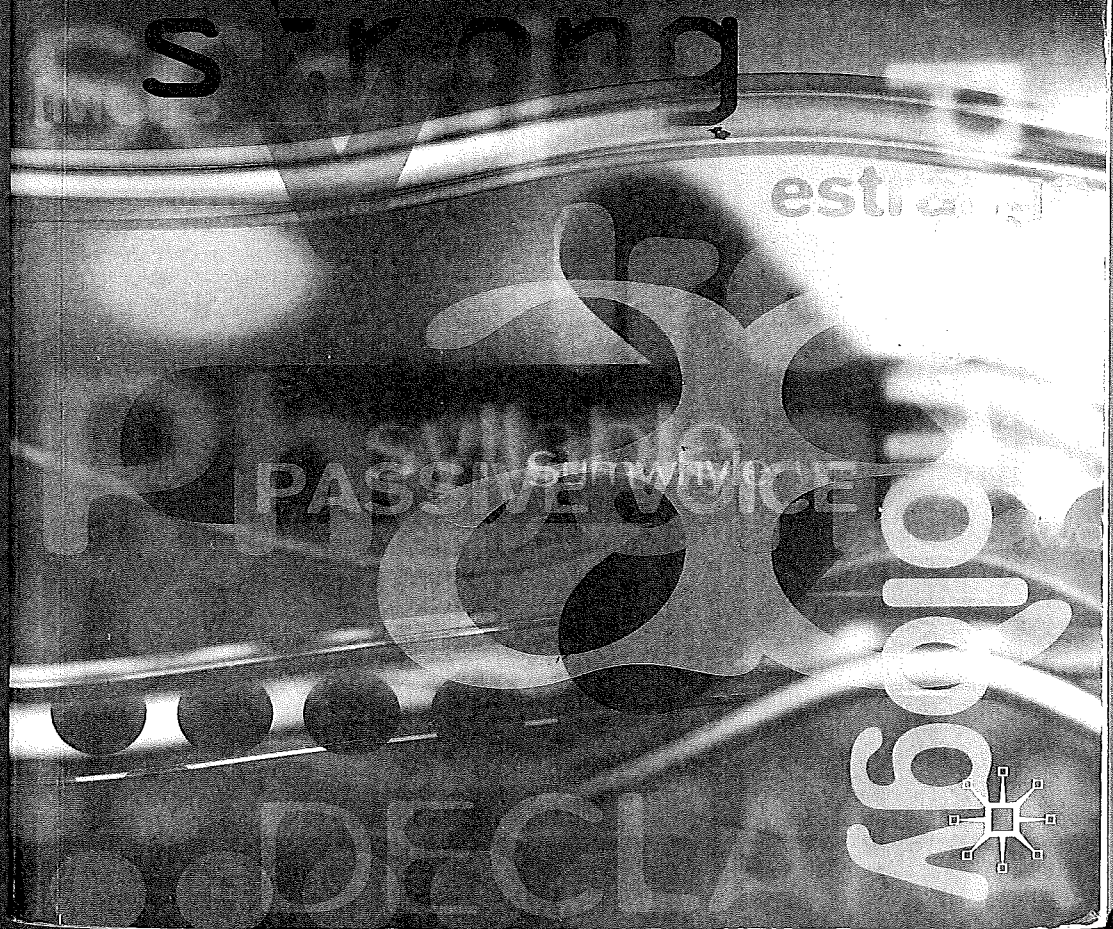


PALGRAVE MASTER SERIES

SARA THORNE

MASTERING
ADVANCED ENGLISH
LANGUAGE



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 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 become able 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*. 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 (*up, down, over, under, round, of, at, in*), determiners (*the, a, this, some, many*) and conjunctions (*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* and *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.

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, however, can follow the determiner *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 their plurals by adding *-es*.

- mistress → mistresses box → boxes flash → flashes

Nouns ending in *-f* (except *-ff*) or *-fe* change to *-ves* in the plural.

- hoof → hooves (or sometimes *hoofs*) life → lives

Some nouns form a plural by changing a vowel or by 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.

Add an apostrophe to regular plurals.

the cars → the cars' colours the pictures → the pictures' frames

Add an apostrophe and an -s to irregular plurals.

the children → the children's games the oxen → the oxen's strength

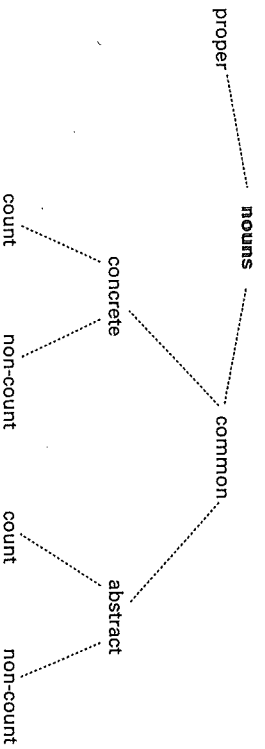
Singular nouns ending in -s usually add an apostrophe and an -s.

Dylan Thomas's poetry King Louis's throne

The overall classification

For purposes of analysis, it is useful to see the relationship between these sub-categories 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



ACTIVITY 1.1 Answers on page 459.

