1.1 What is grammar?

To focus your study of language, you need to learn about grammar. You already know instinctively about the grammar of English: you read, speak and write English, only occasionally making mistakes. This section will move beyond your intuitive knowledge so that you can begin to talk about grammar in context.

Whether we speak or write, we must arrange our words in certain patterns if we are to be understood. An explicit knowledge of the patterns we use instinctively will help you to recognise usage that conforms to our expectations and usage that does not. By analysing the structure of words and sentences, linguists can begin to discuss what speakers or writers are trying to communicate and how they do so.

For linguists, grammar is a study of the organisation of language. It involves taking language structures apart in order to see the ways in which we can communicate effectively in a range of situations and for a range of purposes. Linguists look closely at the ways in which words and sentences are made up of different units. They break words down into their smallest component parts so that they can describe the ways in which they are constructed (morphology), and they look at the ways in which words are combined to create sentences (syntax). Both speakers and writers use grammatical patterns to organise what they wish to say or write. Although speech and writing are characterised by different grammatical structures, the basic process of analysis is the same. Linguists are interested in the structures of words and sentences in both spoken and written discourse (any continuous use of language which is longer than one sentence).

By studying grammar, you will learn to evaluate the flexibility and variety of both written and spoken language use. Grammatical knowledge can also make you a more effective writer because you will be more aware of what you can do in order to achieve certain effects.

For analysis, language is usually divided into different levels. Within each of these levels, there are certain rules and patterns describing how the elements can be combined and how they relate to the elements of other levels. Language is said to have a rank scale because the levels can be arranged hierarchically: a word is made up of groups of letters; a phrase is made up of groups of words; a clause is made up of groups of phrases; and a sentence is made up of groups of clauses.
1.2 Word classes

In order to be able to discuss the way words work together in a sentence, it is useful to be able to classify them. You are probably familiar with names like nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs and this section will aim to help you develop a more detailed knowledge of each of these word classes. A knowledge of word classes is useful because it allows linguists to look closely at the kinds of words speakers and writers choose and the effects they create.

There are two types of word class: open and closed.

- **Open-class words** New words can be added to nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs as they become necessary, developing language to match changes in the society around us. The computer age, for example, has introduced words like hardware, software, CD-ROM and spreadsheet; the 1980s introduced words like Rambo, Kissogram and wimp; the 1990s introduced words like babelicious, alcopop and e- verdict; and the twenty-first century words like blog, chav, sudsuke, bluetooth, chuggers (charity muggers), mediatrice (media dramatics) i.e. a story created from nothing), and doorstep (journalists catching celebrities on their doorstep to question them about incidents they would prefer not to discuss). Open-class words are often called **lexical words** and have a clearly definable meaning.

- **Closed-class words** New words are rarely added because pronouns (e.g. I, you, she, he, it, his, hers, ours), prepositions (e.g. in, up, down, over, under, round, of, at, in), determiners (e.g. the, a, this, some, many) and conjunctions (e.g. and, or, but, if, because) have a fixed, limited number of words. Closed-class words are often called **structural words, function words** or **grammatical words** because they enable us to build up language grammatically.

**Open-class words**

**Nouns**

Nouns (N) are traditionally known as naming words; they name people, places and things. You can test a word to see whether it is a noun:

- by trying to place 'the' in front of it ('the ___')
- by seeing whether it will fit into the structure 'do you know about ___?'

Although some words will not fit into these structures even though they are nouns, these tests provide a starting point.

Nouns can be divided in several ways.

**Common and proper nouns**

**Common nouns** classify things into types or general categories:

- car
- dog
- flower
- chair

**Proper nouns** refer to specific people and places and are usually written with an initial capital letter. They do not often appear after the determiners a or the.

- Steven Spielberg
- England
- Wales
- Robin Hood

**Concrete and abstract nouns**

**Concrete nouns** refer to physical things like people, objects and places, things that can be observed and measured:

- guitar
- table
- clothes

**Abstract nouns** refer to ideas, processes, occasions, times and qualities; they cannot be touched or seen:

- happiness
- week
- birth
- confinement

**Count and non-count nouns**

**Count nouns** can be counted and therefore have a plural form; they cannot be used after the determiner **much**:

- one lorry → two lorries
- one pen → two pens
- one cup → two cups

**Non-count nouns** refer to substances and qualities that cannot be counted. They have no plural form and cannot follow the determiner **a**; many of them can be used after quantity words such as some, any, all or much:

- silver
- information
- hockey
- traffic

Some nouns are both count and non-count:

- joy (non-count)
- the joys of spring (count)
- water (non-count)
- still waters run deep (count)

**Plurals**

In written language, regular nouns add -s to mark the plural. Many nouns, however, are irregular and therefore follow alternative patterns.

- **Nouns ending in -y** form their plurals by changing the -y into -ies:
  - story → stories
  - penny → pennies

- **Nouns ending in -o, -s, -sh, -ss, -tch and -x** often form plurals by adding -es:
  - mistness → mistresses
  - box → boxes
  - flash → flashes

- **Nouns ending in -f (except -ff) or -fe** change to -ves in the plural:
  - hoof → hooves
  - (or sometimes hooves)

- **Some nouns form a plural by changing a vowel or using a suffix other than -s**:
  - mouse → mice
  - tooth → teeth
  - ox → oxen
  - child → children

- **Some nouns are the same in the singular and the plural**:
  - sheep
  - fish
  (or sometimes fishes)

**Collective nouns**, although singular in form, refer to groups of people, animals and things:

- crowd
- family
- committee

**Possessives**

In written language, 's or ' is added to the noun to mark possession. The following rules govern use of the **possessive ending** in written English.
Add an apostrophe and an 's' to singular nouns to form the possessive:
- a baby's bottle
- an engine's design

Add an apostrophe to regular plurals:
- the car's colours
- the pictures' frames

Add an apostrophe and an 's' to irregular plurals:
- the children's games
- the oxen's strength

Singular nouns ending in 's' usually add an apostrophe and an 's:
- Dylan Thomas's poetry
- King Louis's throne

**The overall classification**

For purposes of analysis, it is useful to see the relationship between these subcategories of the open word class 'nouns'. The diagram in Figure 1.1 summarises the ways in which nouns can be classified.

**Figure 1.1 The classification of nouns**

![Diagram showing the classification of nouns]

**ACTIVITY 1.1**

1. Read through the extract below and list all the nouns.

   *Monday December 24th
   *December 1984
   *CHRISTMAS EVE*

   Something strange has happened to Christmas. It's just not the same as it used to be when I was a kid. In fact, I've never really got over the trauma of finding out that my parents had been lying to me annually about the existence of Santa Claus.

   To me then, at the age of eleven, Santa Claus was a bit like God, all-seeing, all-knowing, but without the lovely things that God allows to happen: earthquakes, famines, motorway crashes. I would lie in bed under the blankets (how crude the word blankets sounds today when we are all conversant with the CG rating of continental quilts), my heart pounding and palms sweaty in anticipation of the virgin Beano album.

   Sue Townsend, True Confessions of Adrian Albert Mole

2. Classify the following nouns, deciding whether they are proper or common nouns, concrete or abstract:
   - a) parents
   - b) Christmas
   - c) existence
   - d) quilt
   - e) Beano
   - f) heart
   - g) Santa Claus
   - h) trauma

   *Answers on page 605*

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**Adjectives**

Adjectives (Adj) are traditionally known as describing words. They provide extra information about nouns by giving details of physical qualities like colour and shape, and of psychological qualities like emotions; and by providing evaluative judgements:
- some green leaves
- a heavy sack
- a funny film
- a good story
- a foolish excuse

Adjectives specify a noun's FIELD OF REFERENCE: that is, they narrow the range of meaning by providing us with specific detail. You can test a word to see whether it is an adjective:
- by placing it between the and a noun
- by placing very before it
- the old tree
- very sad

Adjectives have the following characteristics.

