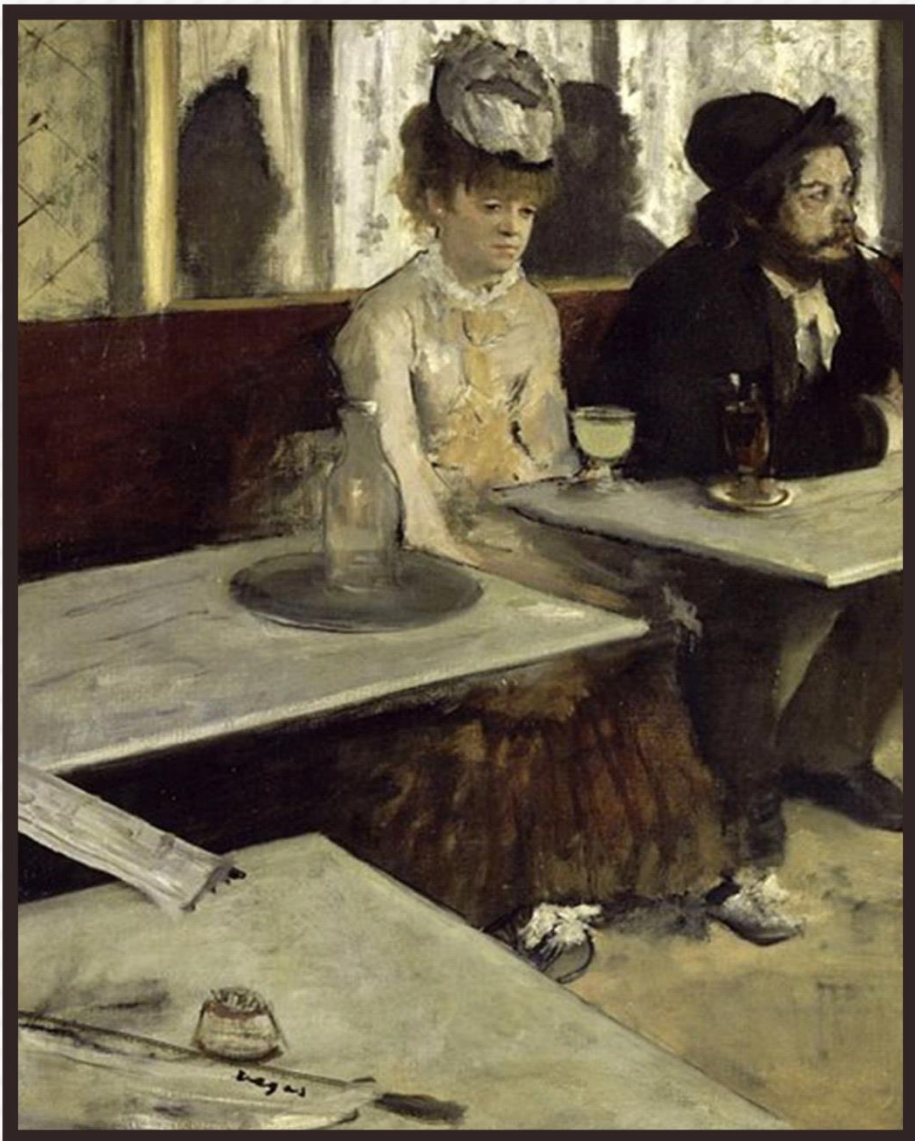


DOWNING AND LOCK
**ENGLISH
GRAMMAR**

EDITED AND DEVELOPED BY DR. INDAH WINARNI, MA



UNTUK KALANGAN SENDIRI

[Bahan ajar untuk Perkuliahan Sentence Structure Program Studi Sastra Inggris semester 2
Fakultas Ilmu Budaya Universitas Brawijaya Semester Genap Tahun Akademik 2018 - 2019]

KATA PENGANTAR

Pembelajaran bahasa asing mengenal istilah pembelajaran form (bentuk) dan meaning (makna). Pembelajaran form menekankan pada “rules” dalam produksi kalimat (sentence) dan terbatas pada individual sentence. Pembelajaran meaning berorientasi pada discourse yang mencakup prinsip pragmatik, syntax, dan semantik.

Modul ini dikembangkan berdasarkan hasil pengumpulan pendapat yang dilakukan pada mahasiswa mata kuliah English Phrase and Clause Structure (EPC) dan Grammar In Discourse (GID) tahun 2017. Dari hasil pengumpulan pendapat tersebut disimpulkan bahwa mahasiswa menginginkan agar ada penyeimbangan antara pembelajaran form (yang biasa diasosiasikan dengan formal atau Traditional Grammar) dan pembelajaran meaning (yang diasosiasikan dengan Functional Grammar). Setelah penggunaan modul making Sense of Functional Grammar (Gerrot & Wignell), hasil suntingan dari buku English Grammar oleh Downing & Locke (2006) ini diharapkan akan memberikan pemahaman lebih mendalam tentang bentuk (form) dan sekaligus makna (meaning).

Capaian pembelajaran matakuliah EPC, Sentence Structure, maupun GID secara keseluruhan ditujukan agar mahasiswa memiliki kompetensi memproduksi tulisan yang merupakan paraphrase dari teks jenis argumentative untuk membantu mahasiswa dengan tugas-tugas perkuliahan dan menulis skripsi. Tujuan lainnya adalah agar mahasiswa memiliki kemampuan untuk memproduksi teks dengan moda tulis (written) atau lisan (oral) tentang topik-topik yang bervariasi.

Secara bertahap, pada matakuliah SS tahun akademik 2018/2019 ini dilakukan melalui materi yang mencakup:

- Talking about people and things: The Nominal Group
- Describing persons, things, and Circumstances, Adjectival and Adverbial groups
- Spatial, temporal and other relationships: The Prepositional Phrase
- Classes of units and the concept of unit structure
- Clause combining

Malang, Februari 2018

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PESAN KHUSUS

Untuk Mahasiswa

- **Tentang Belajar Mandiri**

Banyak mahasiswa yang hanya mengandalkan pembelajaran Bahasa Inggris dari kelas bahasa atau perkuliahan Bahasa Inggris saja. Anggapan seperti itu hendaknya tidak dipertahankan. Tujuan moral dari perkuliahan adalah transformasi sikap, bukan transfer pengetahuan. Hanya mengandalkan kelas atau kuliah sebagai sumber belajar utama adalah sikap yang harus ditransformasi.

Ubahlah sikap Anda menjadi individu mahasiswa yang mandiri dengan mencari sumber belajar selain di ruang perkuliahan. Banyak mahasiswa yang sudah membuktikan bahwa belajar bahasa Inggris yang paling efektif adalah dengan melakukan korespondensi dengan penutur asli bahasa Inggris; dengan banyak membaca baik itu novel, cerita pendek, artikel lain dari media cetak maupun elektronik, menonton film, dll yang semuanya berbahasa Inggris.

- **Tentang Bahan Ajar**

Sehubungan dengan pesan agar belajar mandiri, modul English Sentence Structure ini didesain untuk memberikan gambaran yang menyeluruh tentang:

1. Talking about people and things: The Nominal Group
2. Describing persons, things and circumstances: adjectival and Adverbial Groups.
3. Spatial, temporal and other relationships: The Propositional Phrase.
4. Talking about events: The Verbal Group.
5. Viewpoints on events: Tense, Aspect, and Modality.

Hendaknya disadari bahwa tidak semua isi dari modul ini bisa didiskusikan di kelas karena keterbatasan waktu. Pengampu matakuliah akan mendiskusikan bagian modul yang paling esensial dan mahasiswa diwajibkan membaca dan mempelajari seluruh isi modul dan mengerjakan latihan secara mandiri sebelum kelas dimulai.

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RENCANA PEMBELAJARAN SEMESTER

Jurusan	: Bahasa dan Sastra
Program Studi	: Sastra Inggris
Judul Mata Kuliah	: English Sentence Structure
No. Kode/SKS	: SBI 4202/3
MK Prasyarat	: -
Deskripsi Singkat	: This course includes all the elements of NOMINAL GROUP i.e. Determiner, Head, Modifier (Pre-H, Post-H), Noun Complement Clauses, function of the Nominal Group, Nominalization and Clause Combining.

Capaian Pembelajaran:

1. Students are able to produce and paraphrase texts in clauses which demonstrate their ability in using English grammar comprising all the elements described in the course description.
2. Students are able to produce texts in written and oral modes on various other topics.

PLO Acuan (Program Studi Learning Outcome):

Integrated with all other courses in language skills, the main learning outcome of the course is for the students to be able to produce paraphrases of argumentative texts for other courses assignment and for writing undergraduate thesis.

Dosen Pengampu :

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UNIT I

UNITS AND RANKS OF UNITS

Aim:

To raise the students' awareness on the four structural units which can be arranged in a relationship of component on what is called rank scale

Learning Outcome:

Students are able to write the boundary markers of clause; group; word; and morpheme

CLASSES OF UNITS

Table 1.1
Four Structural Units

Unit	Boundary marker	Example
Clause:		the effects of the accident are very serious
Group:		the effects of the accident are very serious
Word:	A space	the effects of the accident are very serious
Morpheme:	+	{EFFECT} + {PLURAL}, realised by the morphs effect and -s

EXERCISE I

Put boundary markers in the following clauses. Number 1 is done for you.

1. Paula didn't go to work yesterday
| Paula | didn't go | to work | yesterday |
|| Paula didn't go to work yesterday ||
2. Tina is not very well
3. I met a lot of people at the party
4. Helen stayed at her brother's house
5. Maria speaks four languages
6. They watched television yesterday evening
7. It's a lovely park with a lot of beautiful tree
8. Many people go there on holiday
9. Where are the scissors?
10. A lot of people speak English

UNIT II

EXPRESSING OUR EXPERIENCE OF PEOPLE AND THINGS: NOMINAL GROUP

Aim:

Increasing the students' language awareness
of the structure of the nominal group

Learning Outcome:

Students are able to:

- a. Rewrite the nominal groups (NG) in a clause
 - b. Rewrite the head of the nominal group (NG)
 - c. Identify the determiner, the pre and post-head modifier
-

- I. Read the following two texts about a painting by Edgar Degas. An Indonesian version is provided for you to understand the texts better.
- II. You are to paraphrase or rewrite text I using your own words.

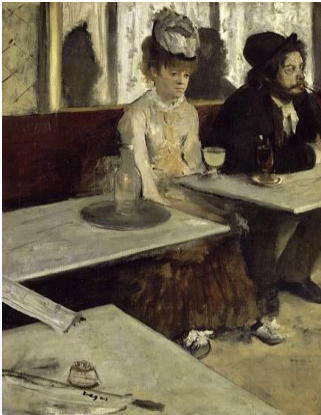
TEXT I



One Saturday morning in February 1893, a sale was in progress at the smart new rooms of a London art dealer in a street leading to the flower market in Covent Garden. Smartly dressed wealthy art lovers had come from all over the country to bid for pictures from the estate of Henry Hill. Lot 209, showing a man and a woman in a Paris café, was brought in by staff and placed on the easel. Instead of quiet appraisal, a hush fell on the gallery, followed by low groans of disgust, then the sibilant sound of hissing anger. Bizarrely a group of well-off English art lovers was jeering a painting by the acknowledged master Edgar Degas.

Source: Fairly Liquid (The Times weekend Review)

TEXT II



Painted in 1875–76, the work portrays two figures, a woman and man, who sit at the center and right, respectively. The man, wearing a hat, looks to the right, off the canvas, while the woman, dressed more formally, and wearing a hat, stares vacantly downward. A glass filled with the eponymous greenish liquid is on the table in front of her. The scene is a representation of the increasing social isolation occurring in Paris during its stage of rapid growth.

At its first showing in 1876, the picture was panned by critics, who called it ugly and disgusting. It was put into storage until being exhibited again in 1892, when it was booed off the easel. The painting was shown again in England in 1893, this time entitled *L'Absinthe*, where it sparked controversy. The people represented in the painting were reconsidered by English critics to be shockingly degraded and uncouth. Many regarded the painting as a blow to morality; this was the general view of such Victorians as Sir William Blake Richmond and Walter Crane when shown the painting in London.

That reaction was typical of the age, revealing the deep suspicion with which Victorian England had regarded art in France since the early days of the Barbizon School, and the desire to find a morally uplifting lesson in works of art. Many English critics viewed the picture as a warning lesson against absinthe, and the French in general. The comment by George Moore on the woman depicted was: "What a whore!" He added, "the tale is not a pleasant one, but it is a lesson". However, in his book *Modern Painting*, Moore regretted assigning a moral lesson to the work, claiming that "the picture is merely a work of art, and has nothing to do with drink or sociology." (Edited from Wikipedia.com)

TEKS II

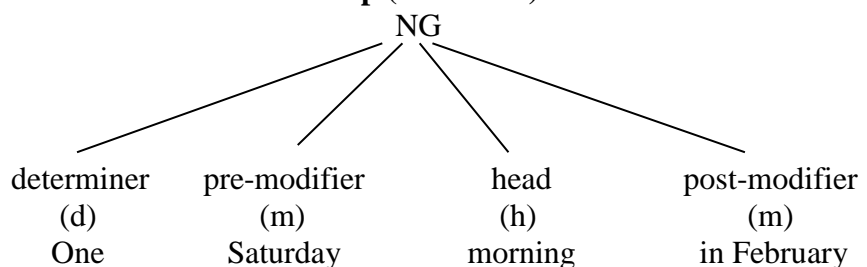
(terjemahan)

Dilukis pada tahun 1875-76, karya tersebut menggambarkan dua tokoh, seorang wanita dan pria, yang duduk di tengah dan kanan masing-masing. Pria itu, yang mengenakan topi, melihat ke kanan, keluar kanvas, sementara wanita itu, berpakaian lebih formal, dan mengenakan topi, menatap kosong kebawah. Sebuah gelas yang berisi cairan kehijauan eponymous ada di meja di depannya. Adegan tersebut merupakan representasi dari meningkatnya isolasi sosial yang terjadi di Paris pada saat negeri itu mengalami tahap pertumbuhan yang pesat.

Pada penampilan pertamanya di tahun 1876, gambar itu dipelototi oleh para kritikus, yang menyebutnya jelek dan menjijikkan. Ia dimasukkan kedalam penyimpanan sampai dipamerkan lagi pada tahun 1892. Saat lukisan itu dicerca dengan suara cemoohan dari tempat dimana lukisan itu diletakkan. Lukisan itu ditampilkan di lagi di Inggris pada tahun 1893, kali ini berjudul *L'Absinthe*, dimana ia memicu kontroversi. Orang-orang yang diwakili dalam lukisan tersebut dianggap oleh kritikus Inggris rendah moral dan kasar. Banyak yang menganggap lukisan itu sebagai tamparan terhadap moralitas. Ini adalah pandangan umum kaum Victorian tertentu seperti Sir William Blake Richmond dan Walter Crane ketika diperlihatkan (pada mereka) lukisan itu di London.

Reaksi itu khas pada zamannya, mengungkapkan kecurigaan yang mendalam kaum Victorian Inggris terhadap seni di Prancis sejak awal sekolah Barbizon, dan keinginan kaum Victorian Inggris untuk menemukan pelajaran yang mengangkat moral dalam karya seni. Banyak kritikus Inggris memandang lukisan itu sebagai peringatan melawan absinth, dan orang Prancis pada umumnya. Komentar oleh George Moore tentang wanita yang digambarkan adalah: "Betapa dia seorang pelacur". Dia menambahkan, "kisahnya tidak menyenangkan, tapi ini pelajarannya". Namun, dalam bukunya *Modern Painting*, Moore menyesalkan menugaskan pelajaran moral untuk pekerjaan tersebut, dengan mengklaim bahwa "gambar itu hanyalah sebuah karya seni, dan tidak ada hubungannya dengan minuman atau sosiologi." (Diedit dari Wikipedia.com)

2.1 The Structure of the Nominal Group (Overview)



2.1.1 The Head

Typically realized by:

A noun or pronoun

(book,it)

Substitute head one/ones

(a good one/good ones)

Adjectival heads/limited in English

(the poor,

the unemployed,

the supernatural)

2.1.2 The Determiner

Particularizes the noun referent:

- By establishing its reference as definite or indefinite by means of the article.
- Relating the entity to the context by means of demonstratives this, that, these, those (which are deitics or 'pointing words) signalling that the referent is near or not near the speaker in space or time (this book; that occasion)
- Signalling the person to whom the referent belongs (the possessives) - (my book; the Minister's reason)
- Particularizing words Wh-words (which book, whatever reason and the distributives each, every, all, either, neither). Quantification exact (one, seven, a hundred, the first, the next)

2.1.3 The Pre-head modifier (pre-modifier)

The pre-head modifier (pre-modifier) describes or classifies the referent.

2.1.4 The Post-head modifier (post-modifier)

Items placed after head noun and help to define and identify the noun referent. The post-modifier can also use the term qualifier, is realized by finite and non-finite clauses, prepositional phrase and to a lesser extent, by other groups.

- The film we saw (finite clause)
- A man reading a newspaper (non-finite, -ing clause)
- In february, 1893 (prepositional phrase)
- The car outside (adverbial group)

Supplementive post-head elements do not define the noun referent, but it contribute additional information.

- Integrated relative clause defining the noun referent
I picked up the umbrella that was lying on the floor (the one on the floor)
- Supplementive
I picked up the umbrella, which was lying on the floor (the only umbrella)

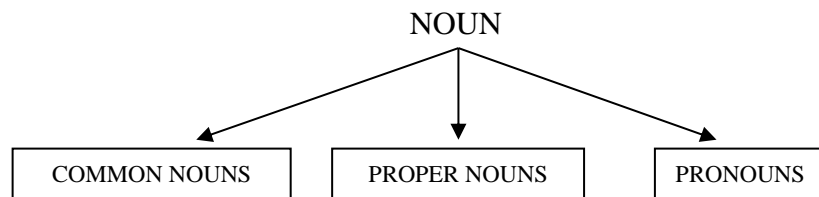
2.1.5 The Complement

Different from the post-modifier, the complement is realized for instance, by content clauses.

- The fact that he left
- The belief that peace was around the corner

2.2 The Head Elements

2.2.1 Head Element 1 (Common Noun)



Common Nouns

<u>Regular</u>		<u>Plurals</u>		<u>Irregular</u>		<u>Plurals</u>
Kiss	→	Kisses		Woman	→	Women
Church	→	Churches		Man	→	Men
Book	→	Books		Tooth	→	Teeth
Cake	→	Cakes		Child	→	Children
Cry	→	Cries		Half	→	Halves
Phenomenon	→	Phenomena		Calf	→	Calves
Criterion	→	Criteria		Loaf	→	Loaves
				Trout	→	Trout
				Salmon	→	Salmon
				Sheep	→	Sheep
				Deer	→	Deer
				Series	→	Series
				Species	→	Species
				Aircraft	→	Aircraft

Count And Non-Count Nouns

<u>Count Nouns</u>			<u>Non-Count Nouns</u>		
Cow	→	Cows	News	→	News
Book	→	Books	Furniture	→	Furniture
			Beef	→	Beef
			Luggage	→	Luggage

Grammatical Features of Countability Count Nouns

- **Cardinal numerals:** *one, two, three*, etc. (*four* miles)
- **Quantifiers** implying numerals: *both, a dozen*, etc. (*both* hands, *a dozen* eggs)
- **Article** *a(n)* (*a* new job)
- **Determiners:** *each, every, either, neither* (*each day* is different, we go there *every year*)
- **Plural determiners:** *many, several, few, these, those* (*many* choices, *few* opportunities, *these* aircraft, *those* sheep, *several* series)

Grammatical Features of Countability Non-Count (Mass) Nouns

- Zero determiner: *Water* is necessary for animal and plant life
- Singular form of the noun preceded by *all*: I say this in *all* sincerity. *All* equipment must be regularly inspected.
- Quantifier *much, little, a little*: There isn't *much* room in our apartment so we have *little* furniture (singular form of the noun).

Selected Classes of Non-Count Nouns

1. Non-Count Singular Nouns—the news is good

- a. Nouns which end in -ics appear to be plural but in fact singular.

linguistics	logistics	aerabics	athletics
statustics	phonetics	physics	politics
ethic	statistic	mathematics	ethics (an ethic, a statistic)

- b. Nouns which refer to a number of items conceptualized as an aggregat

baggage	luggage	cutlery c	rockery
jewellery	furniture		

- c. Names of certain illnesses, diseases and certain games

measles	mumps	rickets	AIDS
draughts	dart	skitties	

- d. Substances: natural phenomena, food

rain	snow	hail	sand	water	oil	bread
butter	coffe	meat	fruit	spaghetti		

- e. Abstractions

sleep	luck	advice	anger	disgust
peace	magic	silence	information	lourage
safety	knowledge	health	music	childhood
love	fun	justice	time	youth

- f. Activities

research	work	homework	travel
----------	------	----------	--------

- g. Miscellaneous

money	progress	environment	weather
electricity	machinery		

2. Non-Count Plural Nouns

1. trousers shorts pyjamas scissors specs sunglasses
2. manners thank belongings surroundings means clothes

3. Nouns With Count And Non-Count Uses

(some) *coffe*; two *coffes*

Mass: Coffe and tea help to keep you awake

Count: two coffes please, and three teas

4. Abstract Nouns

Health, wealth, love

Everyone needs *sleep*.

Silence in court!

They're making a lot of *noise*.

Time is on your side.

Business is improving.

One can never be sure of *success*.

Health is more important than *wealth*.

She fell into a deep *sleep*.

His remark was followed by a long *silence*.

I hear many strange *noises* at night.

How many *times* have you seen that film?

His several *businesses* are doing well.

As an actor, he had more *successes* than *failures*.

**Healths* are more important than **wealths* . (ungrammatical)

Countability Markers of Non-Count Referents

A bit of	paper, cheese, ham, cloth, wood, information, fun, advice, news
A piece of	paper, cheese, meat, chocolate, bread, toast, wood, advice, news
A clove of	garlic (vs a head of garlic)
A drop of	milk, whisk(e)y, sherry, water, blood
A game of	cards, tennis, monopoly, golf
A loaf of	bread
A pinch of	salt
A ray of	sunshine, light, hope
A scrap of	paper, cloth, evidence
A slice of	bread, ham, cheese, turkey
A speck of	dust, dirt (often used in the negative <i>not a speck of dust/dirt</i> , etc.)
A spoonful of	sugar
A bottle of	wine, beer, whisk(e)y, water
A cup/mug of	tea, coffee
A can of	beer, petrol
A carton of	yogurt, cream, custard
A pack of	cards, milk, fruit juice, yoghurts
A packet of	detergent, tea, coffee, cigarettes, biscuits
A tablet of	soap, chocolate
A tin of	tomatoes, soup, sardines, biscuits

2.2.2 Head Element 2 (Proper Noun)

Traditionally a distinction is made between **proper nouns** and **proper names**. Proper nouns such as *Hilary*, *Madrid* are nouns that have no definable meaning in the language. They are arbitrary. That is, we can't specify characteristics of entities called *Hilary* or *Madrid* as we can for the entities referred to by the common noun *horse*.

Proper names potentially have a more complex structure. They may consist of a proper noun such as *Coca-Cola* or include a proper noun as in *Real Madrid*, the *University of Oxford*. This is not necessarily the case, however, as can be seen from the titles of films and TV comedies with names such as *The Office*, *Sex and the City*, *The Golden Globe*. These and others, such as the names of universities, hospitals and other institutions, are – or started out as – descriptive labels.

All are definite and many contain a definite article as part of the name. Proper nouns such as *Washington*, *Moscow*, *Brussels* are used metonymically to stand for the administrative centre of the state or entity of which they are the capital.

Artefacts such as cars, designer clothes and paintings are commonly referred to by their owners by proper nouns functioning as common nouns: a *Volvo*, an early *Picasso*, your *Reeboks*.

2.2.3 Head Element 3 (Pronoun)

Personal Pronouns And Reflexive Pronouns

I, We	(1st person)
You	(2nd singular and plural)
He, she, it, they	(some of their meaning is derived from the context)
One	(impersonal singular pronoun)

I

I refers to the current speaker. The pronouns *we/us* either include (inclusive) or exclude (exclusive) the addressee.

inclusive <i>we</i> :	Shall <i>we</i> sit together over there?
inclusive <i>us</i> :	Let's go! Let us pray. (formal)
exclusive <i>we</i>	<i>We</i> wanted to ask you a favour.
exclusive <i>us</i> :	Let <i>us</i> go!

Illustration (I and We)

The following is the Dear Doctor section of the *Guardian*. Context will enable us to identify the referents of personal pronouns.

Dear Doctor (The Guardian)



Q. I live on the outskirts of London and have noticed a very tame fox that seems to be getting increasingly bold and is coming near the house. Last week, he (she?) even stuck his nose into the kitchen and we spotted him playing on the kids' swings and eating leftovers on the picnic table in the garden. He looks wary when he sees us but doesn't exactly run away. My wife is concerned about the potential health risk to us and to our young children. Should we get rid of him, and if so, how?

A. He's not a health risk unless you're a hen or a rabbit, in which case you're in mortal danger. Urban foxes never attack humans unless they're cornered and under attack themselves. Rabid foxes sometimes do, but there is officially no rabies in the UK.

Apparently, at this time of year, parent foxes turf out their young to fend for themselves, which is why they can be spotted wandering disconsolately round the garden, playing on swings and scavenging for food.

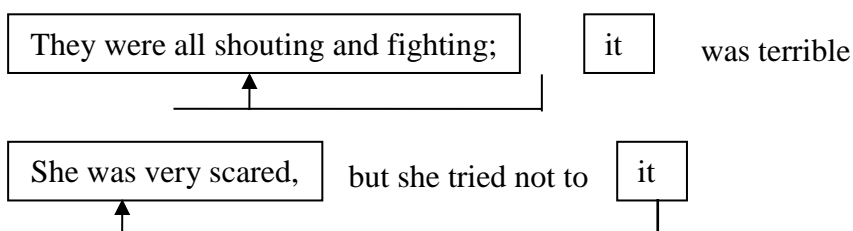
What are the referents of the personal pronouns in Q and in A?

- Q → *I* refers to
He/She refers to
A → *You* refers to
They refers to
Themselves refers to

The pronoun *It*

Besides referring to specific objects and animals the pronouns *it* can refer to a situation.

1. They were all shouting and fighting; *it* was terrible. (situation/fact)
2. She was very scared, but she tried not to show *it*. (situation/fact)



It is also used to refer to babies and infants, especially if the sex is undetermined by speakers.

3. Olga's baby is due in October. – Oh, is *it* a boy or a girl?

It is also used if the reference is generic.

4. After the child is born, *it* needs constant care.

Its reference is an overt syntactic subject.

5. *It* won't be easy to pass the driving test first time.

The reflexive pronouns

myself	yourself	himself	herself	itself
ourselves	yourselves	themselves		

- They learned to take care of *themselves*
- Susan *herself* told me so.
Susan told me so herself.

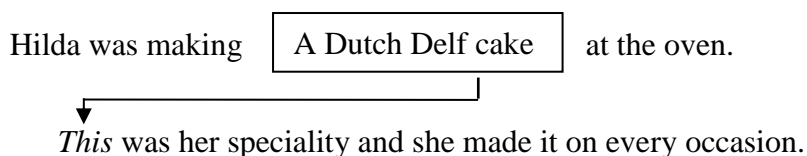
Interrogative and indefinite pronouns

Interrogative:	who	whose	which	what
Indefinite pronouns:	somebody	someone	something	anybody
	Anyone	anything	everybody	everyone
	everything	nobody	no-one	nothing

The Pronouns *this* and *that*

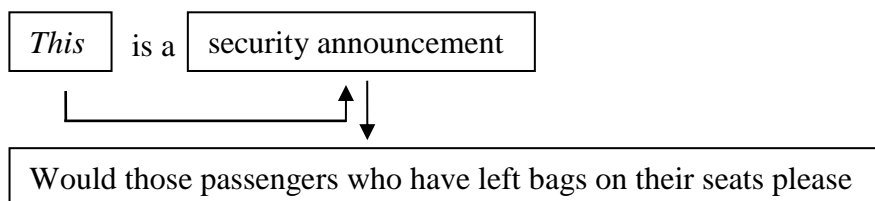
1. Anaphoric reference:

Hilda was making a Dutch Delft cake at the oven. *This* was her speciality and she made it on every occasion.



2. Cataphoric reference:

This is a security announcement: Would those passengers who have left bags on their seats please remove them.



3. Exophoric reference:

I never thought things would come to *this*. (= to this extreme)

SUBSTITUTE one/ones

1. I knew Mavis wanted a blue scarf, so I bought her *one*.
(*one = a blue scarf*)
2. I knew Mavis wanted a blue scarf, so I bought her a lovely *one*.
(*one= blue scarf*)
3. I couldn't find a blue scarf for Mavis, so I bought her a green *one*.
(*one=scarf*)
4. I know Mavis likes scarves, so I bought her *some* lovely ones.
(*ones=scarves*)

EXERCISE I

Identify the Nominal Groups and the Head Elements in the following sentences.

1. The Eastern Highlands are a mountain range running along Australia's east coast.
2. Temperatures in desert areas can reach 50 celcius degrees in summer.
3. Aboriginal peoples are thought to have come to Australia from Southeast Asia around 50,000 years ago when sea levels were much lower.
4. Over a third of Australia's export income comes from agricultural products.
5. Australia is still the largest wool exporter in the world.
6. The most important area for beef farming is the northern state of Queensland.
7. Crops are watered with irrigation system.
8. Australia is also rich in resources of minerals.
9. Minerals produce high export earnings.
10. Sydney is the largest city and has an important business district.

EXERCISE II



¹Two families, the Montagues and Capulets, live in Verone, Italy, but they don't get on with each other. ²Romeo, son of Montague, thinks he is in love with Rosaline, but unfortunately she doesn't love him. ³He goes to see her at a party at the house of his enemy Capulet, but there he sees Juliet, Capulet's daughter. ⁴She doesn't know his name because he has a mask. ⁵Tybalt, one of the Capulet family, tries to fight with Romeo, but Capulet doesn't allow this. ⁶However, Tybalt doesn't agree with him, and doesn't forgive Romeo for coming to the house. ⁷Romeo manages to talk to Juliet, and he kisses her.

⁸They don't understand that their families are enemies.⁹When Romeo learns the truth, he doesn't care that his love for Juliet could be very dangerous. ¹⁰Later he goes back to the house and stands in the garden. ¹¹Juliet is standing on the balcony talking to herself about Romeo, but doesn't see him below in the garden. ¹²After he talks to her, they soon show their love for each other, and agree to get married. ¹³However, they don't realize that a terrible tragedy is about to happen.

Here is a list of the nominal group taken from the passage.

1. Two families
det head

The Montagues and Capulets
det head

Verone, Italy
head post-head

They, each other
pronoun post-head
2. Romeo - son of Montague
He – Rosaline
She – him
3. He – her – a party at the house of his enemy Capulet
He – Juliet – Capulet's daughter
4. She – his name
He – a mask
Tybalt – one of the Capulet family
Romeo – Capulet – this

Continue doing the same exercise with the rest of the passage. Find the nominal groups and underline the pre-head (pre-modifier), the HEAD and the post-head(post-modifier) if any.

EXERCISE III

What does the underlined word refer to?

1. We have all heard of the Pyramid of Giza, one of the seven wonders of the ancient world.
2. It is not known exactly how such a huge pyramid was built.
3. This huge project probably involved all the people who could work.
4. We can also assume that it must have been designed and planed.
5. Most pyramids were tombs, but now they are empty inside.

6. If you ask anybody whether there are pyramids in Greece, they would probably answer 'No'.
7. People all suppose that the Egyptian pyramids are the oldest, but this may not be true.
8. Nobody visits the Greek pyramid of Hellenikon, but in fact it may be older than any of the Egyptian pyramids.
9. Nobody knows exactly why it was built, but it is believed to be a monument over a tomb.
10. It's not one of the seven wonders of the world, but it is something interesting.

EXERCISE IV

Are the NGs in the following examples interpreted as mass or count?

- (1) I haven't time¹ to go to the gym² these days. But I'm really keen on gym.³
- (2) The only things my sister likes are fashion⁴ and shopping.⁵
- (3) I'll see you in class⁶ on Tuesday – unless, of course, I'm moved to a different class.⁷
- (4) My agent will be handling my appearance⁸ in the show next week.
- (5) Cynthia and I are going over to Jean's this evening to do our homework⁹ together.
- (6) My sister's boy-friend is really good at football.¹⁰

EXERCISE V

Read the following passage by Valentina Tereshkova, the first woman in space, and say whether you interpret each NG as count or mass:



It is deep in *one's nature* to expect or not to expect *material comfort* and it starts as a *habit* in *childhood*. That is why I did not find *the cosmonaut's denial* of *terrestrial comforts* difficult.