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

Monday December 24th

CHRISTMAS EVE

December 1984

Something dead 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 lousy 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 Togg rating of continental quilts), my heart pounding and palms sweaty in anticipation of the virgin Beano album.

2 Classify the following nouns, deciding whether they are proper or common nouns. Correct or abstract.

- | | | | |
|---|-----------|---|--------------|
| a | parents | f | heart |
| b | Christmas | g | Santa Claus |
| c | existence | h | trauma |
| d | quilt | i | bed |
| e | Beano | j | anticipation |

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** like *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

Polysyllabic and some disyllabic adjectives form the **comparative** by using *more* and the **superlative** by using *most* before the adjective.

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

The MODAL VERBS (**mod**) *can* and *could*, *may* and *might*, *must*, *shall* and *should*, and *will* and *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 go at once. You should 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 infield, 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 hypothetical.

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. I would go home, if there was a bus.

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
freeze → froze hear → heard
catch → caught swim → swam
hit → hit spell → spelt (or spelled)

Future time

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

1 The simple present.

- The modal verbs *shall* or *will* + base form verb. They will go on holiday soon.
- I shall go to town later.
- be going + infinitive. We are going to travel by train.
- I am going to visit France next year.
- to be + present participle. The tide is ebbing now.
- The programme is starting in ten minutes.
- will or shall + to be + present participle. I shall be waiting for you.
- I shall be writing again next week.

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 wildly 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 most 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:

- 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);
- 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;
- the active verb is reworked by a verb in the passive form: *is* or *are* + 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.
- 2 The murder was committed by the infamous Mr Smith.
- 3 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.
- 4 A tremendous meal was prepared and [was] served by the cooks and waiters from the local hotel who trained at the college.
- 5 By omitting the *by* + *actor*, it is possible to exclude the person or thing responsible for the action of the verb.
- 6 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
 (contrast of tense)

he eats; they eat; I am; you are (contrast of number/person)

Non-finite verbs: (is) living (-ing participles)

(has) lived (-ed past participles)

live (base form of the verb)

to live (the infinitive).

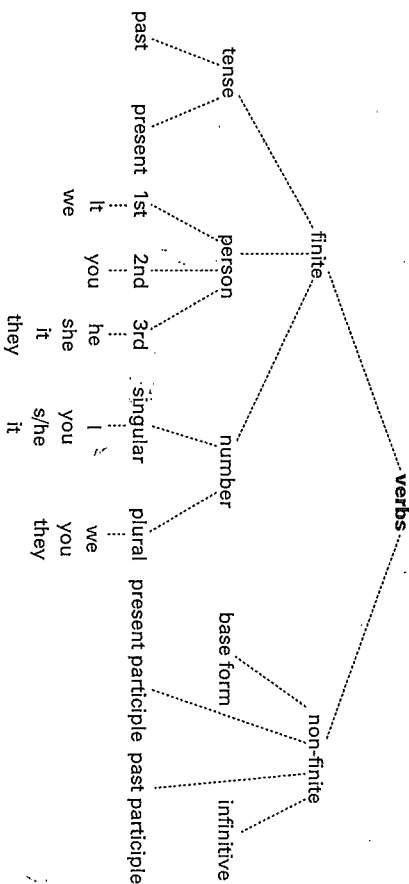
It is important to recognise the difference between the past tense and the past participle of regular verbs since both have an -ed ending. The past tense is finite because it is showing a change of tense; the past participle usually follows an auxiliary and does not change its form.

ACTIVITY 1.3 Answers on pages 459–60.

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.
 - a She had gone to town.
 - b They had a picnic in the country.
 - c I can do the work.
 - d 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.

Figure 1.2 The classification of verbs



The boy runs to school.

runs: finite; present tense; third person; singular.

- a The eagles flapped their wings.
- b She laughs at herself.
- c You have gone mad.
- d I carried the child away.
- e The frog was croaking loudly.
- f We chased the intruder.
- g You have been silly.
- h What has been happening?
- i Does he know?

3 Rewrite the following active sentences in the passive voice, including the passive agent.

- a The strong waves lifted the boat above the dangerous sandbank.
- b The monks rang the bells to warn the surrounding villagers of the impending danger.
- c After the disturbance, the police shut the pub.

4 Rewrite the following active sentences in the passive, omitting the passive agent.

- a Comment on the effect created in each case.
- a The police beat the Black South African prisoners.
- b The bully left the child face down in the playground.
- c The scientists discovered the way to split the atom and created the first atom bomb.

ACTIVITY 1.4 Answers on page 460.

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 good will for once and I stopped to talk with him. He asked what I'd had for Christmas...

Sue Townsend, *True Confessions of Adrian Albert Mole*

- 1 Underline all the verbs in the extract.
- 2 Find examples of the following:
 - a two lexical verbs;
 - b two stative verbs;
 - c two dynamic verbs;
 - d two primary auxiliary verbs;
 - e two modal auxiliary verbs.
- 3 Find an example of the passive voice and rewrite the sentence in the active voice.
- 4 Find one example of the progressive aspect and one of the perfective aspect.
- 5 Find one example of the present tense and one of the past tense.
- 6 Find two examples of a finite verb and two examples of a non-finite verb.