**Position in relation to nouns**

Adjectives can be used in two positions: before a noun (ATTRIBUTIVE ADJECTIVES), and after the verb to be and other COPULA VERBS (or COPULAR VERBS) or LINKING VERBS such as to become and to seem (PREDICATIVE ADJECTIVES):
- **Attributive**
  - the large balloon
  - a pure white stallion
- **Predicative**
  - the balloon is large
  - the essay was very good

**Grading**

Adjectives can be GRADED so that nouns can be compared:
- a big car
- a bigger car
- the biggest car

Monosyllabic and disyllabic adjectives form the COMPARATIVE by adding -er and the SUPERLATIVE by adding -est:
- long
- longer
- longest
- sad
- sadder
- saddest
- happy
- happier
- happiest
- clever
- cleverer
- cleverest

Polyisyllabic and some disyllabic adjectives form the COMPARATIVE by using more and the SUPERLATIVE by using most before the adjective:
- more fortunate
- most fortunate
- more grateful
- most grateful

**Irregularity**

Some adjectives are IRREGULAR, as the following patterns show:
- bad
- worse
- worst
- good
- better
- best

**Words from other word classes**

Sometimes words from other word classes do the job of an adjective:
- the running boy (V)
- the garden wall (N)

In these examples, a noun and a verb give extra details about the nouns boy and wall. The verb running and the noun garden are not adjectives, even though they
occur in the same position as an adjective and are describing the boy and the wall. Linguists call any word that describes a noun a **MODIFIER**: this takes account of the fact that not all words used will be from the adjective word class.

**ACTIVITY 1.2**

1. Read the following extract and underline all the modifiers.

   The gloomy day became a glorious evening as the ancient crimson sun dropped to the far horizon. As it began to sink lower and lower, the sea became redder and redder. It was calm, the calmest sea I'd seen for a long time, and the tiny waves rolled to the seaweed-edged shoreline. I walked to the glowing dunes and sat and watched the flying gulls dip and glide as they searched for food left by the careless tourists, both young and old. I closed my eyes and listened to the harsh sounds of the gulls as they fought for rotting scraps. The beauty of the evening contrasted with my solemn mood. I was lonely, sad and despairing because my customary companion, my large golden dog, had disappeared and there now seemed little hope of his return.

2. Try to categorise the modifiers under the following headings:
   a. descriptive adjectives
   b. size or distance adjectives
   c. age adjectives
   d. colour adjectives
   e. comparative and superlative adjectives
   f. noun or verb modifiers.

**Verbs**

**Verbs** (V) are traditionally known as doing words, but this does not cover all their possible meanings. A more accurate definition would be that verbs can express actions and states. **STATIVE verbs** express states of being or processes in which there is no obvious action; they are not often used as commands and do not usually occur after the verb to be with an -ing ending:

   - to know
   - to believe
   - to remember
   - to realise
   - to suppose
   - to appear

**DYNAMIC verbs** express a wide range of actions which may be physical, like jump; mental, like think; or perceptual, like see. They can be used as commands and occur after the verb to be with an -ing ending:

   - to buy
   - to buy
   - to buy

**TRANSITIVE verbs** must be followed by an OBJECT (the person or thing to which the action of the verb is done) to complete their meaning:

   I carried the baby. They found the lost ring. We can make a Christmas cake.

**INTRANSITIVE verbs** do not need to be followed by an object to make sense. Many verbs describing position (to sit, to lie) and motion (to run, to go) are intransitive – the verb will often be followed by a description of place or destination:

   It happened. They children laughed. The girl went to the cinema.

It is important to realise that many verbs can be both transitive and intransitive.

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You can test to see whether a word is a verb:

- by adding an -ing ending
- by placing it after I or we

Verbs have the following characteristics.

**Regular verbs**

Regular verbs have four forms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example (base form)</th>
<th>Infinitive (to + base form)</th>
<th>Third person singular present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
<th>Past participle (past part)</th>
<th>Present participle (pres part)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>walk</td>
<td>to walk</td>
<td>walked</td>
<td>walked</td>
<td>have walked</td>
<td>walking</td>
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<tr>
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<td>showed</td>
<td>have shown</td>
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<td>have shown</td>
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<tr>
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<td>to write</td>
<td>wrote</td>
<td>have written</td>
<td>writing</td>
<td>have written</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>give</td>
<td>to give</td>
<td>gave</td>
<td>have given</td>
<td>giving</td>
<td>have given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>put</td>
<td>to put</td>
<td>put</td>
<td>have put</td>
<td>putting</td>
<td>have put</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Irregular verbs**

Irregular verbs often have five forms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example (base form)</th>
<th>Infinitive (to + base form)</th>
<th>Third person singular present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
<th>Past participle (past part)</th>
<th>Present participle (pres part)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>show</td>
<td>to show</td>
<td>showed</td>
<td>have shown</td>
<td>showing</td>
<td>have shown</td>
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<tr>
<td>write</td>
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<td>to put</td>
<td>put</td>
<td>have put</td>
<td>putting</td>
<td>have put</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Types of verbs**

There are two main types of verbs: lexical and auxiliary. **LEXICAL verbs** (lex) express the **meaning** in a verb phrase:

   the boy ran to school
   the dog jumped and frisked

**AUXILIARY verbs** (aux) can be used to construct different tenses, questions and negatives, to add emphasis or to give information about the mood or attitude of a speaker or writer. The **PRIMARY verbs (PRIM)** to be, to have, and to do can act as auxiliaries:

   I have gone. The girl has swum. Do you want to go to the cinema?
   I did not watch television. The baby does want food.

The **MODAL verbs** (mod) can/could, may/might, must/shall/should and will/would convey a range of attitudes and moods about the likelihood of an event taking place:

- Ability
  - I can swim.
- Intention
  - You will do as you are told.
- Necessity/obligation
  - You must do as you are told.
- Permission
  - Can I leave the classroom, please? May I leave the room?
- Prediction
  - He will come today, I'm sure. I shall finish tonight.
- Possibility
  - I can go. I may go.
Past and present tenses

There are two TENSES in English: the present and the past. The PRESENT TENSE has two forms: the BASE FORM (a verb which has no ending or vowel change) is used with I, you, we and they; while for he, she and it, an -s/-es ending is added to the base form.

I live at home. They enjoy going to the cinema. He lives in town. She enjoys going to the theatre.

The present tense can be used to describe states of affairs and events that occur on a regular basis. It is also used in spontaneous sports commentaries, proverbs and sayings.

I know about dinosaurs. He goes to work by bus.
And he takes the ball and runs down the wing towards the goal. He cuts in field, shoots and scores — the game is over, the champions win the day!
A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush. A stitch in time saves nine.

The PAST TENSE for regular verbs has only one form: in most cases, -ed is added to the base form of the verb. It refers to actions and states that took place in the past; it is sometimes used to record indirect or reported speech and it can be used to refer to something that is supposed to be happening.

I loved my primary school. We missed the bus for school.
He said that the girl stayed for tea. She replied that they played happily.
If I walked faster, perhaps I could win. It is time you all went home.

Many verbs are irregular and do not form the past tense by adding -ed. You use these irregular verbs in your speech and writing automatically, but you now need to become more conscious of their forms.

be → I was; we were
become → became
begin → began
freeze → froze
hear → heard
catch → caught
swim → swam
hit → hit
spell → spelled
(deleted)

Future time

In order to create a sense of FUTURE TIME, English can use a range of structures.

1 The simple present:
   I leave tomorrow. She starts next week.

2 The modal verbs shall or will + base form verb:
   I shall go to town later. They will go on holiday soon.

3 Be going + infinitive:
   I am going to visit France next year. We are going to travel by train.

4 To be + present participle:
   My friend is coming to tea tomorrow night. They are moving to Australia next year.

5 Will or shall + be + present participle:
   I shall be writing again next week. We will be waiting for you.

Aspect

ASPECT describes the timescale of a verb — it establishes whether the action or state of a verb is complete or in progress. There are two types of aspect: the perfect (or perfective) and the progressive. The PERFECT ASPECT is constructed using the auxiliary HAVE + past participle. The PRESENT PERFECT (has or have + past participle) is used for any action continuing in the present or having relevance in the present.