The space flight was like being born again – not only the *satisfaction* of the *scientific achievement*, but also *the impact* of seeing how fragile *our planet* looks from *outer space*. It is so beautiful. I wish I could be a *painter*. *The sight* convinced me that we must treat it kindly and that *humanity* must have *the common sense* never to let *atomic flames* engulf it. All *cosmonauts* feel like *members of one family* but *my space experience* inspired me to see *the people who live on our planet* also as one family.

UNIT III

REFERRING TO PEOPLE AND THINGS AS DEFINITE, INDEFINITE, GENERIC

Aim:

- a. Aim to raise the students' language awareness on the how to refer to people and things as definite indefinite and generic
- b. Increasing the students' skill in producing a text

Learning Outcome:

Students are able to:

- a. To refer to people and things in text as definite, indefinite, or generic
 - b. Use definite, indefinite, or generic in producing texts
-

3.1 Definite And Indefinite Reference

Definite reference	: the
Deictic determinative	: this, that, these, those
Possessive	: my, your, etc
Indefinite reference	: a(n), unstressed some, any, zero article

Table 3.1
The article

	Mass	Singular count	Plural count
definite	the butter	the woman	the women
indefinite	— (zero) butter (unstressed) some butter	a woman —	— (zero) women (unstressed) some women

Illustration:

The Sunday Times (news item)

A tiger attacked a child of six during a show at a school in California after its handler lost control of the 200lb animal. The head teacher wrestled the boy from the animal's jaws and he was flown to hospital.

Why *a* tiger, *a* child of six, *a* show, and *a* school?

BUT

The 200lb animal, *the* boy, and *the* animal's jaws

Definiteness is inferred if there is sufficient information to identify it. In the text (its handler, the head teacher). The non-linguistic situation (Don't forget to lock the door). In general knowledge (The Olympic Game)

Note that neither the handler nor the head teacher in this text had been previously mentioned. We identify them in relation to 'tiger' and 'school', respectively through general knowledge and inference: animals on show have a handler and schools have a head teacher. This is shown as indirect anaphoric reference.

3.2 Indefinite Reference: Specific And Non-Specific

singular	:	I've bought <i>a new car</i> .	(indef. specific)
		I need <i>a new car</i> .	(indef. non-specific)
plural	:	I've got <i>some friends</i> in London.	(indef. specific)
		I've got <i>friends</i> in London.	(indef. non-specific)
mass	:	I managed to find <i>some work</i> .	(indef. specific)
		I managed to find <i>work</i> .	(indef. non-specific)

Ted wants to buy *a house in Sussex*. (= any house, as long as it's in Sussex)

Ted wants to buy *a house in Sussex*. It's number 2, Farm Road, Brighton. (= a specific house)

3.3 Definite Reference

The definiteness of a common noun is indicated by the article *the*. This does not by itself identify the referent, but indicates that it can be identified within the text, or outside the text in the situation or from general knowledge. Within the text, the reference may be anaphoric (backwards) or cataphoric (forwards). The anaphor often expresses the antecedent in different words, as in the following news item:

Ten lionesses at the city zoo are to be put on a contraceptive pill to prevent a population explosion. For 20 years *the lions*¹ have prided themselves on their breeding capabilities. Now, *the treatment*² will make them infertile for 3 years and so stop *the increase*.³

¹= ten lionesses; ²= a contraceptive pill; ³= a population explosion

Reference to shared knowledge immediately identifies the referent of, for example, *the sun, the sky, the rain, the government, the political situation, the television*.

When the noun functions as Complement in a verbless clause introduced by *when, while, if, although*, definiteness can be marked by zero:

While Minister of Health, he introduced many reforms.
Although not party leader, he greatly influenced the party's policies.

3.4 Generic Reference

Each of the articles can also be used when we wish to refer to a whole class of entities, usually with regard to their typical characteristics or habitual activities:

the + singular count noun: They say *the elephant* never forgets.
a(n) + singular count noun: They say *an elephant* never forgets.
zero + plural count noun: They say *elephants* never forget.
zero + mass noun: They say *exercise* keeps you healthy.

Both *the* and *a(n)* are acceptable with a characterising predicate, as in our next example, since carrying its young in a pouch is characteristic of each and every female kangaroo:

The female kangaroo carries its young in its pouch.
A female kangaroo carries its young in its pouch.

The article *the* tends to generalise more readily than *a(n)*, which refers essentially to a singular indefinite member as representative of its class. *The* + singular count noun may have a generalising value, even when not used in a generic statement:

Do you play *the piano*?
Some people sit for hours in front of *the television*.

Zero article with plural count nouns may have generic or indefinite reference according to the predication:

Frogs have long hind legs. (generic = all frogs)
He catches *frogs*. (indefinite = an indefinite number of frogs)

A mass noun with zero article can be considered generic even if it is modified:
Colombian coffee is said to be *the best*. It is definite, however, if preceded by *the*.
Contrast, for example:

generic:	<i>Nitrogen</i> forms 78% of the earth's atmosphere.
definite:	<i>The nitrogen</i> in the earth's atmosphere is circulated by living organisms.

EXERCISE I

The article *the* indicates that the referent of a noun is being presented as definite, and can be identified either somewhere in the text or from our general knowledge. Read the following short paragraph from Mario Puzzi's *The Godfather* and then do the exercise given below.



The Don was a real man at the age of twelve. Short, dark, slender, living in the strange Moorish-looking village of Corleone in Sicily, he had been born Vito Andolini, but when strange men came to kill the son of the man they had murdered, his mother sent the young boy to America to stay with friends. And in the new land he changed his name to

Corleone to preserve some tie with his native village. It was one of the few gestures of sentiment he was ever to make.

- (1) Write out the definite nouns in the text and say how each one is identified, within the text or outside it.
- (2) Write out the indefinite nouns in the text, and say how their indefiniteness is marked,
e.g. *The Don*: The article forms part of a proper noun and proper nouns are inherently definite.
the age: Identified by the qualifying information of *twelve*.
a real man: Marked by *a* as an indefinite-specific count noun.

EXERCISE II

Express the following sentences differently, using 's determinatives if you think this structure is acceptable:

- (1) I should like the opinion of another doctor.
- (2) Have you read the report of the chairman of the examination committee?
- (3) The failure of the Regional Training Scheme was inevitable.
- (4) The dog belonging to my next-door neighbour barks all night.

EXERCISE III

The following are generic statements in which the first noun is preceded by a definite or indefinite or zero article. Test each noun for its use with the other two articles, and say whether either of them can also be used to express generic reference.

- (1) *A liquid* has no shape.
- (2) *Gases* have no mass.
- (3) *A human being* needs the company of others.
- (4) *War is* politics carried out by violent means.
- (5) *Animals* that live in captivity play with their food as if it were a living animal.
- (6) *Television is* a mixed blessing.
- (7) *The bicycle is* a cheap form of private transport.
- (8) *The computer* has revolutionised business methods.

EXERCISE IV

Which of the following statements do you interpret as indefinite and which as generic?

- (1) *Bicycles* are very useful during a holiday.
- (2) We always hire *bicycles* during our holidays.
- (3) I have *official information* for you.
- (4) *Official information is* usually difficult to obtain.

EXERCISE V

What are the two possible interpretations of the final noun in the following sentence?

My sister wants to marry *a Frenchman*.

UNIT IV

SELECTING AND PARTICULARISING THE REFERENT: THE DETERMINER

Aim:

To raise the students' language awareness on the different types of determiner and its function

Learning Outcome:

Students are able to produce a text with more proper use of nominal group and determiner

DETERMINER functions to particularise and help to identify the NG referent in the context of speech :

Which, What, Whose, How much, How many, What part, What degree, How big, How frequent, How is it distributed in time and space.

Demonstratives : this, that, these, those

Indicating whter it is near, (this, these) or NOT near (that, those) the speaker, in space or time or psychologically.

POSSESSIVE DETERMINATIVES

Example	Paraphrase	Function
My daughter's car	My daughter has a car	possessive
Napoleon's army	N. commanded the army.	subjective
Napoleon's mistake	N. made a mistake.	subjective
Napoleon's defeat	N. was defeated by X.	objective
Europe's chief cities	The chief cities in Europe.	locative
Today's paper	The paper published today.	temporal
A month's holiday	The holiday lasted a month.	extent
The dog's tail	The dog has a tail.	metonymy (part-whole relation)
The car's brakes	The car has brakes	metonymy
The sun's rays	The rays come from the sun.	source

Varied the determinatives (*my, your, his, her, its, our, their, someone's, everyone's, nobody's*) and the others:

His mistake	He made a mistake.	subjective
Our friendship	We became friends.	reciprocal
Their love	They love each other.	reciprocal
Its collapse	It collapsed.	subjective

My supervisor's advice; my mother and father's wishes.

I liked those other children's paintings very much.

That young Japanese pianist's performance was wonderful.

4.1 Functions of the 's Phrase

The central function of the 's phrase is: to **specify** the nominal group referent, as in *that girl's name*. Classify (girl's names) ; a lady's bicycle (the bicycle of a particular Lady) on (the class of bicycle designd for Ladies, not for men). Other examples of this type include :

a lion's mane, a bird's nest, and a child's toothbrush.

4.2 Possessives as Nominal Group Heads

The possessive pronouns *mine, yours, his, hers, (its), ours, theirs* function not as determinatives but as pronominal heads. For examples :

Let's have dinner at Archy's. These gloves aren't mine, they're Daniel's. I have to go to the cleaner's (dry cleaner's) , the butcher's , the florist's.

Other example :

1. Let's have dinner at the Archy's
Det H
2. I have to go to the cleaner's (dry cleaner's)
Det H
3. These gloves aren't mine
H (Pronominal)
4. They're Daniels
H
5. A friend of mine
Det H Post-Mod
(Pp – possessive Phrase)
6. A friend of my sisters
Det H one among several Post-Mod

4.3 Wh- determinatives: which, whose, what

Which, whose = ask about specific selection among a known number

what = asks about the identity or kind of thing something is.

Whatever, Whichever = express non-specific selection, meaning 'it doesn't matter what', 'it doesn't matter which'.

Other examples :

Which bus do you take?

Whose car did you come in?

What plans have they made for the summer?

You'll have to rely on *whatever transport* is available.

You'll find plenty of traffic *whichever road* you take.

What hopes we had are now fading. (= *whatever hopes, any hopes*)

4.4 Quantifiers

Exact (*three friends*), non-exact (*many friends*), ordinal (*the first friend*), or partitive (*three of my friends*).

Exact numeratives

The **cardinal numerals** one, two, three . . . twenty-one, twenty-two . . . a hundred and . . . one thousand, two hundred and ten, and so on. These function directly as determinatives.

The **ordinal numbers** – first, second, third, fourth, fifth . . . twenty-first . . . hundredth . . . hundred and fifth and so on – specify the noun referent in terms of order. They follow a determinative, as in: *the first time, a second attempt, every fifth step*, and in this respect are more like the semi-determinatives, including *the next, the last*.

Non-exact quantifiers

The two types select referents by referring to:

- their indefiniteness: *some, any, no, much, many, little, few (a(n))*
- their distribution: *all, both, either, neither, each, every, another, other*.

4.5 Indefinite Quantifiers {Some, any, no, (none)}

Some specifies a quantity; *some money, some time, some friends, some details*. Other quantifiers are used to express very small or very large amounts.

Pronunciation:

non-selective /səm/ We're spending some days by the sea.

selective /s_m/ Some days it's hot, other days it's cold.

Stressed *some* can also be used with various types of evaluative force:

quantifying: I haven't seen you for some time. (= a long time)

appreciative: That really was some meal! (= a wonderful meal)

Any has two meanings, as illustrated in the following examples :

1. Have you *any* money/*any* coins? I haven't *any* money/*any* coins.
(specifies an indeterminate amount or number of something. It occurs in negative and interrogative clauses)
2. *Any* information would be useful.
(*any* is equivalent to 'no matter which or what'. It occurs typically in affirmative clauses and is stressed)

This use of *any* with *anything* and *either*:

You can choose *any* of the main courses on the menu. (it doesn't matter which)

You can choose *anything* on the menu. (it doesn't matter what)

You can choose *either* meat or fish. (one or the other, not both)

The negative determinative *no* has mass, count, singular and plural references: *no time, no change, no changes*.

There is no need to worry. No changes will be made. None (pronoun) will be made.

Some and *any* – but not *no* – can function as elliptical heads of the NG. Instead of *no*, the pronoun **none** is used, as in the previous example, and also for the partitive (‘none of the men’) :

Have you any change? Yes, I have <i>some</i> .	No, I haven’t <i>any</i> . I have <i>none</i> .
Did you have any <i>problem</i> in parking?	No, <i>none</i> . (= no problem)
Did you have any difficulties with your papers?	No, <i>none</i> . (= no <i>difficulties</i>)

Note that *not* is a negative particle, and does not function as a determinative or a pronoun. It can precede the quantifiers *much* and *many* in ellipted responses:

Isn’t there anything to eat? *Not* much.
Haven’t you any *friends*? *Not* many.

Much, little, a little, many, few, a few

These quantifiers are used with both indefinite and definite NGs. With definite reference they are followed by *of* and have **partitive** reference: they represent a subset of an already selected class:

<i>Indefinite reference – non-partitive</i>		<i>Definite reference – partitive</i>
much time, much food	(+ mass n.)	Much of the time, much of the food
little time, little food	(+ mass n.)	little of the time, little of the food
many pubs, many people	(+ count n.)	many of the pubs, many of the people
few seats, few people	(+ count n.)	few of the seats, few of the people
a few seats, a few people	(+ count n.)	a few of the seats, a few of the people

These quantifiers can function as ellipted heads. *Much* and *many* are used mainly in negative and interrogative clauses. *Much* and *little* are commonly modified by *very* or replaced by *a lot*, *not very much*, respectively:

Is there much food? There’s very little. There’s a lot. *There’s much. There isn’t much. There aren’t (very) many people.

A lot of, lots of, plenty of, a great deal of, a number of a lot of/lots of

These quantifiers are determinatives with noun heads followed by a PP complement. They range from the informal (*a lot/ lots of*) to the formal (*a great deal/ number of*). Some of them admit both mass and count nouns, others do not:

Singular mass and plural count:	a lot of, lots of, plenty of	a lot of/lots of/ plenty of money a lot of/lots of/plenty of friends
Singular mass only	a great deal of	a great deal of money
Plural count only:	a number of	a number of policemen

More informal combinations of this type which function like *a lot / lots of* include *loads of, heaps of, masses of*. These phrasal quantifiers are not partitives even though they contain the preposition *of*. Here the examples :

Non-partitive quantifiers	Partitive quantifiers
A lot of money was wasted No money was wasted They spent a great deal of time in pubs Some books were damaged in the fire Few seats were vacant Three people were injured Their first child was born in Wales	A lot of the money was wasted None of the money was wasted They spent a great deal of the time in pubs Some of the books were damaged in the fire A few of the seats were vacant Three of the people were injured The first of their children was born in Wales

4.6 Distributors: *All, both, either, neither, each, every*

All power corrupts	: mass
All men are mortal	: plural nouns (generic sense)
All day, all night, all America	: certain temporal and locative nouns
All followed by of + noun	: all the pie; all of the pie; all the pages; all of the pages

Both refers to two entities together.

Either and the negative form *neither* refer to two entities as alternatives.

Each and *every* refer to one of a group or series, *each* emphasises the separateness of the entity,

every highlights the individual within the group. *every* is applicable only to groups of three or more.

Each can refer to two entities separately (*each hand, each foot*)

Both, either, neither and *each* (but not *every*) can take optional *of* before the noun (the partitive use). Here are some examples:

All birds have feathers, but *not all* birds can fly. (generic)

All the bedrooms/*All* of the bedrooms have a balcony and telephone, and *some* take a third and fourth bed

Keep hold of the wheel with *both* hands.

Both children/*both* the children/*both* of the children had measles at the same time.

He can write with *either* hand/*with either* of his hands.

Neither twin/*neither* of the twins is very good at maths.

Each player/*Each* of the players was given a premium.

This applies to *each* of us – men as well as women.

Two out of *every* five people catch more than one cold a year.

Every known criminal of New York was there.

They went to visit her, as they did nearly *every* Sunday.



All, both and each following pronouns

These distributors can follow pronouns, whether subjective or objective, for emphasis:

They all/both/each carried backpacks.

We've bought them all/both bicycles. We've bought them each a bicycle.

All of them have bicycles. Both of them have bicycles. Each of them has a bicycle.

All, everything, everyone/everybody

All is marginally used in formal styles as an alternative to *everything* to refer to a situation, ideas, objects, actions in general terms:

All went well. *Everything* went well.

All is ready. *Everything* is ready.

All is much less common than *everything* and *everyone* in everyday English, however. Furthermore, it is not used as an elliptical head in Object and Complement functions, where it can be used with a pronoun. Compare:

*I liked all. I liked everything. I liked it all.

Everyone and *everybody* refer to all the people in a particular group. The notion of generality can be extended to wider groups and even everyone everywhere:

Everyone enjoyed the show.

He poured drinks for *everybody*.

Everyone condemned the terrorist attack.

Everyone has their own opinion.

All is not normally used in this way, without a head or modifier. Compare:

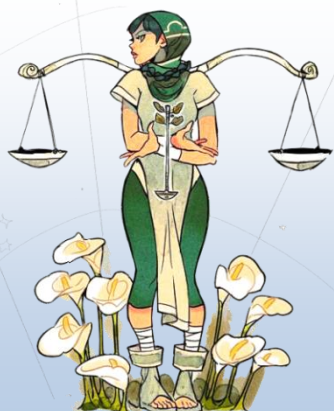
*All enjoyed the show. All those present enjoyed the show.

*He poured drinks for all. He poured drinks for all present/ for us all/
for them all

All people is not an acceptable alternative to *everyone/everybody*. *All the people there* would refer to definite people on a specific occasion, rather than the more general meaning of totality expressed by *everyone*.

Underline the determiner in the following horoscope:

Libra (Sep 24 – Oct 23)



None of it matters quite as much as we think. All of it is a journey, a dream. Of course, it seems real. Dreams always do while we are dreaming them. This does not make life any the less precious. To the contrary. We should treasure every moment because we never know how many more moments we will have left. Yet sometimes, we cannot properly treasure each moment because we are too worried about making the most of our every moment. This weekend brings magic. Enjoy it.

4.7 The semi-determinatives: such, what, certain, same, (an) other, former, latter

These words (except *such*) are sometimes classed as adjectives. However, they do not describe the referent and appear to have a specifying function. They precede either a definite or an indefinite determiner.

Such and exclamatory *what* are among the few elements of this kind which precede the indefinite article. They require *a(n)* before a singular count noun, zero before noncount and plural nouns. ***Such*** classifies an entity by kind or intensifies it by degree. It usually relates to something already mentioned in the discourse :

Classifying: (= of that kind)

I've never heard of *such an animal*.

Such cruelty is incomprehensible.

Such people are dangerous

Intensifying:

Don't be *such a fool*! They are *such idiots*! (= of that degree)

Certain, by contrast, follows *a(n)* or is followed by zero. It helps to pick out a specific, but as yet not identified, person or thing:

There is a *certain* opposition to the Government's proposals.

A *certain* person in this room might disagree with you.

Same indicates that the person or thing referred to is exactly like one previously mentioned :

He always asks *the same* two questions.

Another (+ singular count noun) has two meanings: it indicates that the entity referred to is different from one already mentioned; and it refers to a subsequent

entity of the same kind as the one already mentioned in the discourse. The indefinite plural **other** (+ plural count noun) is used mainly in the first sense :

Couldn't you choose *another* title? (= a different title)

Would you like *another* beer? (= of the same kind, not of a different kind)

I saw him *the other* day. We talked about *other* things.

Former and **latter** refer back to the first and the second respectively of two entities already mentioned. They are preceded by the definite article and can occur together with the 's possessive determinative :

Bill and Steve both made proposals. The *former's* was rejected, the *latter's* approved. *Former* is also used adjectivally with the meaning of 'previous' when referring to jobs, positions or roles. In this function it may be preceded by a possessive determinative such as *my*, *your* :

A former President of the Royal Society.

His former partner has set up business on his own.

Note that *such* and *the same* can function as substitute heads, as in:

Is this a dangerous area? I wouldn't consider it as *such* (= a dangerous area)

Alice had a cola and Sue had *the same* (= a cola)

4.8 Summary of determinative features

The following table summarises the four broad experiential types of determination by which referent things can be particularised in English:

1. Defining and Particularizing	2. Quantifying and distributing	3. Numbering and ordering	4. Semi-determinatives
Definite The	Fractional (+/- of) the half, (a) quarter two-thirds, four-fifths, etc. a dozen, a thousand	Cardinal one, two, ten, two hundred, etc.	such, certain, former, latter; same, other, last, next, own
Indefinite a(n), some zero (0)	Multiplying (*of) double, treble, twice,	three times,	
Demonstrative This, that, these, those	hundreds of, thousands of, millions of	Ordinal	
Possessive			

my, your, his, her, their Sam's, my friend's etc.		first, second, third . . .	
Interrogative/relative what, whose, which, whichever	Non-exact some, any, no much, (a) little, (a) few many, several, enough		
Exclamative what (a) . . .	Other quantifiers A lot of, lots of, plenty of, a great deal of, a number of Distributives all, both, either, neither, each, every, none (of)		

EXERCISE I

Complete the following sentences with one of the following: *each, every, both, either, neither, all, any, none, no* (In some cases more than one determinative is possible):

- (1) She tells me she plays golf almost ----- weekend.
- (2) ----- of the brothers applied for the job but ----- was successful.
- (3) Draw a line between ----- item and the next.
- (4) ----- child should spend some of its leisure time with ----- parent.
- (5) There are two good films on the television this evening, but I have seen them -----
- (6) Ah, in fact there are three and I haven't seen ----- of them/ I have seen -----
- (7) He has passed ----- exam so far.
- (8) ----- type of coffee except the soluble kind will do.

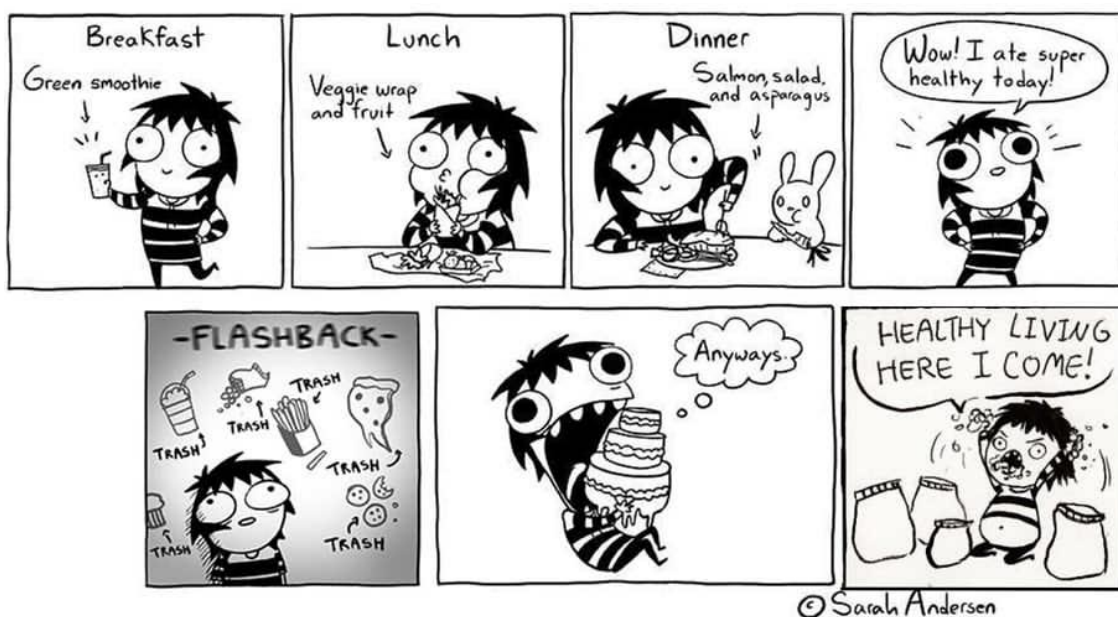
EXERCISE II

Express the following sentences differently, using 's determinatives if you think this structure is acceptable:

- (1) I should like the opinion of another doctor.
- (2) Have you read the report of the chairman of the examination committee?
- (3) The failure of the Regional Training Scheme was inevitable.
- (4) The dog belonging to my next-door neighbour barks all night.
- (5) The grandmother of one of the girls in my class has died.
- (6) Here's the address of the only person I know in London.

EXERCISE III

Underline the determiner of the Nominal Group in the following text.



Many people nowadays try to follow a healthy diet, although not many experts agree about what this is. In fact lots of people assume that 'diet' is something connected with losing weight. Diet simply refers to the kind of food and how much of it we eat. There are very few foods that we can describe as completely 'unhealthy', and not many foods have zero nutritional value. However, if you eat lots of chocolate and fried food and take little exercise, then your diet would probably be described as 'unhealthy'. Many experts recommend that we all eat lots of fruit and vegetables, and eat very little fatty food. People are often surprised when they discover how little fat there is in popular fast foods such as burgers and pizzas, or how many calories there are in soft drinks. Unfortunately few of us can resist this kind of food, and there are not many people who are prepared to give up chocolate or chips. There are few easy answers to the question 'what is a healthy diet'. However, if we eat lots different kinds of food, drink lots of water, and make sure we take lots of exercise, then we will be going in the right direction. After all none us are perfect!



In geography, a desert is an area which receives little rain and which loses lot of its moisture through evaporation. Many polar regions can be called deserts, but most of us think of a desert as being a sandy, rocky area with not enough water. Lot of deserts consist of sand dunes or bare rock, and many are near mountain ranges, which take away the moisture from clouds. Others are far away from the sea or other water, so receive little moisture. Although we might assume that very few kinds of life live in deserts, in fact there are lots of plants, animals and insects in these regions. Many desert plants store water in their leaves or roots, and some desert plants can live for many years. Some desert

animals live underground. They spend little time in the sun and only come out at night. There are lots of insects, scorpions and spiders as well as reptiles. such as snakes, lizards and tortoises, in deserts. They need to spend many hours in the sun to generate body heat, so they have little difficulty living in high temperatures. However, few of them can bear extreme sunlight, so they tend to move from one area of shade to another.

UNIT V

CLASSES OF CLAUSE

Aim:

To raise the students' language awareness on the classes of clauses

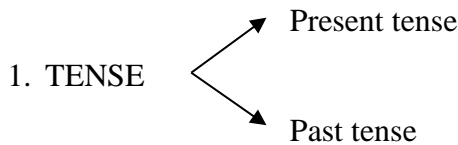
Learning Outcome:

Students are able to:

- a. Differentiate the finite verb from the non-finite verb
 - b. Differentiate the finite clause from the non-finite clause
-

5.1 Finite and Non-Finite Clauses

5.1.1 Finite Clauses are marked for either



Note: Future tense is not recognized in English Grammar.

Tense is carried not only by lexical verbs but also by the finite operators.

Table 5.1
Lexical Operator

Lexical Verb	Finite Operators/Auxiliary
Eats	Does
Locked	Did
Went	Did
Will stay	will

2. MODALITY is marked by the modal verbs which also functions as FINITE OPERATOR.

Positive : can, could, will, would, shall, should, may, might, ought.

Negative: can't, couldn't, won't, wouldn't, shan't, shouldn't, may not, mightn't, oughtn't

Example:

1. ||I *had* a farm in Africa, at the foot of the Ngong hills.||
2. ||The Equator *runs* across these highlands a hundred miles to the north,||
3. And ||the farm *lay* at an altitude of over six thousand feet.||
4. ||In the daytime you *felt* that you *had got* high up, near to the sun,||
5. but ||the early mornings and evenings *were* limpid and restful, ||
6. ||and the nights *were* cold.||

Table 5.2
Marks of Meaning

No	Finite verb	Marks for meaning
1.	I had	(tense, past)
2.	The equator runs	(tense, present) + (number=third person singular)
3.	The farm lay	(tense, past)
4.	You felt	(tense, past)
5.	You had got	
6.	Early morning and evenings were	(tense, past)
7.	And the nights were	(tense, past)

NOTE:

Table 5.3

Present	Past	Past Participle
have	had	had
run	run	run
lie	lie	lie
feel	felt	felt
am	were	been
is		
are		

Table 5.4

Finite verbs in the passage

NO CLAUSE	VERB	TENSE	NUMBER	MODAL
1.	Had	past	-	-
2.	Runs	present	Singular, third person	-
3.	Lay	past	-	-
4.	Were	past	-	-
5.	Were	past	-	-
6.	Were	past	-	-

Table 5.5

Operator (auxiliary)

NO	VERB	FINITE OPERATOR
1.	Had	<i>did have</i>
2.	Runs	<i>Does run</i>
3.	Lay	<i>Did lay</i>
4.	Were	Were
5.	Were	Were
6.	Were	Were

5.1.2 Non-Finite Clauses

The verb form does not signal either tense or modality

1. Bare infinitive (be, eat, lock, go)
2. To infinitive (to be, to eat, to lock, to go)
3. Participial –ing form (being, eating, locking, going)
4. Past participle been (been, eaten, locked, gone)

Symbol

1. Inf → be, eat
2. To-inf → to be, to eat
3. -ing → being, eating
4. -en → been, eaten

Example:

1. They want to hire a caravan
finite non-finitie
(to inf)
2. Tim helped her carry her bag upstairs
finite cl non-finite cl
(tenses-past) (inf)
3. We found Ann sitting in the garden
finite cl non-finite cl(-ing)
(tenses-past)
4. The invitation sent written by hand
finite cl non-finite cl
(-en)

Table 5.6
Non Finite Verb

NUMBER OF CLUSE	NON FINITE VERBS	TENSE	NUMBER	MODAL
1.	To hire	-	-	-
2.	Carry	-	-	-
3.	Sitting	-	-	-
4.	Written	-	-	-

5.2 Independent and Dependent Clauses

An independent clause is complete in itself. A dependent clause is typically related to an independent clause.

They locked up the house , before they went on holiday
dep clause indep clause

All grammatically independent clauses are FINITE.

They locked up the house

Dependent clauses may be finite or non-finite.

Before they went on holiday
go-past
finite

Before going on holiday
non-tensed
non-finite

Only independent clauses have the variations in clause structure

Jack's flat is in Hammersmith	→ (declarative)
Is his address 20 Finchley Road?	→ (interrogative)
Give me Jack's telephone number	→ (imperative)
What a large apartment he has!	→ (exclamative)

5.3 Finite Dependent Clauses

1. / As soon as / she got home. Ann switched on the television
finite (dep.clause) finite (indep.clause)
2. Paul took one of the red apples that his wife had bought this morning
indep.clause finite(dep.clause)
3. He saw that the bottles were empty
indep.clause embedded, filling the slot at Object
matrix object
4. What I don't understand is why you have come here
nominal relative clause dep. Wh-interrogative
5. I'll ask where the nearest underground station is
dep. Wh-interrogative
6. She said how comfortable it was
dep. Exclamative clause
7. The results are much better than we expected
comparative adjective comparative clause

5.4 Syntactic Elements of Clauses and Groups

Clauses have the greatest number of syntactic elements or functions of all classes of unit. The criteria for their identification, the syntactic features and the realisations of each are discussed in Chapter 2. Here we simply list and exemplify the clause elements within common clause structures. The type of structure used in order to express a 'situation' or 'state of affairs' depends to a great extent on the verb chosen.

Subject (S)	<i>Jupiter</i> is the largest planet.	SPCs
Predicator (P)	The election campaign <i>has ended</i> .	SP
Direct Object (Od)	Ted has bought <i>a new motorbike</i> .	SPOd
Indirect Object (Oi)	They sent <i>their friends</i> postcards.	SPOiOd
Prepositional Object (Op)	You must allow <i>for price increases</i> .	SPOp
Subject Complement (Cs)	He is <i>powerless to make any changes</i> .	SPCs
Object Complement (Co)	We consider the situation <i>alarming</i> .	SPOdCo
Locative/Goal	We flew to <i>Moscow</i> .	SPCloc
Complement (Cloc)		
Circumstantial Adjunct (A)	The news reached us <i>on Tuesday</i> .	SPOdA
Stance Adjunct (A)	<i>Unfortunately</i> , we could not reach York in time.	ASPOdA
Connective Adjunct (A)	<i>However</i> , other friends were present.	ASPCs

Syntactic Elements Of Groups

There primary elements of functions:

A pre modifier (m), a head (H), post modifier (m)

EXERCISE

A. Underline the non-finite clause

1. At that moment, Charles appeared in the hall, propelling himself in a wheelchair.
2. The mountains were invisible, enveloped in a think mist.
3. That was the last turns I saw him, his face all covered in bandages.
4. The soldiers filled the coaches, the younger ones eating sandwiches and chocolate.

B. Underline the non-finite verb

1. Eating pancakes is a pleasant thing.
2. To walk in the Japanese garden is nice.
3. I love eating pancakes.
4. He went there to see them.
5. The problem is to decide on what to eat.
6. Being rejected in this way, I consider I have rights too
7. Having been invited for so many years, I felt I couldn't turn them down again.

