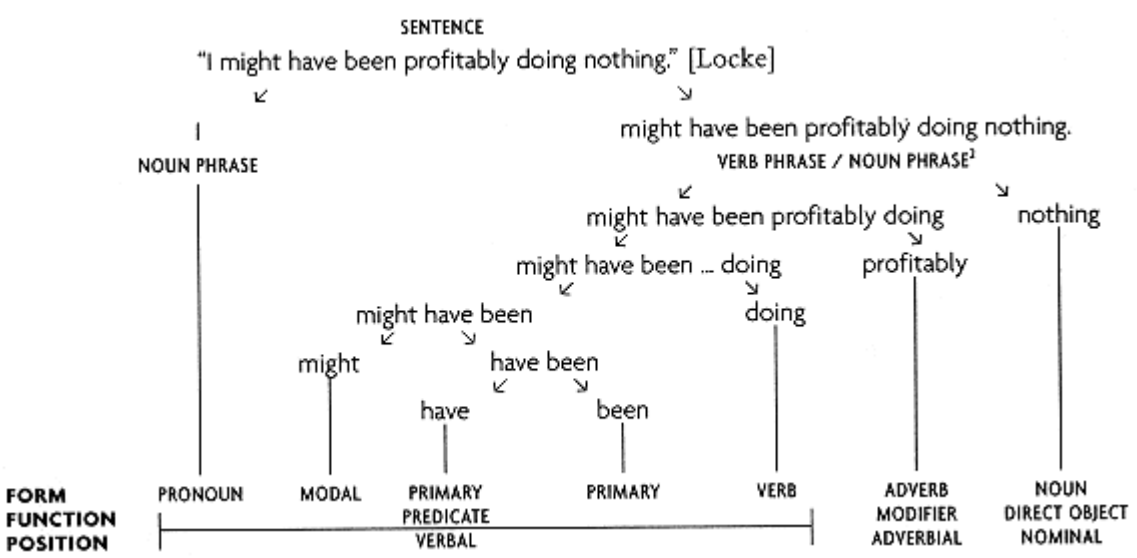


Here are some further examples. Each of the following sentences focuses on a particular phrase as part of the sentence structure.

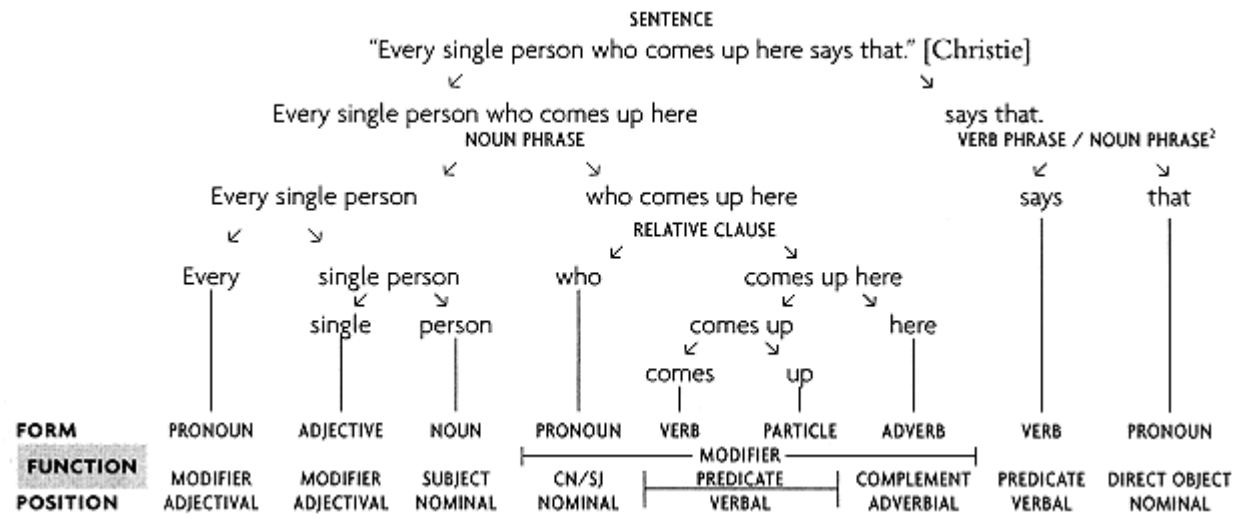
1. Sentence with a gerund phrase



2. Sentence with an extended verb phrase



3. Sentence with a dependent clause



Many variations of sentences could be presented here for more complex structures. The purpose of this chapter, however, is to introduce you only to the more simple structures. The more complex structures belong to another category of language analysis.