We have eaten in this restaurant for years. We still do.
The PAST PERFECT (had + past participle) describes a previous time in the past.
The building had decayed years ago.

The PROGRESSIVE ASPECT is constructed using the auxiliary BE + present participle or the auxiliaries HAVE + BE + present participle. The progressive aspect implies that an activity is ongoing and is probably not complete.

- Present progressive
  - The boys are playing football.
  - Past progressive
  - The ladies were playing tennis.
  - Present perfect progressive
  - The lions have been roaring all day.
  - Past perfect progressive
  - The weeds had been growing throughout the summer.

Voice

The action of a verb and the person(s) or thing(s) responsible for it can be conveyed in two ways using VOICE: the active voice and the passive voice.

The ACTIVE VOICE is more common: it expresses the action of the verb, directly linking it to the person or thing carrying out the action.

The car stopped suddenly. The girl picked up a book.

The PASSIVE VOICE changes the focus of the sentence by reordering the elements. The basic structure of the passive is as follows:

1 the subject or actor of the active sentence (the person or thing doing the verb) is moved to the end of the passive sentence and becomes the optional passive agent (i.e. by + subject of active sentence)
2 the object of the active sentence (the person or thing receiving the action of the verb) is moved to the front of the passive sentence and becomes the subject
3 the active verb is replaced by a verb in the passive form: to be + past participle or have + to be + past participle.

Active: The police hit the rioter.
Passive: The rioter was hit [by the police].
Active: The young child threw the ball and broke the window.
Passive: The ball was thrown and the window was broken [by the child].
Because the passive voice allows us to take the subject from the front of the sentence and replace it with something that is not the actor, we are able to change the focus of the active sentence. The passive is used for a variety of reasons:

1. Using by + actor, the subject can be delayed to the end of the sentence; this can create suspense:
   
   The murder was committed by the infamous Mr Smith.

2. If the actor is a long phrase that seems awkward at the start of the sentence, it can be placed at the end for fluency:
   
   A tremendous meal was prepared by the cooks and waiters at the local hotel who trained at the college.

3. By omitting the by + actor, it is possible to exclude the person or thing responsible for the action of the verb:
   
   Despite the explosion, nuclear power was reported by the government to be quite safe.

**Finite and non-finite verbs**

Verbs can be classified into two main types: finite and non-finite. Finite verbs change their form to show contrasts of number, tense and person. Non-finite verbs never change their form.

- **Finite verbs**
  - She lives in Europe; she previously lived in America.
  - He eats; they eat; I am; you are (contrast of tense)
  - He is living; he was living; he lives; he has lived; he is about to live; he will live (contrast of number/person)

- **Non-finite verbs**
  - (to) live (ing participle)
  - Live (past participle) (ed past participle)
  - (base form of the verb) (the infinitive)

It is important to recognize the difference between the past tense and the past participle of regular verbs since both have an -ed ending. The past tense is finite because it is showing a change of tense; usually the past participle follows an auxiliary and does not change its form.

**Activity 1.3**

Complete the following exercises to test your knowledge of verbs.

1. Underline the verbs and decide whether each is a lexical or an auxiliary verb.
   - She had gone to town.
   - They had a picnic in the country.
   - Did you like the concert?

2. List the verbs in the following sentences and decide whether each is finite or non-finite. Then use the diagram in Figure 1.2 to describe their forms exactly.

   The boy runs to school.
   - Runs: finite; present tense; third person; singular.
   - The eagles flapped their wings.
   - She laughs at herself.
   - You have gone mad.
   - I carried the child away.

   a. What has been happening?
   b. Does he know?
   c. The frog was croaking loudly.
   d. We chased the intruder.
   e. You have been silly.

3. Rewrite the following active sentences in the passive voice, including the passive agent:
   - The strong waves lifted the boat above the dangerous sandbank.
   - The monks rang the bells to warn the surrounding villagers of the impending danger.
   - After the disturbance, the police shut the pub.

4. Rewrite the following active sentences in the passive, omitting the passive agent. Comment on the effect created in each case.
   - The guards beat the prisoners.
   - The bully left the child face down in the playground.
   - The scientists discovered the way to split the atom and created the first atom bomb.

Answers on page 605

**Activity 1.4**

Read the passage below and answer the questions that follow it.

**Wednesday December 26th **

**BOXING DAY**

I was woken at dawn by the sound of Grandad Sugden's rusty Ford Escort refusing to start. I know I should have gone down into the street and helped to push it but Grandma Sugden seemed to be doing all right on her own. It must be all those years of flinging sacks of potatoes about. My parents were wisely pretending to be asleep...

Went back to sleep but the dog licked me awake at 9.30, so I took it for a walk past Pandora's house. Her dad's Volvo wasn't in the drive so they must still be staying with their rich relations. On the way I passed Barry Kent, who was kicking a football up against the wall of the old people's home. He seemed full of seasonal goodwill for once and I stopped to talk with him. He asked what I'd had for Christmas...

*Sue Townsend, True Confessions of Adrian Mole, Aged 13 3/4*
Underline all the verbs in the extract.

Find examples of the following:

- two lexical verbs
- two stative verbs
- two dynamic verbs
- two primary auxiliary verbs
- two modal auxiliary verbs.

Find an example of the passive voice and rewrite the sentence in the active voice.

Find one example of the progressive aspect and one of the perfective aspect.

Find one example of the present tense and one of the past tense.

Find two examples of a finite verb and two examples of a non-finite verb.

Adverbs (Adv) are modifying words. They give information about time, place and manner, and can express a speaker’s attitude to or evaluation of what is being said. They can modify:

- verbs
- adjectives
- other adverbs
- sentences

Circumstance adverbs (or adjuncts) modify verbs, giving details of circumstances such as time, manner and place:

- manner
- time
- frequency
- place

- To test for an adverb of manner, ask yourself the question ‘how?’
- To test for an adverb of time, ask yourself the question ‘when?’
- To test for an adverb of frequency, ask yourself the question ‘how often?’
- To test for an adverb of place, ask yourself the question ‘where?’

Degree adverbs (or modifiers) modify adjectives or adverbs:

- Degree
- To test for an adverb of degree, ask yourself the question ‘to what degree?’

Sentence adverbs (disjuncts and conjunctions) modify a whole sentence.

Disjuncts express speakers’ or writers’ attitudes, allowing them to comment on what is being said or written; conjunctions can be used to link sentences.

- Linking
- Attitude

Adverbs have the following characteristics.

Forming adverbs

Many adverbs are formed by adding -ly to adjectives:

- calm (Adj) → calmly (Adv)
- shabby (Adj) → shabbily (Adv)
- gentle (Adj) → gently (Adv)

Comparatives and superlatives

Like adjectives, adverbs can have comparative and superlative forms. Although some can take the -er and -est endings, most require the use of more and most:

- early → earlier → earliest
- loudly → more loudly → most loudly
- crucially → more crucially → most crucially

Irregular adverbs

Some adverbs are irregular:

- badly → worse → worst
- little → less → least
- much → more → most
- well → better → best

Position

There are three main positions for adverbs.

1. The front of the sentence:
   - Actually, I have loved this place for a long time.
2. The middle of a sentence — after the first auxiliary, after the verb to be as a lexical verb, or before the lexical verb:
   - I have actually loved this place for a long time.
   - I am actually in love with this place.
3. The end of the sentence:
   - I actually loved the place.

Distinguishing between adjectives and adverbs

Sometimes the same word can be both an adjective and an adverb. In order to distinguish between them, it is important to look at the context of the word and its function in a sentence.