Adverbs

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: The car drove *slowly*.
- Adjectives: The house was *very* pretty.
- Other adverbs: The painting was painted *particularly* carefully.
- Sentences: *Certainly*, the work will be completed on time.
I went home; my friend, *meanwhile*, stayed to chat.

CIRCUMSTANCE ADVERBS (or ADJUNCTS) modify verbs, giving details of circumstances like time, manner and place.

- Manner: He was sleeping *well*; the cat was fighting *furiously*.
Time: You must go to school *now*; *afterwards*, you can go swimming.
Frequency: I *always* visit my grandmother on Sundays; I *never* stay at home

- 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: It is *very* good to see you; I *really* missed you; I'm so glad to be back.
- To test for an adverb of degree, ask yourself the question 'to what degree?'

SENTENCE ADVERBS (disjuncts and conjuncts) modify a whole sentence. **DISJUNCTS** express speakers' or writers' attitudes, allowing them to comment on what is being said or written; **CONJUNCTS** can be used to link sentences.

- Linking: *Firstly*, I intend to go away; *however*, I will write postcards.
Attitude: I could *perhaps* do the work, but *surely* you could get someone else.
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.

- 3 The end of the sentence.
- I loved the place *actually*.

Distinguishing 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.
- The sprinter took the bend *fast*.
- The bed was *hard* and gave me a bad night's sleep.
- After *faltering*, the horse hit the fence *hard*.

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 Answers on page 460.

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 over-sensitive 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.

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

- First person singular: *I*
 - Second person singular: *you*
 - Third person singular: *he/she/it*
 - First person plural: *we*
 - Second person plural: *you*
 - Third person plural: *they*
- 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*
- First person plural: *us*
- Second person plural: *you*
- Third person plural: *them*

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: *his/hers*
- First person plural: *ours*
- Second person plural: *yours*
- Third person plural: *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*
- Second person singular: *yourself*
- Third person singular: *himself/herself/itself*
- First person plural: *ourselves*
- Second person plural: *yourselves*
- Third person plural: *themselves*

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.

Interrogative or question pronouns

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

- Who did you visit today?
- 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* – these are always followed by an object pronoun:
 - I want the books. I want *all of them*.
 - I will buy a shirt and a jacket. I will buy *both of them*.
- 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

Answers on page 460.

List the pronouns in the following passage and identify them as:

- | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1 personal pronouns: | 5 interrogative pronouns: |
| 2 possessive pronouns: | 6 relative pronouns: |
| 3 reflexive pronouns: | 7 indefinite pronouns: |
| 4 demonstrative 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 walking 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. She had brought through the tunnel...

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, few, 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

IF NUMBERS precede a noun, they are functioning as determiners. Both **cardinal** (*one, two, three and so on*) and **ordinal** (*first, second, third and so on*) can be used as determiners.

- The first visitor will receive a present. Six sheep have escaped from the farm.

Context

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 Answers on page 461.

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 backdoor in case of emergencies. On many occasions she had been sure that both keys were lost. But this time was an exception.

She skilfully 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:

- Place: *at, on, by* and *opposite*.
- Direction: *towards, past, out of, to* and *through*.
- Time: *at, before, in* and *on*.
- Comparison: *as... as* and *like*.
- Source: *from* and *out of*.
- Purpose: *for*.

It is important to be aware that some words that have the **form** of a preposition do not have the same **function**.

- The girl read *in* the library. The rioters kicked *in* the door.

The form of the preposition *in* is identical in each case, but the function is different. In the first sentence, *in* describes where the girl is reading – it is therefore a preposition of place. In the second sentence, however, *in* is directly related to the verb *kicked* – in this case, it is called a **PARTICLE**.

ACTIVITY 1.8 Answers on page 461.

Decide whether the words underlined in the following sentences are prepositions or particles.

- 1 Steven threw out the rubbish.
- 2 Judith ran into the bedroom.
- 3 The pilot flew out of the local airport.
- 4 Will will carry on preparing the meal?

- 6 The sea rolled inexorably towards the defensive wall.

- 7 The car broke down at the traffic lights.

- 8 The plane rose high above me, but I could still remember the moment of take-off.

- 9 It's difficult to be a single-parent family and to bring up two children alone.

- 10 I turned to my companion and we went down to the basement.

- 11 They cleared out the attic ready for moving-day.

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 ^N and the boy. ^N

They saw ^V and understood. ^V

- The dog was gentle ^{Adj} and friendly. ^{Adj} The day was wet ^{sentence} and the trip was ruined. ^{sentence}

Subordinating conjunctions

SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS join a subordinate clause to a main clause. They often give information on *when, where, why, how* or *if* an action takes place. A clause introduced by a subordinating conjunction cannot stand alone. The list below contains some of the main subordinating conjunctions.

- Time: *when(ever), while, as, before, until, after, since, once* and *when*;
- Place: *where* and *wherever*;
- Purpose: *so that* and *in order that*;
- Reason: *because, as* and *since*;
- Condition: *if* and *unless*;
- Contrast: *although, while* and *whereas*;
- Comparison: *as, than, like, as if* and *as though*.

I love going to the theatre *because* it makes texts studied in college come alive.