APPENDICES

< previous page page_239 next page >

APPENDIX A
GRAMMATICAL TERMS SUMMARY

FORMS	FUNCTIONS	POSITIONS
WORDS		
	subject	
	predicate	
	direct object	
	indirect object	
nouns	objects of prepositions	
verbs	adjective modifiers	
adjectives	adverb modifiers	
adverbs	prepositional modifiers	
pronouns	subjective complement	
determiners	objective complement	nominal
auxiliaries	adverb complement	verbal
prepositions	connectors	adjectival
conjunctions	appositives	adverbial
PHRASES		
noun		
adjective		
verb		
adverb		
participle		
gerund		
infinitive		
prepositional		
absolute		
CLAUSES		
noun		
relative adjective		
relative adverb		
adverb		

GRAMMATICAL FUNCTIONS SUMMARY

FORMS	FUNCTIONS	POSITIONS
1. nouns	subjects direct objects indirect objects objects of prepositions subjective complements objective complements appositives	nominal
2. pronouns	subjects direct objects indirect objects objects of prepositions subjective complements objective complements connectors appositives	nominal
3. noun phrases	subjects direct objects indirect objects objects of prepositions subjective complements objective complements appositives	nominal
4. noun clauses	subjects direct objects indirect objects objects of prepositions subjective complements objective complements appositives	nominal
5. gerunds		nominal

FORMS	FUNCTIONS	POSITIONS
6. infinitives	subjects direct objects	nominal
	modifiers adverb complements	adverbial
7. verbs auxiliaries	predicates	verbal
8. adjectives adjective phrases	modifiers subjective complements	adjectival
9. participles participle phrases prepositional phrases relative adjective clauses	modifiers subjective complements	adjectival
10. adverbs adverb phrases participles participle phrases prepositional phrases relative adverb clauses adverb clauses	modifiers adverb complements	adverbial
11. absolute phrases	modifiers	adverbial
12. determiners	modifiers	adjectival
13. conjunctions	connectors	nominal1

1 If the conjunction is relative and, therefore, has a grammatical function within its clause, relative conjunctions can occupy nominal positions

APPENDIX B IRREGULAR VERBS

The following is a list of irregular verbs still in use in Modern English.

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
1. arise	arose	arisen
2. awake	awoke	awaked
3. be	was	been
4. bear	bore	borne
5. beat	beat	beaten
6. become	became	become
7. begin	began	begun
8. bend	bent	bent
9. beseech	besought	besought
10. bid	bade or bid	bidden
	bid	bid
11. bind	bound	bound
12. bite	bit	bitten
13. bleed	bled	bled
14. blow	blew	blown
15. break	broke	broken
16. bring	brought	brought
17. broadcast	broadcast	broadcast
	broadcasted	broadcasted
18. build	built	built
19. burn	burned	burned
	burnt	burnt
20. burst	burst	burst
21. buy	bought	bought
22. catch	caught	caught
23. choose	chose	chosen
24. cling	clung	clung
25. come	came	come

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
26. deal	dealt	dealt
27. dig	dug	dug
28. dive	dove	dove
	dived	dived
29. do	did	done
30. draw	drew	drawn
31. drink	drank	drunk
32. drive	drove	driven
33. eat	ate	eaten
34. fall	fell	fallen
35. feed	fed	fed
36. fight	fought	fought
37. find	found	found
38. flee	fled	fled
39. fling	flung	flung
40. fly	flew	flown
41. forbid	forbad(e)	forbidden
42. forget	forgot	forgotten
43. forsake	forsook	forsaken
44. freeze	froze	frozen
45. get	got	got
		gotten
46. give	gave	given
47. go	went	gone
48. grind	ground	ground
49. grow	grew	grown
50. hang	hanged	hanged
51. hang	hung	hung
52. hold	held	held
53. kneel	knelt	knelt
	kneeled	kneeled
54. know	knew	known
55. lay	laid	laid
56. lead	led	led
57. lean	leaned	leaned
	leant	leant
58. leap	leaped	leaped
	leapt	leapt
59. learn	learned	learned
	learnt	learnt