- The fast train from London to Cardiff leaves at three o’clock.
- I sprinted hard. The sprinter took the bent path.
- The bed was hard and gave me a bad night’s sleep.

In the first and third sentences, the words fast and hard modify nouns. The first is an attributive adjective, coming before the noun it modifies; the second is a predicative adjective, coming after the verb to be. In the second and fourth sentences, the words fast and hard modify verbs. These are both circumstance adverbs which are in the end position.
 ACTIVITY 1.5

Underline the adverbs in the following passage and identify them as:
1. circumstance adverbs
2. degree adverbs
3. sentence adverbs.

The sun shone brightly there on that crisp December morning. Nevertheless, I could not help feeling that the day would not go well. Again and again, I was aware of the completely isolated nature of the spot here and anxiously I waited for the others to arrive. I knew I was being really silly, but generally my intuitions were correct. I had found recently that things happened as I knew they would. It made me very suspicious and often I would look around warily. Sometimes, however, I was wrong and I hoped desperately that I was being overly-sensitive at this time. I tried to relax and to think about something else. What would take my mind off my premonitions? Perhaps the beauty of the day could make me forget. Actually, I was here on holiday and I had to make sure that I enjoyed my stay properly. *Answers on page 606*

Closed-class words

Pronouns

PRONOUNS (pron) are used instead of nouns, noun phrases or noun clauses. There are seven main types of pronouns.

Personal pronouns

SUBJECT PRONOUNS are used for the actor of the sentence:
- first person singular I
- second person singular you
- third person singular he, she, it

The next-door neighbour visited today. She was in a good mood.

Children should always be seen and not heard. You should be seen and not heard.

When a pronoun replaces the noun that receives the action of the verb (object), an OBJECT PRONOUN is used:
- first person singular me
- second person singular you
- third person singular him, her, it

The people carried their parcels indoors. The people carried *them* indoors.

Give your brother the book. Give *him* the book.

Possessive pronouns

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS are used when you need to show possession of something:
- first person singular mine
- second person singular yours
- third person singular theirs

It is my book. It is mine.

We think it is our choice. We think it is ours.

They told us that it was their taxi. They told us it was *theirs*.

Reflexive pronouns

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS are used when the same person is the actor (subject) and receiver of the action (object) in a sentence. They can also be used to create emphasis:
- first person singular *myself*
- first person plural *ourselves*
- second person singular *yourself*
- second person plural *yourselves*
- third person singular *himself/herself/

You should wash yourself carefully.

You yourself know how dangerous it is.

He said he saw her worry herself unnecessarily.

Demonstrative pronouns

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS are used to ‘point’ to the relationship between the speaker and a person or a thing. They are said to have a ‘deictic’ function. There are four demonstrative pronouns:
- this and these point to something that is close to the speaker
- that and those point to something that is distant from the speaker.

I like the apples. I like these. The lady over there is my aunt. That is my aunt.

Interrogative or question pronouns

INTERROGATIVE or QUESTION PRONOUNS are used to ask questions. There are five types: what, which, who, whom and whose.

Who can come?

What do you think the time is?

To whom did you address your letter?

Relative pronouns

RELATIVE PRONOUNS follow directly the nouns they describe. They introduce relative clauses, although sometimes the pronoun itself is omitted. There are five forms: that, which, who, whom and whose.

The man who has white hair lives close to me.

I went to the library to return the book that you got out for me.

I saw a car which drove the wrong way down a one-way street.

Indefinite pronouns

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS have a less certain reference point than the other pronouns listed here. There are two types:
- of pronouns: all of, both of, each of, either of, neither of and some of are followed by a noun, an object pronoun, or a relative pronoun:

I want all of the books. I want all of them.

I will buy a shirt and a jacket, both of which must be very colourful.
Compound pronouns: every, some-, any-, and no- + -thing, -one, and -body.

They don't want dinner. They don't want anything.
We live near no other people. We live near nobody.

Activity 1.6

List the pronouns in the following passage and identify them as:
1. personal pronouns
2. possessive pronouns
3. reflexive pronouns
4. demonstrative pronouns
5. interrogative pronouns
6. relative pronouns
7. indefinite pronouns.

We enjoyed our days at the beach that summer. It had been glorious weather and everyone had relished the warmth and light after the harshness of a long winter which had seemed endless. Some ran the length of the sand to the sea; some lay peacefully on their towels. I decided to paddle and covered myself in suntan lotion before wading lazily to the sea which shimmered before me. Why was it not like this all the time? Everything seemed perfect. The day was ours to do with as we wished. As I turned back to the beach, a small boy sat on my towel.

'Get off,' I shouted. 'That is mine.' He stood up suddenly and shouted something. Who could he be talking to? Then I saw the girl a short distance away. He had clearly thought the towel was hers.

I lay back down and closed my eyes to think of the girl that I had met earlier in the day. What was she doing now? I wondered? I still had her book and I would have to return it to her.

Determiners

Determiners (det) precede nouns. There are five main types.

Articles

Articles can be definite (the) or indefinite (a or an). The former specifies something particular, while the latter does not:

- the dog
- a dog
- the house
- a house

Possessive determiners

Possessive determiners are used to suggest ownership of a noun. There are seven forms: my, your, his, her, its, our and their.

- my book
- our suitcases
- their motives

Demonstrative determiners

Demonstrative determiners express a contrast, establishing either a close or a more distant relationship.

- This week is going slowly.
- The shop assistant said that she wanted these things kept aside for her.

Indefinite determiners

Indefinite determiners convey a range of meanings. The most common ones are: all, some, any and no; every, each, either, neither, one and another; both, several and enough; many, more, most, little, fewer, less, fewest and least.

- Some grapes would be nice.
- Every adult must take some responsibility.
- Several children are expected today.
- More chocolate, anybody?

Numbers

When numbers precede nouns, they are functioning as determiners. Both cardinal numbers (one, two, three, and so on) and ordinal numbers (first, second, third, and so on) can be used as determiners.

- First place goes to Jack.
- Six sheep have escaped from the farm.

Distinguishing between pronouns and determiners

Because there is a considerable overlap between pronouns and determiners, it is important to look closely at the context to distinguish between the two. A determiner precedes a noun, while a pronoun replaces a noun, noun phrase or noun clause.

- That book is worth reading.
- That is worth reading.

- Both children are really hard workers.
- Both are really hard workers.

Activity 1.7

List the determiners in the following passage and try to classify them under the headings below:
1. articles: definite and indefinite
2. possessive determiners
3. demonstrative determiners
4. indefinite determiners
5. numbers.

The old lady reached the doorstep of her home and put her bag down to search for a key in her pocket. This search was always the worst part of any trip out. However hard she tried, she could never find either key - she always carried one key for the front door and one key for the back door in case of emergencies. On many occasions she had been sure that both keys were lost. But this was an exception.

She skillfully slotted one key into the lock and turned it carefully. In two minutes she was indoors, but for the second time that day, she drew her breath sharply. Every day recently she had had some visitors, but enough was enough. There was more mess than even she could bear and for the rest of that day, she concentrated on making her home her own again.

Prepositions

Prepositions (prep) describe relationships that exist between elements in sentences. They convey the following relationships:

Answers on page 607
ACTIVITY 1.8

Decide whether the words underlined below are prepositions or particles.

1. Steven threw the rubbish.
2. Judith ran into the bedroom.
3. The plot flew out of the local airport.
4. Will you carry on preparing the meal?
5. The warship slipped gently towards the defensive wall.
6. The car broke down at the traffic lights.
7. The plane rose high above me, but I could still remember the moment of take-off.
8. It’s difficult to be a single-parent family and to bring up two children alone.
9. I turned to my companion and we went down the stairs.
10. They cleared out the attic ready for moving-day.

ACTIVITY 1.9

Read through the passage below and choose an appropriate conjunction to fill each of the gaps in the text. Identify the type of conjunction used in each case.