C. Fill the finite operator in the table below. You can refer to table 5.5.

Number 1, 2 and 8 have been done for you.

1. He grew up in London.
2. He got married.
3. They had children.
4. He began writing plays in Stanford.
5. Archimedes discovered the principle of density and buoyancy.

6. About 15% of protein eaten by humans has always come from fish.
7. I'm sorry to keep you waiting.
8. A new railway link will carry spectators to the Olympic Park.
9. For some events the Games will use well-known places in Central London such as Hyde Park and House Guards Parade.
10. I drive but my sister cycles.
11. The sun rises in the east and sets in the west.
12. I understand geography more than science.
13. Those new mp3 players are very expensive.
14. I am having a great time.
15. The surface feels hard.
16. Manuela is listening to music in her room.
17. Everybody knows that the world's rainforests are disappearing.
18. Alexander Fleming discovered penicillin by accident.
19. Charles Dickens, the novelist, used to write until early in the morning.
20. The novelist Marcel Proust used to work in a special sound proof room.


Finite Verbs

NO	VERB	TENSE	NUMBER	MODAL	OPERATOR
1	Grew	past	-	-	did <i>grow</i>
2	Got	past	-	-	did <i>get</i>
8	Will carry	present	-	will	carry
3					
4					

D. Identify the syntactic elements of the following clauses. Example:

He grew up in London **SPA**
He got married **SPCs**

21. The ancient Greek philosophers used to hold their classes outside in the open air.
22. Several things has caused this problem.
23. Scientists have recently identified a new species of animal in the rainforest of Borneo.
24. They have been searching for this creature for several years.
25. Archaeologists in Guatemala have found a Mayan wall painting which they think is more than 2,000 years old.
26. We are holding a science fair next weekend.
27. There will be displays of students work, and a guest speaker.
28. Look at the ship!
29. The concert will be over by now.

- 
30. Her mother will know her age.
 31. He would be about sixty.
 32. It won't work.
 33. The key must be in your pocket.
 34. Dinner should be ready.
 35. You must be hungry after such a long journey.
 36. They may be pearls you know.
 37. I may be a four minutes late.
 38. The key won't go in the lock.
 39. I'll bring you something back from Paris.
 40. You must try harder.
 41. I must catch the last bus.
 42. I would have helped you.
 43. Dad would be coming home.

UNIT VI

DESCRIBING AND CLASSIFYING THE REFERENT: THE PRE MODIFIER

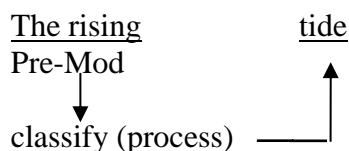
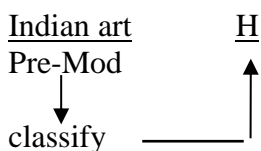
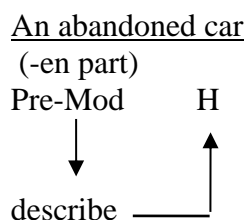
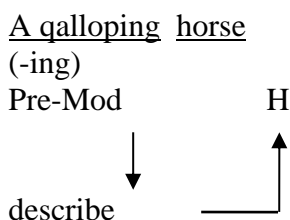
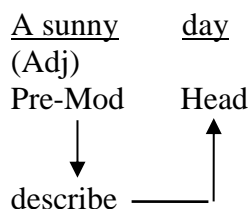
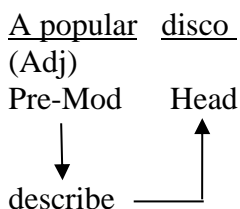
Aim:

To raise the students' awareness on the structure of pre-modifier in a nominal group

Learning Outcome:

Students are able to:

- a. Differentiate the pre-modifier functions, epithet and classifier.
 - b. Differentiate epithet function of adjectives
(descriptors and attitudinal uses)
-



6.1 The Pre-Modifier Functions: Epithet and Classifier

The pre-modifier (experiently the epithet and the classifier) is different from the determiner. While the determiner function is realized by closed class items which define and select the referent, the pre-modifier pre function describes or classifies the referent by means of open class items, mainly adjectives and nouns.

Descriptor and classifier elements

- | | |
|----------------------------|---|
| (a) adjectives | <i>smart</i> rooms, <i>low</i> groans, a <i>tall</i> building, <i>good</i> weather (epithet); <i>new</i> rooms, <i>digital</i> camera (classifier) |
| (b) <i>en</i> -participle | <i>well-dressed</i> art-lovers (epithet), the <i>acknowledged</i> master, <i>worn-out</i> machinery, <i>fallen</i> leaves (classifiers) |
| (c) <i>ing</i> -participle | a <i>disappointing</i> exam result/ finish (to a match), <i>brehtaking</i> speed (epithet); <i>running</i> water, a <i>leading</i> article, <i>coming</i> events (classifier) |
| (d) noun | the <i>flower</i> market, a <i>Paris</i> cafe (classifier) |

6.2 Adjectives As Epithet: Descriptors And Attitudinal Uses

Epithet function of adjective

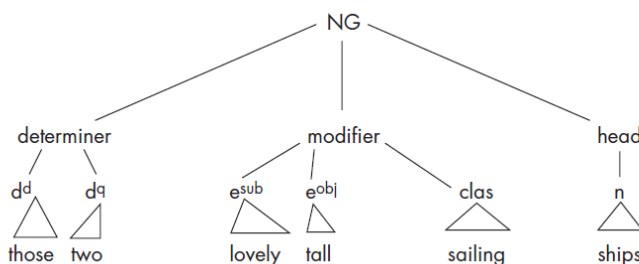
- Quality → big, old, red, etc
- Objective quality → a square box, a round table, a blue truck, old magazine
- Subjective quality → good, bad, nice, stupid, lovely, horrible, etc

Attitudinal adjectives are usually placed before descriptive ones

e.g. a marvellous sunny day
a sickly greenish yellow that splendid, delicious meal
a whopping big lie
a sweet little girl

Coordinated adjectives

Co-ordinated : and → good and bad camping site
or → hot or cold meals
either...or → either white or light blue shirt
but → a long but interesting trip
yet → a strange yet friendly person



1. Long, winding roads; hard, stale cheese
Exotic, exciting, focused female
What (an) absurd, cruel, strange, mad thing (to do)
Educated, kind, slightly mad, solvent, good-looking gentleman seeks partner for long term relationship.
2. Good *and* bad camping-sites
Hot *or* cold meals
Either white *or* light blue shirts
A long *but* interesting trip
A strange *yet* friendly person
3. An enlightening *if* heated discussion
A disappointing *though* not unexpected result

4. A large, rectangular, black box.
An attractive, ambitious woman.
A small , pretty, well-kept garden.
A sudden loud, ear splitting crash.
5. Dental treatment
Medical treatment
6. More effective treatment
Very effective treatment
7. Fried eggs, boled eggs, poached eggs, scrambled eggs.
8. African politics, Swedish voters, the Conservative party;
Average age, regular doctor, standard size, top ten, main road
Personal contribution, particular occasion;
Former boss; old friend; previous page; left leg; right hand;
Prehistoric remains, modern times, classical music;
Municipal authorities, industrial unrest, metropolitan police;
Medical student, social worker, agricultural expert;
Atomic energy, digital watch, mobile

Both *-ing* and *-en* participles classify an entity by a process: *coming* events, *sun-dried* tomatoes.

9. *Apple* blossom
A girls' school
Farmyard animals
Social security contributions
10. New and second-hand stereos Brand-new stereos
European and local councils Various agricultural colleges
Lunch and dinner menus Early chinese pottery
Plane or coach trips Modern sculpture techniques
11. Silk and cotton shirt Pure silk shirt
Bus and coach stations Inter-city coach station
12. Pro- and anti-abortionists
An only child, an away match
Over-the-counter sales, on-line editing
A new year's eve party
A stop-and-go policy, a live-and-let-live philosophy
A bored-with-life attitude
A couldn't-care-less attituded
13. The History and Geography Faculty Apple and blackberry tart
The Management and Finance Committee A plane and coach trip

14. Chrome bathroom fittings.
Madrid terrorist bombings.
15. *Sub-modified classifier* *Sub-modified head*
Dining-car service pocket address book
State school pupils *The Observer* book reviews
Two-litre plastic jug Italian graduate students
Hard-boiled eggs Australian ostrich eggs
16. NATO: North Atlantic Treaty Organisation
AIDS: Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
TEFL Teaching English as a Foreign Language
VIP: Very Important Person
17. Those beautiful Persian RUGS we saw
german leather suitances
Indian lamb curry
(steel medical instrument, cotton gardening gloves)
18. A large oil tanker
Increased income tax rebates.
A beautiful blue silk scraft
A nice hot indian curry
Interested foreign spectators
An exciting new adventure story
A battered old leather suitcase

EXERCISE I

1. Write down the nominal group with pre-modifier.
2. Underline the pre-modifier.
3. Write down the adjectival epithets.



The car carrying the two *escaped* killers, Rickman and Hoser, nosed carefully into the *unidentified* desert town. It was that *darkest* hour before dawn of a *moonless*, starlit night. Rickman, the more *vicious* man, driving, with *cold*, *snake-like* eyes and *bloodless* mouth.

Since they had murdered their three hostages, they had been attempting to find their way towards the *Mexican* border, driving without lights on back roads and wagon trails.

EXERCISE II

Identify the Head of the Nominal Group and the Pre-Modifier.

One Saturday morning in February 1893, a sale was in progress at the smart new rooms of a London art dealer in a street leading to the flower market in Covent Garden. Smartly dressed wealthy art lovers had come from all over the country to bid for pictures from the estate of Henry Hill. Lot 209, showing a man and a woman in a Paris café, was brought in by staff and placed on the easel. Instead of quiet appraisal, a hush fell on the gallery, followed by low groans of disgust, then the sibilant sound of hissing anger. Bizarrely a group of well-off English art lovers was jeering a painting by the acknowledged master Edgar Degas.

EXERCISE III

Identify the Head of the Nominal Group and the Pre-Modifier.

Painted in 1875–76, the work portrays two figures, a woman and man, who sit at the center and right, respectively. The man, wearing a hat, looks to the right, off the canvas, while the woman, dressed more formally, and wearing a hat, stares vacantly downward. A glass filled with the eponymous greenish liquid is on the table in front of her. The scene is a representation of the increasing social isolation occurring in Paris during its stage of rapid growth.

At its first showing in 1876, the picture was panned by critics, who called it ugly and disgusting. It was put into storage until being exhibited again in 1892, when it was booed off the easel. The painting was shown again in England in 1893, this time entitled *L'Absinthe*, where it sparked controversy. The people represented in the painting were considered by English critics to be shockingly degraded and uncouth. Many regarded the painting as a blow to morality; this was the general view of such Victorians as Sir William Blake Richmond and Walter Crane when shown the painting in London.

That reaction was typical of the age, revealing the deep suspicion with which Victorian England had regarded art in France since the early days of the Barbizon School, and the desire to find a morally uplifting lesson in works of art. Many English critics viewed the picture as a warning lesson against absinthe, and the French in general. The comment by George Moore on the woman depicted was: "What a whore!" He added, "the tale is not a pleasant one, but it is a lesson". However, in his book *Modern Painting*, Moore regretted assigning a moral lesson to the work, claiming that "the picture is merely a work of art, and has nothing to do with drink or sociology."



UNIT VII

IDENTIFYING AND ELABORATING THE REFERENT: THE POST MODIFIER

Aim:

To review the structure of the NOMINAL GROUP

Learning Outcome:

Students are able to:

- a. Identify the nominal group and the post-modifier of a text
 - b. Identify the pre-modifier and post-modifier of a text
 - c. Revise the texts they have paraphrased
-

7.1 The Post-Modifier is Realized by a Wide Variety of Units PPs (Prepositional Phrase)

Example : a. The house on corner
b. A new album by a top musician.

Finite relative clauses

Example : the man who is standing in the corridor

Non finite relative clauses

Example : a. The man standing in the corridor (-ing cl.)
b. the man to consult is Jones (to -inf cl.)
c. The fax sent this morning (-en cl.)

Adjective or AdjG

Example : a. A room full of furniture
b. The best hotel available.

Adverb

Example : a. The flat upstairs.

Appositions NG

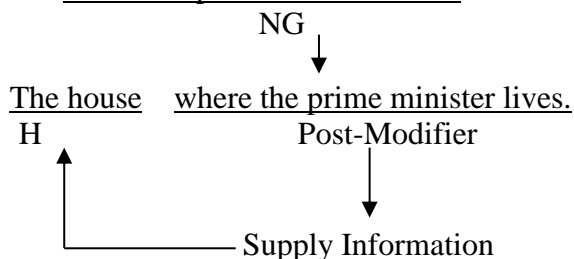
Example : a. My friends the doctor
b. The doctor himself

7.2 Communicative Functions of the Post-Modifier Elements

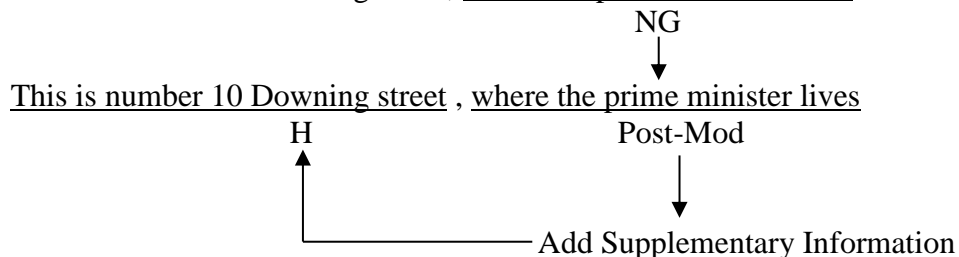
1. Supply information
2. To add supplementary information

Example :

A. The house where the prime minister lives.



B. This is number 10 Downing street, where the prime minister lives



Sentence 1

This	is	the house where the Prime minister lives
------	----	--

Sentence 2

This is number 10 Downingstreet	,	where the prime minister lives
---------------------------------	---	--------------------------------

The post modifier is realized by a wide range of units, including clauses, phrases and groups

7.3 Restrictive and Non-Restrictive Realizations of the Post-Modifiers

Restrictive (embedded) realization of the post-modifier:

Type of unit

Example :

- | | |
|---------------------------|---|
| 1. Finite relative clause | Perhaps the people who were waiting are still there |
| 2. Non- finite clauses | |
| - To – infinitive clauses | It's time to say good night; There's nothing to eat. |
| - Ing clauses | An envelope containing a white powdery Substance. |
| - En clause | Spring water bottled in the Malvenn Hills. |
| 3. Prepositional phrase | A policeman on a motorcycle
A new album by a top musician |
| 4. Adjectival group | A box full of screwdrives and spanners |
| 5. Adverbial group | The prime minister's speech yesterday |
| 6. Appositive | Our son, Barney the explorer, Marco Polo |
| 7. Reflexive pronoun | The American themselves |
| 8. Noun complement clause | Expectation that we will win the cup
Their plans to go on strike |
| 9. PP complement | Reliance on public transport
A threat to our security |

Non-restrictive (supplementive) realisations of the post-head element:

- | | |
|---------------------------|---|
| 1. finite relative clause | A meeting was arranged with the gypsies, <i>who were allowed to stay until the 24th of July</i> |
| 2. non-finite clauses | |
| -ing clause | . . . and the taps, <i>gleaming as gold</i> , were surrounded by a platoon of little bottles and cases, <i>all matching</i> |
| -en clause | the enormous volume, <i>dedicated to his wife</i> , lay on the desk |

- | | |
|--------------------------|---|
| 3. prepositional phrase | The departure time, <i>at 5 a.m.</i> , was uncomfortably early. |
| 4. adjectival group | and he opened out the big, blue toolbox, <i>full of screwdrivers and spanners</i> |
| 5. circumstantial clause | We were all just trying to get through high school so we could hurry up and get to college, <i>where</i> , we'd heard, <i>things were better</i> (<i>All American Girl</i>) |
| 6. appositive NG | our youngest son, <i>Barney</i> ; Marco Polo, <i>the explorer</i> |
| 7. verbless clause | and the Minister, <i>himself a Quaker</i> , made no objection |
| 8. complement clause | her life-long wish, <i>to own a horse</i> , was at last fulfilled |

7.4 Finite Relative Clauses as Post-Modifiers

7.4.1 The Relativisers

A. Who (objective *whom*) in the following examples:

1. Perhaps the people *who were waiting* are still there. (perhaps **the people were waiting are still there*)

B. Whom, in the following examples:

1. The students *with whom I share a flat*.
2. The students *who I share a flat with/that I share a flat with/I share a flat with*

C. Which , in the following examples:

1. The matter *which concerns us at present* (subject)
2. There is one matter *which I must bring up* (object)
3. Their life was one *for which she was unprepared*. (following a preposition)
4. Their life was one *that/which/(0) she was unprepared for*.

D. That, in the following example:

The large Alsatian *that* lives next door is rather fierce.

E. Zero, in the following examples:

1. The girl *to whom I lent my coat*
2. The girl *whom I lent my coat to*
3. The girl *that I lent my coat to*
4. The girl *I lent my coat to*

F. When and **where**, in the following example:

He place *where he was born*; the time *when he's sure to be at home*.

G. Why, in the following example:

There's no reason *why we shouldn't be friends*.

H. Whose, in the following example:

1. Children *whose parents both go out to work*
2. The houses *whose roofs were in need of repair*.

7.4.2 Features of the Restrictive Relative Clause

The restrictive relative integrates with the head noun together with its pre-modifiers to form a larger unit, syntactically, prosodically and semantically, explain more:

- Syntactically it is embedded in the NG matrix structure.

They admitted the immigrants *who had their papers in order*. (only the immigrants who had their papers in order)

- The larger NG unit with its relative clause can be expanded by a further relative clause:

The umbrella *we bought that has a duck's head handle* made a good present.

- They can serve to distinguish between two referents with the same name (by treating them as common nouns), as in:

“Do you mean the Toledo *which is in Spain* or the Toledo in the United States?”

7.4.3 Features of the Non-Restrictive Clause

Prosodically, they don't share the intonation contour of the matrix clause. Instead, they have their own intonation contour, which constitutes an independent information unit:

“They admitted the immigrants, *who had their papers in order*.”

Non-restrictive relatives can have as antecedent a proper noun or name which identifies a particular person or persons, object(s) or institution(s). The pronouns used are *who*, *whom*, *whose* and *which*, rarely *that*:

- a) I'll give the CD to Ben, *who* likes music. (*that likes music)
- b) The injured child was taken to Alderhey Children's Hospital, *which* is in Wavertree.

Semantically, the non-restrictive clause is not an integral part of the NG :

- a) Plans for the new airport, *which will cope with ten times the present air traffic*, are now under way.
- b) You would think that my dad, *who is an international economist with the World Bank*, would understand this. (*All American Girl*)

It makes an independent statement, which is an extension of the already complete unit. As such, non-restrictive relatives are increasingly found functioning as freestanding subordinate clauses, which may initiate a new paragraph in written discourse:

And into the room walked David, the President's son.
Who also happened to be David from my drawing class with Susan Boone.

7.5 Non-Finite Relative Clauses as Post-Modifiers

-ing clauses and -en clauses



He wrote a book *containing his reminiscences of five U.S. Presidents*. The book also described his own life as a press officer *serving them in the WhiteHouse*. (*Libra*, journal of Foyle's Ltd)

- ing clauses: He was sent several letters, *all containing a white, powdery substance*.
 The stained-glass windows, *illustrating biblical scenes*, are splendid.
- a) -ed-clauses: The enormous volume, *dedicated to his wife*, lay on the desk.

to-infinitive clauses – nothing to fear

As post-modifiers, *to*-infinitive clauses can correspond to full relative clauses in which the relative pronoun is S, Od or C:

- S** The next train *to arrive at Platform 5* is the express train to York
 (= the train *which/that will arrive*)
- Od** They have nothing to eat. (= nothing *which* they can eat)
 The man *to consult* is Jones. (= the man *whom/that* you should consult is Jones)
- C** The commonest kind of worker *to become nowadays* is an unemployed one. (= The commonest kind of worker *that one can become*)

7.6 Other Types of Unit as Post-Modifiers

7.6.1 Prepositional Phrases

Other examples :

The concert on Monday	a clown with a red nose
The plane from Oslo	a job for the experts
A ticket to Paris	the man in the dark suit
The end of the story	the back wheels of the car

The departure time, *at 5 o'clock in the morning*, was uncomfortably early for most passengers. (non-restrictive)

Multiple PP post-modifiers can be either coordinated or embedded:

The path over the cliffs and down to the beach. (coordinated)
Those books [on the top shelf [of the bookcase [in my bedroom]].

7.6.2 Adjectival Groups

Single adjectives are rarely used as post-modifiers and are limited to the following types:

- ✓ A small number of fixed expressions, the relic of a French structure: a court *martial*, the devil *incarnate*, from time *immemorial*;
- ✓ After certain pronominal heads: those *present*, something *nice*, nobody *interesting*;
- ✓ Adjectives placed after a modified noun head, but which modify the modifier, not the head: *the worst time possible* = the worst possible, not *the time possible. The close relationship between *worst* and *possible* is shown by the possibility of placing them together as an epithet: *the worst possible time*.

Adjectival group post-modifiers usually contain their own modifier elements:

- ✓ We chose the solution *most likely to succeed*.
- ✓ He always wore socks *full of holes*.

In supplementary verbless clauses, coordinated or post-modified adjectives are said to be more acceptable than single ones. Thus, the single adjective is less likely than the longer, coordinated structure:

1. The other candidates, *confident*, all passed the test.
2. The other candidates, *confident and well-prepared*, all passed the test.

But see the following extract from an article by Jeremy Clarkson in *The Sunday Times*, which illustrates the use of various supplementary units. Adjectival groups are underlined:



Here's a game you might like to try next time you're in America. Go into a Denny's restaurant and see if you can order breakfast in such a way that the waitress can ask no supplementary questions.

It's very hard. Denny's offers a vast range of everything, *all of which can be cooked in ways you haven't even dreamed of.*

Take eggs: they can be soft-boiled, hard-boiled, scrambled, sunny-side up, sunny-side down, easy over, over easy, easy easy, over there or poached. So you have to be specific.

'Hello, I'd like a table, wooden preferably, *for two, in the smoking section*, and I would like to eat four rashers of bacon, crispy, two eggs, *sunny-side up*, rye bread, sausages, no grits, no water, no hash browns, and coffee, *with milk, semi-skimmed*, and two level teaspoons of sugar, *not sweetener*.'

You'll sit back, confident that you've covered all the bases. But you haven't, have you? You didn't say whether you wanted sausage links or sausage patties, and the waitress is going to pounce on that. So you lose.

7.6.3 Adverbial Groups

Adverbial group heads used to post-modify nouns express notions such as space, time and reason. In many cases they may be analysed as ellipted adverbial groups or clauses:

Place : Is this the way *out*?

Time : He came, and left the week *after*.

Reason : She fell out with her sister, but I never knew the reason *why*.

Table 7.1
Relative adverbial clauses as post-modifiers

Restrictive	Supplementive
1 She took her degree at the university <i>where she was studying</i> . 2 The week <i>when the exams take place</i> , I intend to be ill. 3 The reason <i>why I ask</i> is very simple.	1 She took her degree at London University, <i>where she was studying</i> . 2 The week after, <i>when the exams took place</i> , I was ill. 3 And the mystery, <i>why the numbers were changed</i> , was never solved.

The relative adverbs *when* and *why*, but rarely *where*, can be replaced by *that* or *zero* in restrictive clauses:

In the week (*that*) the exams take place . . .

The reason (*that*) I ask you . . .

The town where I was born but not *The town that I was born.

Zero is also common after the head noun *way*: *That's not the way we do it here*.

7.6.4 Appositive Nominal Groups

The closest post-modifying relationship is that between the head of a NG and an appositive unit, that is, a nominal unit that has the same referent. The relation between them and the head noun may be integrated (*my friend the doctor* . . .) or supplementive (*my friend, the doctor I told you about* . . .). The following are some of the appositive relationships these may express:

Definition	: My friend the doctor.
Naming	: The explorer Marco Polo.
Role	: Thierry Henry, Arsenal's leading goal-scorer.
Description	: Chivalry, the dominant idea of the medieval ruling classes, was symbolised by the Round Table, nature's perfect shape.
Particularisation	: The members voted for a change in the statutes: <i>the zelection of the chairman by popular vote</i> .
Identity	: We British; Me Tarzan, you Jane.

7.7 Mixed Realisations of the Post-Modifier

The following is an example of a pronominal head ('something') which has as post-modifier a single finite relative clause, some of whose elements are realised more than once. Embedding is indicated here by a bracket, and coordination by '+':

The other night, on television, I saw SOMETHING [which reminded me of the Spaniards [going into South America + and

advancing over the mountains + and terrifying the population with terrible new weapons, + cannon + and the horse [which nobody [in their world] had ever seen].

Virtually every STUDENT

[normally resident in England or Wales],
[with specified minimum qualifications],
[who is admitted to a full-time degree].

is entitled to a GRANT

[from his/ her Local Education Authority],
[which is intended to cover his/ her TUITION FEES AND MAINTENANCE
[for the duration [of the course]
[and which also includes AN ELEMENT [towards his/ her vacation
maintenance.]]

Ambiguity

The relation between two post-modifying units may be potentially ambiguous in NG's such as *Those books on the table which you bought*, which can represent two different structures:

coordinated Those books [on the table] [which you bought.]

embedded Those books on the table [which you bought].

In reverse order – *Those books which you bought on the table* – the meaning can only be guessed.

In writing, the solution is to punctuate the parenthesis:

Those books, that you bought, on the table . . .

In spoken English, the most likely form is:

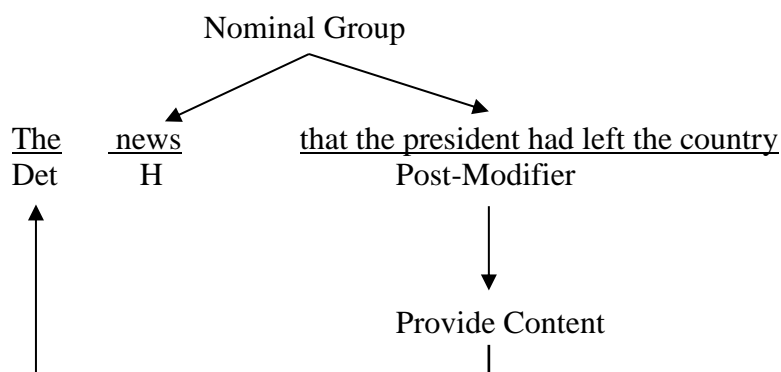
Those BOOKS you bought | on the table | . . .

This would be understood as

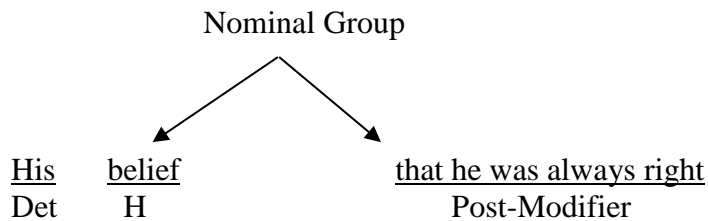
[Those books [that] you bought, [the ones] on the table, . .

7.8 Noun Complement Clause as Post Modifier

Example: A. The news that the president had left the country was expected



B. His belief that he was always right



EXERCISE I

Identify the Head of the Nominal Group and the Post-Modifier.

Painted in 1875–76, the work portrays two figures, a woman and man, who sit at the center and right, respectively. The man, wearing a hat, looks to the right, off the canvas, while the woman, dressed more formally, and wearing a hat, stares vacantly downward. A glass filled with the eponymous greenish liquid is on the table in front of her. The scene is a representation of the increasing social isolation occurring in Paris during its stage of rapid growth.

At its first showing in 1876, the picture was panned by critics, who called it ugly and disgusting. It was put into storage until being exhibited again in 1892, when it was booed off the easel. The painting was shown again in England in 1893, this time entitled *L'Absinthe*, where it sparked controversy. The people represented in the painting were considered by English critics to be shockingly degraded and uncouth. Many regarded the painting as a blow to morality; this was

the general view of such Victorians as Sir William Blake Richmond and Walter Crane when shown the painting in London.

That reaction was typical of the age, revealing the deep suspicion with which Victorian England had regarded art in France since the early days of the Barbizon School, and the desire to find a morally uplifting lesson in works of art. Many English critics viewed the picture as a warning lesson against absinthe, and the French in general. The comment by George Moore on the woman depicted was: "What a whore!" He added, "the tale is not a pleasant one, but it is a lesson". However, in his book *Modern Painting*, Moore regretted assigning a moral lesson to the work, claiming that "the picture is merely a work of art, and has nothing to do with drink or sociology."

EXERCISE II

Identify the Head of the Nominal Group and the Pre-Modifier and the Post-Modifier.



One Saturday morning in February 1893, a sale was in progress at the smart new rooms of a London art dealer in a street leading to the flower market in Covent Garden. Smartly dressed wealthy art lovers had come from all over the country to bid for pictures from the estate of Henry Hill. Lot 209, showing a man and a woman in a Paris café, was brought in by staff and placed on the easel. Instead of quiet appraisal, a hush fell on the gallery, followed by low groans of disgust, then the sibilant sound of hissing anger. Bizarrely a group of well-off English art lovers was jeering a painting by the acknowledged master Edgar Degas.

EXERCISE III

Revise the paraphrase of text II that you have produced.

UNIT VIII

NOUN COMPLEMENT CLAUSES

Aim:

To raise the students' awareness on the difference between the structure of modification and the structure of complementation and nominalization

Learning Outcome:

The students are able to paraphrase and produce text using NC, noun complement clauses and nominalization

The function of the that-complement clause is to report a proposition (that inflation is going down, that they might be beaten) derived from the previous discourse. Noun complement clauses occur mainly in formal written and spoken English. They are not at all common in conversation.

The two main types of noun complement clause are *that*-clauses and *to*-infinitive clauses. Less common types are *of* + *-ing* clauses and *wh*- complement clauses.

with a corresponding verb:

knowledge, belief, assumption, claim, thought, report, hope, reply, wish, proof, guess, expectation, suggestion, intuition, hypothesis

with a corresponding adjective:

awareness, confidence, probability, eagerness, possibility, likelihood

simple:

fact, story, idea, news, message, rumour

The fact *that inflation is going down* is a sign *that our economy is improving*.

The possibility *that they might be beaten* never crossed their minds.

His *suggestion* that the meeting be postponed was accepted. (cf. He suggested that...)

The following lines from the Sunday Times about social systems in the Pacific Islands illustrate this type of complement.



No culture has failed to seize upon the conspicuous facts of sex and age in some way, whether it be *the convention* of one Philippine tribe *that no man can keep a secret*, the Manus' assumption *that only men enjoy playing with babies*, or the Toda belief *that almost all domestic work is too sacred for women*.

Noun complement clauses can also be used non-restrictively following a relative clause that post-modifies the same noun:

The rumour *that was circulating*, *that the Chancellor was about to resign*, proved to be false.

8.1 To- Infinitive Complement Clauses

Head nouns which take *to*-infinitive complement clauses are likewise often related to a verb or an adjective and include the following:

de-verbal	:	attempt, decision, desire, failure, plan, tendency, permission
de-adjectival	:	ability, inability, right, capacity
simple	:	chance, effort, opportunity

The function of *to*-infinitive complements is to point to human acts or goals, as in:

attempts to trump up facts and evidence
failure to warn the students in advance
plans to build a new underpass

To-infinitive complements must be distinguished from PP complements with the preposition *to*. The following quotation illustrates the difference:

The global threat *to our security* was clear. (PP complement = x threatened security)
So was our duty *to act* to eliminate it. (*to*-infinitive complement)

(PM Tony Blair's speech on the threat of international terrorism, 5 March 2004)

8.2 Of+ -Ing Complement Clauses

Head nouns which take *-ing* followed by *of* complement clauses include: *thought, habit, importance, way, effect, danger, risk*.

There is overlap with the *to*-infinitive construction in that some nouns (*idea, way, possibility, thought, hope*) can take either of these constructions as complement, besides taking a relative clause with *that* as post-modifier:

The risk *of losing* your way in the forest/*that* you might lose your way. (comp.)
The possibility *of not being rescued*/*that* you might not be rescued. (comp.)
The risk/possibility *that* you told us about was very real. (restrictive relative clause)

8.3 Wh-Complement Clauses

A further type of post-head complement is the *wh*-clause. It is most common when following the preposition *of* or *about*. Both finite clauses and non-finite *to*-infinitive can occur:

The question (of) *how much we should spend on our holidays* . . .
He has strong doubts (about) *whether he should accept the post*.
The question (of) *how much to spend on our holidays* . . .
He has strong doubts (about) *whether to accept the post*.