60. leave	left	left
61. lend	lent	lent
62. let	let	let
63. lie	lay	lain

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
64. lie	lied	lied
65. light	lighted	lighted
	lit	lit
66. lose	lost	lost
67. mean	meant	meant
68. meet	met	met
69. pay	paid	paid
70. prove	proved	proved
71. read	read	read
72. ride	rode	ridden
73. ring	rang	rung
74. rise	rose	risen
75. run	ran	run
76. say	said	said
77. see	saw	seen
78. seek	sought	sought
79. sell	sold	sold
80. set	set	set
81. sew	sewed	sewed
		sewn
82. shake	shook	shaken
83. shoot	shot	shot
84. show	showed	shown
	showed	
85. shrink	shrank	shrunk
86. sing	sang	sung
87. sink	sank	sunk
88. sit	sat	sat
89. slay	slew	slain
90. sleep	slept	slept
91. slide	slid	slid
92. slink	slunk	slunk
93. smite	smote	smitten
94. sow	sowed	sowed
		sown
95. speak	spoke	spoken
96. split	split	split
97. spring	sprang	sprung
98. steal	stole	stolen
99. stick	stuck	stuck

100.	sting	stung	stung
101.	stink	stank stunk	stunk
102.	stride	strode	stridden

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
103. string	strung	strung
104. strive	strove	striven
	strived	strived
105. swear	swore	sworn
106. sweat	sweat	sweat
	sweated	sweated
107. swim	swam	swum
108. swing	swung	swung
109. take	took	taken
110. teach	taught	taught
111. tear	tore	torn
112. tell	told	told
113. throw	threw	thrown
114. tread	trod	trodden
		trod
115. wake	waked	waked
		woke
116. wear	wore	worn
117. weave	wove	woven
		wove
118. win	won	won
119. wring	wrung	wrung
120. write	wrote	written

GLOSSARY

A

ABLAUT WORD or *gradation* is a morphological process (internal modification) taking place in irregular verbs to extend grammatical meaning, producing different forms in the paradigm of the same word.

ABSOLUTE PHRASES are cohesive word groups not linked to the main clause syntactically or semantically by shared elements.

ABSTRACT NOUNS refer to concepts, qualities, and states.

ACTIVE VOICE describes a verbal category concerned with the relationship of subject and object; the action is expressed by the transitive verb.

ADJECTIVAL MODIFIERS occupy pre- or post-position modifying nouns, pronouns, and other adjectives.

ADJECTIVAL POSITION is reserved for words carrying out the function of a modifier as attributed to an adjective.

ADJECTIVE PHRASES are cohesive word groups that are often little more than a series of adjectives or words that go with adjectives to modify nouns or their replacements.

ADJECTIVES are form class words completing the paradigm of inflections, *-er* (or *more)* for the comparative, and *-est* (or *most)* for the superlative.

ADVERB CLAUSE is a subject and predicate (finite verb) structure carrying out the grammatical function attributed to adverbs. It is introduced by words such as *before, after, because* or phrases, *as if, even if, as long as.*

ADVERB COMPLEMENT has the grammatical meaning of one that completes.

ADVERB MODIFIERS occupy pre- or post-modifying positions, referring to circumstances such as *how, why,* or *when.*

ADVERB PHRASES are cohesive word groups focussing on adverbs as their head word.

ADVERBIAL NOUNS occupy an adverbial position and carry out the grammatical function attributed to adverbs.

ADVERBIAL POSITION is reserved for words carrying out the function of a modifier as attributed to adverbs.

ADVERBS are form class words generally noted by the derivational suffixes *-ly, -wise,* and *-ward.*

AFFIX is a collective term for prefixes and suffixes, which means the adding of morphemes to a base or stem of a word.

AGENT is the initiator of the action in a passive sentence.

AGREEMENT is the relationship between two or more sentence constituents.

AMBIGUITY occurs when a structure has more than one possible lexical and/or structural meaning.

ANTECEDENT is the noun or nominal that a pronoun stands for.