Whenever we visit France, I remember that first holiday.

I want to study at the moment, *so that* I can go to university.

I go to restaurants *where* I can get a good vegetarian meal.

If they travel at a reasonable speed, they should be here by evening.

The woman looked *as if* she was going to shout.

While she loved her new home, she still yearned for her old cottage.

ACTIVITY 1.9 Answers on page 461.

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 short-handed, they found ways to divide the tasks. 5 they were really busy, things went quite smoothly.

The ward was full at the moment, 6 they 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!

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 the end of a free morpheme.

Prefixes

A **PREFIX** precedes a free morpheme.

- unkind dislike

Suffixes

A **SUFFIX** follows a free morpheme.

Words can have multiple affixes (*un + like + li + hood*).

ACTIVITY 1.10 Answers on page 461.

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; | 5 negativity; |
| 2 summative; | 6 unlikely; |
| 3 midnight; | 7 pitiful. |
| 4 daily; | |

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:

- unreal, redraft* (prefixes)
- sadly, boyish* (suffixes)
- unacceptable, subconsciously* (affixes)

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, suffixation and affixation.

Prefixes

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

Prefix	Word class of free morpheme	Word class of created word
<i>hyper-</i>	tension (N)	hypertension (N)
<i>be-</i>	devil (N)	bedevil (V)
<i>re-</i>	style (V)	restyle (V)

Suffixes

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

Word class of free morpheme	Suffix	Word class of created word
exploit (V)	-ation	exploitation (N)
joy (N)	-ful	joyful (Adj)

Suffixes associated with nouns

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

diplomacy similarity jubilation compartment writer sadness
conductor 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.

dramatise 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 Answers on page 461.

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

- Add a prefix to the verb present.
- Add a suffix to the noun hospital.
- Make an adverb by adding the appropriate suffix to the adjective calm.
- Add an appropriate suffix to the noun child to create an adjective.
- Make a noun by adding an appropriate ending to the following: glorify, audit and act.

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.

Free morpheme	Bound morpheme	Inflected word
cat	-s	cats
book	-s	books
gas	-es	gases
penny	-ies	pennies

Possessives

The **possessive** of all nouns.

Free morpheme	Bound morpheme	Inflected word
girl	's	the girl's jumper
children	's	the children's toys
adults	's	the adults' books

Present tense

The **present tense** of regular third person singular verbs.

Free morpheme	Bound morpheme	Inflected word
run	-s	he runs
cry	-ies	the baby cries

Present participle

The **present participle** form of verbs.

Free morpheme	Bound morpheme	Inflected word
do	-ing	doing
justify	-ing	justifying

Past tense and past participle

The **past tense** and **past participle** of regular verbs.

Free morpheme	Bound morpheme	Inflected word
walk	-ed	walked
dress	-ed	dressed

ACTIVITY 1.12 Answers on pages 461-2.

List the suffixes in the example below and try to identify the kind of inflection used.

- 1 sailors: 4 dreaming;
- 2 viewed: 5 the dog's bone;
- 3 the girls' bags: 6 the tiger snarls.

ACTIVITY 1.13 Answers on page 462.

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.

morality (N)

Free morpheme = *moral* (Adj); bound morpheme = *-ity*; derivational morphology (change of word class – words ending with the suffix *-ity* are nouns).

lives (V)
Free morpheme = *live* (V); bound morpheme = *-s*; inflectional morphology (inflection marking a third person singular present tense verb).

- 1 greatness 6 illogical
- 2 multigym 7 predetermination
- 3 declaration 8 horrifying
- 4 delimited 9 institutionalise
- 5 inter-vally 10 reassesses

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) This 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** (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 results 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 word

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 they are not words we are accustomed to seeing together – they attract attention because of their novelty.

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. 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 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**). By 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 **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 baby's crawling over the grass.
NP NP NP
det. N det. N NP
He is crawling over it.
NP NP
pron NP pron

Adjectives as head words

Sometimes **adjectives** can function as the head word of a noun phrase.

The old often get a raw deal.
NP NP
det. Adj

Constituents of a noun phrase

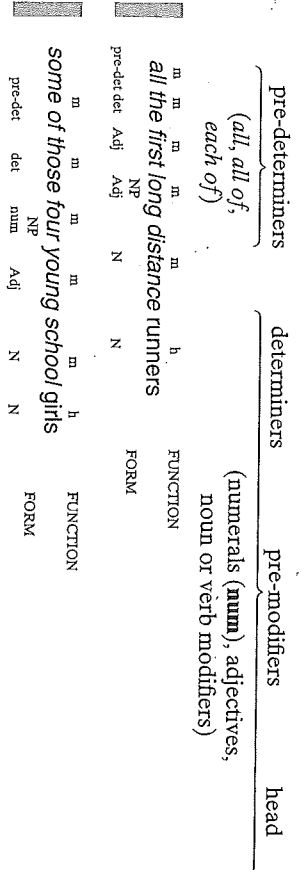
A noun phrase can be made up of either a **single noun** or a **noun** with one or more **pre-modifiers** and **post-modifiers** or **qualifiers**.