8.4 Prepositional Complements Of Nouns

These are typically controlled by nouns which have corresponding verbs:

A desire <i>for</i> fame	x	desires fame
Reliance <i>on</i> public transport	x	relies on public transport
A lack <i>of</i> knowledge	x	lacks knowledge

The preposition *of*, however, is controlled by many nouns which are not related to: *advantage, danger, effect, importance, means, method, problem, purpose, task, way*. The following extract from David Lodge's novel *The British Museum is Falling Down* illustrates the use of certain types of post-modifier and complement:



... the Department did not have the resources *to mount a proper graduate programme*,¹ and in any case espoused the traditional belief *that research was a lonely and eremitic occupation*,² a test *of*³ character *rather than learning, which might be vitiated by excessive human contact*.⁴ As if they sensed this, the new postgraduates, *particularly those from overseas*,⁵ roamed the floor accosting the senior guests. As he left the bar with his first sherry, Adam was snapped up by a cruising Indian:

‘How do you do’, said Mr Alibai.

‘How do you do’, said Adam, *who knew what was expected of him*.⁶

¹inf. cl. modifier; ²*that*-cl. complement; ³prep *of* complement; ⁴non-restrictive relative clause; ⁵supp. appositive, narrowing down the referent to a smaller group; ⁶nonrestrictive relative clause

8.5 Functions of The Nominal Group

In clauses, NGs can realise any structural element except the Predicator. At group rank they can be embedded in PPs as complements of the preposition and in NGs as pre- or post-modifiers, or as supplementives, of the head element. Here are examples of the functions that can be realised by a simple NG such as *the best player available*.

NGs as clause elements

<i>The best player available</i> was a Brazilian.	S
The committee engaged <i>the best player available</i> .	Od
They offered <i>the best player available</i> a high salary.	Oi
Ronaldo seemed to be <i>the best player available</i> .	Cs
Everybody considered him <i>the best player available</i> .	Co
He signed the contract <i>last week</i> .	A

NGs as group elements

They paid a high price for <i>the best player available</i> .	c
<i>The best player-available</i> topic was not discussed	pre-modifier
Ronaldo, <i>The Best Player Available</i> , Earns A High Salary.	Appos.Sup.

8.6 Nominalisation

In many professional registers, above all in written genres, the use of **nominalisation** has become extremely common. Superficially, it consists of the use of a nominal form, such as ‘starvation’ in the following text, instead of the corresponding verb ‘starve’, from which the nominal is derived. Other examples from the text are:

accuracy	derived from the adjective ‘accurate’
explanation	derived from ‘explain’
increase	has the same form as the verb ‘increase’
speed	has the same form as the verb ‘speed’



It has been known for nearly a century that *starvation for about two weeks*¹ *increases the speed and accuracy of mental processes,*² *especially mental arithmetic.*³ This is probably *the explanation of the huge increase in self-starvation among youngwomen doing academic work.*⁴ An extreme form of this condition known as ‘*anorexia nervosa*’⁵ is now common and our studies⁶ have shown that in 75% of cases⁷ they start *crash-dieting*⁸ in the year in which they are working for a *major examination.*⁹

A non-nominalised equivalent of the first four NGs in the extract above might look something like this:

If you/people starve for about two weeks, you/they think faster and more accurately, 3 especially when doing arithmetic; 4 This probably explains why young women who are doing academic work starve themselves.



One reason for the use of nominalisation is that it is shorter than the non-nominalised form. More important, the nominalised form encapsulates a whole situation in one word, such as ‘self-starvation’, ‘crash-dieting’. Because density and brevity prevail over clarity, heavy nominalisation can become difficult to understand in unfamiliar contexts. For those familiar with the subject-matter, on the other hand, nominalisation provides them with a kind of shorthand by which complex concepts and processes are easily handled without further explanation.

All adult speakers of English handle at least some specialised registers such as education, business, football, etc. and pick up nominalised expressions such as ‘infant primary schools’ or ‘mixed comprehensive schools’. Such expressions become relatively fixed until new cultural developments give rise to new combinations – something which is happening in all areas of life.

EXERCISE

A. Give a paraphrase of the following NGs.

- (1) television aerial repair service
- (2) Manchester University Research Fellowship Appointments
- (3) daytime telephone calls price reduction
- (4) adult education reform proposals alarm
- (5) university athletics teams gold medals award

B. Write a short description of one of the following groups of persons or things. Include a sufficient number of epithets, classifiers and post-modifiers to make the description interesting. Write it in the form of a letter to a friend:

- (1) the members of your family
- (2) columns of people you have seen on television, fleeing from a war zone
- (3) people and things at the scene of an earthquake (seen on TV)
- (4) some new clothes that you have seen in shops and which you would like to buy

- C. Identify the extent of the NGs in the following sentence from *The Times*. Then consider whether the numbered sections have a post-modifier or complement function. Give evidence for your decision.

The annual celebration of a pagan Spanish ritual¹ honouring the coming of spring² is always an expression of unity and fun.³

- D. Read the following short paragraph and identify the extent of each numbered NG; then indicate the syntactic function of each one in a clause or group:



In describing his taste in women,¹ the famous baby doctor,² Benjamin Spock³ said: ‘I have always been fascinated by rather severe⁴ women, women I then could charm despite their severity.⁵ The model for these women⁶ – as Dr. Spock was well aware – was his own mother.⁷ And

if, in his early eighties,⁸ he is indeed a most exceptionally charming man,⁹ the wish to win over his mother¹⁰ may help explain why.

- E. Rewrite the following sentence from *The Guardian* in simpler, less abstract terms. Instead of de-verbal nouns like *introduction*, *approach*, *increase*, *insistence*, and the de-adjectival noun *truth* use the corresponding verbs: *introduce*, *insist*, etc. and adjectives *true* and *independent*. Even better, use some simpler English verbs such as *grow* and *use* instead of the more formal words. Avoid other abstractions.

Begin: If we introduced classes of no more than 15 children in infant primary schools, this would allow . . .



The introduction of a maximum class size of 15 in infant primary schools, combined with a child-centred approach, would permit the increase of class sizes as children progress, utilising their learning skills and expanding their independence.

We already acknowledge the underlying truth of this approach in nursery education by insistence

on low teacher–children ratios which increase dramatically and illogically in the first year of compulsory education.

F. Rewrite the following sentence in a more abstract way, by nominalising some of the verbal predications:



Most archaeologists think that men and women began to become civilised in the Middle East, where natural conditions helped them to change the way they lived from constantly moving around and hunting animals to settling down in one place and cultivating the land.

UNIT IX

DESCRIBING PERSONS, THINGS AND CIRCUMSTANCES: ADJECTIVE AND ADJECTIVAL GROUPS

Aim:

To raise the students' awareness on:

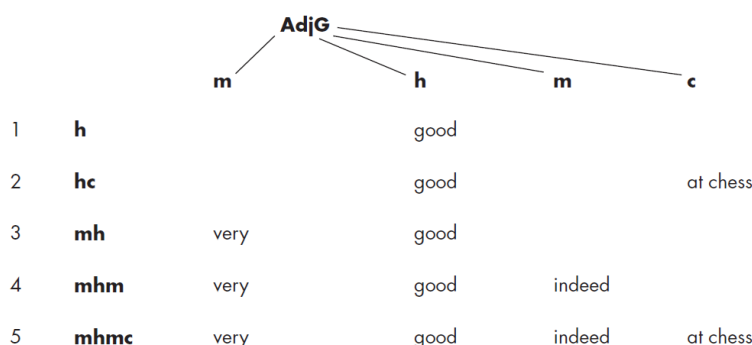
- a. The structure of the adjective and adjectival group
- b. The difference between adjectival group and adjectival complement
- c. The difference between the structure of adjectival modification and complementation

Learning Outcome:

- a. Produce texts using some of the structures in model texts
to write a description of any person they know or have seen or any novel they have read
 - b. Identify the function of adjective or adjectival group in text
 - c. To use certain expression using adjectival group and adjective complement to produce sentence
-

9.1 Structure and Characteristic Uses of the Adjectival Group

The adjectival group is composed potentially of three structural elements: a head (**h**), a modifier (**m**) and a post-head element, which will be either a modifier (**m**) or a complement (**c**). Post-modifier and complement can occur together in the same AdjG. The basic structures are as follows:



Other examples of full AdjG structures are:

extremely	hot	for this time of the year (mhm)
very	glad	that you won the match (mhc)
quite	fond	of music (mhc)

The difference between a post-modifier and a complement is that the complement is controlled by the adjectival head (*good at . . .*, *fond of . . .*, *glad that . . .*, *glad to . . .* etc.), whereas the post-modifier is not. The head of an AdjG is always realised by an adjective, which may function alone in representation of a whole AdjG. The following sentence contains four coordinated

AdjGs:

You couldn't call it a bang or a roar or a smash; it was a *fearful*, *tearing*, *shattering*, *enormous* sound like the end of the world.
(G. B. Shaw, *The Emperor and the Little Girl*)

In the following blurb of a novel from *The Review*, four of the adjectives are modified (5, 8, 10, 17) and one has a complement (14). The rest are single (1, 2, 3, 4) or coordinated (6–7–8, 11–12–13, and 14–15).

Ben and Olly are ten. For as long as they can remember they have been *best*¹ friends and *close*² neighbours in a *quiet*³ Northern suburb. Then Carl moves into their street, Carl is *bad*.⁴ Carl is *very bad*.⁵ His games are *rough*,⁶ *dangerous*⁷ and *strangely exciting*.⁸ But soon Ben begins to wonder where their *new*⁹ friend is leading them. Why is Carl so *fearless*?¹⁰ Why are they never allowed into his house? And why is it that Carl seems to want Olly all to himself? In a *funny*,¹¹ *heartfelt*¹² and ultimately *shocking*¹³ story, Sutcliffe reveals how childhood friendships can be as *consuming*¹⁴ and *intense*¹⁵ as any love affair, and how, when jilted, children are *capable*¹⁶ of taking the *most extraordinary*¹⁷ steps.

These short examples illustrate the **descriptive** use of adjectives: they characterise NG referents in evaluative and emotive terms. By contrast, the **classifying** use is illustrated in *Northern* suburb and *best friends*. Classifying adjectives are more commonly found in the media and academic prose.

9.2 Adjectives and the Adjectival Group

9.2.1 Simple, Derived and Compound Adjectives

1. Native Origin

good	little	white
bad	tall	easy
big	short	hard
small	black	

2. Adjectives derived from nouns, other adjectives and verbs

greenish	hopeful	handsome	handy
foremost	central	secondary	apparent
civic	creative	marvellous	readable

3. Adjectival Prefixes added to words which are already adjectives

unhappy insecure discourteous abnormal irrelevant

Adjectives formed by adding the prefix *a-* to a verb or adjective (asleep, awake, ablaze, alone). Many adjectives have compound forms:

noun + adjective:	tax-free (goods)
determinative + noun:	all-American (girl)
number + noun	four-wheel (drive)
adverb + participle	well-balanced (character)
adverb + adverb	well-off (people)

4. Adjectives in English are not marked for gender or number

A fair-haired girl – fair-haired girls

A tough character – tough characters

9.2.2 Participle and Participial Adjectives

1. Participial adjectives seldom used as verb

-ing: interesting, amazing, charming, disappointing, pleasing

-en: animated, ashamed, assorted, sophisticated

2. Pseudo-participial adjectives-addition of *ing* or *-ed* to nouns

-ing: enterprising, neighbouring, appetising

-en: talented, skilled, gifted, bearded, detailed

3. Participial adjectives commonly used as modifiers in Nominal Group, as complement in a clause as part of Verbal Group

A confusing remark

That is confusing

You are confusing me

4. Other forms
 - ing*: annoying, exciting, frightening, surprising, boring, distressing, satisfying, tiring
 - en*: annoyed, excited, frightened, surprised, bored, distressed, satisfied, tired
5. Participial adjectives can be graded

Attributive	Predicative
- <i>ing</i> : <i>very</i> distressing news	the news is <i>most</i> distressing
- <i>en</i> : <i>rather</i> frightened tourists	the tourists seemed <i>quite</i> frightened
6. Compound forms
 - ing*: heart-breaking news; good-looking girl; fast-selling magazines
 - en*: well-paid workers; sun-tanned legs; well-known brands

Compound forms are extremely common in English, where new ones are freely coined every day, many of them being nonce formations, such as *ankle-twisting* and *toil-broken* coined by G. B. Shaw in the following paragraph from *A Sunday on the Surrey Hills*. The relative absence of morphological markers in English adjectives can be observed in the following text, where some are marked (e.g. *poisonous*), others are not (e.g. *dull*), and two are compounds:

As I am not a *born*¹ cockney I have no illusions on the subject of the country. The *uneven*² *ankle-twisting*³ roads; the *dusty*⁴ hedges; the ditch with its *dead*⁵ dogs, *rank*⁶ weeds and swarms of *poisonous*⁷ flies; the groups of children torturing something; the *dull*,⁸ *toil-broken*,⁹ prematurely *old*,¹⁰ *agricultural*¹¹ labourer; the *savage*¹² tramp; the manure heaps with their *horrible*¹³ odour; the chain of milestones, from inn to inn, from cemetery to cemetery: all these I pass heavily by until a *distant*¹⁴ telegraph pole or signal post tells me that the *blessed*,¹⁵ rescuing train is at hand.

¹participle; ²prefixed; ³compound; ⁴suffixed; ⁵participial; ⁶unmarked; ⁷suffixed; ⁸unmarked; ⁹compound; ¹⁰unmarked; ¹¹suffixed; ¹²unmarked; ¹³suffixed; ¹⁴unmarked; ¹⁵participial

9.2.3 Semantic Classes of Adjectives

(Descriptors, classifiers, degree emphasizeers, non adjectival words used as modifiers)

1. Descriptors

Such adjectives express the following kinds of meanings.

- **size, weight, extent**: (note that these are often paired as opposites): big/little, large/small, heavy/light, long/short, tall/short, wide/narrow, deep/shallow
- **colour**: black, white, red, blue, green, yellow

- **meanings related to time:** young, old, new, recent, early, late, weekly, daily
- **evaluative:** pretty, beautiful, good, bad, nice, awful, dreadful, shocking
- **an active or passive process** (participial adjectives): frightening, surprising, soothing, tired, exhausted, refreshed
- **general qualities:** hot, cold, full, empty, sweet, sour, hard, soft, strong, weak, bright, dull
- **a temporary state:** asleep, alone, awake, ajar (with predicative function only)

2. Classifiers

- **restrictive:** average, additional, chief, complete, entire, final, following, initial, main, only, old, new, previous, former, right, left
- **relating to groups** such as nationalities, religions, politics: Brazilian, Christian, Muslim;
- **category-specific meanings** associated with culture, technology, science, and so on.
- **restrictive:** an *only* child, the *standard* size, the *main* reason, the *entire* novel, the *previous* page, his *former* boss, my *old* school, her *current* boyfriend, your *left* leg, my *right* hand
- **relating to groups:** *Greek* sculpture, the *Western* powers, *African* music
- **category-specific meanings:** a *nuclear* plant, a *medical* student, *parliamentary* debates

9.2.4 Syntactic Functions of the Adjectival Group

Adjectives in groups

- | | |
|--------------------------------|---|
| • (pre-)modifier in a NG: | a <i>very good</i> actor, <i>heavy</i> rain, an <i>old friend</i> |
| • (post-)modifier in a NG | something <i>cheap</i> , the person <i>responsible</i> |
| • head of a NG: | the <i>French</i> , the <i>sick</i> , the <i>most expensive</i> |
| • complement of a preposition: | at <i>last</i> , for <i>good</i> , in <i>short</i> |
| • modifier in an AdjG: | <i>bright</i> red, <i>pale</i> blue, <i>red</i> hot |

AdjGs in clauses:

- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------------------|
| • Subject Complement: | The acting was <i>brilliant</i> . |
| • Object Complement: | I consider that <i>offensive</i> . |

Peripheral AdjGs

- | | |
|------------------------------------|--|
| • Stance Adjunct: | <i>Strange</i> , I never suspected him. |
| • Detached predicative supplement: | <i>Angry and tearful</i> , Susan walked out. |
| • Exclamation: | <i>Fine! Great! Right! Fantastic!</i>
That's great
How dreadful it was |

9.2.5 Central and Peripheral Adjectives

1. **Central adjectives:** descriptors
2. **Predicative adjs only:** *afraid, asleep, ablaze, afloat, alive, alone, alike, aware, averse*
3. **Attributive adjs only:** these can be grouped into the following types:
 - restrictive classifiers: the *chief/ main* reason; *sole* responsibility; an *only* child
 - time/ space: the *previous* page; my *old* school; a *new* baby; your *left* leg
 - associative classifiers: an *agricultural* college, *foreign* affairs, a *nuclear* weapon
 - degree emphasisers: *sheer* nonsense; *utter* rubbish; an *outright* lie
 - process-oriented: a *big* eater; a *hard* worker, a *light* sleeper, a *slow* reader

EXERCISE

- A. After reading the two book blurbs in the below, use some of the structures to write a description of any person you know or have seen, or any novel you have read.

Ben and Olly are ten. For as long as they can remember they have been *best*¹ friends and *close*² neighbours in a *quiet*³ Northern suburb. Then Carl moves into their street, Carl is *bad*.⁴ Carl is *very bad*.⁵ His games are *rough*,⁶ *dangerous*⁷ and *strangely exciting*.⁸ But soon Ben begins to wonder where their *new*⁹ friend is leading them.

Why is Carl so *fearless*?¹⁰ Why are they never allowed into his house? And why is it that Carl seems to want Olly all to himself? In a *funny*,¹¹ *heartfelt*¹² and ultimately *shocking*¹³ story, Sutcliffe reveals how childhood friendships can be as *consuming*¹⁴ and *intense*¹⁵ as any love affair, and how, when jilted, children are *capable*¹⁶ of taking the *most extraordinary*¹⁷ steps.

Advertising director Charles Schine is just another New York commuter, regularly catching the 8.43 to work. But the day he misses his train is the day that changes his life. Charles has never cheated on his wife in eighteen years of marriage. But then Charles has never met anyone like Lucinda Harris before. And though Lucinda is married too, it is immediately apparent that the feeling is mutual. Suddenly their temptation turns horrifically sour, and their illicit liaison becomes caught up in something bigger, more dangerous, more brutally violent. Unable to talk to his partner or the police, Charles finds himself trapped in a world of dark conspiracy and psychological games. Somehow he's got to find a way to fight back, or his entire life will be spectacularly derailed for good.

B. Express the following sentences differently using a pseudo-participial adjective in *-ing* or *-en* formed from the noun shown in italics. The first is done for you:

- (1) Lots of people drink spring water *sold in bottles*. Lots of people drink *bottled* spring water.
- (2) You have shown great *enterprise* in setting up this firm.
- (3) The newspapers reported all the *details* of the case.
- (4) Conflicts often arise between countries that are *neighbours*.
- (5) We live in an ancient town with a great *wall* round it.
- (6) There are often better opportunities for workers who have *skills* than for those who *have not*.

C. Look at the passage about Ben and Olly below. State:

- (a) the function of each numbered adjective or AdjG, for example: 1 modifier in NG; (b) Which are classifiers and which descriptors; (c) How would you analyse 'ten' in 'Ben and Olly are ten'?

Ben and Olly are ten. For as long as they can remember they have been *best*¹ friends and *close*² neighbours in a *quiet*³ Northern suburb. Then Carl moves into their street, Carl is *bad*.⁴ Carl is *very bad*.⁵ His games are *rough*,⁶ *dangerous*⁷ and *strangely exciting*.⁸ But soon Ben begins to wonder where their *new*⁹ friend is leading them. Why is Carl so *fearless*?¹⁰ Why are they never allowed into his house? And why is it that Carl seems to want Olly all to himself? In a *funny*,¹¹ *heartfelt*¹² and ultimately *shocking*¹³ story, Sutcliffe reveals how childhood friendships can be as *consuming*¹⁴ and *intense*¹⁵ as any love affair, and how, when jilted, children are *capable*¹⁶ of taking the *most extraordinary*¹⁷ steps.

D. Say whether the *-ing* forms derived from transitive and intransitive verbs in the following phrases are participial adjectives or participial modifiers. Give a grammatical reason to support your analysis:

transitive: an *alarming* inflation rate; *disturbing* rumours; a *relaxing* drink.

intransitive: a *ticking* clock; *fading* hopes; a *growing* debt.

E. Write very short sentences using the following formal types of compound adjectives. If you are not sure of the meaning, consult a good dictionary:

- (1) **Adj + V-*ing***: nice-looking, good-looking, easy-going, hard-wearing.
- (2) **Adj + V-*en***: deep-frozen, big-headed, sharp-eyed.
- (3) **Noun + Adj**: world-famous, water-tight, self-confident.

F. Suggest appropriate nouns or adjectives to form compounds with the following adjectives, e.g. sea-green.

-blue, -green, -pink, -red, -cold, -hot, -black, -sweet, -white.

G. Express the following NGs differently, using a compound adjective as modifier of the head noun. The first is done for you:

- (1) a story so scarifying that it raises the hair on your head = a *hair-raising* story
- (2) an activity that consumes too much of your time
- (3) cakes that have been made at home
- (4) a speed that takes your breath away
- (5) troops that are borne (= transported) by air
- (6) a plain that has been swept by the wind
- (7) the performance that won an award
- (8) a device that saves a great deal of labour

H. Rewrite the first sentence so that it contains the word or words in capitals.

- a. This book isn't as interesting as that one. LESS
This book is less interesting than that one.
- b. A bike is less expensive than a scooter. MORE
A scooter is more expensive than a bike
- c. You're taller than lam. AS
I'm not as tall as you are
- d. The first explanation is unlikely, and so is the second. JUST
The first explanation is just as unlikely as the second.
- e. Carol thought the accident was less serious than it was. MORE
The accident was more serious than Carol thought it was.
- f. My arm isn't as painful as it was. THAN
My arm is less painful than it was.

UNIT X

DEGRESS OF COMPARISON AND INTENSIFICATION

Aim:

To raise the students' awareness on:

- a. The difference between analytical and inflected form for grading adjectives
- b. The function of highly intensified and emotive adjectives
- c. Moderate intensification of adjectives
- d. Non-measurable adjectives and types of intensifier

Learning Outcome:

- a. Identify the difference between (1) Analytical and inflected form of adjectives; (2) High and moderate intensification; (3) Non-measurable adjective
 - b. Produce texts using the structure of modification and the structure of Degrees of Comparison and Intensification
-

10.1 Comparative And Superlative Degrees

Forms:	-er	-est	-more	-most
	better	worst	farther/further	
	best	worst	farthest/furthest	
	enough	too		

Base form	Comparative	Superlative	
big	bigger	biggest	(inflectional)
comfortable	more comfortable	most comfortable	(analytic)

Inflectional

hot	hotter	hottest
easy	easier	easiest
narrow	narrower	narrowest
shallow	shallower	shallowest
hollow	hollower	hollowest
mellow	mellower	mellowest

Analytic

encouraging	more encouraging	most encouraging
lovable	more lovable	most lovable
famous	more famoust	most famoust
greenish	more greenish	most greenish
pleased	more pleased	most pleased

Ease of pronunciation and smoothness of sound is important.

happy	hyappier	happiest
lazy	lazier	laziest
cozy	cozier	coziest
crazy	crazier	craziest
dirty	dirtier	dirtiest
empty	emptier	emptiest
lucky	luckier	luckiest
pretty	prettier	prettiest
nasty	nastier	nastiest
silly	sillier	silliest
sexy	sexier	sexiest
tidy	tidier	tidiest
tricky	trickier	trickiest

Supplementive forms for grade 1 and 2

good, better, best	far, farther, farthest
bad, worse, worst	far, further, furthest

FURTHER used with the sense of ‘other’, ‘later’, and ‘additional’

There will be a *further* meeting next week.
The theatre is closed until *further* notice.

The adjectives elder, eldest refer only to persons
my elder son; our eldest daughter; an elder brother or sister;
John is the elder of the two. I was the second eldest.

ELDERY is not comparative but euphimistic.

The comparative degree certain other adjectives has the value of a classifier.

junior rank (= low)	inferior quality (= bad)	major error (= great)
senior rank (= high)	superior quality (= good)	minor error (= small)
your upper/ lower jaw	my inner life	the outer walls (of the city)

Table 10.1
The Grading option in English

The scale of degree	Inflectional	Analytic
1 Comparative superiority	easier	more difficult
2 Superlative superiority	the easiest	the most difficult
3 Equality		as easy, as difficult
4 Comparative inferiority		less easy, less difficult
5 Superlative inferiority		the least easy, the least difficult
6 Sufficiency		easy enough, difficult enough

10.1.1 Functions of Comparatives and Superlatives

Adjectives graded for comparative and superlative degree can function both as modifiers of a noun and as Complements in a clause. Most descriptive adjectives are gradable:

As modifiers of a noun

Have you got a *larger* size?

I think you need a *more up-to-date* stereo.

What's the *funniest* joke you've heard recently?

It wasn't *the most exciting* match of the season.

The *cleverest* animals, as well as the *better-looking*, *better-humoured* and *more classy*, are not the ones holding the leads.

(Philip Howard in *The Times*)

As Cs in clauses

This house is *smaller*, but it's *nicer*, and it's got a *bigger* garden.

We need something *more central*.

We went into several pubs, but this one was undoubtedly *the best*.

Really, they should appoint Jones. He's the *most experienced*.

The analytic forms of the comparative and the superlative are illustrated in this short description from an in-flight magazine:

The miles of clean, pristine sandy beaches look especially inviting to the tourist. They are safe for *even the most daring* swimmers. *The more adventurous* may avail themselves of scuba diving training at beginner, intermediate and advanced levels from the Professional Association of Diving Instructors. From May to October the water is so warm that no wet-suits are needed. Light 3mm suits are comfortable for the rest of the year. Submerged wrecks and coral reefs that attract an array of vivid tropical fish contribute to a fascinating diving experience.

For the complementation of graded adjectives by *than*-clauses, *that*-clauses and PPs. When a comparative adjective is not followed by a complement, the other entity in the comparison should be inferrable, as happens in the previous text. We understand that *the more adventurous* implicitly compares with other swimmers who are less adventurous. In fact, it is normal in everyday communication, especially in conversation, to use graded adjectives without mentioning the other entity in the comparison.

10.1.2 The *-er* and *-er* Construction

The repeated comparatives joined by *and* are used to express a gradually increasing degree of the quality denoted by the adjective (or adverb; see 56.1). Verbs of becoming such as *become*, *get* and *grow* are commonly used with adjectives. *More and more* occurs with adjectives which don't admit the comparative inflection.

It's growing *darker and darker*.

This crossword is getting *more and more* difficult.

They became *wearier and wearier* as time went on.

10.1.3 The *nice and* Construction

Nice and is often used in informal speech to intensify a second adjective

Nice and hot

Nice and cold

Nice and dirty

10.1.4 The Degree of Sufficiency

This comprises three terms: 'excess', 'sufficiency', 'insufficiency', realised by the adverbs *too*, *enough*, *not enough*, respectively. When functioning predicatively, that is at Cs, the AdjG structure is as follows:

Excess - too
Sufficiency - enough
Insufficiency - not enough

Excess: This knife is too sharp.
Sufficiency: Is this knife sharp enough?
Insufficiency: This knife is not sharp enough.

OR

Excess: This is too sharp a knife.
Sufficiency: Is this a sharp enough knife
Insufficiency: This is not a sharp enough knife.

BUT

excess: The weather was *too* wet. *It was *too wet weather*.
 These knives are *too* sharp. *These are *too sharp knives*.

10.2 Intensifying The Attribute

1. High Intensification

<i>very:</i> the <i>very</i> latest techniques	That's <i>very</i> kind of you
<i>really:</i> a <i>really</i> good film	It was <i>really</i> good
<i>awfully:</i> an <i>awfully</i> nice man	He looked <i>awfully</i> tired
<i>most:</i> a <i>most</i> extraordinary performance	His ideas are <i>most</i> odd

terrifically	} can intensify both good and bad qualities
awfully	
terribly	
dreadfully	} bad ones
horribly	

2. Collocations

dripping wet	boiling hot
freezing cold	blind drunk
dead straight	wide awake
fast asleep	frozen stiff
extra special	stinking rich
fully aware	raving mad
highly controversial	radically opposed
eminently suitable	deeply moving
seriously stupid	hugely successful
supremely confident	terrifically good-looking
horribly disfigured	

3. Quite

Normally express a medium degree of intensification

BUT

I stood *quite* still (complete degree)

quite amazing, quite incredible, quite disastrous (high degree modify emotive adjectives)

He looks *quite* different in his everyday clothes.

You are *quite* right.

4. Medium Intensification

(*quite, pretty, rather, fairly*)

It's *quite* cold here in the winter.

It's *rather* cold here in the winter.

It's *pretty* cold here in the winter. (informal, spoken style)

It's *fairly* mild here in the winter.

Quite pleased	}	appreciative
Quite satisfactory		
Quite dangerous	}	unappreciative
Quite pessimistic		
Quite nasty		

Quite tall	}	neutral
Quite cheap/expensive		
Quite short/long		

I am **rather** worried about your exam result (to avoid direct criticism of others)

I was **rather** pleased at winning the lottery (mitigate the expression of speaker's own emotions)

Buying that second-hand car may turn out to be a **rather** costly mistake.

Pretty expresses the notion of *quite but not completely*.

She's pretty good-looking

I feel pretty tired after that long walk

That film was pretty awful, don't you think?

That paper of his was a pretty poor effort (=very poor)

Fairly as a modifier indicates an almost large or reasonable degree of a quality (*fairly accurate, fairly well-off*).

Favourable&neutral
fairly honest
fairly intelligent

Unfavourable
fairly dishonest
fairly foolish

fairly reasonable

fairly unreasonable

5. Attenuation

slightly better *a little* disappointing *a bit* salty
kind of weird *sort of* greyish hair *somewhat* odd (formal)

At all (express politeness)

Are you *at all* worried? Are you worried *at all*?
We'd like to stay another week, if it's *at all* possible (*or* if it's possible *at all*)

Slight attenuation or reservation can be expressed by negating a high degree:

not very likely *not quite* sure of her name
not entirely true *not particularly* fond of insects
hardly likely, *barely* necessary, *scarcely* believable, *none too* happy
(express a minimal degree, often imply a certain degree of the opposite quality)
I'm not at all surprised at the result, or, I'm *not* surprised *at all* at the result
(express denial of the quality names)

10.3 Quantifying Modifiers

Exact Quantification

She is *20 years old*. The queue was *100 yards long*.
Everest is *8,708 metres high*. The cars were *four deep* on the motorway

Compound adjective

a twenty-year-old girl *a hundred-yard-long* queue
an 8,708-metre-high mountain *a four-deep* traffic-jam on the motorway

Non exact qualification

(determinatives *the, that, this, any, all, little* and *no*)

Things are not getting *any* better. Well, as long as they're not getting *an* worse
...

The situation is *no* worse than it was before.
The trip wasn't *that* interesting after all.
We need a box *this* big.
She looked *all* upset.

10.4 Descriptive Modifiers

(a) Qualitative modification of adjectives

-ly adverbs: strangely attractive; deathly pale; reasonably friendly

adjectives: light brown; deep red; dark blue; vivid green; bright yellow

nouns: pitch black; emerald green; blood red; rose pink; paper-thin; feather-light; day-long; world-wide

(b) Relational (Contextual)

-ly adverbs: socially acceptable; economically difficult; technologically impressive; financially independent; physically handicapped

nouns: music-mad; girl-crazy; foot-weary; duty-free

10.5 Submodifying the Adjective

Modifiers of degree (e.g. *less* in *less interesting*) are often themselves graded or intensified by a submodifier (**sm**) placed before them, e.g. *rather less* interesting. The following are examples of this **smmh** structure which occur in both spoken and written discourse.

Table 10.1

sm	m	h	sm	m	h
not	quite	right	only	too	pleased
much	more	productive	not	nearly as	nice
far	too	expensive	just	as	complicated

This type of AdjG structure reflects two converse types of intensification which are characteristic of many English speakers:

- (a) That of **attenuating the negative value** of an Attribute, as in **1**, and
- (b) that of **reinforcing a positive value**, as in **2**:

1 This time the results are *not quite so* clear-cut.

2 We would be *only too pleased* to provide information on the Association.

The submodifier of the modifier *enough* is placed immediately before the adjective:

hardly good enough; *not nearly* clever enough; *quite* old enough

EXERCISE

A.1 Say which of the following adjectives take the inflected forms (*-er*, *-est*) for grading and which the analytical (*more*, *most*): risky, real, varied, blue, typical, mistaken, friendly, userfriendly, mall, tight, generous, bitter.

A.2 Say which of the adjectives as used in the following phrases can be graded:

- (1) *shallow* water; (2) the *closing* date; (3) a *daily* newspaper; (4) a *small* size; (5) the *probable* outcome; (6) the *main* reason; (7) a *fast* driver; (8) the *political* consequences.