APPOSITION has the grammatical meaning *that which renames.* An appositive is a referent to the nominal it qualifies.

ARTICLES are structure class words. The indefinite article, *a(n),* marks only countable nouns; the definite article, *the,* marks all classes of nouns. They are also classified as *determiners.*

ASPECT expresses grammatical meanings concerned with the continuity or distribution of events in time.

AUXILIARIES are structure class words making distinctions for tense, aspect, and voice in the verb phrase.

B

BASE is a lexical morpheme minus all affixes.

BASE VERB or lexical verb is the uninflected form of the verb; for all verbs except *be,* it is the simple present tense.

BOUND MORPHEMES do not stand alone with meaning; they join other free or bound morphemes to create a word.

C

CASE is a grammatical category for inflected nouns and mostly personal pronouns showing their relationships to other sentence constituents.

CLAUSES are independent and dependent structures, both generally consisting of a noun phrase and a finite verb phrase, that is, a subject and a predicate.

COLLECTIVE NOUNS refer to a group of persons, things or ideas.

COMMAND. See Imperative.

COMMON NOUNS designate a general class of objects or concepts.

COMPARATIVE is an inflectional marker of adjectives and adverbs, noted by *-er;* this inflection can be replaced in many cases with *more*.

COMPLEMENT has the grammatical meaning of that which identifies or completes.

COMPLEMENT OF A NOUN is a word group, such as noun clauses, which follows a noun but behaves like a direct object of a predicate corresponding to the noun.

COMPLEMENT OF AN ADJECTIVE is a word group, such as noun clauses, which directly follows and completes an adjective.

COMPLEX SENTENCES consist of only one independent clause and at least one dependent clause.

COMPOUND SENTENCES contain two or more independent clauses linked by a coordinating conjunction.

COMPOUND-COMPLEX SENTENCES have two or more independent clauses and at least one dependent clause.

CONCRETE NOUNS have material substance.

CONJUNCTIONS are structure class words identifying *subordination, coordination,* and *conjunctiveness.*

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS, like coordinating conjunctions, join units of equal value but they do so with adverbial emphasis.

CONNECTORS are structure class conjunctions, used to note subordination, coordination, and conjunctiveness. The connector has the grammatical meaning of that which connects.

CONSTITUENTS are language elements forming part of a larger syntactic structure which we analyze by grammatical form, function, and position.

COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS join units of equal value.

CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS are two-part conjunctions that connect both complete sentences and units within sentences.

COUNTABLE NOUNS occur as singular or plural in a countable number; non-countable nouns are those that cannot be similarly counted.

D

DECLARATIVE SENTENCES declare as in a statement, contrasting with a command, a question or an exclamation.

DEFINITE ARTICLE, *the*, is a determiner that signals a forthcoming noun, specific or previously mentioned.

DEGREE is a feature of adjectives and adverbs, having forms for the positive, the comparative, and the superlative degrees.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS, *this*, *that*, *these* and *those*, substitute for nouns and carry out the role of determiner.

DEPENDENT CLAUSES are subject and predicate (finite verb) structures needing a second clause structure for completed meaning.

DERIVATIONAL AFFIXES are bound morphemes added to bases or stems to create new words from pre-existing ones, and sometimes to change word class category.

DESCRIPTIVE means recording actual usage and observing how sentences are generated and understood.

DETERMINERS are structure class words signalling a forthcoming noun or noun phrase.

DIRECT OBJECT is what undergoes the action of transitive verbs. Its grammatical meaning is that which undergoes the action of the predicate, or is affected by it.

E

EXCLAMATORY SENTENCES note the attitude or opinion of the speaker, and are marked by the exclamation mark.

EXPLETIVES, *it* and *there*, are dummy words which have structural rather than lexical functions; we use them to replace the extra-posed subject or object.

F

FINITE VERBS express tense and are marked for person and number; non-finite verbs express aspect and voice.

FORM is what a constituent IS, the simplest mode of classification, the shape or appearance of a linguistic unit.

FORM CLASS WORDS readily admit new members such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, or adverbs.

FREE MORPHEMES can stand alone with meaning.

FUNCTION is what a constituent DOES, along with its syntactic relationship to other constituents within that sentence.

G

GENDER is a grammatical category noting masculine, feminine and neuter natural genders.