_1_ the doctor hurried from one bed to another, the nurses went about their tasks calmly. They had beds to make ___2_ medicine to allocate, ___3_ it was all part of the daily routine. ___4_ they were accustomed to being shorthanded, they found ways to divide the tasks. ___5_ they were busy, things went quite smoothly.

The ward was full at the moment ___6_ all knew that there were at least two patients waiting for admission. It always seemed to happen these days ___7_ a bed was vacated, it was stripped and filled within half an hour. ___8_ the nurses looked, they saw the need for more beds, more facilities and above all, more nurses. ___9_ they had to cope with the cuts, they had to think only of the job in hand. It was not worth wasting energy on bewailing the conditions in which they had to work. ___10_ they needed all their strength to cope with their long shifts. It was better ___11_ working on a production line, surely!

Answers on page 607

Conjunctions

CONJUNCTIONS (conj) are joining words, and there are two types.

Co-ordinating Conjunctions

Co-ordinating Conjunctions (and, but, or, neither ... nor and either ... or) link lexical units of equal value.

The girl and the boy.

The dog was gentle and friendly.

Subordinating Conjunctions

Subordinating Conjunctions join a subordinate clause to a main clause. They often give information on when, where, why, if or how an action takes place. A clause introduced by a subordinating conjunction cannot stand alone.

1.3 The structure of words: morphology

A knowledge of morphology will be useful when you study the history of language.

Etymology (the study of the origin of words) and Phonology (the study of the sounds of a language). Morphology is the study of morphemes, the smallest units of grammar.

Free and bound morphemes

There are two kinds of morphemes: free morphemes and bound morphemes. A free morpheme can stand alone and is understandable in isolation:

boy (N) happy (Adj) run (V)
A bound morpheme cannot occur alone:

- ly, un-, -ish

These bound morphemes are also called affixes, and can occur at the beginning or at the end of a free morpheme.

**Prefixes**

A *prefix* precedes a free morpheme:

- unkind, dislike

**Suffixes**

A *suffix* follows a free morpheme:

- kindness, hearing

Words can have multiple suffixes (un + like + ly + hood).

**Activity 1.10**

Divide the words below into bound and free morphemes, bearing in mind that the addition of suffixes sometimes changes the spelling of free morphemes:

1. unjustifiable
2. summative
3. midnight
4. daily

Answers on page 607

**Derivational and inflectional morphology**

Bound morphemes are used in two distinctive ways: they can be used to create new words (derivational morphology) or to change the form of words (inflectional morphology).

**Derivational morphology**

Words can be created by using prefixes, suffixes, or both:

- un-, pre-, anti- (prefixes)
- ly, -ish (suffixes)
- un-, pre-, anti- (prefixes)
- -ly, -ish (suffixes)

Although it is always important to look closely at words in context, it is still possible to make some generalisations about the words created by prefixation, suffi xation and affixation.

**Prefixes**

Prefixes alter the meaning of a word, but they do not always change the word class:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Word class of free morpheme</th>
<th>Word class of created word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hyper-</td>
<td>tension (N)</td>
<td>hyperextension (N)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bre-</td>
<td>devil (N)</td>
<td>bastard (V)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cre-</td>
<td>style (V)</td>
<td>chaste (V)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Suffixes**

Suffixes usually, but not always, change the class of the free morpheme to which they are attached:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word class of free morpheme</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Word class of created word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>exploit (V)</td>
<td>-tion</td>
<td>exploitation (N)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>joy (N)</td>
<td>-ful</td>
<td>joyful (A)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trend (N)</td>
<td>-ing</td>
<td>trendiness (N)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Suffixes associated with nouns**

Words ending with the bound morphemes -acy, -ation, -er-or, -ess, -ity, -ment, -ness and -ship are usually nouns:

- gymnastics, similarity, jailing, compartment, writer
- sickness, conductivity, relationship, poetess

**Suffixes associated with adjectives**

Words with suffixes like -able, -ful, -ical, -less, -like, -ous and -y are usually adjectives:

- a profitable account, an animal-like noise, a gloomy day
- a courageous child, a theatrical show, a godless society

**Suffixes associated with verbs**

Words with the suffixes -ise or -ize are usually verbs:

- dramatising, democratise

**Suffixes associated with adverbs**

Words with the suffix -ly are usually adverbs:

- the bus moved off slowly, the dog ate eagerly

**Words formed from two free morphemes**

Words can also be formed by the *compounding* (adding together) of two free morphemes:

- duty + free → duty-free
- sign + post → signpost

**Activity 1.11**

Add appropriate bound morphemes to the underlined words in order to derive new words.
Inflectional morphology

Open-class words can be altered by adding a suffix. However, while derivational morphology often involves a change in word class, inflectional morphology never does.

In written English, inflection can mark the following.

Plurals

The plural of nouns:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Free morpheme</th>
<th>Bound morpheme</th>
<th>Inflected word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cat</td>
<td>-s</td>
<td>cats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>book</td>
<td>-s</td>
<td>books</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gas</td>
<td>-s</td>
<td>gases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>penny</td>
<td>-s</td>
<td>pennies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Possessives

The possessive of all nouns:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Free morpheme</th>
<th>Bound morpheme</th>
<th>Inflected word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>girl</td>
<td>'s</td>
<td>the girl's jumper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>children</td>
<td>'s</td>
<td>the children's toys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adults</td>
<td>'s</td>
<td>the adults' books</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Present tense

The present tense of regular third person singular verbs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Free morpheme</th>
<th>Bound morpheme</th>
<th>Inflected word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>run</td>
<td>-s</td>
<td>he runs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cry</td>
<td>-s</td>
<td>the baby cries</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Present participle

The present participle form of verbs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Free morpheme</th>
<th>Bound morpheme</th>
<th>Inflected word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>do</td>
<td>-ing</td>
<td>doing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>justify</td>
<td>-ing</td>
<td>justifying</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Past tense and past participle

The past tense and past participle of regular verbs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Free morpheme</th>
<th>Bound morpheme</th>
<th>Inflected word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>walk</td>
<td>-ed</td>
<td>walked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dress</td>
<td>-ed</td>
<td>dressed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Activity 1.12

List the suffixes in the examples below and try to identify the kind of inflection used in each case:

1. sailors
   a. the girls' bags
   b. the dog's bone
   c. the tiger snarls

Activity 1.13

For each of the examples below, list the free and bound morphemes and then identify:

a. the word class of each example
b. the word class of each free morpheme
c. whether derivational or inflectional morphemes have been used.

d. Free morpheme = more (Adj); bound morpheme = -er; derivational morphology (change of word class: words ending with the suffix -ly are nouns).
e. Free morpheme = lives (V); bound morpheme = -s; inflectional morphology (inflection marking a third person singular present tense verb).

1. greatness
   2. intercessor
   3. institutionalise

4. multiplex
   5. logical
   6. reassesses

7. declaration
   8. predetermination
   9. delimited

10. horrifying

1.4 Function and form

It is important to look at more than just the word class of a word, because the same word can perform quite different jobs in a sentence.

(a) At seven o'clock, the man will light the bonfire.
(b) When I was cleaning, the light fell on the floor and broke.
(c) The room is very light.

In each of these sentences, the appearance of the word light is identical, but the job the word does is different. In example (a), light is a lexical verb preceded by a modal auxiliary will; in example (b), it is a noun preceded by the determiner the; in example (c), it is a predicative adjective following the copula verb is.
Linguists analyse words in terms of both their **form** (the word class) and their **function** (the job they fulfil). By describing words in this way, linguistic analysis can be very precise—it allows linguists to focus specifically on the words chosen and the roles they play in the sentences created by different writers and speakers.

(a) a costumed concert performance
(b) the award-winning dramatisation of the novel by Roald Dahl
(c) one of the biggest floating book shops in the world

Each of the words in italic print is a verb in form, although each is functioning as a modifier. In examples (a) and (b) the verb modifiers _costumed_ and _award-winning_ help the promoters to convey the nature of the event concisely. In example (c), the verb modifier _floating_ is dramatic because it is followed by the nouns _book shops_. It makes an effective advertisement for the ship's book shop because these are not words we are accustomed to seeing together—they attract attention because of the novelty of their juxtaposition.