B. In the course of a conversation, a friend makes the following remarks to you. Disagree with your friend emphatically using highly intensified adjectives and, where possible, an emotive adjective. Use a different intensifier each time, chosen from the following:

very, extremely, absolutely, really, thoroughly, terrifically, most, exceedingly, completely, highly, utterly, perfectly, awfully, hopelessly, dreadfully.

- (1) I don't think much of these paintings, do you?
- (2) The food in the students' canteen is pretty awful.
- (3) Have you seen Ross's new car? It's a real beauty!
- (4) Apparently, two members of the team have been involved in some kind of scandal.
- (5) You don't seem to know what's going on.
- (6) I don't think she's the right girl for him.
- (7) Did you see that lousy match on the telly last night?
- (8) You're looking very energetic and happy today.

C. On this occasion, your friend will ask you for your opinion, and you will answer using adjectives that are moderately intensified by *quite, pretty, rather, fairly, reasonably* or attenuated by expressions such as: *a bit, a little, slightly, not particularly, not very, not really, to some extent, in some respects, kind of, sort of, not at all.*

- (1) Did you have an interesting time in Egypt?
- (2) Was it very hot there at that time of the year?
- (3) Were you in a very large group?
- (4) What were the hotels like?
- (5) Did you find it difficult to communicate with people?
- (6) Were the guides well informed?
- (7) Was the trip expensive?
- (8) Didn't you find all that travelling tiring?
- (9) I expect you were glad to get home, weren't you?

D.1. Working in pairs, ask and answer questions using *how?* and the following measurable adjectives:

How long is . . . ? How old . . . ? How deep . . . ? How thick . . . ?
How high is/are . . . ? How tall . . . ? How wide . . . ?

D.2. Ask each other questions with *How?* and non-measurable adjectives, and use any types of intensifier you wish in the answers, for instance: *not nearly tall enough to play in a basketball team.*

How important . . . ? How clever . . . ? How hungry . . . ? How difficult . . . ?

E. Add qualitative modifiers to the adjectives in these sentences, choosing them from the following list: *essentially, genuinely, imaginatively, pleasantly, ferociously, radically, ideally*.

- (1) The new cultural centre is a(n) - - - - - international project.
- (2) It will be in a style - - - - - different from the usual urban architecture.
- (3) It will be - - - - - placed outside the city, and - - - - -
- (4) - - - - - surrounded by fields and trees.
- (5) Some traditionalists have been - - - - - critical of the design.
- (6) The architect has said: 'We have tried to combine the - - - old with the - - - new'.

F. Express these sentences differently by using a 'relational modifier + adjective' unit, as in the following example:

From a scientific point of view that opinion is not based on facts or evidence.
That opinion is scientifically unfounded.

- (1) Drugs are necessary for medical purposes, but if abused they may be dangerousxfrom a social point of view.
- (2) The new oral examinations are very good in theory but have proved somewhat time-consuming to administer.
- (3) Countries which are advanced in technological matters should help those in whichxscience is under-developed.

UNIT XI

COMPLEMENTATION OF THE ADJECTIVES

Aim:

To raise the students' awareness on the structure of adjective complementation

Learning Outcome:

- a. Identify complementation of adjectives using (1) Finite and non-finite clause; (2) Prepositional phrase
 - b. To discuss the aspect of complement in both Nominal Group, Adjectival Group as illustrated in a text
 - c. Produce text using the structure of Complementation of Adjective
-

11.1 Adjectival Complements

An adjective is often followed by a complement relating to:

- ➔ A fact : that you are here
- ➔ A process : to see you
- ➔ A circumstance : about your success

An adjective is to be understood and expressed mainly by:

- ➔ Finite clauses
- ➔ Non-finite clauses
- ➔ Prepositional phrase (PPs)

All adjectives which can take complements indicate the speaker's or writer's stance. The three semantic types:

- ➔ Epistemic (sure, certain, etc)
- ➔ Affective (glad, sorry, etc)
- ➔ Evaluative (right, wrong)

11.1.1 Complementation by Finite Clauses

Adjectives which take embedded *that*-complement clauses indicate the speaker's or writer's stance with respect to what is expressed in the complement. Semantically, they fall into two main types:

1 degrees of certainty, such as: *sure, certain, positive, convinced*

2 affective meanings, such as: *glad, sorry, happy, sad, afraid, grateful, pleased, amazed, annoyed*

This structure relates the adjectival quality to a factual complement and is realised by a finite clause introduced optionally by *that*:

We are sure (that) he is innocent.

We are proud (that) you are so successful.

After some adjectives of emotive or modal meaning, such as *anxious, willing, eager,*

insistent, determined, essential, the non-factual auxiliary *should* (in Br E), or the subjunctive (especially in Am E), can be used in the *that*-clause to suggest a present or future action. An indicative is used by some speakers, as in **3**.

1 The public is anxious that the truth (*should*) *be known*.

2 We are not willing that justice (*should*) *be forgotten*.

3 Bill's wife is *insistent that he give/ gives up smoking*.

The complement can also be realised by a *wh*-clause. I am not quite *clear what you mean*.

Extraposed clausal subject

In the following type of sentence, the second clause does not function as a complement of the preceding adjective, but as extraposed subject, replaced by *it* in the main clause. Compare the extraposed with the non-extraposed clauses.

I just think *it's* unfortunate *that all these rumours have circulated*.

That all these rumours have circulated is unfortunate.

(non-extraposed *that*-clause)

It is not clear *why she left*.

Why she left is not clear. (non-extraposed *wh*-clause)

The adjective in this construction expresses an evaluative attitude, (usually the speaker's) towards the content of the following clause. But because the construction has anticipatory *it* as subject, the stance or attitude is not directly attributed to the speaker or some other person, as occurs with complement clauses, whose subjects are referential pronouns or NGs. Adjectives which occur in structures with anticipatory *it* tend to be more impersonal than those taking a complement clause. They include:

advisable, evident, (im)possible, (un) likely, noticable, (un)typical, important, obligatory, curious, obvious, shocking, surprising, true, vital

Certain adjectives can occur in both constructions, however: *clear, certain, sure*.

11.1.2 Complementation by Non-Finite Clauses

This AdjG structure is used to describe the relation between an Attribute and a process or situation. The Attribute and process/situation both refer to the same Subject in examples (a–g) below:

- (a) The adjective evaluates the process performed by the subject:

You are *kind to visit me*.

She must be *clever to have won the first prize*.

- (b) The adjective describes the manner of performing the process:

The Minister was *quick to reject the accusation*.

You are *very slow to give your opinion, aren't you?*

- (c) The adjective expresses an emotion caused by the process. The subject of the main clause is also the implied subject of the *to*-clause:

Everyone was *sorry to hear about the accident*.

We were all *delighted to receive your invitation*.

- (d) The adjective expresses an attitude or state concerning the process:

I am not *willing to believe that story*.

The police are *powerless to take action in this matter*.

- (e) The adjective expresses a property of the subject:

Mountain water is not always *safe to drink*.

Are these pamphlets *free to take away* (or *to be taken away*)?

- (f) The adjective forms part of a lexical auxiliary (*be sure to, be likely to be bound to*) in a VG. It denotes a degree of certainty or the tendency of the process to occur. The subject is a ‘raised subject’:

He is *sure to arrive late*. It is *bound to rain*.

She is *likely to get angry*. I am *apt to forget details*.

- (g) The adjective evaluates the process realised by an *-ing* clause or a *to-inf*:

You were *foolish going out/to go out without an overcoat*.

He must have been *crazy driving/to drive as fast as that*.

The above examples refer to processes performed by the Subject of the clause, that is, the Carrier of the Attribute. The following ones refer to processes not performed by the Subject:

- (h) The adjective does not refer to the Subject:

Smoking is *hard/ difficult to give up*.

This sentence does not mean that smoking is difficult, but that to give up smoking is difficult. Structurally, it is a ‘raised object’, that is, the implied object of the *to* clause *to give up smoking* is raised to subject.

- (i) In other cases, the Subject may possess the Attribute and at the same time be the prepositional Object of the *to*-infinitive verb:

This paper is *thin to write on*. The Atlantic is *cold to swim in*.

11.1.3 Prepositional Phrase Complements

Prepositional phrase complements are not usually obligatory (though a few are), but they are all controlled by particular adjectives. The complement completes the meaning with respect to the adjective. Especially in conversation, where speakers can assume a knowledge of what has been said, it is frequently unnecessary to add a complement.

We can say *I was angry, we were anxious, everyone was delighted* without specifying the reason. In writing, however, we often need to make the motivation more specific. A number of adjectives, including *accustomed* (to), *conscious* (of) and *prone* (to) (with the appropriate senses) require a complement. Several adjectives control more than one preposition, for instance *good at maths, good for your health, good with children; similar to mine, similar in shape*.

We here offer a small representative selection of everyday examples. These are grouped according to the preposition and the types of meaning conveyed by the adjective.

1 adjective + **about** or + **at** is used for emotional reaction to something:

angry about what I said; *annoyed about* the delay
mad about music *concerned about* his safety

2 adjective + **at** has two meanings: (a) emotional reaction to something or someone, and (b) an ability:

(a) *happy at* the prospect *alarmed at* the news
mad at my sister *indignant at* the accusation

(b) *clever at* getting what he wants *bad at* letter-writing
good at mathematics *hopeless at* remembering names

Other adjectives used with *at*: (a) pleased, annoyed (b) brilliant, terrible, adept, skilled, marvellous

3 adjective + **by** (with adjectives derived from past participles and passive in meaning):

amused by the anecdote *puzzled by* the question
hurt by her remarks *worried by* their failure to return

4 adjective + **for** means the value the adjective has for something or someone:

anxious for success *hopeful for* the future
good for the health *responsible for* their welfare

5 adjective + **from** has two meanings: (a) separation and distancing; (b) effect-cause:

(a) *remote from* civilisation *different from* everyone else
(b) *sleepless from* anxiety *tired from* overworking

6 adjective + **in** is used for an existing or resulting state:

dressed in white *slow in* reacting
deep in a book *lost in* thought

7 adjective + **of** is used for (a) mental state in terms of the antagonist or process; (b) mental state in terms of the protagonist; (c) containment:

(a) *afraid of* wild animals *capable of* great concentration
(b) *kind of* you *stupid of* him
(c) *full of* enthusiasm *sick of* it all

The (b) sequence occurs in clauses beginning *It is* + adjective + extraposed subject:

It is kind of you to take such trouble.
It was stupid of him to lose the keys.

8 adjective + **on** is used for dedication, dependence or aim:

keen on sport *intent on* divorce
dependent on other people *set on* studying abroad

9 adjective + **to** means (a) mental state or attitude related to a phenomenon; (b)

equivalence, similarity or comparison:

- (a) *opposed to* innovation *kind to* old people; *accustomed to* hardship
- (b) *similar to* the others *equal to* half a kilo

10 adjective + **with** can be (a) emotional reaction or physical state due to a cause, or (b) property or ability:

- (a) *fed up with* the weather *pale with* fear
- (b) *skilful with* his hands *good with* children

Note that 2(b) describes ability in relation to the task; 10(b) describes ability in relation to the tools or raw material.

11 adjective + *beyond* means to an extreme degree (with non-count nouns):

- cruel beyond* endurance *injured beyond* recovery

The fact that a PP occurs after an adjective does not necessarily mean that it complements the adjective; it may be functioning as a clausal or stance Adjunct:

Complement: He is *brilliant at maths*.

Clausal Adjunct: He is brilliant *in many respects*.

Stance Adjunct: *In my opinion*, he's a brilliant mathematician.

The following extract from Roald Dahl's *Boy* illustrates the use of adjectives and their grading and complementation:



It was always a surprise to me that I was good at games. It was an even greater surprise that I was exceptionally good at two of them. One of these was called fives, the other was squash-raquets.

Fives, which many of you will know nothing about, was taken seriously at Repton and we had a dozen massive, glass-roofed fives courts kept always in perfect condition.

We played the game of *Eton-fives*, which is always played by four people, two on each side, and basically it consists of hitting a small, hard, white, leather-covered ball with your gloved hands. The Americans have something like it which they call handball, but Eton-fives is far more complicated because the court has all manner of ledges and buttresses built into it which help to make it a subtle and crafty game.

Fives is possibly the fastest ball-game on earth, far faster than squash, and the little ball ricochets around the court at such a speed that sometimes

you can hardly see it. You need a swift eye, strong wrists and a very quick pair of hands to play fives well, and it was a game I took to from the beginning. You may find it hard to believe, but I became so good at it that I won both the junior and the senior school fives in the same year when I was fifteen.

11.2 Degree Complements

When the adjective is graded, the complement is dependent, not on the adjective directly, but on the grading element (*-er, more, less, as, etc.*), and is realised according to the type and structure of the grading element. The following examples serve as a brief summary of this area of English grammar.

Comparative degree

This takes one of two forms: either adjective + *-er* + *than*, or *more/ less* + adjective +

than, plus a word, phrase or clause:

Adj + <i>-er</i> + <i>than</i> + PP	It was cooler <i>than in Russia</i>
Adj + <i>-er</i> + <i>than</i> + clause	It was better <i>than we expected</i>
<i>more</i> + adj + <i>than</i> + AdvG	It was <i>more</i> comfortable <i>than usual</i>
<i>less</i> + adj + <i>than</i> + clause	It was <i>less</i> complicated <i>than any of us expected</i>
<i>more</i> + adj. + <i>-ing</i> clause	It was <i>more</i> enjoyable <i>than travelling by air</i>

Superlative degree

Adj + <i>-est</i> + PP (<i>in</i>)	It is <i>the longest in the world</i>
<i>most</i> + adj + PP (<i>of</i>)	It is <i>the most famous of all his plays</i>
<i>least</i> + adj + <i>that</i> -clause	It is <i>the least</i> interesting novel (that) <i>I have ever read</i>

Degree of equality

<i>as</i> + adj + <i>as</i> + AdvG	It was <i>as</i> lovely <i>as ever</i>
neg + <i>as</i> + adj + <i>as</i> + clause	It was not <i>as</i> easy <i>as most of us expected</i>
<i>so</i> + adj + <i>as</i> + <i>to</i> -clause	It was <i>so</i> difficult <i>as to be impossible</i>

If the comparison is between two adjectives, the complement of equality is realised by a finite clause:

She is as good-looking *as she is intelligent*.

*She is as good-looking as intelligent.

If the comparison is negative, the modifier *not as* may be replaced by *not so*, though *so* suggests intensification besides equality: In winter, London is *not as/so cold as* New York.

Degree of sufficiency (enough) and excess (too)

Heads modified by postposed *enough* and preposed *too* are qualified by similar units to the above:

- Sufficiency:** **Adj + enough + PP** Is the water *hot enough for you*?
Adj + enough + to-cl Is the water *hot enough to take a shower*?
Adj + enough + PP + to-cl Is the water *hot enough for you to take a shower*?
Excess: **Too + adj + PP** This coffee is *too hot for me*.
Too + adj + to-cl This coffee is *too hot to drink*. (not *to drink it)
Too + adj + PP + to-cl This coffee is *too hot for me to drink*. (not *for me to drink it)

If the *to*-infinitive verb is prepositional (e.g. *think about*), the preposition is stranded:

To-inf cl + prep. Your project is too expensive to think about. (*about it)
 This knife is too blunt to cut with. (*with it)

Notice the emotive use of *too* in expressions such as: The film was *too* awful for words! and its equivalence to *very* in: I shall be *only too pleased* to help you (= very pleased).

1. Discontinuous Degree Complements

A degree complement is separated from its adjective when the AdjG premodifies a noun. The AdjG is said to be **discontinuous**, as in examples **1** and **2** below.

If we want to put the notion of **equality** before the noun, the adjective functions as a pre-determinative (preceding the article *a/ an*), with the *as*-clause following the noun:

- 1** It was *the most comfortable* journey (*that*) *we have ever made*.
- 2** It's *as nice* a country garden *as you could ever find*.

When an adjective is graded by a modifier, e.g. *more convinced*, one complement may relate to the modifier as in *more (convinced) than I was*, and a second one to the head, as in *(more) convinced of the man's guilt*. They may be placed in either order, the emphasis normally being on the second one:

The judge seemed more convinced than I was *of the man's guilt*.
 The judge seemed more convinced of the man's guilt *than I was*.

If one complement is notably longer than the other(s), it is usually placed at the end:

The judge seemed more convinced than I was *of the evidence that had been given by one of the witnesses*.
 *The judge seemed more convinced of the man's guilt after listening to the evidence given by one of the witnesses than I was.

When complements are coordinated by *and*, *but*, *or*, they are often of the same class form:

PP: He's fond of *teaching* and *good with children*.
to-inf cl: The programme was delightful *to watch and to listen to*.

EXERCISE

- A. Put the adjectives in brackets in the correct order to complete the sentence. Then decide which city in the box the speaker is talking about.**

Cairo	Istanbul	London	Tokyo	Moscow	Paris	Sydney	Venice
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1. The best way to get around in the city is to get on a **big, red** bus. (**red, big**) **London**
2. The city is full of . . . palaces along the sides of the canals. (old, wonderful)
3. Just outside the city you soon see the . . . shapes of the Pyramids. (stone, vast)
4. From the top of the . . . tower you can look across the French capital. (graceful, iron)
5. At the heart of the city is this . . . fortress which is still home to the president. (medieval, well-known)
6. This is a . . . city, not a center for historic buildings, but still a great place to visit. (busy, commercial)
7. This spectacular city where Europe and Asia meet has . . . buildings, as well as ancient palaces. (modern, tall)

- B. Write each possible intensifier at the end of the sentence. One, both or neither may be possible.**

- a. This fish is (really, absolutely) fresh. *Really, absolutely.*
- b. Unfortunately the food in the hotel was (very, extremely) terrible. _____
- c. The mushroom soup was (very, absolutely) tasty. _____
- d. I find raw fish (absolutely, very) impossible to eat. _____
- e. This drink should be (very, completely) cold when it is served. _____
- f. The cheese was good and (extremely, very) cheap. _____
- g. I'm afraid the meat is (very, really) salty. _____

C. Underline the correct form.

There are some students who feel a depressed / depressing by studying, especially subjects which they find confused / confusing. They often leave their work until the last minute, and then find the amount they have to do is simply exhausted / exhausting, or they are embarrassed / embarrassing to admit that they need help. They simply become more and more worried / worrying, and then work even less than before. Or they blame the school system, because the subjects they are studying are just not interested / interesting. However, you may be surprised / surprising to know that very few students feel this way, according to recent research. In fact, most students don't find school work annoying / annoyed at all. They are usually excited / exciting by the subjects they are studying, and they feel satisfied / satisfying when they do something well.

D. Decide whether the word underlined is used as an adjective or adverb.

1. We had a lovely time in the hotel.
adjective
2. All the staff greeted us warmly.
3. And they spoke to us very politely.
4. Most people we met in the town were very friendly.
5. You certainly never feel lonely in a place like this!
6. The nightlife is also very lively.
7. We are very likely to go back next year.
8. We would certainly thoroughly recommend it.

E. Complete the adjectives in the following clauses with a finite or non-finite clause. The first is done for you:

- (1) Jasmine and Nick are *keen to take up golf*.
- (2) I am *sorry* - - - - -
- (3) My girl-friend is *insistent* - - - - -
- (4) You are *right* - - - - -
- (5) This extraordinarily violent film on the passion of Christ is *likely* - - - - -
- (6) We are *convinced* - - - - -
- (7) The Olympic team's trainer feels *confident* - - - - -
- (8) You must be *crazy* - - - - -
- (9) I am *happy* - - - - -
- (10) Is she *glad* - - - - -

F. Complete the following adjectives with PPs expressing the types of information mentioned on the left. The first one is done for you.

- (1) a cause: I'm angry *about what you said yesterday*
(2) a cause: I was *delighted* - - - - -
(3) a process: Not all the students are *satisfied* - - - - -
(4) a phenomenon: Many of them are *opposed* - - - - -
(5) an emotion: He went *white* - - - - -
(6) an activity: He is really *expert* - - - - -
(7) an activity: Aren't you *tired* - - - - -?

UNIT XII

ADVERBS AND THE ADVERBIAL GROUP

Aim:

To raise the students' awareness on:

- a. The structure of Adverb and Adverbial Group
- b. The difference between the structure of Adjectival Group and Adverbial group

Learning Outcome:

- a. Produce texts using the structure of Adverbs and Adverbial Groups.
 - b. Differentiate between the structure of Adjective Group and Adverbial Group
 - c. Differentiate between the structure of modification and complementation of Adverbial Group
-

12.1 Structure and General Characteristics of the Adverbial Group

The structure of the adverbial group is similar to that of the adjectival group; that is, it is composed potentially of three elements: the head **h**, the modifier **m** and the posthead element, either **m**(post-modifier) or **c** (complement). These elements combine to form the following four basic structures:

	AdvG	
1	h	yesterday
2a	h	early
2b	hm	early in the morning
3	mh	very early
4	mhm	very early in the morning

Other examples of full AdvG structures are:

mhc	more	slowly	than necessary
mhc	far	away	from civilisation
mhc	so	fast	(that) I couldn't catch him
mhc	quite	clearly	enough

The head element is always realised by an adverb. The modifier is realised typically by grading and intensifying adverbs, as in these examples, and less typically by quantifiers (*ten miles across*). The complement expresses a different type of meaning from that of the modifier, as it does in AdjGs.

It expresses the scope or context of the meaning expressed by the head (e.g. *luckily for us*); alternatively, it can serve to define the modifier more explicitly (e.g. *more correctly than before*). It is for this reason that complements of adjectives and adverbs are mostly realised by PPs and clauses, whereas pre-modifiers are usually realised by words. However, we shall see that few adverbs take prepositional complements.

General characteristics of adverbs and adverbial groups

- 1 Whereas adjectives modify nouns as one of their main functions, adverbs modify verbs, clauses, adjectives and other adverbs.
- 2 Adverbs and AdvGs function typically in the clause as Adjunct or Complement, and in group structures as pre-modifier and post-modifier. In addition, they marginally realise subject and object functions in clauses. Many adverbs of directional meaning function as particles (*up, down, in, out, etc.*) in phrasal verbs (Complement or Adjunct in clauses.)
- 3 They express a wide variety of types and subtypes of meaning.
- 4 They perform a wide variety of syntactic functions.
- 5 They can occupy different positions in clause structure, when functioning as manner, evidential, stance and connective adjuncts.
- 6 They are very frequently optional, in the sense that they can be omitted without the clause becoming ungrammatical.

12.2 Forms of Adverbs

Morphologically, English adverbs are either **simple**, **derived** or **compound**.

Simple forms

These are words of one or two syllables, usually of native origin, that are not compounded and do not have derivational affixes.

Examples: *now, then, here, there, far, near, soon, as, such, pretty, quite, rather, else, well, even, ever, ago*.

Many adverbial forms also function as prepositions.

However, prepositions are best contrasted with **adverbial particles**: *up, down, in, out,*

on, off, over, away, back, and so on.

Certain simple adverbs have the same form as the corresponding adjective:

A *hard* worker – he works *hard*

a *fast* car – she drives *fast*

An *early* arrival – we arrived *early*

a *late* performance – we left *late*

Derived forms

- Those formed from adjectives by the addition of the suffix *-ly* include:
badly, happily, fairly, freely, slowly, proudly, honestly, cheerfully, sadly, warmly.
- Some adjectives already have the *-ly* suffix (*friendly, princely, daily, weekly, monthly*, etc.), and this form is also that of the adverb.
- Some adjective–adverb pairs have quite unrelated meanings:
hard–hardly; bare–barely; scarce–scarcely; present–presently; late–lately; short–shortly.
- A few adverbs in *-ly* are not derived from adjectives:
accordingly, namely, jokingly, among others.
- Certain very common adjectives expressing very basic meanings don't lend themselves to adverb formation:
big, small, young, old, tall, tiny, fat, among others.
- Those formed from nouns, by the addition of *-wise, -ways, -ward(s)*, include:
clockwise, moneywise; sideways, lengthways; backward(s), forward(s).
- A small group of adverbs beginning *a-* indicate mainly position or direction:
about, above, across, again, ahead, along, aloud, apart, around, aside, away.
- Another small set of adverbs has *be-* as first syllable, also indicating position or direction: *before, behind, below, beneath, besides, between, beyond*.

These can also function as prepositions:

I've been here *before* (adv.); It was *before* the war (prep.).

Compound forms

There are two types:

- shortened forms of what were originally PPs: *downhill, indoors, inside, outside, downstairs, overhead, overall, overnight*, and others.

- combinations with other classes of word: *somewhere, anywhere, nowhere, everywhere; however, moreover, nevertheless; anyway, anyhow.*

Phrasal adverbs are those which do not form compounds, but consist of more than one word: *of course; at all; kind of, sort of; in fact; as well.* A representative number of adverbs appear in the following passage adapted from Joyce Cary's novel *The Horse's Mouth*, which tells how he finds his studio on his release from prison:



I could see my studio from *where* I stood, an old boathouse *down* by the water wall. A bit rotten in places, but I had been glad to get it . . . When I had my canvas *up* it was two feet off the ground, which *just* suited me. I like to keep my pictures above dog level. “*Well*”, I thought, “the walls and roof are *there*.” They haven’t got blown *away, yet*. No-one has leaned *up* against them.” I was pleased, but I didn’t go *along* in a hurry. One thing at a time. Last time I was locked *up*, I left a regular establishment *behind*. Nice little wife, two kids, flat and a studio with a tin roof. Water-tight *all round* . . . When I came *back*, there was nothing. Wife and kids had gone *back* to her mama. Flat let to people who didn’t *even* know my name. My cartoons, drawings, ladders, they’d *just* melted. I hadn’t expected to see the fryingpan and kettle *again*. You can’t leave things like that *about* for a month in a friendly neighbourhood and expect to find them in the same place. When I came *back* from gaol, *even* the smell had gone.

12.3 Types of Meanings Expressed by Adverbial Groups

Adverbs express five broad types of meaning in clauses and groups: circumstantial, stance, degree, focusing, connective. As with many adjectives and other word classes, however, the meaning of a particular adverb must be seen together with its function in context. The literal meaning of many adverbs can become figurative, or completely different, when used as an intensifier. So, although *far* is listed in section A (below) as meaning distance, *Don’t go too far*, it expresses degree in *Prices won’t go down very far*. When it functions as an intensifier it takes on a meaning similar to *much*: *far too short, a far nicer place*, while *so far* expresses time, similar to *up to now*.

A Circumstantial adverbs: where, when and how things happen

Space

Position: Put the chairs *here/outside/upstairs*. An away match.
Direction: Push it *inwards/down/through/out/away*. The trip *back*.
Distance: Don't go too *far/near/close*.

Time

Moment: They will be coming *tomorrow/sometime/then/soon/later*.
Frequency: The doctor came *once/daily/frequently/now and again*.
Duration: We didn't stay *long*. We spoke *briefly*.

Relation: The train will arrive *soon*. It hasn't arrived *yet*.
Sequence: *first, second, next, then, last, finally*.

Manner Hold it *carefully*.

Domain The concert was a success *artistically* but not *financially*.

B Stance: expressing a personal angle

Certainty, doubt: You are *certainly right*. *Perhaps* I'm wrong.
Evidential: *Apparently*, they emigrated to Australia.
Viewpoint: We are in good shape *financially*, and *healthwise*, too.
Emphasis: He is *plainly just* a creep. *Indeed* he is.
Judgement: The Minister has *wisely* resigned.
Attitude: *Thankfully*, it didn't rain. *Hopefully*, it will be fine tomorrow.

C Degree adverbs: comparing, intensifying

Comparison: This is the *most/the least* efficient scanner we've had so far.
Intensification: He lives *all* alone but seems *quite/fairly/pretty* happy.
Attenuation: It was *kind of* strange to see her again.
Approximation: There were *about/roughly/more or less* 20 people there.
Sufficiency: Is the water hot *enough*?
Excess: Well, actually, it's *too* hot.

D Focusing adverbs: restricting the scope

Restriction: That is *merely* a detail. He is *just* interested in money.
He *hardly* ate anything, *only* a yoghurt.
Reinforcement: The hotel had everything, *even* a fitness centre.

Even is a scalar adverb which carries an implication that the unit modified by *even* is either high or low on a scale of expectedness, in the context. In the example, a fitness centre is higher than expected, as not all hotels have a fitness centre. In *he wouldn't stay even for one day*, it is implied that *one day* is a shorter stay than had been expected. Both are interpreted as slightly surprising.

E Connective adverbs: logical connection

Sequence:	<i>First</i> , we have no money, and <i>second</i> , we have no time.
Reinforcement:	The house is small and <i>furthermore</i> has no garden.
Conclusion:	It was a tiring trip, but <i>altogether</i> very interesting.
Restating:	We've got two pets, <i>namely</i> a rabbit and a canary.
Reason:	I couldn't find you, <i>so</i> I left.
Condition:	Take an umbrella; <i>otherwise</i> you'll get wet.
Clarification:	He wants to live abroad, <i>or rather</i> anywhere away from home.
Contrast:	They accept his invitations, <i>yet</i> they run him down.
Alternation:	There's no tea. Would you like a cup of coffee <i>instead</i> ?
Concession:	What you said was true; <i>still</i> it was unkind.
Attention-seeking:	<i>Now</i> , you listen to me! <i>Now then</i> , what's all this about?

Technical description often makes use of adverbs of degree and quantity as in the following extracts from an elementary textbook on *Metals* by H. Moore.

Of the ninety or ¹*so* ²*naturally* occurring elements, about seventy are metals. Of these, *over*³ half are put to practical use, although many of them *only*⁴ in small amounts. In every household there are dozens of metal implements . . . from water-tanks to tea-spoons. Industrial machinery is made *almost entirely*⁵ of metals. If man had not learnt to use metals, we would *still*⁶ be living in the Stone Age. Some metals are used in a *relatively*⁷ pure state, for example aluminium, whose lightness and corrosionresistance make it *especially*⁸ useful. But metals are used *mostly*⁹ with other elements to form alloys and *so*¹⁰ in this way their properties can be improved and their range of uses *widely*¹¹ extended.

¹quantity; ²classification; ³quantity; ⁴restriction; ⁵restriction; ⁶duration; ⁷degree; ⁸degree; ⁹intensification; ¹⁰degree; ¹¹consequence (connective); ¹²degree

12.4 Syntactic Functions of Adverbs An Adverbial Group

Adverbs have three main functions:

- as Adjunct in clause structures;
- as modifier in group structures; and
- as connectives between clauses.

Less typically, adverbs and AdvGs can realise the integrated clause functions of Complement, Object and Subject.

In clause structures

1 Adjunct:	I knew her <i>pretty well</i> .
2 Stance adjunct:	<i>Fortunately</i> , it didn't rain.
3 Inferential connective	So you don't want to come, <i>then</i> .
4 Subject Complement:	That's <i>quite all right</i> .
5 Directional Complement:	Everyone rushed <i>out</i> .
6 Direct Object:	I don't know <i>when</i> . They didn't tell me <i>why</i> .
7 Subject (marginally):	<i>Today</i> is the last Friday in the month.

In group structures

8 modifier in AdjGs:	<i>all</i> wet; <i>quite</i> nice; <i>too</i> long; <i>completely</i> new.
9 modifier in AdvGs	<i>nearly</i> there; <i>more</i> easily; <i>very</i> often.
10 modifier in NGs:	the <i>then</i> Minister of Health; a <i>nearby</i> hotel; <i>quite</i> a success.
11 modifier of determiners:	<i>about</i> double; <i>roughly</i> half; <i>almost</i> all.
12 modifier in PPs:	<i>right</i> out of sight; <i>just</i> down the road.
13 submodifier in AdjGs:	<i>much</i> too short; <i>rather</i> more interesting.
14 submodifier in AdvGs:	(<i>not</i>) <i>all</i> that easily; <i>far</i> too often.
15 post-modifier in AdjGs:	quick <i>enough</i> ; very beautiful <i>indeed</i> .
16 post-modifier in AdvGs:	quickly <i>enough</i> ; beautifully <i>indeed</i> ; <i>never</i> <i>again</i> .
17 post-modifier in NGs:	the journey <i>back</i> ; the way <i>ahead</i> .
18 complement of determinative:	any (interest) <i>at all</i> ; somewhere <i>else</i> .
19 complement in PPs:	over <i>here</i> ; through <i>there</i> ; from <i>inside</i> ; till <i>now</i> .
20 particle in VGs:	pick <i>up</i> ; put <i>on</i> ; take <i>out</i> ; pull <i>off</i> ; go <i>in</i> .

12.5 Positions of Adverb in the Clause: Initial, Middle and Final

12.5.1 Adverbs of Place, Time, and Manner

Adverbs referring to the **place**, **time** and **manner** of an event are placed most naturally in final position.

1 We arrived *early*.

2 We caught the bus *easily*. Not *We caught *easily* the bus.

This is because in English, unlike some languages, an object is not separated from the verb which selects it, even by adjuncts of degree:

I like apples *very much*. Not *I like *very much* apples.