Dogs eat bones. NP NP
N NP
The girls are picking the flowers.
NP NP NP
det. N det. N FORM

The beautiful sky of blue rose above the glimmering sea of green.
det. Adj NP N prep Adj
m m h q
The beautiful sky of blue rose above the glimmering sea of green.
NP NP NP V NP N prep Adj
FUNCTION FORM

Pre-modification

Pre-modification can take the following forms.

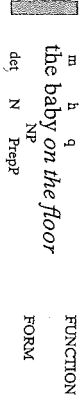


Post-modification

Post-modification or qualification can take the following forms.

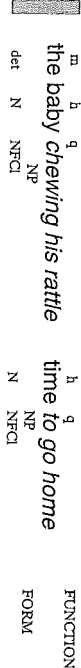
Prepositional phrases

A **PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE (PrePP)** will always begin with a **preposition**.



Non-finite clauses

A **NON-FINITE CLAUSE (NFCl)** will always begin with a **non-finite verb** (see Section 1.6).



Relative clauses

A **RELATIVE CLAUSE (RelCl)** which will usually begin with a **relative pronoun** (see Section 1.6).



ACTIVITY 1.14 Answers on page 462.

Read the following passage, then list all the noun phrases and try to identify:
1 the head word of each noun phrase:

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 drowned men 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 withered 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 Answers on pages 462-3.

Analyse the following noun phrases from the extract in terms of function and form.

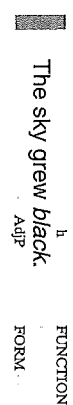
- 1 the interesting stories which were linked to the marks;
- 2 their own versions of events;
- 3 the wall;
- 4 the faded rose wallpaper;
- 5 This second historical link waiting for me.

Adjective phrases

An **ADJECTIVE PHRASE (AdjP)** has an **adjective** as its main word. Adjective phrases have the following characteristics.

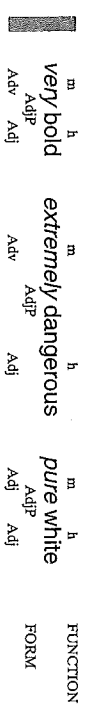
Adjectives as head words

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.



Pre-modification

Adverbs and some adjectives can pre-modify an adjective.



Post-modification

Prepositional phrases

A prepositional phrase will always begin with a **preposition**.

afraid of ghosts	FUNCTION
h q	
Adj PrepP	FORM

Non-finite infinitive clauses

A non-finite infinitive clause will always begin with an **infinitive**.

anxious to please	FUNCTION
h q	
Adj AdjP	FORM
Adj NFinC	

Noun clauses

A **NOUN CLAUSE (NCI)** will always start with the **pronoun that**, although this may be omitted (marked in analysis by the symbol Ø).

sure that he'll get lost	FUNCTION
h q	
Adj AdjP	FORM
Adj NCI	

sure (Ø) he'll get lost	FUNCTION
h q	
Adj AdjP	FORM
Adj NCI	

ACTIVITY 1.16 Answers on page 463.

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.

very glad to meet him.	FUNCTION
m h q	
Adv AdjP	FORM
Adv Adj NFinC	

I was very glad to meet him on that winter's day. The snow, deep and white, fell quickly, covering the ground like a blanket. He seemed rather sad, but quite sure of his need for company. He was very sincere about the purpose of his journey – he wanted to visit the place, isolated and very bleak though it was, to remind himself of everything that had happened. Surprisingly fierce, he justified his arrival, quite certain that he had made the right decision. As we walked, however, he became so unbelievably withdrawn that I could not agree with his interpretations of events. He was unsure and rather quiet, and I was certain he wished he had not come.

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

Lexical verbs as head words

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

I saw the horses.	FUNCTION
h	
VP	FORM
V	

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.	FUNCTION
h	
VP	FORM
aux lex	
(aux) (prim)	

I may see the horses.	FUNCTION
h	
VP	FORM
aux lex	
(aux) (mod)	

I may have seen the horses.	FUNCTION
h	
VP	FORM
aux aux lex	
(mod) (prim)	

I should have been seeing the horses.	FUNCTION
h	
VP	FORM
aux aux aux lex	
(mod) (prim) (prim)	

She must have been being helped at the time.	FUNCTION
h	
VP	FORM
aux aux aux aux lex	
(mod) (prim) (prim) (prim)	

Phrasal verbs

Some verb phrases are made up of a verb and an adverb. They are called **PHRASAL VERBS**.

I have gone off tomatoes.	FUNCTION
h	
VP	FORM
V Adv	

The manager brought up the same arguments.	FUNCTION
h	
VP	FORM
V Adv	

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

Prepositional verbs

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

I looked at the pictures.	FUNCTION
h	
VP	FORM
V prep	

He stood against his opponent.	FUNCTION
h	
VP	FORM
V prep	

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 (PP)** has a **preposition** as its main word. It will normally

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.

the boys ^m ^h ^q _{NP} ^h ^q _{PrepP} rather unhappy ^m ^h ^q _{Adv} about the prospect ^h ^q _{AdvP} ^h ^q _{PrepP}

FUNCTION
FORM

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 ^A ^h ^q _{PrepP} in the afternoon ^A ^h ^q _{PrepP} The girls sat ^A ^h ^q _{PrepP} in the shade ^A ^h ^q _{PrepP}

FUNCTION
FORM

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 ^h ^h _{AdvP} ^h ^h _{Adv} the crowd jostled ^m ^h ^h _{AdvP} ^h ^h _{Adv} very impatiently ^m ^h ^h _{AdvP} ^h ^h _{Adv}

FUNCTION
FORM

Extra information

Adverb phrases provide **extra information** – if omitted a sentence will still make sense.