When linguists analyse _phrases_ (groups of words), an awareness of function and form is important because it enables them to describe exactly what words are doing and how particular effects are created. Generative or phrase structure grammar is based on the principle that there is a series of structural rules that govern grammatical sequences of language. These rules dictate the transformations or movements of syntactic components that can be made within a grammatically well formed sentence. They establish the general principles and relationships that exist in language. While this book describes the processes underpinning transformational generative grammar, it adopts a slightly different approach to phrase analysis. It focuses on both the identification of each different phrase as a discrete linguistic unit (form) and on the recognition of the head of the phrase each fulfils in the sentence as a whole (function).

There are three key terms that describe the function of words in a phrase: the **head word** (h) is the main word, words that come before the head word and that modify or change it in some way are called **pre-modifiers** (m); and words that provide extra information after the head word are called **post-modifiers** or **qualifiers** (q). Using these terms, it is possible to describe the function of individual words in a phrase exactly.

### 1.5 Phrases

A **phrase** is a single word or a group of words that act together as a unit but that do not usually contain a finite verb.

#### Noun phrases

A **noun phrase** (NP) usually begins with a determiner and normally has a **noun** as its most important word. It can act as a **subject**, and as an **object** or a **complement** in a clause (see Section 1.6). Noun phrases have the following characteristics.

Nouns and pronouns as head words

The **head word** or main word of a noun phrase is usually a **noun**, but it can be a **pronoun**.

- *The bird is crawling over the grass.*  
  *It* is crawling over it.

Adjectives as head words

Sometimes an adjective can function as the head word of a noun phrase.

- *The old cafe got a new deal.*

Constituents of a noun phrase

A noun phrase can be made up of either a single **noun** or a **noun phrase** with one or more **pre-modifiers** and **post-modifiers** or **qualifiers**.

- *Dogs eat bones.*  
  *The girls are picking the flowers.*  
  *The beautiful sky of blue rose above the glistening seas of green.*

Pre-modification

Pre-modification can take the following forms:

- **Pre-determiners** or **determiners** of **head**
- **Pre-modifiers** or **modifiers** of **determiners**
- **Pre-modifiers** or **modifiers** of **numerals** (num), **adjectives**, **noun or verb modifiers**
- **Pre-modifiers** or **modifiers** of **all the first long distance runners**
- **Pre-modifiers** or **modifiers** of **some of those four young school girls**

Post-modification

Post-modification or **qualification** can take the following forms.

#### Prepositional phrases

A **prepositional phrase** (PreP) will always begin with a preposition.

- *the bit of the floor*
Non-finite clauses
A non-finite clause (NFC) will always begin with a non-finite verb (see Section 1.6).

m. the baby chewing his rattle
   h. the time to go home
   m. a man called Jack
   h. a NFC
   m. a NFC

Relative clauses
A relative clause (RelCI) will usually begin with a relative pronoun (see Section 1.6).

m. a NFC
   h. the baby who was chewing his rattle
   m. a NFC

ACTIVITY 1.14
Read the following passage, then list all the noun phrases and try to identify:

1. the head word of each noun phrase
2. the kind of modification (pre- or post-) used.

The first summer's day burst through my curtains unexpectedly. The new dawn's sunlight highlighted the paths of dust which lay on the ancient sea chest. The scratches paid tribute to a life of hardship and I couldn't help wondering about the interesting stories which were linked to the marks. The shadowed man who had owned this chest could tell their own versions of events, but I would never know them.

I turned lazily towards the wall, but I was merely met by another worn-out mark of the past. This time, I was confronted by the faded rose wallpaper. The memory of another place slowly filtered through my hazy mind, forcing me to make connections. I remembered that first disturbing visit to the ruined cottage and its ongoing effects. This second historical link waiting for me, unexpectedly, stirred me at last.

ACTIVITY 1.15
An adjective phrase (AdjP) has an adjective as its main word. Adjective phrases have the following characteristics.

Adjective as head words
The head word of an adjective phrase is an adjective. While attributive adjectives precede nouns as pre-modifiers in a noun phrase, predicative adjectives follow nouns (often after a copula verb) and are the head words of adjective phrases.

The sky grew black.

The horse was black and stood out against the whiteness of the snow.

Pre-modification
Adverbs and some adjectives can pre-modify an adjective:

very bold extremely dangerous pure white

Post-modification
Post-modification of adjective phrases can take the following forms.

Prepositional phrases
A prepositional phrase will always begin with a preposition:

afraid of ghosts

Non-finite infinitive clauses
An non-finite infinitive clause will always begin with an infinitive:

anxious to please

Noun clauses
A noun clause (NCI) will always start with the subordinating conjunction that, although this may be omitted (marked in analysis by the symbol @)

sure that he'll get lost

ACTIVITY 1.16
Read the following passage and then list the adjective phrases and analyse them in terms of function and form. The first example is completed for you.
Verb phrases

A verb phrase (VP) generally has a lexical verb as its main verb. It can be made up of one lexical verb, or one or more auxiliary verbs and a lexical verb. Verb phrases have the following characteristics.

Lexical verbs as head words

A verb phrase may consist of one lexical verb as a head word:

The girl saw some horses.

Generative grammar would describe the verb phrase in a different way: the noun phrase following the verb would be seen as an integral part of the verb phrase. In the example given above, for instance, some horses would be embedded in the larger phrase of which the verb saw is the key word. This could be recorded on a tree diagram as follows:

Adopting the functional approach which will be used in this book, the example would be represented in a different way in order to distinguish between the contrasting roles of the constituent phrases:

Auxiliary verbs

A verb phrase may have up to four auxiliary verbs - the lexical verb will always be the last element in a verb phrase:

I have seen the horses. I may see the horses.

She must have been helped at the time. She should have been helping the horses.

Phrasal verbs

Some verb phrases, called PHRASAL VERBS, are made up of a verb and an adverb:

I gave away my tickets. The manager looked up the prices.

Many phrasal verbs can stand alone; they do not need anything to follow them (grow up, break down).

Propositional verbs

Some verb phrases are made up of a verb and a preposition or particle. They are called PROPOSITIONAL VERBS.

I looked at the pictures. He stood against his opponent.

Prepositional verbs cannot stand alone; they must be followed by a noun phrase.

Phrasal and prepositional verbs are common in informal speech and writing. They can often be replaced by one lexical item.

Prepositional phrases

A prepositional phrase (PrepP) has a preposition as its main word. It is normally followed by a noun phrase. Prepositional phrases add extra information and are therefore optional - they can be omitted without affecting the meaning. They have the following characteristics.

Post-modification

Prepositional phrases are used to post-modify other phrases.
Adverbials
Prepositional phrases can function as **adverbials** in a sentence, providing information about time, manner and place (see Section 1.6).

- We went to town in the afternoon.
- The girls sat in the shade.

---

**Adverb phrases**
An **adverb phrase** (AdvP) has an adverb as its main word. Adverb phrases have the following general characteristics.

**Adverbs as head words**
The head word of an adverb phrase is an adverb:
- the child laughed loudly
- the crowd jostled very impatiently

**Extra information**
Adverb phrases provide extra information – if omitted, the sentence will still make sense:
- The choir sang gloriously. *The choir sing.*

**Adverbials**
Adverb phrases can function as **adverbials** in a sentence, providing information about time, manner and place:
- We visited France recently. *They go to the cinema quite regularly.*

---

**Clause elements**
There are five types of **clause element** and each has a different **function** and site (position within the clause).

**Subject**
The **subject** (S) normally describes the person who or the thing which does the action of the verb. It is also called the **actor** of a sentence. You can check which part of the clause is a subject by asking **who? or what?** is responsible for the action or process of the verb.