The only exception to this is when the direct object is exceptionally long and so requires end-focus.

Indefinite time adverbs such as:

sometimes, *eventually*, *immediately*, *finally*, *recently*, *previously*

can be placed in final, pre-verbal or initial position. Again separation of verb object is excluded:

- (a) He stopped the machine *immediately*.
- (b) He *immediately* stopped the machine.
- (c) *Immediately* he stopped the machine.
- (d) *He stopped *immediately* the machine.

Of these,

- (a) is the normal unmarked position
- (b) focuses on the process *stop*, and
- (c) on the whole of the clause.

By contrast, (d) is unacceptable.

Certain adverbs of **frequency**:

always, never, seldom, hardly ever, often, rarely, sometimes, usually tend to occur in mid-position, between Subject and Predicator or between operator and main verb. The word *often* may also focus on the whole clause, in initial position:

- (e) We *always* spend our holidays abroad. (*Always we spend . . .)
- (f) We have *never* been to Africa. (*Never, we have . . .)
- (g) Lawyers *often* love to tell you about how good they are. (Often lawyers love to . . .)

The adverbs of **negative import**

never, seldom, rarely, hardly ever

are occasionally fronted and followed by Subject–operator inversion for purposes of emphasis, though this structure is formal in style:

Rarely does one find such kindness nowadays.
Never in my life have I heard such crazy ideas!

Finally we may observe the similarity of meaning of *still* and *yet* in a *be + to* infinitive structure, and as concessive connectives:

He'll make a champion of you *yet/ still*.
 A cure for chronic bronchitis is *still/ yet* to be found.
 It was a hard climb. *Still*, it was worth it. (concessive)
 He's rather uncommunicative, *yet* everyone seems to like him. (concessive)

Spatial adverbs such as:

abroad, across, back, everywhere, downstairs, inside, uphill, forwards, sideways expressing position and direction, are normally placed after the Predicator or in end position:

Push it forwards; turn it sideways.

12.5.2 Adverbs of Modality, Evidence and Degree

The tendency to occupy mid-position extends also to these semantic types:

They're *probably* still partying. (modal)
She is *supposedly* a rich woman. (hearsay evidential)
I *totally* disagree with you. (degree)

The Adverbs still, yet, already

These three adverbs express, in broad terms, the following time relationships:

Still refers to processes or states which continue to occur or not occur up to the present.

Yet refers to processes or states which may occur in the future or have not occurred up to the present moment.

Already refers to processes or states which occurred before the present moment.

The following table shows their interrelated uses in questions and answers, as in interpersonal communication. In negative replies, there is sometimes an equivalence between the *not yet* and the *still not* constructions.

When used in monologues or continuous prose, these adverbs may be found in other syntactic frames, but mostly in the same basic placements as those shown in the table.

NO	QUESTION	AFFIRMATIVE ANSWER	NEGATIVE ANSWER
1	Does Tom still visit you?	Yes, he still visits us. Yes, he still does.	No, he doesn't visit us any more. No, he doesn't visit us any longer. No, he no longer visits us.
2	Is Tom still working?	Yes, he is still working. Yes, he still is.	No, he isn't working any more. No, he isn't any more. No, he isn't working any longer. No, he is no longer working.
3	Is Tom working yet?	Yes, he is already working. Yes, he already is.	No, he isn't working yet. No, he still isn't working.
4	Has Tom arrived yet?	Yes, he has arrived already. Yes, he has already arrived. Yes, he already has.	No, he hasn't arrived yet. No, he still hasn't arrived. No, he hasn't yet.

5	Has Tom already gone? Has Tom gone already?	Yes, he has already gone. Yes, he has gone already. Yes, he already has.	No, he hasn't gone yet. No, he is still here.
6	Does Tom know yet?	Yes, he already knows. Yes, he knows already. Yes, he already does.	No, he doesn't know yet. No, he still doesn't know. No, he doesn't yet.

12.5.3 Function and Type

In conversation, adverbs sometimes occur alone, as responses to something said by the previous speaker. In such cases the adverb can carry out such discourse functions as agreeing emphatically, expressing mild interest, asserting strongly or granting permission in particular contexts:

Maybe that's a way to do it.

Absolutely (emphatic agreement)

Now that's what I call a first-class meal!

Definitely! (emphatic agreement)

Did you enjoy the outing?

Tremendously, yes! (emphatic assertion)

Can I have a look at the contract?

Certainly. (granting permission)

12.6 Modification and Complementation in the Adverbial Group

12.6.1 Comparative and Superlative Uses

Adverbs are graded by the same words as adjectives:

more often, most often, less often, least often, as often, often enough, too often.

The following suppletive forms are used as comparative and superlative forms of the adjectives *good, bad* and *far*, and the adverbs *well, badly* and *far*: Good/well: *better, best*; bad/badly: *worse, worst*; far: *further, furthest*.

Tomorrow morning would suit me *best*, for the meeting.

It was the driver who came off *worst* in the accident.

12.6.2 Intensifying the Adverbial Meaning

As with adjectives, intensification may be (a) high, or (b) medium.

(a) *very soon*

quite recently

right now

high up

just then

far back

soon after

close by

(b) *fairly well*

pretty easily

rather badly

Coordinated comparative adjectives indicate a progressively high degree of the quality expressed: it's getting *colder and colder*. Adverb can function as head or as modifier:

He drove *faster and faster* along the motorway.

Her paintings are selling *more and more successfully* every day.

As with adjectives, we may note the **emotive modification** of adverbs by swear words such as *damn(ed)*, as in *You behaved damn foolishly*, and other less polite ones. Though less common in adverbial groups than in adjectival groups, modifiers can be found **submodified**, or even **sub-submodified**, especially in spoken English:

rather	less	fluently	
very	much	more	profitably

The following adapted extract from a conversation illustrates a rather British use of intensifiers:

J.W. What in fact do we think of when we think of a camel?

A.R. *Well*,¹ . . .

J.W. Is it a pleasant animal or . . .

A.R. An unpleasant animal? . . . Obtuseness I should say *generally*,² the whole attitude of a camel seems to be, er, obtuse. It has this, er, *rather*³ supercilious look on its face . . . for example . . . and they have, I'm told, I've *never*⁴ experienced this I'm happy to say, but they have this magnificent facility for spitting *quite*⁵ a considerable distance with great accuracy, er . . .

J.W. I don't know that spitting shows obtuseness. I should have thought it *probably*⁶ shows perspicacity . . .

G.T. I think he's *slightly*⁷ ridiculous, the camel, isn't he? The, er, weird expression he has on his face is *rather*⁸ like the ostrich, but the ostrich carries it off. The ostrich looks marvellous, where, whereas the camel *just*⁹ doesn't bring it off at all.

K.B. Camels *always*¹⁰ strike me as *rather*¹¹ mean, they're ready to do you down at the slightest opportunity.

(L. Dickinson and R. Mackin, *Varieties of Spoken English*)



12.6.3 Complementation of Adverbs

The *wh*-items *when*, *where*, *why*, *how* and their compounds (*somewhere*, *anywhere*, etc.) have nominal as well as circumstantial value, as is shown in their post-modification by AdjGs (*somewhere more exotic*), PPs (*everywhere in the world*), non-fin cl (*nowhere to sleep*) and the adverb *else*:

where else? = in what other place?

when else? = at what other time?

how else? = in what other way?

why else? = for what other reason?

The forms *somewhere*, *anywhere*, *nowhere* are often replaced in informal AmE by *someplace*, *anyplace*, *no place*, though not in *wh*-questions, e.g. *someplace else*, *anyplace else*, *no place else*.

Stance adverbs are sometimes modified by *enough*, in the sense of intensification rather than sufficiency:

Curiously enough, he doesn't seem to mind criticism.

The police never found out, *oddly enough*, who stole the jewels.

A. Complements of Comparison and Excess

Complements of adverbs are almost exclusively of one type, namely grading. As with adjectives, many adverbial heads admit indirect complements, which depend, not on the adverb itself, but on the degree modifier.

<i>More, less . . . than</i>	Bill speaks Spanish <i>much more</i> fluently <i>than</i> his sister. It rains <i>less often</i> here <i>than</i> in some other countries.
<i>-er . . . than</i>	Our coach left earlier <i>than</i> it should have done.
<i>as . . . as</i>	I don't translate <i>as</i> accurately <i>as</i> a professional.
<i>too . . . to-inf</i>	We reached the station <i>too</i> late <i>to</i> catch the train.
<i>not adv enough . . . to-inf</i>	We didn't leave <i>early enough</i> <i>to</i> get there in time.

Adverbs modified quantitatively by *so* and *that* are also complemented in the same way as adjectives. The sequence of the clauses can be inverted, the second one then becoming an explanatory comment on the first:

He explained the problem *so clearly* (*that*) everybody understood.
everybody understood the problem, he explained it *so clearly*.

B. Adverbs Taking Direct Complements

The following recorded conversation is characterised by a variety of very commonly used adverbs in various syntactic and discourse functions:

Underline the adverbs in the following text.



- A. So what's new, Ann?
- C. *Well* I don't know if anything's *terribly* new *at all* *really* or is it all *much* the same?
- B. You *still* living with Deb?
- C. No, she moved *out* at the end of April.
- B. Oh.
- A. *So*, you know, *well*, we'd been *scarcely* speaking for almost a year *really*, *so* it was a *bit of a* heavy atmosphere it didn't *really* bother me in fact. . .
- B. m
- C. In fact we just sort of lived entirely separate lives. I used only to see her when she came through the kitchen her nose in the air sort of thing. *Anyway, really*, I think, the kitchen . . .
- B. A *bit* awkward, that, I should think you would think a door could be pushed *through*, through where you've got that little room with the cupboard in it.
- C. I suppose *so*, you see, I mean, *even* if it were a couple living *together*, it would be *just* ideal, that sort of thing wouldn't matter, but it isn't *really* suited to people who are living separate lives *really*. *So* at any rate, she moved out. I *never* heard from her *since*.
- B. You haven't, not a word?
- C. No, I haven't heard from her *at all* and I haven't contacted her, and she hasn't contacted me. I haven't *really* felt I wanted to, cos it was a *little sort of rather* unpleasant in the end.

(Adapted from Jan Svartvik and Randolph Quirk (eds),
A Corpus of English Conversation)

EXERCISE

A. Decide whether the words underlined are acting as adjectives or adverbs.

1. Some people think modern paintings are 'difficult'.
adjective
2. They find them confusing because they are not 'pictures'.
3. They say that a good photograph would be better.
4. At least, they say, a photo does show the real world.
5. It's also hard to persuade them that the artist worked hard.
6. Some modern painting could easily have been painted by a child.
7. Artists sometimes make the situation more difficult.
8. They write explanations of their work which can seem unnecessary
9. They may not seem to have very much connection with the art.
10. Still, if the work seems interesting then it is worth looking at.

B. Put the frequency adverb in brackets into the most appropriate space in the sentence. Decide whether the statement describes a good listener, or a bad listener.

1. Ioften..... finish sentences for other people. (often)
Good or bad listener?
2. Other people.....seem to be comfortable.....when they talk to me. (usually)
Good or bad listener?
3. When people talk to me, I look at the floor. (sometimes)
Good or bad listener?
4. If I don't like a person's voice, I pay attention to them. (never)
Good or bad listener?
5. I.....try to be sympathetic when.....people talk about their problems.
(usually)
Good or bad listener?
6. I.....try to give people my complete attention when they.....speak to me.
(always)
Good or bad listener?.....
7. Iinterrupt people before they have finished what they are saying.
(rarely)
Good or bad listener?.....
8. I laugh at whatpeople say to me, and upset them. (sometimes)
Good or bad listener?.....

C. Complete the sentence with well, ill, bad, badly, hard, or hardly.

1. Last Thursday I woke up feeling
2. When I got up I realized I could walk.
3. I had exercised in the gym the night before.
4. My left ankle seemed to be swollen.
5. I didn't feel at all but I had to go to the doctor's.
6. I found it to walk there, but I managed it in the end.
7. The news was that I needed an x-ray and had to go to the hospital.
8. The doctor there told me there was nothing seriously wrong. I could believe it!

D. Complete the sentence with one word.

- a. I expected my exam results to be better.
My exam results were than I expected.
- b. Harry doesn't look so clever.
Harry is than he looks.
- c. The black coat is smaller than the brown one.
The brown coat is than the black one.
- d. Helen's brother is older than her.
Helen is than her brother.
- e. Jim Carrey's previous film wasn't as funny as his latest one.
Jim Carrey's latest film is than the previous one.
- f. I thought the station was nearer.
The station was than I thought.
- g. Maths lessons don't seem as short as English lessons.
Maths lessons seem than English lessons.
- h. I'm sure this year is colder than last year.
I'm sure last year was than this year.
- i. I'm not as happy as I used to be.
I used to be than I am now.
- j. The weather yesterday was worse.
The weather today is than it was yesterday.

E. Read again the passage by Joyce Cary (in the below) and identify the type of meaning expressed by each adverb or AdvG printed in italics. Are any types used more frequently than others? Do you think there is any reason for this?

I could see my studio from *where* I stood, an old boathouse *down* by the water wall. A bit rotten in places, but I had been glad to get it . . . When I had my canvas *up* it was two feet off the ground, which *just* suited me. I like to keep my pictures above dog level. “*Well*”, I thought, “the walls and roof are *there*. They haven’t got blown *away*, *yet*. No-one has leaned *up* against them.” I was pleased, but I didn’t go *along* in a hurry. One thing at a time. Last time I was locked *up*, I left a regular establishment *behind*. Nice little wife, two kids, flat and a studio with a tin roof. Water-tight *all round* . . . When I came *back*, there was nothing. Wife and kids had gone *back* to her mama. Flat let to people who didn’t *even* know my name. My cartoons, drawings, ladders, they’d *just* melted. I hadn’t expected to see the fryingpan and kettle *again*. You can’t leave things like that *about* for a month in a friendly neighbourhood and expect to find them in the same place. When I came *back* from gaol, *even* the smell had gone.

F. Do the same with the following passage, and say whether the relative frequency of the types of meanings is the same as in the previous text:



Is there life *elsewhere* in the cosmos? One view is that life on earth, *especially* intelligent life, is the result of an *incredibly* unlikely set of circumstances, and that there is no intelligent life *anywhere* else in our Galaxy, *perhaps* none in the entire Universe. The opposing argument is that there are so many stars and planets in the Galaxy that, provided there is *even* a small chance of intelligence developing on one planet, it has *probably* happened on many others, *too*. Observations show that *about* 10% of all bright stars are *roughly* similar to the sun. In our Milky Way Galaxy *alone* that means *approximately* 40 billion stars of the right type. This number is great *enough* to suggest that the odds are quite high.

James Jeans, *The Universe Around Us*

G. Insert in the following sets of sentences, in appropriate places, suitable adverbs chosen from the list of examples suggested for each set.

(a) Stance adverbs: certainly, reportedly, obviously, allegedly, admittedly, undeniably, actually, clearly, undoubtedly, eminently.

- (1) This novel is well suited to the cinema.
- (2) The film is brilliant and moving, though it might have been even more so.
- (3) A visit to the National Theatre is an educational experience for anyone interested in twentieth-century architecture.
- (4) The President has not decided yet on seeking a second term.
- (5) The collection includes a poem written by Hitler.
- (6) It was not a well-planned 'coup', because it failed so quickly.
- (7) He became a star during the revolt, which allowed him to turn it into a political asset.
- (8) Their popularity is rising, judging by the number of fans at their concerts here.

(b) Adverbs of respect: historically, stylistically, politically, socially, racially, ideologically, morally, constitutionally, clinically, formally.

- (1) Though not 'true enemies', they are unyielding.
- (2) He is well connected.
- (3) The sentences are too long and complex.
- (4) The British are mixed.
- (5) The higher ranks were responsible for the harsh treatment of the prisoners.
- (6) The costumes designed for the play are accurate in every detail.

(c) Restriction and reinforcement: merely, hardly, solely, alone, exclusively, simply; just, even; also, too, again, as well, similarly.

- (1) The doctor who begins by searching for a heart-beat on the right-hand side will convince the patient that he will be able to help him.
- (2) These taxis are always there when you need one, in the rain.
- (3) To put it in a few words, we do not know the answer.
- (4) The emphasis in language study was for a while on formal grammar.
- (5) Harry said that the river would suit him perfectly, and I said so.
- (6) What has happened explains many problems of the past and will help us avoid future ones.

(d) Process adverbs of manner: cautiously, soundly, surreptitiously, heavily, momentarily, secretly, endlessly, rigorously, slowly, mechanically.

- (1) Yusuf was sleeping on his back.
- (2) Apparently, the man was suspected of carrying diamonds and should be searched.
- (3) Behind the barrier, Wilson worked at his code books.
- (4) He went on speaking, choosing his words.
- (5) It was said that he drank.
- (6) The rain had stopped.

H. Revise briefly the list given in Part A of the syntactic functions which can be realised by AdvGs in groups and clauses. Then make a list of the functions realised by all of those used in the text on metals in part B. Write out the list and comment on the relative frequency of each function.

Part A

In clause structures

- | | |
|---------------------------|---|
| 1 Adjunct: | I knew her <i>pretty well</i> . |
| 2 Stance adjunct: | <i>Fortunately</i> , it didn't rain. |
| 3 Inferential connective | <i>So</i> you don't want to come, <i>then</i> . |
| 4 Subject Complement: | That's <i>quite all right</i> . |
| 5 Directional Complement: | Everyone rushed <i>out</i> . |
| 6 Direct Object: | I don't know <i>when</i> . They didn't tell me <i>why</i> . |
| 7 Subject (marginally): | <i>Today</i> is the last Friday in the month. |

In group structures

- | | |
|---------------------------------|---|
| 8 modifier in AdjGs: | <i>all</i> wet; <i>quite</i> nice; <i>too</i> long; <i>completely</i> new. |
| 9 modifier in AdvGs | <i>nearly</i> there; <i>more</i> easily; <i>very</i> often. |
| 10 modifier in NGs: | the <i>then</i> Minister of Health; a <i>nearby</i> hotel; <i>quite</i> a success. |
| 11 modifier of determiners: | <i>about</i> double; <i>roughly</i> half; <i>almost</i> all. |
| 12 modifier in PPs: | <i>right</i> out of sight; <i>just</i> down the road. |
| 13 submodifier in AdjGs: | <i>much</i> too short; <i>rather</i> more interesting. |
| 14 submodifier in AdvGs: | (<i>not</i>) <i>all</i> that easily; <i>far</i> too often. |
| 15 post-modifier in AdjGs: | quick <i>enough</i> ; very beautiful <i>indeed</i> . |
| 16 post-modifier in AdvGs: | quickly <i>enough</i> ; beautifully <i>indeed</i> ; <i>never</i> again. |
| 17 post-modifier in NGs: | the journey <i>back</i> ; the way <i>ahead</i> . |
| 18 complement of determinative: | any (interest) <i>at all</i> ; somewhere <i>else</i> . |
| 19 complement in PPs: | over <i>here</i> ; through <i>there</i> ; from <i>inside</i> ; till <i>now</i> . |
| 20 particle in VGs: | pick <i>up</i> ; put <i>on</i> ; take <i>out</i> ; pull <i>off</i> ; go <i>in</i> . |

Part B

Of the ninety or *so*¹ *naturally*² occurring elements, about seventy are metals. Of these, *over*³ half are put to practical use, although many of them *only*⁴ in small amounts. In every household there are dozens of metal implements . . . from water-tanks to tea-spoons. Industrial machinery is made *almost entirely*⁵ of metals. If man had not learnt to use metals, we would *still*⁶ be living in the Stone Age. Some metals are used in a *relatively*⁷ pure state, for example aluminium, whose lightness and corrosionresistance make it *especially*⁸ useful. But metals are used *mostly*⁹ with other elements to form alloys and *so*¹⁰ in this way their properties can be improved and their range of uses *widely*¹¹ extended.

I. Revise the table of uses of *still*, *yet*, *already* given on p. 513. Then answer the following questions, (a) affirmatively, and (b) negatively. Give two or three answers to each question.

- (1) Is it time to go yet? - - - - -
- (2) Have you had your lunch yet? - - - - -
- (3) Do you still love me? - - - - -
- (4) Are you still studying Russian? - - - - -
- (5) Is it ten o'clock already? - - - - -
- (6) Have you already been to Venice? - - - - -

J. In the following sentences, insert the adverb given on the left in its appropriate position, Indicate alternative positions where they are acceptable, and say whether this affects the meaning in any way:

- (1) *sometimes*: We take long holidays in mountainous areas.
- (2) *often*: Journalists working in war zones are in danger.
- (3) *abroad*: She gets on well with people.
- (4) *yesterday*: They gave a concert.
- (5) *longingly*: The cat gazed at the brightly coloured fish in the aquarium.
- (6) *perhaps*: You'd better take an overcoat with you.
- (7) *probably*: We shall leave tomorrow.
- (8) *hopefully*: They have arrived at their destination.

K. We have included the word *today* in the category of adverb, functioning marginally as subject in clause structure and more centrally as adjunct. In one of the grammars mentioned in the 'Further Reading', *today* and *tomorrow* are classed as deictic pronouns, not adverbs. Another grammar treats these words as nouns. Discuss these proposals, providing criteria and evidence for the different views. Does *yesterday* fulfil the same conditions as *today* and *tomorrow*?

Similarly, *ago* is sometimes analysed as a preposition with a postposed complement. Discuss.

L. Modify the adverbs marked in the following sentences, in the senses indicated on the left:

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---|
| (1) Intensification: | She answered <i>automatically</i> , without thinking. |
| (2) Medium intensification: | He recovered <i>quickly</i> after the operation. |
| (3) Description: | The book is selling <i>well</i> . |
| (4) Attenuation: | The look on his face was weird. |
| (5) Quantification: | He had a few drinks and <i>later</i> was involved in an accident. |
| (6) Description: | The winner of the car rally drove <i>fast</i> . |
| (7) Intensification: | Our team didn't play <i>well</i> on that occasion. |

M. Add a post-modifier or complement to the AdvG in the following sentences:

- (1) It's hotter in the Sahara than *anywhere* - - - - -
- (2) When we came out of the Pyramids, I said to myself: '*Never*' - - - - -
- (3) I can't find my glasses. They must be *somewhere* - - - - -
- (4) *Curiously*- - - - - he used exactly the same word as I did.
- (5) She doesn't dance as *beautifully* - - - - -
- (6) Do your friends live *far* - - - - - ?

N. Read the conversation below, identify the syntactic function of each numbered adverb and the semantic type to which it belongs.

- A. So what's new, Ann?

C. *Well* I don't know if anything's *terribly* new *at all* *really* or is it all *much* the same?

B. You *still* living with Deb?

C. No, she moved *out* at the end of April.

B. Oh.

- A. *So*, you know, *well*, we'd been *scarcely* speaking for almost a year *really*, *so* it was *a bit of a* heavy atmosphere it didn't *really* bother me in fact. . .

B. m

C. In fact we just sort of lived entirely separate lives. I used only to see her when she came through the kitchen her nose in the air sort of thing. *Anyway, really*, I think, the kitchen . .

B. *A bit* awkward, that, I should think you would think a door could be pushed *through*, through where you've got that little room with the cupboard in it.

- C. I suppose *so*, you see, I mean, *even* if it were a couple living *together*, it would be *just* ideal, that sort of thing wouldn't matter, but it isn't *really* suited to people who are living separate lives *really*. *So* at any rate, she moved out. I *never* heard from her *since*.
- B. You haven't, not a word?
- C. No, I haven't heard from her *at all* and I haven't contacted her, and she hasn't contacted me. I haven't *really* felt I wanted to, cos it was a *little sort of rather* unpleasant in the end.



UNIT XIII

SPATIAL, TEMPORAL AND OTHER RELATIONSHIPS: THE PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

Aim:

To raise the students' awareness on:

- a. The internal structure of PP
- b. Syntactic function of PP
- c. Semantic features of PP
- d. Realization of the complement

Learning Outcome:

- a. To use proper PP properly in given incomplete texts
 - b. To differentiate PP and adverb in given texts
 - c. To identify different contextual meanings of PP in given texts
 - d. Work in groups on the use of certain preposition
-

13.1 Internal Structure of the Prepositional Phrase

Preposition may consist of one word (from), the two words (because of) or three (in contact with) and occasionally four (with the exception of). All are single prepositions.

The sequence of preposition is preposition + nominal complement with optional modifier.

Unlike nouns, adjectives and adverbs the preposition cannot stand alone, without its complement.

The house on the corner
 prep complement

The house on (ungrammatical)

The internal structure of PPs consists of a preposition and its complement, both of which are obligatory, and an optional modifier. It can be represented as follows:

Prepositional Phrase		
m	prep	c
right	into	the policeman's arms
completely	out of	control
straight	along	this road
just	at	that moment
quite	near	here
only	by	concentrating hard

Here is a recorded conversation between the students and a teacher (T), which illustrates the abundant use of prepositional phrases in English. Examples are numbered for future reference and explanation.

T: *What's this about?*¹

B: Oh, animals.

T: Oh, yes. People are obsessed *in this country*²
*with being kind*³ *to animals*,⁴ aren't they?

A: Alison and her cat . . .!

B: Don't talk *to us*⁵ *about Alison's cat*!⁶

C: That cat is definitely not popular *in our house*!⁷



B: That cat moults constantly *all over our carpet and sofa!*⁸

T: But is it true, though? See what I mean? She hates cats!

A: *Just for that silly reason?*⁹

T: No, but there seem to be more cases of *animal cruelty*¹⁰ going on here *than anywhere else.*¹¹

A: Yeah. I get the impression *from the little I know*¹² they're *just as crazy about dogs*¹³ *in Belgium and Holland and France and Italy*¹⁴ *as they are over here.*¹⁵

T: Is it just one of those myths that we perpetuate *regarding the British character?*¹⁶ Is it true?

A: I think it probably is a myth.

(recorded conversation)

13.2 One-word, Two-word and Multi-word Preposition

a. One-word prepositions

<i>about</i>	<i>across</i>	<i>after</i>	<i>around</i>	<i>as</i>
<i>by</i>	<i>down</i>	<i>for</i>	<i>from</i>	<i>in</i>
<i>near</i>	<i>of</i>	<i>round to</i>	<i>towards</i>	<i>with</i>
<i>on</i>	<i>off</i>	<i>at</i>	<i>like</i>	<i>without</i>

b. Other one-word prepositions include

<i>above</i>	<i>against</i>	<i>beneath</i>	<i>beside</i>
<i>during</i>	<i>inside</i>	<i>throughout</i>	
<i>given</i>	<i>granted</i>	<i>opposite</i>	<i>regarding</i>
<i>than</i>	<i>despite</i>	<i>below</i>	<i>considering</i>

c. Two-word prepositions (prep+an adjective+and adverb or a conjunction)

These consist of:

- + **for:** *as for, except for, but for*
- + **from:** *apart from, away from, as from*
- + **of:** *ahead of, because of, inclusive of, instead of, regardless of, out of*
- + **to:** *according to, as to, close to, contrary to, due to, next to, on to, near to; on to, owing to, thanks to, up to*
- + **with:** *together with, along with*

d. Three-word prepositions (prep+noun+prep)

<i>as far as</i>	<i>as well as</i>	<i>by means of</i>	<i>by way of</i>
<i>in charge of</i>	<i>in view of</i>	<i>in return for</i>	<i>in exchange for</i>
<i>in spite of</i>	<i>in aid of</i>	<i>in contact with</i>	<i>on top of</i>
<i>on the part of</i>	<i>at the hands of</i>	<i>with regard to</i>	<i>with reference to</i>

e. Four-word prepositions (prep+a/the noun+of)

<i>as a result of</i>	<i>at the expense of,</i>
<i>on the part of</i>	<i>with the exception of</i>

- f. PPs with the possessive
for the sake of the children **on behalf of** the committee
 for the children's sake on the committee's behalf

13.3 Realization of the Complement Element

The complement element of a PP is most typically realised by a nominal group, but it may also be realised by the classes of groups and clauses shown below. Simple nouns and pronouns, adjectives and adverbs are treated as 'groups' represented by the head:

NGs:	<i>at home</i>	<i>after which</i>	<i>on account of his age</i>
AdjGs:	<i>in private</i>	<i>at last</i>	<i>for good</i>
AdvGs:	<i>for ever</i>	<i>since when</i>	<i>until quite recently</i>
PPs:	<i>except in here</i>		<i>from out of the forest</i>
fin. wh-cl:	<i>Have you decided about when you're leaving?</i>		
wh + to-inf. cl:	<i>Have you any problems apart from where to stay?</i>		
-ing cl:	<i>The miners charge the employers with ignoring their claims.</i>		

- a. NG (Nominal Group)
 At home
 NG
 After which
 NG
 On account of his age
 NG
- b. AdjGs (Adjectival Groups)
 in private
 Adj.G
 at last
 Adj. G
 for good
 Adj. Act
- c. AdvGs (adverbial Groups)
 for ever
 Adv.G
 until quite recently
 Adv. G
 since when
 Adv. G
- d. PPs
 except in here
 Prep. Phrase
 From out of the forest
 Prep. Phrase

e. Adjectival and adverbial groups

Nouns, pronouns and NGs are by far the most common realisation of the prepositional complement. By contrast, the use of AdjGs and AdvGs as complements is infrequent and limited to certain set expressions such as *at last*, *for good*, *for ever*, as in:

At last I'm free!

. . . the family left Ireland *for good* and made its future in England.

I could stay here *for ever*, it's so beautiful.

f. Wh-clauses

English prepositions are not followed by *that*-clauses. The only type of finite clause admissible is the *wh*-clause, and the only non-finite type the *-ing* clause. *To*-infinitive clauses are not admissible either, except when introduced by a *wh*-item. Combinations **1a** and **2a** (below), therefore, are not acceptable. An *-ing* clause can often provide an acceptable alternative, as in **1b** and **2b**:

1a *I was pleased about (that) Pat won the prize.

1b I was pleased *about Pat winning* the prize.

2a *We were annoyed at not to get any news from you.

2b We were annoyed *at not getting* any news from you.

g. Use of *-ing* clauses

One must be careful to distinguish *to*-infinitive clauses from the preposition *to*, which

can take an *-ing* clause, as in the first example below. Most other prepositions likewise take the *-ing* form, as this is the most nominal among clauses:

He devoted his career *to helping* needy and deprived children.

The intruder escaped *by clambering* over a back fence.

The following continuation of the recorded student–teacher conversation shows that the largest number of complements are realised by nouns, pronouns and full NGs, with a sprinkling of finite and non-finite clauses.

The 'Green' Party

A: It's really making a come-back *all of a sudden*.¹

B: Seems to come *in and out of fashion*.²

A: Yeah.

B: We had elections *at school* ³ and the 'Green' party did win, actually.

A: So did we. It was a big surprise *to everyone*,⁴ so many anti-establishment adherents *amongst us*.⁵

T: I get the impression that it's a non-vote, just a comfortable way *of not having to take a decision*.⁶

- B: Yeah, a pressure vote, so that you don't have to vote either *for the Conservatives*⁷ or *for the Labour Party*.⁸ People just can't be bothered *with comparing programmes and thinking*⁹ about *who to vote for*.¹⁰
- T: And you think this has a significant impact *on the way the other parties have formed their policies*?¹¹
- B: Yeah, but it's . . . it's just waffle, just an excuse *for getting votes*.¹²
- T: Do you feel very cynical *about them*,¹³ then?
- B: Suppose I do, a bit.
- T: One of the things people say *about, well, at least some of the younger generation*,¹⁴ not all of *them*,¹⁵ but *on the whole*¹⁶ is, there's no radicalism *among people* today¹⁷ who are *in their late teens and twenties*.¹⁸ It's what the forty-year-olds say *about the twenty-year-olds*.¹⁹ They think back *to when they were young*²⁰ and *what they were like then*²¹ and say that the younger generation don't have any radical or controversial views any more.
- A: I don't think radicalism has disappeared. Maybe it has been channelled *into that 'green' area*.²²
- B: Yeah. A lot of former ideas have been ditched in favour *of moving towards a position much closer to the centre than before*.²³

13.4 Realization of the Modifier Element

a. Grading modifiers

more *less* *far more* *much less*
the most *the least* *in the least*

It was a wonderful day. A day that seemed **more** like a dream than real life.

Later, the two houses nearer the church were made into one.