GERUND PHRASES are cohesive word groups with a nonfinite -*ing* verb as head word.

GERUNDS are -*ing* verb forms that can replace nouns or nominals.

GRAMMAR. See Syntax.

GRAMMATICAL FUNCTION. See Function.

GRAMMATICAL MEANING concerns the relationships of words within sentences.

GRAMMATICAL POSITION. See Position.

H

HEAD WORDS (HW) are focussed words around which phrases develop. HN means head noun of a noun phrase; HV means head verb of a verb phrase; HG is the head gerund of a gerund phrase, etc.

I

IMPERATIVE MOOD expresses a command or requires/forbids an action to be carried out.

INDEFINITE ARTICLES, *a* or *an*, mark an unspecified countable noun.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS form a large class of words, often identified as specifiers and quantifiers.

INDEFINITE RELATIVE PRONOUNS end in an -*ever* suffix, for example, *whichever*. They have indefinite referents and introduce relative adjectival clauses.

INDEPENDENT CLAUSES are subject and finite verb structures that stand alone with completed meaning.

INDICATIVE MOOD states a fact or asks a question, not probability.

INDIRECT OBJECT is the second of two objects that follow transitive verbs. Its grammatical meaning is *to* or *for whom the action is performed.*

INFINITIVES are the stem forms of verbs preceded by the particle *to,* for example, *to + verb talk = to talk;* they are not limited by person, number or tense.

INFINITIVES are base forms of verbs not limited by person, number or tense, and therefore, they are also non-finite verbs. They consist of at least two words and are actually phrases by form.

INFLECTIONAL AFFIXES are bound morphemes occurring after a base or stem to extend the grammatical meaning, producing different forms in the paradigm of the same word.

INTENSIFIERS are structure-class words that qualify or intensify adjectives or adverbs.

INTENSIVE PRONOUN. See Reflexive pronouns.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS, *who, whose, whom, which* and *what,* are used to ask questions.

INTRANSITIVE VERBS do not require an object, but they often take complements.

IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES have some similarities in the comparative and superlative forms, but they are generally distinctive in the positive.

IRREGULAR ADVERBS have some similarities in the comparative and superlative forms, but they are generally distinctive in the positive.

IRREGULAR NOUNS are: (1) nouns without singulars, (2) nouns with singular and plural forms alike, (3) irregular plural nouns, and (4) foreign inflections.

IRREGULAR VERBS have past tenses and past participles that do not follow the regular verb paradigm. Many take an ablaut change, and/or a past tense/participle suffix in *-d, -t* or *-en.*

L

LEXICAL MEANING is the denotative or dictionary meaning that a speaker attaches to actual objects, events, actions, etc.

LEXICON OR VOCABULARY consists of words that make up a language.

LINKING VERBS express states rather than actions. They link the subject and complement, which have the same referent.

M

MAIN or LEXICAL VERB is the head verb.

MANNER ADVERBS (adverbs of manner) generally ending in -*ly,* focus on *how* or in *what manner* a predication is carried out.

MASS NOUNS. See Non-countable nouns.

MODAL AUXILIARIES are adjunct verbs noting such features as *probability, possibility, obligation.*

MODIFIERS give grammatical or lexical information about other words in the sentence; they have the grammatical meaning that they modify, limit or add to the meaning of a word(s). This is applicable to all words, phrases and clauses that hold either adjectival or adverbial positions.

MOOD *(mode)* is the grammatical distinction in a verb form that expresses fact *(indicative),* command *(imperative),* condition contrary to fact *(subjunctive),* and probability or possibility *(conditional).*

MORPHEME ANALYSIS is the process of breaking words down into their individual morphemes and identifying them accordingly.

MORPHEME VARIANTS are contextual variations of morphemes.

MORPHEMES are the lowest standing meaningful units in our grammatical system from which words are composed and grammatical meaning extended.

MORPHOLOGICAL PROCESSES are umlauts and ablauts (internal modifications) taking place in irregular nouns and verbs respectively to extend grammatical meaning, producing different forms in the paradigm of the same word.

MORPHOLOGY is the branch of grammar concerned with the analysis of structure and the internal patterning of words, their bases and their affixes, that is, the study of morphemes.