The choir sing ^h ^h _{AdvP} ^h ^h _{Adv} gloriously ^h ^h _{AdvP} ^h ^h _{Adv} The choir sing.

FUNCTION
FORM

Adverbials

Adverb phrases can function as **adverbials** in a sentence, providing information about time, manner and place.

We visited France ^A ^h ^h _{AdvP} ^h ^h _{Adv} recently ^A ^h ^h _{AdvP} ^h ^h _{Adv} They go to the cinema ^A ^h ^h _{AdvP} ^h ^h _{Adv} quite regularly ^A ^h ^h _{AdvP} ^h ^h _{Adv}

FUNCTION
FORM

1.6 Clauses

CLAUSES (Cl) are the main structures used to compose sentences. A sentence will be made up of at least one **MAIN CLAUSE** (a clause that makes sense on its own and that is not dependent on or part of another clause); it may also contain one or more **SUBORDINATE CLAUSES** (a clause that cannot stand on its own and that is dependent on the main clause). Clauses may be **finite** (containing a verb marked for tense, number and person); **non-finite** (containing a present participle, a past participle or an infinitive); or **verbless** (containing no verb).

Finite clause: (The guests arrived late).
Non-finite clause: (Arriving late), the guests crowded around the door noisily.
Verbless clause: (Well I never)!

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 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) ^S ^S _{NP} was a good swimmer. (She) ^S ^S _{NP} was a good swimmer.

FUNCTION
FORM

(What I look forward to) ^S ^S _{Cl} is a restful Christmas.

FUNCTION
FORM

Position in the clause

The subject usually **precedes** the verb in a statement.

(The whole family) ^S ^S _{NP} went to town.

Position in a question

The subject **follows** the auxiliary verb in a question.

Did (the girl) ^S ^S _{NP} go to town?

Effect on the verb

The subject dictates the form of the verb.

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 (V) 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 *to* before it.

- The child gave (her friend) (a present). The child gave (a present) (to her 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 visitors) a cup of tea. He gave (them) a cup of tea.

Position in the clause

The object normally **follows** the verb.

Complement

The **COMPLEMENT (C)** gives **extra information** about the **subject (Cs)** or about the **object (Co)**.

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

The complement usually **follows** a verb (*appear, seem, become, be*).

- The man felt (gloom). 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).

Number of adverbials

More than one adverbial can be added to a clause.

- (Twice a week) the boy ran (to his grandmother's house) (for tea).

Position in the clause

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

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

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

Clause structure

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 and the **grammatical role** or **function** of a verb phrase in a clause. In clause analysis, therefore, linguists call the verb site the **predicator (P)**.

	FUNCTION	FORM
(I) (run).	S	Od
(The children) (will need) (some food).	S NP VP	Od NP
pron V	det N aux VP lex	det NP N

Clause types

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

Subject + verb

- (They) (voted).

Subject + verb + direct object

- (They) (ate) (dinner).

Subject + verb + indirect object + direct object

- (Father Christmas) (gave) (each child) (a present).

Subject + verb + subject complement

- (Snow) (is) (disruptive).

Subject + verb + direct object + object complement

- (The government) (considered) (its election promises) (inappropriate).

Subject + verb + adverbial

- (You) (must not go) (near the derelict house).

Subject + verb + direct object + adverbial

- (They) (packed) (their bags) (for school).

ACTIVITY 1.17 Answers on page 463.

Try to identify the clause elements in the following passage. The first sentence is completed for you. Use the following abbreviations:

S	subject	C	complement
P	verb	A	adverbial
Od	direct object	conj	coordinating conjunction
Oi	indirect object	neg	negative

William) He was a very strong and good-looking man, but he had a red face and rather reddish hair. He was not a good man and was cruel to his people. Like his father, he enjoyed hunting animals. One day the Red King's arrow just missed a big deer. William was very excited and called out to his friend, Walter. Walter fired an arrow, but by accident it stuck in the King's eye and he fell dead. Walter was very frightened and he rode away. The King's body lay in the forest all day. In the evening it was carried away in a workman's cart and buried in the big church at a town called Winchester.

1.7 Sentences

A SENTENCE is a grammatical construction that makes sense on its own. In writing, it begins with a capital letter and ends with a **full stop** or an **exclamation** or **question mark**. This section will help you to recognise and describe the different kinds of sentences. Before beginning work on sentence structure, it would be useful to look back over the information on word classes, phrases, clause elements and clause types.

Simple sentences

A SIMPLE SENTENCE contains just **one clause**. It has only **one finite verb** and is described as a **MAIN CLAUSE (MCI)**.