He says he doesn't want to sound in the Least like our noisy neighbours

superlative prep

b. Intensifying modifiers

completely *directly* *right* *well* *badly*
all *absolutely* *greatly* *straight* *much*

The ball went **right** through the window.

modifier prep
intensifying phrase

Today I'm feeling **absolutely** on *top of* the world.

modifier prep
intensifying phrase

Sit down, Paul, and I'll tell you **all** about it.

modifier prep
intensifying phrase

The walls are **badly** in need of a coat of paint.
modifier prep phrase
intensifying

c. Attenuating modifiers

<i>partly</i>	<i>scarcely</i>	<i>not fully</i>	<i>to some extent</i>
<i>slightly</i>			
<i>a little</i>	<i>a bit</i>	<i>hardly</i>	<i>not at all</i>
<i>not altogether</i>		<i>somewhat</i>	

I think you're **slightly/a bit** out of touch with reality.
modifier prep phrase
(attenuating)

It's **hardly** thanks to Mr Payne's advice that the deal was concluded successfully.

modifier prep phrase
(attenuating)

d. Quantifying modifiers

<i>a long time</i>	<i>not that much</i>	<i>miles</i>	<i>two hours</i>
<i>way back</i>	<i>light years</i>	<i>streets</i>	<i>nearly</i>
<i>almost</i>			

She was **streets** ahead of her rivals.
modifier prep phrase
(quantifying)

*Note: streets a head of (far a head of)

That all happened **way** back in history.
modifying prep phrase
(quantifier)

Almost at the same moment, they realised they were lost.
modifier prep phrase
(quantifier)

e. Description or attitudinal modifiers

surprisingly *hopelessly* *dangerously* *unexpectedly*

We were **dangerously** close to having an accident.

modifier prep phrase
(descriptive
attitudinal)

He is hopelessly in love with a girl who ignores him.
modifier prep phrase
(descriptive
attitudinal)

f. *Focusing or reinforcing modifiers*

precisely mainly just principally chiefly merely only

Emil told him that alcohol was available only *after* departure
modifier prep phrase
(focusing)

You say that just for the sake of arguing.
modifier prep phrase
(focusing)

In many of these examples – just as with prepositions that have adverbs of the same form, such as *near*, *after*, *before*, *in*, *above* – it is the preposition rather than the prep + complement that is being modified:

We live *quite near* the main square.
We arrived *just before* midnight.

On the other hand, certain modifiers seem to relate semantically, though not syntactically, more closely to the complement, as is sometimes seen in the possibility of using an alternative construction, where the adjective or adverb do modify the head syntactically:

I obtained my first job <i>purely</i> by accident.	I obtained my first job by <i>pure</i> accident.
We worked <i>almost</i> until midnight	We worked until <i>almost</i> midnight.
The firm is <i>badly</i> in debt.	The firm has some <i>bad</i> debts.

13.5 Syntactic Functions of the Prepositional Phrase

- | | |
|-------------------------|--|
| 1 (Post-)modifier in NG | A bridge <i>over the river</i> , apricots <i>on the tree</i> . |
| 2 Complement in NG | He is a teacher <i>of French literature</i> . |
| 3 (Pre-)modifier in NG | <i>Off-the-record</i> comments should not be printed in a newspaper. |
| 4 Complement in AdjG | My son is brilliant <i>at mathematics</i> . |
| 5 Complement in AdvG | They don't live far <i>from here</i> . |

- 6 Complement in PP I'm free all day *except on Mondays*.
- 7 A car accident [on the motorway [to Yorkshire]].
- 8 Subject *After dark* is the only good time for fireworks.
- 9 Direct Object I don't consider *next to a railway line* a good place to live.

Some verbs are closely related to a specific preposition and take a prepositional object

- 10 Prepositional Object Someone has been tampering *with the scanner*.

13.5.1 PPs Embedded as Elements of Groups

- 1 (Post-)modifier in NG A bridge *over the river*, apricots *on the tree*.
- 2 Complement in NG He is a teacher *of French literature*.
- 3 (Pre-)modifier in NG *Off-the-record* comments should not be printed in a newspaper.
- 4 Complement in AdjG My son is brilliant *at mathematics*.
- 5 Complement in AdvG They don't live far *from here*.
- 6 Complement in PP I'm free all day *except on Mondays*.

PPs is embedded recursively in other PPs or in groups.

- 7 A car accident [on the motorway [to Yorkshire]].

13.5.2 PPs as Elements of Clauses

- 8 Subject *After dark* is the only good time for fireworks.
- 9 Direct Object I don't consider *next to a railway line* a good place to live.

Some verbs are closely related to a specific preposition and take a prepositional object

- 10 Prepositional Object Someone has been tampering *with the scanner*.

Prepositional phrases are used freely as Complements of the subject or the object to express temporary states, where they are often interchangeable with adjectives. Even more commonly, they occur after verbs of position or movement to specify place or direction (Locative/ Goal Complement):

- 11 Subject Complement Monica must be *out of her mind* to reject such an interesting offer. (Monica must be *mad*.)
- 12 Object Complement His illness left him *without a job*. (His illness left him *jobless*.)
- 13 Locative/Goal Complement The train to London is now standing *at the platform* and the high-speed train from York is drawing *into the station*.

Prepositional phrases are also commonly used to realise the three main types of adjunct:

circumstantial, stance and connective.

As circumstantial adjuncts

In this function they typically occur in either final or initial position:

14 final position All this happened *long before the war*.

15 initial position *Behind us*, we saw that the queue on the motorway stretched for miles.

As stance adjuncts

Like some other classes of units – mainly adverbs, AdvGs and clauses – certain PPs can

function syntactically as Stance Adjuncts, that is to say outside clause structures, to express a comment on—or an attitude to—the form or content of a whole clause. They then have the status of supplementives :

16 *In all honesty*, I don't believe a word he said.

17 *By all means*, do whatever you think best.

Although we regard Stance Adjuncts here as syntactically outside clause structure, from a semantic and psychological point of view they are part of the thematic organisation of the discourse surrounding the clause. In other words, the clause itself is not the domain of Theme, but rather the clause plus any supplementive attached to it. For this reason, we include them in Chapter 6 as a type of non-experiential Theme.

As connective adjuncts

Prepositional phrases can also be used as connective Adjuncts to link clauses, or groups and words within clauses:

18 A. I'm leaving now. B. *In that case*, I'll go too.

Of these syntactic functions, by far the commonest are adjuncts of various kinds and Locative/Goal Complements in clauses, together with modifiers in group structures, especially NGs.

13.6 Classes of Words with the Same Form as Prepositions

Some of the one-word prepositions can also realise functions characteristic of verbs, conjunctions, adverbs and adjectives. Such items are considered here as words having the same form (homographs), but fulfilling different functions as a result of diachronic extension.

13.6.1 Prepositions and Verbs

The following participial forms can function either as prepositions or as verbs: *barring*, *considering*, *excepting*, *excluding*, *following*, *including*, *regarding*, *given*, *granted*. For example,

prep: No-one *barring* a lunatic would start a nuclear war.

verb: There are restrictions *barring* the employment of children under sixteen.

prep: There are always problems *regarding* punctuality.

verb: Up to now I have been *regarding* you as a friend.

prep: We open seven days a week *excluding* Christmas Day.

verb: I'm not *excluding* the possibility of an agreement.

prep: These prices refer to a double room, *including* breakfast.

verb: We are *including* two new colleagues in the research group.

13.6.2 Prepositions and Conjunctions

It was mentioned that prepositions may be followed by finite *wh*-clauses and by non-finite clauses in *-ing*, since these have nominal reference. A small number of items referring to moments of time can, however, be used to introduce declarative finite clauses, and are then usually considered as having a conjunctive function:

prep: *after* his accident; after having an accident.

conj: *after* he had his accident.

prep: *before* your arrival; *before* arriving.

conj: *before* you arrived.

prep: *since* our meeting; since *meeting* you.

conj: *since* we met.

prep: *until* my visit to Paris; *until* going to Paris.

conj: *until* I went to Paris.

Three of the participial items mentioned, *considering*, *given*, *granted*, enter into construction with finite *that*-clauses and so can be classed as conjunctions having the same form as the corresponding prepositions:

prep: *Considering* his age, he did very well in the competition.

conj: *Considering* that he is so young, he did very well.

prep: *Given* your interest in painting, you'll enjoy living in Florence.

conj: *Given* that you are so interested in painting, you'll enjoy your stay in Florence.

prep: *Granted* the changes nuclear energy will bring about, it will still need to be carefully controlled.

conj: *Granted* (that) nuclear energy will bring about many changes, it will still need to be carefully controlled.

13.6.3 Prepositions and Adverbs

Both prepositions and adverbs express, typically, circumstantial meanings, especially those of space and time. It is not surprising, therefore, that some words can realise functions of both classes. The following are examples:

aboard, about, above, across, after, along, around, behind, below, beneath, between, beyond, down, in, inside, near, off, on, opposite, outside, through, throughout, under, underneath, up.

Here are some structural criteria for distinguishing prepositions from adverbs:

- A preposition – but not an adverb – requires a nominal complement, and when this is a pronoun, the preposition governs its case (*for him, to them*).
- In paired examples such as *We went **into** the café* – *we went **in***, what was a preposition in the first version is replaced by an adverb in the second.
- the adverb is heavily stressed, whereas the preposition is normally unstressed, or only lightly stressed (*lower down the scale* vs *lower **DOWN***; *we walked past the café* – *we walked **PAST***).

In certain positions prepositions are stressed; for instance, when stranded at the end of a *wh*-question: *What is it **FOR***? *Where is it **FROM***? The preposition *with* is stressed in the expression ‘*with it*’ (= trendy), and also in one adjunctive use *I’ll take it **WITH** me*, but not in *to start with* (= (at) first). *Without* is similarly stressed in *I can’t do **WITHOUT** it*, ***WITHOUT** you*. In the combinations *do without* and *go without (food)*, the word *without* functions as an adverb particle: There’s no milk left, so we’ll just have to *do without*.

In the following examples, both the adverb and the PP are functioning as Adjuncts or Locative Complements:

Table 14.1

	Adverb	Preposition
There are always two pilots	aboard	aboard the plane.
All the children were running	around	around the playground.
The last time I met Monica was in September, but I haven’t seen her	since	since then. (cohesive with September)
The rule is that workmen must go	outside	outside the factory if they want to smoke during the morning break.

However, not all prepositions have adverbial counterparts: the forms *at*, *from* and *towards* function as prepositions, but not as adverbs. Conversely, the forms *together*, *apart* and *forth* function singly as adverbs but not as prepositions.

When combined with a preposition, however, *together with* and *apart from* function as complex prepositions.

Furthermore, even when a form serves both functions, the sense may be different in each case. *To* as a preposition is different from its adverbial function in *The unconscious boy came TO* (= recovered consciousness) in both stress and meaning.

In the following examples, the words in italics function as part of a PP (in the left column) and as modifier of a NG head (in the right):

PP	m in NG
<i>near</i> the town centre	<i>near</i> neighbours of mine
<i>outside</i> the gates	an <i>outside</i> broadcast
<i>inside</i> the museum	some <i>inside</i> information
tears rolled <i>down</i> her cheeks	a <i>down</i> payment

13.7 Two Types of Prepositional Meaning

13.7.1 Grammatical Prepositional

We noticed that nouns which take prepositional complements are related to cognate verbs or adjectives that take the same prepositional complement, as in the following examples:

- nouns:** compatibility *with*, reliance *on*, damage *to*, a liking *for*, an attack *on*, a quarrel *with*
adjs: compatible *with*, opposed *to*, free *of/from*, lacking *in*
verbs: to rely *on*, to dispose *of*, to amount *to*, to hope *for*, to quarrel *with*, give it *to me* (with the Recipient encoded as a prepositional phrase)

13.7.2 Lexical Prepositional

A preposition is chosen freely in accordance with the speaker's intention.

lexical We flew *in/into/out of/through/above/below/close to/near/a long way from* the clouds.

13.8 Lexical Prepositional Meanings

13.8.1 Location in Space

As we examine the different spatial relationships expressed by prepositions, we see that the nominal group or clause following the preposition represents the Ground, while the Figure is a nearby entity in the clause, like *the boy*. (Other, more specific terms which have been widely adopted in the analysis of prepositions are 'Trajector' and 'Landmark' for Figure and Ground, respectively.)

We now turn to the main types of meaning expressed by spatial prepositions in English, in terms of Figure and Ground:

At:	point in space:	Tim is at home, at the football match, at the cinema, at the supermarket, at work
On:	in contact with a surface:	on the floor/wall/ceiling; on the corner of Bond Street; on a bicycle; on the train/bus/on board ship; on the map; a wasp on my hand
In:	containment:	in the universe, in the world, in France, in the garden; in the corner, in the car, in a boat, the coin in my hand

The preposition *at* is used when attendance at the typical function of the premises is implied (e.g. *at the cinema* in order to see a film; *at church* to attend a religious service). If the speaker were already outside the cinema and asks where Tim is, the answer would be specific: *He's in the cinema, he's inside*.

On prototypically has the Figure in contact with and supported by a surface (the Ground), whether horizontal (*there's a pen on the floor*) or vertical (*there's a fly on the wall*).

The Ground includes vehicles and animals on which one rides (*on a bicycle/motorcycle/horse*), and larger vehicles in transit which have a walkway (*on the bus/train, plane, on board a ship*), whereas *in* is used where no such walkway exists (*in a boat, in a car, in a helicopter*).

However, referring to a train, we say *in the dining-car, in the first-class compartment*, which are conceptualised as containers. When the vehicle is not in active use, it is conceived as a container and *in* may be used (*The children were playing in the abandoned bus*).

In implies containment: *There are strong security forces in the stadium*. Containment may be complete (*the coins in my purse*) or in part (*Put the flowers in water, a man in a blue shirt and jeans*). The difference between *in the corner* (of a room) and *on the corner* (of the street) is one of perspective, whether the right-angle is perceived as containing or projecting.

13.8.2 Change of Location

Change of location implies motion. It is typically marked by the preposition *from*, while Goal represents the final location and is most often marked by *to*, or by *to* in combination with *on* for a surface (*onto*) or *in* for a container (*into*). 'Home' in *go home* is an exception in not expressing the notion of final location (Goal) explicitly. (Note the explicit encoding of location in BrE 'stay **at** home' against the inexplicit AmE 'stay home').

From (source) . . . to (goal)	<i>From</i> the bus-stop <i>to</i> the stadium.
Off . . . (source) . . . onto (goal)	The vase fell <i>off</i> the table <i>onto</i> the floor.
Off . . . (source) . . . into (goal)	The boy fell <i>off</i> the cliff <i>into</i> the sea.

Out of (source)	I took the money <i>out of</i> my purse. He ran <i>out of</i> the house.
Across, along (path)	We went <i>from</i> the bus-stop, <i>along</i> the street <i>to</i> the stadium.
Through (passage)	We went <i>through</i> the tunnel.

Out of is visualised as exit from a container. Note that the adverb *out* + the preposition *of* provides the converse meaning with respect to *into*: *into the water/ out of the water*, while **away** + **from** indicates greater distancing: *away from the water*. Similarly, **off** is the converse of **on** and **onto** (*off the table onto the floor*).

Across, along express **Path**. The difference is that *along* simply follows a horizontal axis, (We walked *along the river bank*, Cars were parked *along the street*), while *across* involves crossing the axis, or an open space, at an angle, from one side to another (She walked *across the street/ the field*).

Through prototypically has the meaning of **Passage** (motion into a point and then out of it (He hurried *through* the doorway). The Ground can also be two-dimensional (You could go *through the park, through a maze of streets*) or three-dimensional, with volume (We drove *through the tunnel*).

Past is similar to *along*, but with respect to some fixed point: Go *past the stadium* and you'll come to a supermarket.

13.8.3 Other Spatial Prepositions

Other basic spatial prepositions include **over**, **under**, **up** and **down**. **Over** is used in several ways:

- (a) A picture hangs *over the fireplace*.
- (b) A helicopter flew *over our heads*.
- (c) They live *over a sweet-shop*.
- (d) He wore a raincoat *over his suit*.
- (e) The lake is *just over the hill*.
- (f) They sprayed paint *all over the wall*.
- (g) The horse jumped *over the fence*.
- (h) I fell *over a stone* and broke my leg.

In (a) and (b), one entity is higher than the other, with a space between, the difference being that (a) is static location (b) involves motion. The notion of 'higher' is still clear in (c) but less clear in (d) where, in addition, 'space' is reduced to the meaning of 'on top of'. In (e), *over* implies location at the end of a path. One has to go over the hill to reach the lake. In (f) *all over* is 'pervasive' or 'covering', whereas (g) signals a movement of going up higher than an obstacle and down again on the other side, and (h) moving from an upright to a non-upright position. (Compare *fall over* as an intransitive phrasal verb with an adverbial particle: The lamp *fell over* and broke.)

Under, meaning vertically below, but with some intervening space, is the converse of *over*. It can function with verbs of location and motion, and the distance may be greatly reduced:

There's a rug *under the table*; a bench *under the tree*. (i.e. under the branches of the tree!)

I pushed the letter *under the door*.

He's wearing a T-shirt *under his sweater*. (conversely, a sweater *over his T-shirt*)

Above and **below** are similar to *over* and *under*, but absolute verticality is not a requirement:

The castle stands *above the town*; *below the castle* there is a river.

Up and **down** indicate a higher or lower position respectively, as in (a), or motion towards that position, as (b). Like *under*, they can imply the path taken to the higher or lower location, as with (b):

(a) There's a pub *just up/ down* the road.

(b) We had to walk *up/ down* three flights of stairs.

Up and *down* are, however, more commonly used as adverb particles in phrasal and phrasal-prepositional verbs, such as *If you **take it up**, I'll **bring it down***.

Round/ around express circular movement along a path in *She danced around me*, but circular position on a path in *The children sat round the teacher* (though probably the circle was not a full one). In the sentence *They drove furiously round the race track*, the track was probably irregularly curved, not circular.

Sometimes the meaning is indeterminate movement in different directions within an area, as in *We walked for hours round the streets looking for a cheap hotel*. At other times, the movement may be neither circular nor along a clear path, but varied and indeterminate in a volume of space (e.g. *The bees swarmed around us*.)

These differences may be regarded as different senses of the general meaning of 'circularity'.

By, beside, at my side, next to, in front of, behind (AmE *in back of*), **on the left, on the right, facing**, all express degrees of proximity. They correspond to the physical orientation of our bodies, and are extended to certain objects such as cars and houses which have a front, a back and sides.

By has also the meanings of agency (*a novel by Tolstoy*) and means (*by train, by bus, by air*).

Between and **among** express relative position, referring to two entities, or more than two, respectively.

13.8.4 Non-locative Meanings

For has been explained in chapters 2 and 3 as the Beneficiary meaning, that is, intended Recipient. It also expresses purpose and intended destination (I've brought it *for you*; an extra-fast machine *for copying*; they're *making for the coast*).

Like expresses similarity of features or character (She looks *rather like* Lady Macbeth, *What is she like* as a person?) It can also introduce a simile (*The lake shone like a mirror*) and draw on a more vague similarity of situations (Let's not quarrel over a silly thing *like this*). **Like** is related to the predicative adjective *alike* (The brothers look *alike*) and to the adverb *alike* (The change in climate affects young and old *alike*).

As is used when referring to roles, jobs or functions (He made his name *as a pop singer*; Have you ever worked *as a shop assistant*?). **As** is grammaticised in comparisons (*as clear as crystal*) and is related to the conjunction *as* (*As I was saying*,...)

With and **without** can signal:

- (a) accompaniment and lack of it, respectively (I'll go *with you*; she turned up at the gala dinner *without her husband*);
- (b) possession (a girl *with red hair*, a street *without a name*) or a part-whole relationship (a cup *without a handle*); or
- (c) instrument (he broke the lock *with a hammer*; she pushed her hair back *with her hand*).

13.9 Time Relations

Certain prepositions expressing location in space are also used to express location in time. Other prepositions – such as *during*, *until* and *since* – are not used with spatial meanings.

	examples	usage
At:	<i>at one o'clock</i> ; <i>at Christmas</i> ; <i>at midday</i> holidays	point in time: clock time, fixed
On:	<i>on Friday</i> , <i>on June 2nd</i>	for specific days and dates
In:	<i>in May</i> , <i>in the year 1888</i> , <i>in the evening</i> seasons,	regarding the occurrence of events months, years, times of day, centuries and other periods of time, all conceptualised as containers; note however, <i>in the morning</i> / <i>afternoon/evening</i> , but <i>at night</i>
Over:	We stayed with them <i>over the weekend</i> , <i>over Christmas</i>	periods of short duration
During:	<i>during the war</i> , <i>during my stay in Rome</i>	experiential periods of time
For:	We read <i>for hours</i> (cf spatially,	duration of time

We walked *for miles*);
 We are camping here *for the summer*; *for a long time*, *for good* (= 'for ever')
for the third time frequency

Since: I've been here *since 10 a.m.*

Until: We'll wait *until 4 o'clock*;
until the plane takes off;
 We didn't eat *until four o'clock*;
from morning till night; *up till now*

Before: *before the Flood*; *the week after*
and after: *next*

By: (a) Essays must be handed in
by Friday
 (b) *By the summer*, she was
 feeling stronger

retrospective, referring to the initiation of the duration typically marks end-point of duration, but marks a starting-point with negative sentences; *till* and *up til* are informal variants, but *till* is not used to start a sentence almost always express time meanings, but note the formal spatial expression 'He appeared *before the judge*' (a) a time deadline (b) before a certain time

13.10 Structures which Involve Stranding A Preposition

The normal order of the elements, **preposition + complement**, is frequently inverted, as in *Who is the play by*? The nominal complement is fronted to initial position in the clause, and the preposition is placed at the end, the prepositional phrase being consequently discontinuous. This is called **stranding**. It occurs frequently in English, particularly in the five types of sequence illustrated below. Although grammatically it is a marked form, it has become the normal, unmarked form used in conversation. It has the effect of giving prominence to certain parts of the message. The examples on the left illustrate its use, in contrast with the non-stranded order on the right, which in the bracketed examples sounds stilted or, if marked by an asterisk, ungrammatical. The other examples are all grammatical and normal.

In cleft clauses

It is *your health* I am worried *about*. [It is your health *about which* I am worried.]
 What I am worried *about* is your [**About what* I am worried is your health.]
 health.

In clauses with restrictive meaning

The *only thing* he thinks *about* is his [The only thing *about which* he thinks is his work.]
 work.

In passive clauses

With many prepositional verbs stranding of the preposition is the only way a passive can be formed:

My opinion is never asked for.
I don't like *being shouted at*.

Nobody ever asks for *my opinion*.
I don't like people shouting *at me*.

In active clauses with a 'raised object' equivalent to sequences introduced by anticipatory it

That firm is wonderful to work for.
My boss is easy to get on with.

It is wonderful to work for *that firm*.
It is easy to get on with *my boss*.

In each of these examples, the two different forms have different 'theme' and 'focus'. For instance, in the last example, one structure has *my boss* as Theme and focuses on *easy to get on with*, while the other has the evaluative word *easy* in the Theme, and focuses on *my boss*.

With wh-complements in interrogative and relative clauses

When the complement of a preposition is realised by an interrogative or a relative pronoun, the discontinuous structure is normal in familiar styles of expression, while the continuous (preposition + complement) order is distinctly more formal:

Familiar style

Who can we rely *on*?
The person we can rely *on* is Tom.
Tom.

Formal style

On whom can we rely?
The person *on* whom we can rely is Tom.

Some wh-questions admit only the discontinuous structure

What's the weather <i>like</i> ?	[* <i>Like</i> what is the weather?]
What have you come <i>for</i> ?	[* <i>For</i> what have you come?]
<i>Where</i> do we leave <i>from</i> ?	[* <i>From where</i> do we leave?]

Short questions in response to statements or directives are very common in English:

We are leaving tomorrow.	<i>Where from?</i>
I have to speak to your headmaster.	<i>What about?</i>
We had better leave now.	<i>What for?</i>

What for? as an independent question is used as an informal alternative to *why?* to ask the reason for the previous statement. Discontinuous *What . . . for?* asks about the purpose of something, as in *What is that tool for?*

Certain PPs which constitute fixed phrases are very rarely discontinuous

To what <i>extent</i> do they disagree?	[*What extent do they disagree to?]
<i>In which respect</i> do you think I am wrong	[*Which respect do you think I am wrong? in?]

Pet hates



For me,¹ the theatre is a bit like porridge.² I don't like porridge very much, but I force myself to eat it every now and again because, damn it, I am a Scotsman and I should like it. But even if I dress those rubbery oats up³ with strawberry jam or salt,⁴ I can't get over the impression⁵ that I am eating wallpaper paste. Theatre is just the same. I just don't have the taste for it.⁶ I go to see things at the Edinburgh Festival⁷ now and again, but I usually find myself staring at my watch⁸ and wondering what time the pub shuts. I avoid opera like the plague.⁹ There are two reasons for this.¹⁰ Firstly, the plot of your average opera¹¹ is just nonsensical. Secondly, I detest vibrato singing. I used to think that opera singers were unfortunate people who couldn't hit a note without warbling,¹² until my wife told me that they are trained to sound like that.¹³ I was shocked. You mean they actually choose to sing in that ridiculous manner?¹⁴ That said, I have been to a few operas¹⁵ in my time.¹⁶ I normally just settle down¹⁷ in my seat¹⁸ and ask whoever I am with¹⁹ to wake me up when it is all over, or when the world ends, whichever comes first.

EXERCISE

A. Underline the preposition found in the text below.

We know that the inside of the Earth has a metallic core (or central part), a rocky mantle (or outer part), and a thin crust or surface. As a result of high pressure at the core, it is hotter at the centre of the Earth than it is on the Sun. The mantle is a layer of dense rock that lies below the surface and above the liquid core.

The crust is the thinnest layer, being only about 35 km deep under continents, and under the oceans it is even thinner - only 5 km. Because of the crust's low density the material floats on the denser mantle. The crust is divided into sections called tectonic plates. The Earth as we now know it was formed in four different stages. First of all, the most dense material (eg iron) sank to the centre of the planet. Lighter materials and gases stayed at the surface and in the atmosphere. The dense material formed the core of the Earth, and the lighter solids formed the crust. In the second stage, impacts from objects eg asteroids, comets, left the kind of crater marks we can still see on the Moon. During the third stage, lava came up from the Earth's

crust and rain began to fall from the sky. The first heavy rains formed oceans and lakes. The fourth stage is still going on now as the surface changes. Mountains are rising in some areas. Large areas of solid material, tectonic plates, are moving just below the surface.

B. Complete the sentence with a suitable preposition.

- a. The uvula is a small piece of flesh that hangs down the back of your throat.
- b. The island of Alcatraz is the middle of San Francisco Bay.
- c. Write your address the top of the letter on the right-hand side.
- d. It was hard to watch the match because there were several tall people standing front of me.
- e. . . . the end of the play, the whole audience burst into applause.
- f. The man was completely bald the top of his head.
- g. Anna felt tired, so she stopped the car the side of the road and got out.
- h. Divers cannot work the bottom of the sea for very long.

C. Complete the sentence with a suitable preposition.

- a. Most people would expect a work environment to differ an educational environment.
- b. When you start your first job, you may find that you are not used the way that your colleagues behave.
- c. You may not understand what people are talking
- d. You may have to ask a lot of questions, and worry that other people can't rely you.
- e. Or you may find it difficult at first to cope the demands your job places on you.
- f. But there is no reason to suffer feelings of anxiety.
- g. You have to concentrate learning the job, and understanding the people around you.
- h. Don't worry that people are laughing you, or making fun of you because you are new to the job.
- i. You'll soon learn to deal everyday problems, and gain in confidence.
- j. Don't be afraid to ask for advice, and you'll soon be congratulating yourself your success.

D. Identify the different contextual meanings of the preposition *over* in the following.

- (1) They built a bridge *over the river*.
- (2) We live *over the road*.
- (3) I weigh *over 80 kilos*.
- (4) He looked at the blue sky *over his head*.
- (5) We had to climb *over the wall*.
- (6) She laid a blanket *over his bed*.
- (7) The baby fell *over a toy*.
- (8) The thief knocked me *over the head*.

E. Work in pairs or small groups, as follows:

- (1) Choose one of the simple, frequently used prepositions, e.g. *for, at, from, with, through, on*, etc.
- (2) Collect a good number of examples of the use of the chosen preposition, by consulting various dictionaries, periodicals, books or spoken sources.
- (3) Arrange the examples in groups that have a common and reasonably definable meaning.
- (4) Study the groups and observe how close the meanings are: (a) within each group; (b) between the groups.
- (5) In the light of your observations, try to formulate a core meaning, either for the general meaning of the preposition or for the meaning of each group.

F. Work in pairs or small groups as before:

- (1) Choose one of the following sets of spatial prepositions: (a) *by, beside, close to, near to, next to* or (b) *under, underneath, beneath, below*.
- (2) Collect examples of their use in their ordinary spatial senses.
- (3) Test the prepositions for substitutability one for another, and try to explain in what ways and to what extent they differ in meaning and use.

G. There are many fixed PPs in common usage. Can you formulate for each of the Following four sets a basic meaning relating the preposition to the five complements?

at once	on duty	out of work	in a hurry	under stress
at times	on purpose	out of practice	in full view	under control
at sea	on business	out of fashion	in luck	under-privileged
at work	on time	out of sight	in labour	under the tyrant's thumb
at war	on holiday	out of breath	in charge	under-weight

H. The following sentences all express processes taking place in a period of time. Can you explain the different semantic relations between process and period which motivate the choice of a different preposition in each sentence?

- (1) I have worked here *for* two years.
- (2) I have been happy here *over* the two years.
- (3) We have had problems *during* the two years.
- (4) We have lived *through* two years of problems.
- (5) There has been steady progress *throughout* the two years.
- (6) The building will be finished *in* two years.
- (7) The building will be finished *within* two years.

I. The following incident from the autobiography of Shirley MacLaine, *Don't Fall Off the Mountain*, includes many examples of location and change of location. Suggest a semantic function such as Source, Path, Location, Goal for each numbered phrase:

Late one evening on our way home¹ *from the studio*,² we pulled up *at a red light*.³ As we chatted quietly *about the day's work*,⁴ something suddenly kicked us *in the rear*⁵ and my feet went *over my head*.⁶ I reached out *for Steve*,⁷ screaming. I didn't know where down was, and my head wouldn't move *on my neck*.⁸ The car came *to a halt*.⁹ We had been knocked sixty feet *to the opposite side*¹⁰ *of the highway*¹¹ *into the path*¹² *of oncoming traffic*.¹³ Our trunk was *in the front seat*¹⁴ and Steve was pinned *under it*.¹⁵ 'Are you all right?' he called *to me*.¹⁶ He was twisted *out of shape*¹⁷ *on the floor*,¹⁸ with one arm tangled *in the steering wheel*.¹⁹

J. Use the following in sentences to show the difference in meaning between the two members of each pair:

in view of	in search of	in contact with
in the view of	in the search for	in our contact with

K. Many verbs and adjectives allow only one or two specific prepositions. Try testing your knowledge of the prepositions selected by the following items:

Verbs		Adjectives		Nouns
ask	plot	bored	aware	answer
agree	hope	tired	surprised	damage
amount	pay	delighted	prone	desire
appeal	suffer	anxious	related	search
depend	complain	sorry	fraught	anger
point	insist	suspicious	lacking	effect

L. Words related in meaning though of different class usually occur with the same preposition, though not always. Illustrate this by composing sentences with the following related words:

to rely

reliant

reliance

grateful

gratitude

to care

careful

care

furious

fury

to boast

boastful

boast

UNIT XIV

EXPRESSING OUR EXPERIENCE OF EVENTS

Aim:

To raise the students' awareness on:

- a. How our experience of events are represented in verbal groups
- b. The meaning of tense, aspect and function of modality

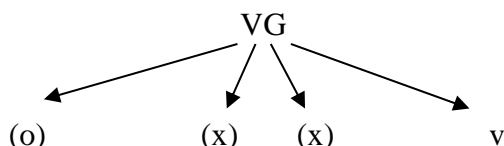
Learning Outcome:

- a. Students are able to discuss: (1) Syntactic elements of structure of the verbal group;
 - (2) Syntactic features of the operator element; (3) Experiential structure of the verbal group
 - b. Students are able to identify the structure of the verbal groups in a text
 - c. Construct a text using variety of verbal group structures
-

14.1 Syntactic Elements of Structure of the Verbal Group

The Verbal Group is the grammatical unit by means of which we most typically express our perception of events. ‘Event’ will be used in this chapter to cover all types of process, whether events, activities, states or acts of consciousness.

The VG consists of a lexical verb (e.g. *take*) or a primary verb (a form of *be*, *have* or *do*) as main verb (**v**), either alone or preceded by one or more grammatical elements –the auxiliaries (**x**) as in *has been* and *has taken*. The lexical and grammatical elements are all integral parts of an analytical form. The first auxiliary has a special status and is usually called the ‘operator’ (**o**). The constituent elements of the English VG can therefore be represented and exemplified as in the diagram.



v	waited	I waited an hour
o v	is waiting	Everyone is waiting
o x v	have been waiting	He has been waiting an hour
o x x v	will have been waiting	he will have been waiting an hour

14.2 Realisations of the Elements: Lexical Verbs and Auxiliaries

The elements of the VG are realised by the following classes and forms of verbs:

- lexical verbs: wait, come, rain, bring, etc.
- primary verbs: **be**, am, is, are, was, were, being, been, **have**, has, had, having; **do**, does, did
- modal auxiliaries: shall, should, will, would, can, could, may, might, must, ought to
- semi-modals: need, dare, used to (modals in certain uses)
- lexical auxiliaries:
 - (1) be able to, be about to, be apt to, be bound to, be due to, be going to, be liable to, be likely to, be certain to, be sure to, be to, be unlikely to, be supposed to
 - (2) have to, have got to
 - (3) had better, would rather, would sooner

Lexical verbs, the **v** or main element, constitute an open set; new ones can be coined and added to the lexicon at any time.