**Kinds of subject**
The subject is usually a **noun phrase** or a **pronoun**, but it can also be a **clause**:
- (The girl) was a good swimmer. *She* was a good swimmer.
- (What I look forward to) is a restful Christmas.

**Position in the clause**
In a statement, the subject usually **precedes** the verb:
- (The whole family) went to town.

**Position in a question**
In a question, the subject usually **follows** the auxiliary verb:
- Did (the girl) go to town?

**Effect on the verb**
The subject dictates the form of the verb:
- (I) go to town. *The old lady* goes to town.

**Effect on the object or complement**
The subject sometimes controls the form of the **object or complement** in a sentence:
- (She) cut herself. *(They)* cut themselves.

**Verb**
**Verbs** or **predicators** (P) can express a range of meanings – actions, processes, states and so on. They are the most important clause element: they cannot be omitted, except in a **minor sentence**:

- Like father, like son.

Only a **verb phrase** can fill the verb site of a clause:
- I should go to town.
Object

The object (O) describes something that is directly affected by the verb. You can check which part of a clause is in the direct object (Od) site by asking who? or what? is affected by the action or process of the verb:

- The dog ate the bone.

Indirect objects

The object can also be something that is indirectly affected by the verb. Usually an indirect object (Oi) will precede the direct object, but it may instead follow the direct object. You can check whether an object is indirect by placing it after the direct object and putting it to before it:

- The child gave his friend a present. The child gave (a present) to his friend.

Kinds of object

The object is usually a noun phrase or a pronoun. If the object is a pronoun, it may have a distinctive form:

- The rain soaked the boy. The rain soaked him.
- He gave the visitor a cup of tea. He gave them a cup of tea.

Position in the clause

Normally, the object follows the verb.

Complement

The complement (C) gives extra information about the subject (Cs) or about the object (Co):

- The sun was bright. The teacher considered his pupil a genius.

Kinds of complement

The complement can be an adjective phrase, a noun phrase, a pronoun, a numeral or a clause:

- The musician was excellent. The man thought the wine a bargain.
- The book is his. The old lady was ninety.
- This field is where the battle took place.

Position in the clause

Usually, the complement follows a verb (appear, seem, become, be):

- The man felt gloomy. The garden had become overgrown.

Adverbials

Adverbials (A) give information about time, manner and place. You can check which part of a clause is an adverbial by asking questions like how?, when?, where? and how often?

Kinds of adverbial

Adverbials can be adverb phrases, prepositional phrases, noun phrases or clauses:

- They went to town yesterday. They went to town on Saturdays.
- They went to town last week. They went to town when it rained.
- (Twice a week) the boy ran to his grandmothers house for tea.

Number of adverbials

More than one adverbial can be added to a clause:

- (Actually), we went to the library on Mondays.
- (On Mondays), we actually went to the library.

Position in the clause

An adverbial can change its position in order to create different kinds of emphasis:

Clauses structure

Most clauses will have a subject and a verb. Other clause elements are optional and will be used depending upon the information and the kind of verb selected.

It is useful to distinguish between the form or word class of a verb (V) and the grammatical role or function of a verb phrase in a clause. To do this, linguists call the verb site the predicate (P) in clause analysis:

- The children (will need) some food.

Clause types

There are seven types of clause, in which the elements are combined in different ways:

1. Subject + verb:
   - (They) (ate) dinner.
2. Subject + verb + direct object:
   - (They) gave (a present) to his friend.
3. Subject + verb + indirect object:
   - (The musician) was (an excellent) musician.
4. Subject + verb + indirect object + direct object:
   - (The children) (will need) some food.
A compound sentence contains two or more simple sentences linked by co-ordinating conjunctions (and, or, but). Each clause in a compound sentence carries equal weight and makes sense on its own, so each can therefore be described as a main clause. Sentences will often be linked like this because they share content in some way:

- (The man) (shouted) (and) (jumped) (on the bed).
- (The cook) (ate) (the) (bread) (and) (biscuits).
- (The cook) (made) (the) (guests) (dinner).
- (The cook) (became) (hot).
- (The cook) (thought) (the) (guests) (nude).
- (The cook) (worked) (quickly).
- (The cook) (made) (a large stew) (for the evening meal).

When two sentences are linked, it is usually better to avoid repetition. This can be achieved by using substitution or ellipsis.

Substitution

In substitution, a pronoun replaces a noun or a noun phrase:

- (The man) (shouted) (him) (and) (jumped) (on the bed).
- (The cook) (ate) (the) (bread) (and) (biscuits).
- (The man) (jumped) (on the bed) (while) (the) (man) (shouted) (to) (him).
- (Dickens) (wrote) (many stories) (in his lifetime) (and) (he) (still) (popular).

Ellipsis

Ellipsis is the omission of an element of language. As long as the reader can easily recognise exactly what has been deleted, part of a sentence can be omitted to avoid repetition.

- (In autumn), (the leaves) (fall) (to the ground) (and) (the) (leaves) (blow) (around the garden) (until).
- (The latest film releases) (are) (publicised) (extensively) (but) (the latest film) (not)
Recognising subordinate clauses

You can usually recognise a subordinate clause by identifying the word class of the first word in the clause. It may be a subordinating conjunction (e.g., when, because, unless, although), a wh- word or a non-finite verb. It is important to remember that subordinate clauses can be used in all the clause types except the verb. In other words, a subordinate clause can be used as a subject, an object, a complement or an adverbial.

MC 6 (That the emergency services work very hard) is a well-known fact.

MC 7 (I know) who sent me the Valentine card.

MC 7 (The prospective candidates) were what we had hoped for.

MC 7 (We will discuss) the new house (when we know if we’ve sold this one).

In assessing the role of the subordinate clause, always check whether it functions as the whole of a clause element or just as part of the clause element.

MC 7 (I know) the boy who sent me the Valentine card.

MC 7 (I know) what to do next.

In the first example, the subordinate clause could be omitted and part of the object would still remain: the boy. The function of the relative clause is to post-modify the head noun. In the second example, the subordinate clause stands as the object on its own. If it were omitted, the sentence would have no object.

Complex sentences

Clauses in complex sentences do not have equal value. One is a main clause and the one or more other clauses are called subordinate or dependent clauses. A subordinate clause does not make sense standing on its own.

There are six types of subordinate clause.

Noun clauses

A noun clause (NCI) can fill the subject or object site of a clause. There are two main kinds of noun clause.

That clauses

A THAT-CLAUSE (that CI) will begin with that (whom), but it may be elided.

MC 7 (I decided) that the essay was too long.

WH- clauses

WH-CLAUSE (WH CI) will begin with a wh- word.

MC 7 (I wonder) what I can do.

Adverbial clauses

An ADVERBIAL CLAUSE (ACI) functions as an adverbial within the main clause. It answers questions such as where, why or when? An adverbial clause can be recognised by the subordinating conjunction that marks its beginning (e.g., because, unless, where, etc.).

MC 7 (I was (when) I saw the time).

MC 7 (Because I left late, I missed the train).

Relative clauses

A RELATIVE CLAUSE (REL CI) adds extra information about one of the nouns in the main clause. The beginning of a relative clause is usually marked by a relative pronoun (who, whose, which and that), although it can be omitted. Relative clauses follow the nouns they post-modify or qualify.

MC 7 (The man who lives next door) is (deaf).

MC 7 Our friend (likes) stories that come from other countries.

Comparative clauses

A COMPARATIVE CLAUSE (Comp CI) starts with as (equal comparison) or contains than (unequal comparison).

MC 7 (I am) (faster than he is).

MC 7 (We had) as many pictures as he did.

Non-finite clauses

A NON-FINITE CLAUSE (NFCI) can be recognised by an infinitive, a present participle or a past participle at the beginning of the clause.

MC 7 (I wanted) (to go).

MC 7 (Leaving it all behind), (I was) (happy) (at last).