N

NOMINAL POSITION is reserved for nouns, noun phrases and clauses, and their replacements.

NON-COUNTABLE NOUNS refer to mass or abstraction.

NON-FINITE VERBS express aspect and voice; they do not express person or tense.

NONRESTRICTIVE CLAUSES do not restrict the word, phrase or clause they modify; also, they are set off by commas.

NOUN CLAUSES are subject and predicate (finite verb) structures carrying out the grammatical functions attributed to a noun.

NOUN PHRASES (NP) are cohesive word groups focusing on a head noun or its replacement.

NOUNS are form class words generally completing the paradigm of inflections: -*s* plurality, 's singular possessive and 's or s' plural possessive.

NUMBER is a grammatical category referring to singular and plural. Singular is used when one person is speaking or is made reference to; the plural is used when more than one person is speaking or is made reference to.

O

OBJECT OF THE PREPOSITION has the grammatical meaning of that which relates to a noun or its replacement.

OBJECTIVE CASE is the grammatical role of a noun or nominal functioning as direct object, indirect object, objective complement, or object of the preposition.

OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT has the grammatical meaning of that which describes or identifies a direct object.

P

PARADIGM is an example or model of the variations of a base.

PARALLEL STRUCTURES have coordinated grammatical parts.

PARTICIPLE PHRASES are cohesive word groups, consisting of nonfinite verb forms, present or past participles, as head words.

PARTICIPLES are nonfinite forms of the verb paradigm with the present participle ending in -*ing* and the past participle ending with an -*en* or -*ed*.

PARTICLES are words similar to monosyllabic prepositions that join verbs to form a phrasal verb.

PASSIVE or INACTIVE VOICE is a feature of transitive sentences in which the grammatical subject of the predicate becomes the goal of the expressed action.

PAST PARTICIPLE is a non-finite form of the verb paradigm. It is noted by an *-en* or *-ed* suffix.

PAST TENSE is the *-ed* form of the verb and usually denotes a specific past action.

PERIPHRASTIC POSSESSIVE is used to attribute possessiveness to inanimate things. It is expressed in the form of a prepositional phrase.

PERSON is a grammatical category that points out the speaker *(first person),* the person or thing spoken to *(second person),* and the person or thing spoken of *(third person).*

PERSONAL PRONOUNS name specific persons or things.

PHONETICS is the system that records the actual sounds of speech.

PHONOLOGY is the study of sounds.

PHRASAL VERBS consist of a verb plus a particle having a combined meaning different from its individual parts. They are sometimes called two-word verbs.

PHRASES are cohesive word groups forming full syntactic units.

PLURAL (plurality) is a characteristic of nouns and pronouns denoting more than one. Nouns are marked by the inflectional ending *-s* (or *-es).*

POSITION (grammatical position) marks constituents within sentences based on their form and function.

POSITIVE DEGREE. See Degree.

POSSESSIVE CASE is the inflected form of nouns and pronouns indicating ownership.

PREDICATE is the second of two essential grammatical functions of a sentence structure, having the grammatical meaning of that which asserts, describes, or identifies.

PREDICATE ADJECTIVES are subjective complements occurring after linking verbs.

PREDICATE NOMINATIVES or nouns are subjective complements occurring after linking verbs.

PREFIXES are bound morphemes added to the beginning of a base to form new words from preexisting ones.

PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES are cohesive word groups forming syntactic units, consisting of a preposition plus a head noun or its replacement.

PREPOSITIONS are structure words introducing a phrase structure.

PRESCRIPTIVE GRAMMAR focusses on a set of rules dictating *correct usage* and how language *ought* to be used.

PRESENT PARTICIPLE is a nonfinite form of the verb paradigm. It is noted by an *-ing* suffix.

PRESENT TENSE marks a present point in time, a habitual action, or the *timeless* present.

PRIMARY AUXILIARY VERBS, *be* and *have*, are adjunct verbs used to mark *tense, aspect, mood* and *voice.*

PRONOUN-ANTECEDENT AGREEMENT. See Subject-predicate agreement.

PRONOUNS are structure class words substituting for nouns.

PROPER NOUNS refer to specific persons, places, things, or concepts. Proper nouns are capitalized.

R

RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS, *each other* and *one another*, refer to previously named nouns or pronouns.