- (The cook) (ate).
- (The cook) (ate) (dinner).
- (The cook) (made) (the guests) (dinner).
- (The cook) (became) (hot).
- (The cook) (thought) (the guests) (rude).
- (The cook) (worked) (quickly).
- (The cook) (made) (a large stew) (for the evening meal).

Compound sentences

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 – they can therefore both be described as **main clauses**. Sentences will often be linked like this because they share content in some way.

- (The girl) (weeded) (borders) **and** (removed) (dead flowers) (from the roses).
- (The children) (went) (to the cinema) (last night) (to see) (the new film).

■ MCI S P A MCI S P OD
(We) (could go) (to the park) *or* (we) (could visit) (the museum).

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.

■ MCI S P OD MCI S P A
(The tearful boy) (took) (his coat) and (he) (left) (immediately).

■ MCI S P OD MCI S P A MCI S P A C
(Dickens) (wrote) (many stories) (in his lifetime) and (he) (is) (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.

■ MCI A S P OD MCI P OD
(Soon), (the Labour Party) (will run) (a leadership campaign) (and) [the Labour Party] (will elect) (a new leader).

■ MCI S P A MCI P A MCI (2)
(The latest film releases) (are publicised) (extensively) (but) [the latest film releases] (are not) (always successful).

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** (*so*), a **wh-word** or a **non-finite verb**. It is important to remember that subordinate clauses can be used in all the clause sites except the verb. In other words, a subordinate clause can be used as a subject, an object, a complement or an adverbial.

■ MCI S P C
(That John Major leads the Conservative Party) (is) (a well-known fact).

■ MCI S P OD
(I) (know) (who sent me the valentine card).

■ MCI S P C
(The prospective candidates) (were) (what we had hoped for).

■ MCI S P OD A
(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.

■ MCI S P OD
(I) (know) (the boy *who* sent me the valentine card).

■ MCI S P OD
(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 (thatCI)** will begin with the pronoun *that*, although this may be elided.
■ MCI S P O
(I) (decided) (that the essay was too long).

Wh-clauses

A **WH-CLAUSE (whCI)** will begin with a *wh-* word.
■ MCI S P O
(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 *when?*, *why?* and *what for?* An adverbial clause can be recognised by the **subordinating conjunction** that marks its beginning (*if*, *because*, *unless*, *where*, etc.).

■ MCI S P A MCI S P O
(I) (went) (when I saw the time). (Because I left late), (I) (missed) (the train).

Relative clauses

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.

MCI S P C
SC-RaCI
(The man *who* lives next door) (is) (deaf).

MCI S P O
SC-RaCI
(Our friend) (likes) (stories *that* come from other countries).

Comparative clauses

A **COMPARATIVE CLAUSE** (CompCI) starts with *as* (**equal comparison**) or contains *than* (**unequal comparison**).

MCI S P C O
SC-CompCI
(I) (am) (faster *than* he is). MCI S P O
(We) (took) (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.

MCI S P O
SC-NFCI
(I) (wanted) (to go). MCI S P C A
SC-NFCI
(Leaving it all behind), (I) (was) (happy) (at last).

Verbless clauses

While **VERBLESS MAIN CLAUSES** (VlessCI) 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 likely to be used in formal written English.

MCI A S P O
SC-VlessCI
(Once alone), (I) (cried). MCI A P O
SC-VlessCI
(If in doubt), (call) (the freephone number).

Compound-complex sentences

Co-ordination and subordination can be used in the same sentence.

MCI S P O
SC-NFCI
(The police) (needed) (to discover *who* had been seen) (and) (then) (hoped)

OD
SC-NFCI
(to arrest him).

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.

MCI S P A
SC-ACI
(The lorry) (left) (when it had been loaded) (and) (returned) (after it had delivered

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** or **MAJOR SENTENCES** because they are constructed using regular patterns.

Some sentences, however, do not follow expected patterns and these are called **IRREGULAR** or **MINOR SENTENCES**. 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 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**: *ah!, tut tut!*;
- **abbreviated forms** often used on postcards or in spoken commentaries: *wish you were here, nearly 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 1.1 The classification of subordinate clauses

Word in initial position	Clause type	Function
<i>who, whose, which, that</i>	Relative	Post-modify noun phrases
<i>that, wh- words</i>	Noun	Fill subject or object site
<i>subordinating conjunctions</i>	Adverbial	Answers questions such as <i>why?, when?, how?</i> and <i>where?</i>
<i>as, than</i>	Comparative	Making comparisons
<i>to + verb, present participle,</i>	Non-finite	Can be used in subject, object or complement clause sites. More succinct.

ACTIVITY 1.18 Answers on page 464.

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 day 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 steadily.

The time passed slowly. Eventually, someone did bring a new key, so that we could go 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...

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 or **command** 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 orchestra) (played) (resoundingly) (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 verb. In this case...

■ (Did) (the old man) (sit) (in the park) (contentedly)?

■ (Was) (the symphony orchestra) (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) (happens) (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;
- to address someone, expressing a particular social relationship or a personal attitude.

■ *Waiter*, there's a fly in my soup! *You fool*, what are you trying to do?

Vocatives 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 which reflect status or respect: *sir*, *madam*, *ladies and gentlemen*;
- professional titles: *nurse*, *doctor*, *teacher*;
- 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.