Verbless clauses

While VERBLESS MAIN CLAUSES (Vless CI) like What about a cup of tea? Good thing too! and Lovely weather! are more likely to be used in informal speech, a VERBLESS SUBORDINATE CLAUSE is more common in formal written English.
Compound—complex sentences

In making a **compound—complex sentence**, co-ordination and subordination are used together:

- **MN** (The police) (needed) (to discover who had been seen) (and) (then) (hoped) (to make an arrest).

The first main clause here has two subordinate clauses in the object site. It is co-ordinated with another main clause of equal value which has one subordinate clause in the object site.

- **MN** (The lorry (left) (when it had been loaded) (and) (returned) (after it had delivered its load).

Each main clause in the sentence above contains a subordinate clause functioning as an adverbial. Each subordinate clause starts with a subordinating conjunction, *when* or *after*, the two main clauses are joined by a co-ordinating conjunction, *and*.

Major and minor sentences

All the sentences considered so far can be described as **regular of major sentence** because they are constructed using regular patterns. Some sentences, however, do not follow expected patterns and these are called **irregular of minor sentence**. Minor sentences lack some of the essential clause elements considered so far. They use unusual patterns which cannot easily be analysed. Minor sentences are often used in everyday conversation, on posters, in headlines, in advertisements and in slogans. You can check to see whether a sentence is minor by trying to change the verb into the past tense, if you can do so and the sentence still makes sense, it is probably a major rather than a minor sentence.

Minor sentences can be:

- **formulae** used in social situations: hello, thanks, bye
- **interjections** used to express some kind of emotion: oh! tut tut!
- **abbreviated forms** often used on postcards or in spoken commentary: were you here, nearby there
- **words or phrases used as exclamations, questions or commands**: what a day!, congratulations, never! taxi!

Analysing a sentence

In order to analyse a sentence, use the following process.

1. Underline the **verbs** in the sentence — if there are none, it is an example of a minor sentence.
2. Identify the **main lexical verb(s)** and mark the main clause(s).
3. Label the clause elements.
4. Identify any **subordinate clauses** and decide whether they function as a whole or as a part of the clause element.
5. Identify the **type** of subordinate clause by identifying the word class of the first word. Table 1.1 summarises the kinds of words that appear in the initial position of a subordinate clause and the clause types in each case.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1.1: The classification of subordinate clauses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Word in initial position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>who, whose, whom, that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that, whether, words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subordinating conjunctions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as, than</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to + verb, present participle, past participle</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Activity 1.18**

Underline the subordinate clauses in the following passage and try to identify their type. Remember that a subordinate clause can:

1. replace a whole clause site: subject, object, complement or adverbial
2. post-modify a noun phrase
3. add extra information to a complement, etc.

I shall always remember the clay when we arrived at the new house. It was perfect. The weather was good and our spirits were high. Things did not remain the same for long because things were not quite what they seemed. Looking back, I now regret many things.

The first problem was the key which did not fit. Then the removal van did not arrive, leaving us stranded. With no furniture and no boxes, there was nothing for us to do. The fact that we were helpless was not too disturbing, but the sudden change in the weather was since we were stuck outside. The estate agent was sent for and the removal company phoned. Although we could do nothing for the moment, I felt obliged to act, rushing around like a headless chicken while the rain fell heavily.

The time passed slowly. Eventually, someone did bring a new key, so that we could get into the house and wait for the removal van in the dry. We had been assured that it was on its way at last!

The unpredictable day became a peaceful night as we settled into a bare and disorganised house. Our immediate problems were over, but we had not anticipated what was to come next ...

Answers on page 610
1.8 Mood

The mood of a sentence shows the attitude of the speaker to the action or event referred to in the verb phrase: we can tell someone something, or ask them to do something. There are three moods.

**Declarative mood**

The **declarative mood** is used for making statements. You can recognise the declarative by checking whether the **subject** comes first in the clause and is followed by the **verb**. If the sentence is complex, the mood is determined by the main clause, so always look at that first.

- (The old man) *(was)* *(content)* *(in)* *(the)* *(park)*.
- *(The)* *(symphony* *(orchestral)* *(played)* *(ravishing)* *(in)* *(the)* *(new)* *(concert)* *(hall)*.

**Interrogative mood**

The **interrogative mood** is used for addressing questions. You can recognise the interrogative by checking whether the **subject** follows the **auxiliary verbs** **do**, **have** or **be**.

- *(Did)* *(the)* *(old)* *(man)* *(tell)* *(in)* *(the)* *(park)* *(contentedly)*?
- *(Was)* *(the)* *(symphony* *(orchestral)* *(playing)* *(well)* *(in)* *(the)* *(new)* *(concert)* *(hall)*?

In speech, if the word order is unchanged and intonation patterns (the way the voice moves up and down) are used to indicate a question, the mood is said to be **declarative**. The only examples of the **interrogative** mood in which words are not inverted are in sentences in which **wh-** words fill the **subject** site.

- *(What)* *(happened)* *(next)*?  
- *(Who)* *(wants)* *(tea)*?

**Imperative mood**

The **imperative mood** is used for addressing commands or orders. You can recognise the imperative by checking that there is **no subject** and that the **verb** is in the **base form** (the unmarked form).

- *(Sit)* *(in)* *(the)* *(park)*.  
- *(Vote)* *(in)* *(the)* *(European)* *(elections)* *(today)*!

Sometimes the person addressed is named but not in the traditional subject site of the clause; instead, a **vocative** (voc) is used. This refers to the person to whom the sentence is addressed. A vocative has two functions:
- to call someone in order to gain her or his attention:
  - **Joseph**, it's tea time. It's your turn on the computer now, **Julie**.
- to address someone, expressing a particular social relationship or a personal attitude:
  - Wilt, there's a fly in my soup! You fool, what are you trying to do?

**Vacatives** are optional and can occur at the beginning, middle or end of the sentence. They can be:
- names: **Andrew**, **Sharon**
- **family titles**: **Mummy**, **Dad**, **Aunt**
- labels that reflect **status** or **respect**: **sir**, **madam**, **ladies and gentlemen**
- **professional titles**: **nurse**, **doctor**, **councillor**
- words reflecting evaluative judgements: **pig**, **darling**, **sweetheart**
- you as an **impolite term of address**.

1.9 Cohesion

Language has a hierarchical structure. So far, you have studied words, phrases, clauses and sentences: these are divided in terms of their **rank**. *Words* are described as having a **lower rank** and *sentences* as having a **higher rank**. This is because a sentence may be made up of more than one clause; clauses may be made up of more than one phrase; and phrases may be made up of more than one word.

You now need to think about the ways in which sentences are combined into larger units or **discourse** – the linguistic term used to describe spoken or written language that is longer than a sentence in length. In any study of **cohesion**, you will need to consider the ways in which sentences are linked to create text.

There are five forms of cohesion which it is useful to be able to recognise: lexical cohesion, substitution, ellipsis, referencing, and linking adverbials and conjunctions.

**Lexical cohesion**

**Lexical cohesion** is a kind of textual linking dependent on a writer or speaker's choice of words. A number of cohesive techniques can be used.

**Collocations**

In **collocations**, words are associated within **phrases**. Because they are often well known, they are predictable. Many can be described as **idioms** and **cliques**.

- **home and dry** - safe and sound - free and easy

**Repetition**

In **repetition** either words or phrases are directly repeated or **synonyms** (related words with a similar meaning) are used.

- This little pig went to market.
- This little pig stayed at home.
- This little pig had roast beef ...

**Superordinates and hyponyms**

**Superordinates** are **general words**; **hyponyms** are **subdivisions** of the general categorisation. Both these types of words can be used to provide cohesion.

- **Superordinate**: **dog**  
  **Hyponyms**: **alaskan malamute, poodle, spaniel**
- **Superordinate**: **crockery**  
  **Hyponyms**: **plate, cup, bowl**

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