REFERENT is the person or thing a word names or refers to.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS refer back or intensify something.

REGULAR VERBS form the verb paradigm: *stem, third person singular, present participle, past tense* and *past participle.*

RELATIVE ADJECTIVE CLAUSES are subject and predicate (finite verb) structures carrying out the grammatical functions attributed to an adjectival.

RELATIVE ADVERB CLAUSES are subject and predicate (finite verb) structures carrying out the grammatical functions attributed to an adverbial.

RELATIVE ADVERBS are *where, when,* and *why,* and they are used to introduce adjectival clauses.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS, *who (whom, whose), which,* and *that,* relate or refer back to other words in the sentence, and they are used to introduce relative adjectival clauses.

RESTRICTIVE CLAUSES add essential information to what they modify. The restrictive modifier is *not* set off by commas.

S

SEMANTICS is the system and study of meaning in language.

SENTENCE is the largest syntactic structure, consisting of constituents structured as a noun phrase and a verb phrase; it is not a constituent of a larger syntactic structure.

SENTENCE MODIFIERS are words, phrases, or clauses that modify the sentence as a whole. They are separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

SENTENCE PATTERNS are the simple skeletal structures, made up of required elements, that underlie the sentence.

SINGULAR, as opposed to plural, is characteristic of nouns and pronouns denoting one referent.

STEM is the lexical morpheme with or without affixes.

STRUCTURE CLASS WORDS are small, *closed classes* that explain grammatical relationships of the form class words.

SUBJECT is the first of two essential grammatical functions of a sentence structure, having the grammatical meanings of that which performs, describes, identifies or asserts.

SUBJECTIVE CASE is the grammatical role of a noun or noun substitute in its grammatical function as subject of the sentence.

SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT has the grammatical meaning of that which follows a linking verb and has the same referent as the subject.

SUBJECT-PREDICATE AGREEMENT occurs when a third-person singular subject in the present tense takes the *-s* form of the verb or when a plural subject takes the stem form. Pronoun-antecedent agreement occurs when the number of the pronoun agrees with the number of its antecedent.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD does not state a fact. It expresses the hypothetical, doubtful, desirable or obligation.

SUBORDINATE CLAUSES are dependent clauses introduced by a subordinating conjunction.

SUFFIXES are bound morphemes occurring after bases or stems to change word category and/or to extend grammatical meaning. (See also Derivational affixes and Inflectional affixes.)

SUPERLATIVE is an inflectional marker of adjectives and adverbs, noted by *-est;* this inflection can be replaced in many cases with *most.*

SYLLABLES are structures consisting of one or more phonemes of which one is generally a vowel.

SYNTAX is an infrastructure of relationships, which is the relationship between one sentence constituent and another.

T

TENSE is the grammatical feature of verbs relating to time.

THIRD-PERSON SINGULAR marks the personal pronouns *he, she* and *it,* and the *-s* form of the verb.

TRANSITIVE VERBS require a following object. Generally, they are the only ones that can be transformed into the passive voice.

U

UMLAUT is a morphological process (internal modification) taking place in irregular nouns to extend grammatical meaning, producing different forms in the paradigm of the same word.

UNGRAMMATICAL WORDS OR STRUCTURES are those that do not conform to the *standard* of a particular language. Dialect usage is not necessarily ungrammatical if it follows the rules of native speakers.

V

VERBS are form class words having distinctions for the *base, third person singular,* and the *present participle.* Verbs also have past tense and participle forms that may not be distinctive.

VERB PHRASES (VP) are cohesive word groups focusing on a lexical verb.

VERBAL POSITION is reserved for words carrying out the function of the predicate.

VOCABULARY. See Lexicon.

VOICE is a syntactic construction indicating particular relationships between the subject and object of the verb.

W

WH-QUESTIONS are introduced by an interrogative, such as *who, which, when, where, why,* or *how,* that asks for information or content, in contrast to a yes/no question.

WORDS are free standing forms consisting of one or more morphemes of which one is a lexical base.

Y

YES/NO QUESTIONS are clauses or sentences not beginning with *wh*-inerrogative words.

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YES/NO QUESTIONS are clauses or sentences not beginning with *wh*- interrogative words.

INDEX