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 adverbs 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 **CLICHES**.

- 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 category. Both these types of words can be used to provide cohesion.

- Superordinate: dog Hyponyms: alsatian, poodle, spaniel
- Superordinate: crockery Hyponyms: plate, cup, bowl

Many written or spoken texts have a clear content focus and could therefore be described as **SUBJECT SPECIFIC**.

- I saw a ship a-sailing, A-sailing on the sea, And oh, but it was laden With pretty things for thee. There were cornfits in the cabin, And apples in the hold. The sails were made of silk, And the masts were all of gold

Traditional nursery rhyme

Substitution

In linking by **SUBSTITUTION**, one linguistic item is replaced by a shorter one. The substitution must always occur in the second clause if the meaning is to remain clear.

Noun phrases

Personal pronouns can be substitutes for noun phrases in the subject or object clause sites. They should only be used if the identity of the person or thing is clear.

- (Joseph) (loves) (toy trains) (and) (Joseph) (has) (two toy trains).
- (Joseph) (loves) (toy trains) (and) (he) (has) (two of them).

Either the head or the whole of a noun phrase can also be replaced by the **indefinite pronouns one or some** or by the **noun phrase the same**.

- 'Would you like a coffee?' 'I'd love one.'
- 'I'd like the vegetarian lasagne and salad, please.' 'And I'll have the same.'
- Equally, **superordinates** and **hyponyms** can be substitutes.
- The alsatian was large and the child was obviously afraid of the dog.
- The flowers were in abundance and people came from miles around to see the newly blooming roses.

Verb phrases

A verb phrase or a verb phrase plus object can be replaced by the **auxiliary verb do**.

- (I) (saw) ('The Piano') (last week). (I) (did) (yesterday).
- (Julie) (likes) (swimming) (and) (Mark) (does) (too).

Clauses

Clauses can be replaced using **so** as a substitute for a **positive clause** and **not** as a substitute for a **negative clause**.

- 'It's going to be sunny today?' 'They say so.'
- 'I wonder if I need to buy a new ticket?' 'The driver said not.'

Ellipsis

In **ELLIPSIS**, part of a sentence is left out. It must be clear what the omitted words are, so that the sentence remains meaningful.

Noun phrases

The head of a simple noun phrase and the head and any modifiers or qualifiers in a complex noun phrase can be omitted.

- (The buttercups) (were) (bright yellow) (and) [the buttercups] (stretched)
- (for miles).

The head and modifiers of the first noun phrase remain, (were) (bright yellow) (and) [the buttercups] (stretched) (for miles).

☐ clouds of the impending storm] (loomed) (threateningly).

Verb phrases

Repeated lexical and auxiliary verbs can be omitted from a verb phrase.

☐ The children ate jelly and ice-cream and the adults [ate] bread and cheese.
We were shopping in Cardiff and Lucy was [shopping] in Swansea.
We had visited the cinema and [had] looked around the museum.
They have been riding and [have been] surfing this week.

Clauses

Whole clauses can be omitted, usually within sentence boundaries rather than outside.

☐ 'Who was playing the clarinet last night?' Susan was [playing the clarinet last night].

Referencing

REFERENCES cannot be interpreted alone because they **point** to something else in a discourse. **Pronouns** (also called **SUBSTITUTE WORDS**) are often used to make these references, but **comparative structures** expressing particular similarities or differences can also be used.

☐ The girl loved reading, so she often visited the library.
☐ The black horse ran fast, but the white one was faster.
There are three main kinds of reference.

Anaphoric references

ANAPHORIC REFERENCES point backwards in a text. In other words, the reader or listener must refer to a previous reference to make sense of the pronoun or comparative structure used.

☐ The boy broke the window and then he ran away.

Cataphoric references

CATAPHORIC REFERENCES point forwards in a text. In other words, the reader or listener must refer to a future reference in order to understand the structure used.

☐ This was the life – lying in the sun with the waves roaring in the background.
These are the words he used: 'I cannot stand it any longer and I'm leaving.'

Exophoric references

EXOPHORIC REFERENCES point beyond a text. In other words, the reader or listener must make a connection with something **outside** the discourse.

☐ 'I was this high then.' 'That boat over there is mine.'

A gesture or a context is needed to accompany each of these statements if it is to make sense.

Linking adverbs and conjunctions

LINKING ADVERBS and CONJUNCTIONS are joining words that provide links either within a sentence or within the larger context of discourse. There are four main types.

Additive adverbs and conjunctions

ADDITIVE ADVERBS and CONJUNCTIONS add on information, possibly as an afterthought: *and, furthermore, besides, incidentally.*

Adversative adverbs and conjunctions

ADVERSATIVE ADVERBS and CONJUNCTIONS help to create a contrast between the sentence they introduce and the preceding sentence: *yet, however, nevertheless, on the contrary.*

Causal adverbs and conjunctions

CAUSAL ADVERBS and CONJUNCTIONS link two clauses or sentences by suggesting that one has been the result of the other: *because, since, therefore, as a result, thus.*

Temporal adverbs and conjunctions

TEMPORAL ADVERBS and CONJUNCTIONS create a time link between one clause or sentence and another: *before, while, then, after that, at once, meanwhile.*