The primary verbs carry grammatical meaning (tense, aspect, person, number), the modal auxiliaries express modal meanings (obligation, possibility, probability, necessity) rather than lexical or grammatical meaning. On the other hand, the lexical element of the VG expresses both lexical meaning and grammatical meaning.

The primary verbs *be*, *have*, *do* can function both as auxiliary and as lexical elements of the VG (with the exception of *doing* and *done*, which function only as lexical elements). The syntactic function determines the type of meaning expressed, whether grammatical or lexical, as shown here.

Functioning as auxiliary	Functioning as lexical (main) verb
Elections are approaching. We didn't do anything about it. He has had nothing to eat.	Elections are imminent. We did everything. He had nothing to eat.

In addition to its function as a main verb, *be* therefore has three auxiliary functions:

- as an aspect auxiliary in the progressive: *is taking*
- as a passive auxiliary: *is taken*
- and as the basis of the lexical auxiliaries that take *be*.

14.3 Types of Lexical Auxiliary

Have or have got + to-infinitive

	<i>Have</i> and <i>have got</i> + V-to-inf	meanings
have to	I <i>have to</i> finish these letters. There <i>has to</i> be a solution.	(obligation) (necessity)
have got to	<i>I've got to</i> go now. Oh, <i>do you have to</i> ? There's <i>got to</i> be a solution.	(obligation) (necessity)

As a reminder here, we exemplify *have to* and *have got to* in interrogative clauses, showing that while *have to* can function either as a primary auxiliary or as a lexical verb, *have got to* functions only as an auxiliary:

Have to	Auxiliary	Lexical verb
Interrogative	Have you to go?	Do you have to go? Don't you have to go?
Negative declarative		You don't have to go.
Have got to	Auxiliary	
Interrogative	Have you got to go?	
Haven't you got to go?		
Negative declarative	You haven't got to go.	

Furthermore, *have got* + *to*-infinitive has no non-finite forms and does not combine with modals. None of the following structures are possible, therefore, all being used with *have to*:

*To have got to live there must be dreadful

To have to live there . . .

*I don't like *having got to* get up early.

I don't like *having to* get up early.

*We have had got to repaint the kitchen.

We have had to repaint . . .

*You will have got to watch out for mosquitoes there.

You will have to watch out for .

Modal Idioms: had better, would rather

Modal idioms with *had* and *would* + V-inf

meanings

had better	You <i>had better</i> come back tomorrow.	(I advise you to . . .)
would rather	I <i>would rather</i> stay here with you.	(I would prefer to . . .)
would sooner	I <i>would sooner</i> pay in advance.	(I would prefer to . . .)

14.4 'RAISED' Subject

You may have noticed that in clauses such as *They are likely to win*, the NG at Subject does not appear to be the logical Subject of the Complement *likely to win*. In fact, the likelihood refers not to the subject *they*, but to the situation of winning. Syntactically, then, the NG (*they*) is the logical subject of a clause embedded at subject, as in (a) below (that *they* will win), which is then extraposed, as in (b). Finally the subject of the subordinate clause is raised to become subject of the main clause, as in (c):

Subject to subject raising

- | | |
|--|---|
| (a) That they will win is likely | → the likelihood refers not to the subject <u>they</u> but to the situation of winning. |
| (b) It is likely that they will win | → (extraposed) |
| (c) They are likely to win. | → the subject of the subordinate clause is raised to become subject of the main clause. |

This is known as **subject-to-subject raising** (see also section 30.5.1). *Likely* is used a great deal in this construction, perhaps because its apparent synonym *probable* does not admit raising (**He is probable to win*). Other lexical auxiliaries that are the result of raising are *be certain to*, *sure to* and *supposed to*.

Object-to-subject raising occurs when a NG Object of a clause embedded at subject (*them* in (a) below) is extraposed as in (b) and then is raised to subject of the main clause, as in (c):

Object to subject raising

- (a) To find **them** is hard
- (b) It is hard to find **them**
- (c) **They** are hard to find

14.5 Syntactic Features of the Operator Element

The operator element has four major distinctive properties which are not shared by lexical verbs. They carry the ‘operations’ in what have been called the NICE constructions: **N**egation, **I**nversion, **C**ode and **E**mphasis. Compare:

<i>operation</i>	<i>operator aux.</i>	<i>lexical vb</i>
1 Negation: contraction with neg. Particle	I <i>don’t</i> eat meat	*I eatn’t . . .
2 Inversion with S in Interrogatives	<i>Will</i> you sign?	*Sign you?
3 ‘Code’, that is, substitute for the Predicator and predicate in a clause	I’ll go, if Ed <i>will</i>	I want to go if you <i>do</i> (if you * <i>want</i>)
4 Emphasis (by tonic stress)	Yes, I <i>will</i>	I <i>do</i> want to go

Four more features also distinguish the operator from a lexical verb:

<i>operation</i>	<i>operator aux.</i>	<i>lexical vb</i>
5 Position of frequency adverb: follows operator but precedes lexical verb	I can <i>always</i> go	I <i>always</i> want to go *I want always to go
6 Postposition of quantifiers <i>all</i> and <i>both</i>	They <i>have all/ both</i> gone	*They went <i>all/ both</i> They <i>all/ both</i> went
7 Verbal element in a tag question	You <i>will won’t</i> come, you?	. . . * <i>comen’t</i> you?
8 Independence of subject	Ed will teach the Juniors The juniors will be taught by Ted	Ed expects to teach the juniors The juniors expect to be taught by Ted

With verbs which have the active–passive contrast, operators usually show no change of meaning, whereas with some finite lexical verbs (e.g. *expect*) there is a change of meaning.

14.6 Basic Structure of the Verbal Group

Experiential Structure of the Verbal Group

In finite clauses the experiential structure of the Verbal Group is Finite + Event. The Finite carries tense, number and, to a limited extent, person. A modal auxiliary provides an alternative to a tensed auxiliary, for instance *is going/may go*.

Extended Structures of the Verbal group

An 'extended' Verbal Group structure consists of a lexical verb at the head, preceded by up to four auxiliaries, or five if we include the lexical auxiliaries. The order in which the auxiliaries occur is fixed and depends upon the grammatical meanings they convey.

The features of grammatical meaning which can be expressed in an extended VG comprise the following pairs, marked and unmarked, respectively, in 3rd person singular:

		marked	unmarked
tense	past, present	<i>went</i>	<i>goes</i>
finiteness	non-finite, finite	<i>going</i>	<i>goes</i>
anteriority	perfect, non-perfect	<i>has gone</i>	<i>goes</i>
aspect	progressive, non-progressive	<i>is going</i>	<i>goes</i>
modality	modal, non-modal	<i>will go</i>	<i>goes</i>
polarity	negative, positive	<i>doesn't go</i>	<i>goes</i>
emphasis	contrastive, non-contrastive	<i>does go</i>	<i>goes</i>

The basic or unmarked options are: the present, finite, non-perfect, non-progressive, non-modal, positive, non-contrastive. Taking a 3rd person form of *go*, *goes* is the unmarked option each case.

Structures with One Auxiliary: O V

	features	realisations	example
A 1	modal	modal aux.+ V-inf	must drive
B 2	perfect	have + V-en	has driven
C 3	progressive	be + V-ing	is driving
D 4	passive	be + V-en	is driven

With a lexical auxiliary:

1. be + about to + V-inf is about to drive



One day, as you *are washing*¹ your hands, you *happen* to glance² into the mirror over the basin and a sudden doubt *will flash*³ across your mind: ‘*Is*⁴ that really me?’ ‘What *am* I doing⁵ here?’ ‘Who *am*⁶ I?’ Each one of us *is* so completely *cut off*⁷ from everyone else. How *do you know*⁸ you *are reading*⁹ a book? The whole thing *may be*¹⁰ an illusion. How *do you know*¹¹ that red *is*¹² red? The colour *could appear*¹³ blue in everyone else’s eyes. A similar doubt, differently expressed, *is*¹⁴ inherent in the well-known question: ‘A tree that *has fallen*¹⁵ in the forest, far from the nearest man – when it *fell*,¹⁶ did it *make*¹⁷ any noise?’

(Magnus Pike, *The Boundaries of Science*)

This text illustrates the options listed as ABCD choices. It must be remembered, however, that **all finite Verbal Groups** also select obligatorily for tense, polarity and contrastiveness. This means that a full description of any one VG realisation would have to specify all these choices, as can be exemplified by *I are washing*: finite, present, positive, non-contrastive, non-modal, + progressive, non-perfect, non-passive.

Structures with Two Grammatical Auxiliaries: O X V

6	modal + perfect	must have driven
7	modal + progressive	must be driving
8	modal + passive	must be driven
9	perfect + progressive	has been driving
10	perfect + passive	has been driven

In combination with a lexical auxiliary:

11	modal + lexical-aux	must be about to drive
12	perfect + lexical-aux	has been about to drive
13	lexical-aux + progressive	is about to be driving
14	lexical-aux + passive	is about to be driven

Structures with two auxiliaries occur widely in both spoken and written English. The following extract is adapted from a report about problems facing language-school students when they come to the UK to study English:

It must be realised¹ that many students *will be going*² abroad for the first time and *may well be likely to feel*³ anxious about the kind of reception they *will be given*,⁴ about the kind of work they *are about to have to do*⁵ or about the host family to which they *happen to have been assigned*.⁶ Many of these worries *can easily be allayed*⁷ by giving them as much information as possible beforehand. In the past, some students *have been apt to complain*⁸ that they *have had to face*⁹ certain difficulties in the first weeks owing to lack of sufficient information.

¹modal + passive; ²modal + progressive; ³modal + lexical-aux; ⁴modal + passive;
⁵lexical-aux + lexical-aux; ⁶catenative (*happen to*) + perfect + passive; ⁷modal +
passive; ⁸perfect + lexical-aux; ⁹perfect + lexical-aux

Structures with Three Grammatical Auxiliaries: O X X Y

15	modal + perfect + progressive	must have been driving
16	modal + perfect + passive	must have been driven
17	modal + progressive + passive	must be being driven
18	perfect + progressive + passive	has been being driven

Verbal groups of three grammatical auxiliaries are more common in speech than in writing. With a modal or a lexical auxiliary, complex forms easily occur in spoken English, as in the following examples:

. . . and (they) think the killer *could be being protected* locally
The matter *could and should have been dealt* with as set out above

Groups with the two forms *been being* are uncommon, but they can occur if they are needed. With a lexical auxiliary added there are now four auxiliaries:

19	modal + perfect + lexical-aux	must have been about to drive
20	modal + lex.-aux + progressive	must be about to be driving
21	modal + lex.-aux + passive	must be about to be driven
22	perfect + lex.-aux + progressive	has been about to be driving
23	perfect + lex.-aux + passive	has been about to be driven
24	progressive + lex.-aux + passive	is about to be being driven

Then his application *would have to have been made* to the Commission by March.

We will go no further with the structure of the finite extended VG, as no examples of five auxiliaries have been found in a large corpus. In principle, however, there is no grammatical constraint on their composition and the telescoped order of elements allows for their use if the context requires them.

Telescoped Order of Elements of the Verbal Group

The meaning of *must* can be expressed by the lexical auxiliary *have* + *to*-infinitive, and of *can* by *be able to*, giving the acceptable combinations *is likely to be able to drive* and *is bound to have to drive*, as illustrated in the following spoken example:

If pain and other symptoms were being so badly managed these patients should have been referred promptly to other health care professionals *who might have been able to provide* a better quality of analgesia.

Note that, forms of *be* participate in extended structures in various ways: as auxiliary of the progressive (*is taking*); as auxiliary of the passive (*is taken*); and in a lexical auxiliary combination (*is bound to*). These can be telescoped successively as in: *is being taken* (prog. + passive), *is bound to be taken* (lex. aux + passive).

Extended Non-Finite Structures

Non-finite VGs do not possess the full set of sequences that we find in finite groups because they do not express the grammatical meanings of tense, mood or modality. The perfect, progressive and passive meanings can, however, be expressed in the non-finite VG, giving the following possible combinations (the bracketed form is not common):

	Infinitive structures	Participle structures
25	to have driven	having driven
26	to have been driving	having been driving
27	to have been driven	having been driven
28	to be driving	(being driving)
29	to be driven	being driven

14.7 Sequencing and Phasing Events

Verbal groups can be joined, either by coordination or by dependency to express events which occur in sequence, or are ‘phased’, respectively.

When linked by **coordination**, VGs are **conjoined**. They express two events with the same subject which occur in sequence and are semantically related (*washed and dressed*, but hardly *washed and scolded*).

Just as with the conjoining of other types of grammatical unit, the VGs may be linked in three ways: by the linking words *and*, *or* and *but*; without any linking item; or by a combination of both when more than two events are related:

She *washed and dressed* the child.

Our last typist just *left, disappeared* without saying a word.

He *was born, lived and died* in Bristol.

14.8 Types of Phase

Verbal Group complexes of this kind are said to be ‘phased’, because the process phases. The types of phase are classified notionally here in terms of the meaning of the first verb.

The Phase of Appearing or Becoming Real

The sky *seemed to get* darker. The patient *appears to be improving*.

The job *proved to be* quite unsuitable.

The stranger *turned out to be* a neighbour after all.

The Phase of Attempting, Succeeding, Failing, Helping

The verbs used with these meanings include *try*, *attempt*, *manage*, *be able*, *fail*, *neglect*, *omit*, *learn*, which are followed by the *to*-infinitive form of the subordinate verb.

He *tried to learn* Arabic.

We *managed to find* the key.

We had arranged to meet at 9, but he *failed to turn up*.



You must *learn to* relax.

I *attempted to explain* but they wouldn't listen.

She *neglected to turn off* the gas and there was an explosion.

He *helped feed* the baby/ This herbal tea *will help you to relax*.

The Phase of Manner or Attitude

The manner in which a person performs an action or an attitude of mind towards performing it are expressed by verbs such as *regret, hesitate, hasten, pretend, decline, bother*. All are followed by the *to*-infinitive form, except *bother*, which can also take an *-ing* form:

I regret to <i>inform you</i> . . .	=	inform with regret
I <i>hesitate to ask</i> you this favour.	=	ask reluctantly
They <i>hastened to</i> reassure her.	=	reassure immediately
He's only <i>pretending to</i> be deaf.	=	acting as if deaf
He <i>declined to</i> answer the question.	=	was not willing to answer
I never <i>bother to iron/ ironing</i> sheets.	=	trouble myself to iron
I <i>happen to</i> like her a lot, so shut up.	=	showing annoyance at Something said

The Phase of Chance and Tendency

Project to save Pisa tower

Workers have *started removing* soil from under the base of the leaning tower of Pisa, Italy, the second phase of a project meant to *keep the monument from toppling over*.

The digging that started on Friday was carried out through 12 tubes, inserted to a depth of six metres to remove some soil. Experts hope the tower will then settle better into the ground and lean less. It now leans 6 degrees, four metres off the perpendicular.

Rachel: We *got locked out*¹ of the flat yesterday.

Harry: How did you *get back*² in?

Rachel: We *had to borrow*³ a long ladder and *climb up*⁴ to the first floor balcony.

Harry: I thought that with the kind of security lock you've got, you're *not supposed to be able to lock yourself out*.⁵

Rachel: That's true. But if you *happen to bang*⁶ the door a bit too hard, it locks itself.

Harry: It's better *to have to lock*⁷ it from the outside.

¹get-passive, phrasal verb; ²phrasal verb; ³lexical aux; ⁴phrasal verb; ⁵ lexical aux. + lexical-aux. + phrasal verb; ⁶phased VG; ⁷lexical-aux

14.9 Realisations of Modal Meanings

Modality covers a broad semantic area and can be expressed by many forms. In English the syntactic class of **modal auxiliaries** is the most central. Other modal realisations include the following:

- Other verbs expressing modal meanings:
 - (a) The lexical-modal auxiliaries composed of *be* or *have*, usually another element + infinitive (*have got to*, *be bound to*, *be likely to*, etc.).
 - (b) The semi-modals *need* and *dare*.
 - (c) Lexical verbs such as *allow*, *beg*, *command*, *forbid*, *guarantee*, *guess*, *promise*, *suggest*, *warn*.
 - (d) The verbs *wonder* and *wish*, which relate to non-factual meanings.
- Other means of expressing modality:
 - (e) Modal adverbs such as *probably*, *possibly*, *certainly*, *hopefully*, *thankfully*, *obviously*.
 - (f) Modal adjectives such as *possible*, *probable*, *likely*, used in impersonal constructions such as *He is likely to win* or as part of a nominal group, as in *a likely winner of this afternoon's race* or *the most probable outcome of this trial*.
 - (g) Modal nouns such as *possibility*, *probability*, *chance*, *likelihood*, as in *There's just a chance that he may win*.
 - (h) The use of the past tense to indicate remoteness from reality, as in *I thought I'd go along with you*, if you don't mind. Similarly, the past form in the closed conditional, as in 'If you *went*, I would go too.'
 - (i) Parentheticals such as *I think*, *I guess*.

14.10 Extrinsic Modality: Modal Certainty, Probability and Possibility

These three options represent the three degrees of confidence, or lack of it, that the speaker feels towards the factuality of the proposition expressed.

Modal Certainty: **will**, **must**, **be bound to**

What we call modal certainty is not the hundred per cent certainty of a categorical assertion. An unmodalised declarative constitutes a stronger statement of fact than any additional expression of certainty can. If, for instance, George's father had said 'Your sister is studying upstairs', this is a stronger statement of fact than 'Your sister will certainly be studying upstairs', in which he expresses a strong assumption, reinforced by *certainly*.

With modal certainty expressed by **will** and **must**, the speaker does not accept any possibility of the proposition not being true. For this reason adding *but it may not be* to **1** and **2** would result in a contradiction.

1 The concert *will be* over by now.

2 The concert *must be* over.

Assumption or prediction: **will**

Will expresses a confident assumption by the speaker as observer, based on experience, known facts or what is usually the case. It can be glossed by 'I assume that . . .', as in **3**.

3 Her mother *will* know her age. (I assume that her mother knows her age.)

When the orientation frame is past time, as in a narrative, *would* is used, as in 4. It is not limited to future occurrences, but can refer to present time.

4 He *would* be about sixty when I first met him. (I assume that he was about sixty)

Will can also be used to refer to future time, expressing a modal judgement or prediction, as in 5 and 6.

Predictive *shall* is much less common than *will*. It is used by some speakers for the 1st person singular and plural, as in 7, and is usually contracted to 'll (*I'll, we'll*), negative *shan't* in spoken English:

5 It won't work. (I predict that it *won't* work)

6 Scotland *will* be dry tomorrow with a fair amount of cloud.

7 I must have an early night, otherwise I *shall* (*I'll*) be worn out tomorrow.

Logical necessity: must

The second type of modal certainty is that of 'logical necessity' meaning 'it is necessarily the case that x is true'. ***Must*** is the modal most used in BrE and is usually subjective, expressing strong conviction based on deduction or inference from evidence, which may or may not be stated. *The concert must be over* might be said, for instance, if the speaker sees that the lights are off or the concert hall is closed. The lexical-modal *have to* 2 is relatively uncommon in BrE with the epistemic meaning of logical necessity, but it is now used by some speakers as an alternative to epistemic *must* 1. In AmE, *have to* or *have got to* is generally preferred to *must* in the meaning of logical necessity. A strict meaning of logical necessity ('this is the only possibility there is') is objective in 4.

There is little difference in meaning between the modal and the non-modalised declarative in 4, while this is not the case in the subjective uses.

1 The key *must* be in your pocket.

2 The key *has to* be in your pocket.

3 The key is *bound to be/is sure to be* in your pocket.

4 If Jane is Pat's sister and Jill is Jane's daughter, Pat must be Jill's aunt.

Probability or 'reasonable inference': should, ought

A medium degree of conviction is expressed by *should* and the less common *ought*. A driver might say, studying a map 'It should be easy to reach York from here', glossed as 'I assume it is easy' or 'it is probably easy'. Here we have the notion of probability, or what is reasonable to expect, based on deduction from facts known to the speaker.

The main semantic feature distinguishing these modals from *must* is that they implicitly admit non-fulfilment of the predicated event, whereas *must* and *will* do not. We can say *It should be easy to reach York, but of course it may not be*, but not **It must be easy to reach York, but of course it may not be*. *Should* and *ought* are said to be 'non-factive', that is not binding, as opposed to *will* and *must* which are 'factive' or binding. They can be illustrated as follows:

Dinner *should* be ready. *You must* be hungry after such a long journey.

Similarly, with past time reference, made by *have* + *-en*, *should* and *ought* imply probability, but can be contradicted. *Will* and *must*, because of their strong epistemic commitment, do not make this implication and can't be contradicted by the speaker. Compare:

He *should have reached* York by now (but Pat has rung to say he hasn't).

He *will/ must have reached* York by now (*but Pat has rung to say he hasn't).

The probability meaning of *should* and *ought* is often merged with that of nonbinding obligation as in *The hotel should be good for this price*, i.e. one would expect it to be good/it has the obligation to be good. *Likely* and *likelihood*, with the corresponding negative forms *unlikely* and *unlikelihood*, unambiguously express probability:

All flights *are likely to be* delayed.

There's no *likelihood* of frost tonight.

Extrinsic Possibility: may, might, could

Weaker conviction is expressed as the possibility of an event occurring or being true. English speakers make use of the modal auxiliaries *may*, *might* and *could*, the latter particularly in the media. These are all stressed and can be glossed by 'it is possible that x':

They *may* be real pearls, you know.

They *might* be real pearls, you know.

They *could* be real pearls, you know.

All three expressions mean 'It is possible that they are real pearls'. We can see that *might* and *could*, although historically past forms, don't in such cases refer to past time, but to present states of affairs. They can also be used to refer to future events:

It *may/ might/ could* snow tonight. (= it is possible that it will snow tonight)

Can is not used in positive declarative clauses that express extrinsic ('epistemic') possibility. We do not say **They can be real pearls* **It can snow tonight*.

Degrees of confidence

It is not easy to claim with certainty that *may*, *might* and *could* represent points on a scale of confidence or, in other words, that one or other of these modals expresses either a stronger or a more remote possibility. They can all be intensified by (*very*) *well*, which heightens the possibility, and by *just*, which lowers it:

They *may/might/could very well* be real pearls.

They *just may/might/could* be real pearls.

The following examples, **1** from spoken English, **2** from written, illustrate how the three can be used in one utterance:

1 I *may* be a few minutes late; it *might* be seven o'clock before I can get away; it could even be half-past.

2 The provision *might* be deleted altogether; it *may* remain as it stands; or it *could* emerge considerably strengthened and broadened.

In these examples the three modals are interchangeable, with little difference to the message. Factors such as speakers' age and social dialect, and the degree of formality or informality of the situation, undoubtedly influence the choice of modal. We suggest that *may* is more formal and indicates reserve, *might* being now the more neutral form, especially with younger speakers, while *could* expresses tentative possibility.

14.11 Structural Features of Extrinsic Modality

Modal auxiliaries expressing extrinsic meanings correlate with the following features:

existential Subject	There may be trouble ahead
be + <i>-ing</i>	She might be waiting
stative main verb	It might be cold
dynamic main verb	I might leave early
lexical auxiliary	It might have to be abandoned
past reference by have + <i>-en</i>	He might have left by now

When we refer to past events by the extrinsic modals, the modal meaning of prediction, certainty, possibility or probability is not itself past; the speaker carries out the act of predicting, or whatever in present time. Pastness is realised by the *have* + *-en* perfect form attached to the main verb, as in:

I may have made a mistake.

It must have got lost.

They will have finished.

Summary of Extrinsic modal and Lexical-modal Auxiliaries and their Meanings

He will be there by now.	(assumption/prediction based on experience or common sense)
I shall probably be back before you	(prediction)
He must be there by now.	(logical necessity, deduction based on evidence)
He can't be there yet.	(logical necessity negated) (see 44.5.3)
He's bound to be there.	(modal certainty + inevitability)
He has to be there by now.	(logical necessity, objective)
He's likely to be there by now.	(probability)
He should be there by now.	(reasonable inference based on deduction)
He could be there by now.	(tentative possibility)
He might be there by now.	(neutral possibility)
He may be there by now.	(weak possibility)
He may be intelligent, but he's a bit of a prat.	(concessive meaning of <i>may</i>)

14.12 Features of Intrinsic Modality: Volition, Obligation, Necessity, Permission

Functionally, these modal meanings are used to establish and maintain social relations and interaction. Through them, speakers influence and control others, and commit themselves to certain courses of action. They may bring about changes in their surroundings by obligations which are met, permissions given, promises kept and so on.

Semantically, the modal utterance forms part of the linguistic event, and the speaker intervenes in the action.

Syntactically, we find the following correlates:

- (a) Unstressed 'there' is rare as Subject, which is typically a human Agent controlling the main verb.
- (b) The main verb is usually dynamic.
- (c) With past time reference, **must** and **may** express obligation/ permission that took place in past time and is expressed, not by *have* + *-en*, but by forms of other verbs.

Present

I must go.

They may go.

Past

I had to go.

They were allowed to go.

14.12.1 Volition: Willingness and Intention *will*, *shall*, 'll

The concept of volition covers the meanings of **willingness** as in *Will you sign this for me?* and **intention** as in *I'll bring it back tomorrow*. The negative form is ***will not/won't***.

Willingness

This can be paraphrased by *be willing to*. The action predicated by the main verb can coincide with speech time, or refer to repeated or future events:

Will you give a donation to the Wildlife Society? – Yes, I will.

The key *won't* go in the lock. (speaker attributes unwillingness to an inanimate thing)

As in these examples, *will* is used for all persons. The reduced form 'll occurs in the affirmative, except when stressed to express insistence, which requires the full form, as in I WILL do it.

The meaning of willingness, realised by *will*, readily lends itself to various pragmatic uses. For instance, *will* would be interpreted as a directive in *Will you listen to me and stop interrupting?* and as a polite offer in *Will you have another slice of melon?* In interrogatives *shall* is used with a 1st person subject to consult the addressee's wishes or ask for advice. This is the most widespread use of *shall* in present-day English.

Shall we go back home now? (= Do you want us to . . .?)

Intention

This can be glossed by *intend to*. When a speaker expresses an intention, the intention is, naturally, coincident with speech time, but the intended action is in the future:

I'll ring you sometime next week.

I think I'll just tape this bit of opera.

Will is used for all persons, *shall* by some speakers for the 1st person singular and plural.

The speaker's commitment in using these modals is as strong as in the extrinsic meanings. For this reason the *will* of intention can have the force of either a promise or a threat, according to whether the intended action is beneficial to the addressee or otherwise. These interpretations are reinforced by the addition of such verbs as *promise* and *warn*:

I'll bring you something back from Paris, I promise.

I warn you that if you keep talking this way I *shall* hang up.

The full form *shall* is also used with a 2nd or 3rd person subject with the meaning of speaker's guarantee, as in *you/they shall be paid tomorrow*.

14.12.2 Inescapable obligation: must, have to, have got to/gotta, shall

In English, obligation and necessity can be thought of as an inescapable duty or requirement, realised by *must*, *have (got) to* and, in a lesser degree, by *shall*; or else, simply as an advisable course of action, realised by *should* and *ought*. *Must* can have the force of a command.

Must as a modal of obligation

When realised by ***must***, obligation can have the force of a direct command, as in **1** and **2**, although modal lexical verbs are more explicit. Compare *You must go* with *I order you to go*, *I urge you to go*.

1 *You must try harder.*

2 *You must copy this out again.*

This force derives from the fact that (a) in certain cultural contexts such as school, family, the Armed Forces, the speaker has authority over the addressee, who is the subject 'you'; (b) the speaker takes the responsibility for the action being carried out; and (c) the verb is agentive and in active voice.

The force of *must* is diminished if one or more of these factors is modified, providing useful strategies to mitigate the directness of the obligation, although not its inescapability:

I must catch the last bus without fail.

Drug-traffickers must be punished.

Applications *must be* in by May 1st.

(subject is *I*, the obligation is internal)

(3rd person subject; authority does not reside in the speaker; passive voice)

(non-agentive verb; passive; 3rd person Subject)

When no human control is implied, the meaning is that of intrinsic necessity, as in:

Lizards *must* hibernate if they are to survive the winter. (= it is necessarily the case that.)

The following news item ‘Killing with a Kiss’ from *The Sunday Times of India* illustrates the inescapable obligation of intrinsic *must*:

Medics were on standby as 53 couples locked their lips on Saturday at the start of a bid to set a new world record for the longest kiss. The couples will need to kiss non-stop for more than 29 hours and 57 minutes to make it into the Guinness Book of Records. The Valentine weekend attempt was organised by a local radio station, which advertised for participants to take part in the competition at Newcastle, Sydney.

To break the record, participants must follow strict rules, station spokeswoman Tricia Morris said. “Their lips *must* be touching at all times, they *must* be standing, they *must* not fall asleep, *must not* leave the venue, *mustn’t* wear any incontinence pads or adult nappies and there are no toilet breaks,” Morris said.

Shall, have to, have got to, gotta as modals of obligation

Of all the modals of obligation *shall* is the most imperious, direct and subjective, and for this reason is little used in the spoken language. It occurs in legal language and other formal contexts, as in the regulations of the Olympic Games **1**.

Of the lexical-modals, *have to* is objective (the obligation is external) and *have got to/gotta* subjective (the obligation is internal). Compare **2** and **3**.

Syntactically, *have to*, unlike *must* and *have got to*, has non-finite forms *having to*, *to have to*. Both *have to* and *have got to* have a past form *had (got) to*. Only *have to* can combine with the modal auxiliaries (*may have to*, **may have got to*).

Must has no past form as it is, historically, itself a past form. Forms of *have to* are therefore brought in to express past and future obligation **4**.

- 1** All competitors in the Games *shall wear* a number.
- 2** I’ve *got to* go now. (I *gotta* go now) (the obligation is internal)
- 3** I *have to* go and see the Dean. (the obligation is external)
- 4** We *had to* pay in advance. We’ll *have to* pay in advance. (external)

14.12.3 Negation of the Modals *must* and *may*

Negation of the modal verbs *must* and *may* is complex because either the modal concept (in the ‘a’ examples) or the lexical concept (in the ‘b’ examples) can be negated.

1. obligation and permission (intrinsic meanings)

positive	negative	meaning
You must go now	a ₁ You needn't go now	= you are not obliged to go
	a ₂ You don't have to go now	= you are not obliged to go
	b You must not (mustn't) go	= you are obliged not to go
You may go now	a You may not/ can't go	= you have not permission to go
	b You may/ can not go	= you have permission not to go

2. necessity and possibility (extrinsic meanings)

positive	negative	meaning
It must be true	a It can't be true	= It is not possible that it is true
	b ₁ It needn't be true	= It is not necessarily true
	b ₂ It doesn't have to be true	= It's not necessarily true
It may be true	(a) It can't be true	= It is not possible that it is true
	(b) It may not be true	= It is possible that it is not true

When *might* and *could* express possibility, they negate in the same way as *may*, with replacement by *can't* for modal negation and *not* to negate the lexical verb.

Need not (needn't) is often replaced by the objective form *doesn't/don't have to* in both kinds of modal meaning, the extrinsic and the intrinsic. *Have to* is also used by many speakers in the interrogative: *Do you have to go now?* for *Need you go now?*, especially in the meaning of obligation. Questioning is less common with meanings of possibility and necessity, for example: *Does it have to be true?*

Mustn't is usually reserved for the obligation meaning of *must*, for example, *We mustn't forget to ask Sue to water the plants* (= obligation not to forget).

May in its meaning of permission does not have a full set of unambiguous forms: *you may not go* serves for both modal and lexical negation. The meaning 'you have permission not to go' can be conveyed by stressing the negative particle *not* – *You may **not** go, if you like.*

Can and *can't* have replaced *may/may not* in the expression of permission except in the most formal contexts.

Can't, *needn't* and *don't have to* negate and question the modal concept. When the lexical concept is negated, this is achieved by *not*, which can be attached as *n't* to *must* (*mayn't* is not normally used).

Can't is the usual form used to negate *must* (necessity) and *may* (possibility).

14.12.4 Non-binding Obligation: *should*, *ought*

Should and *ought* express a medium obligation, which is not binding and may be unfulfilled:

People *should* drive more carefully.
You really *ought* to cut down on smoking.

These modals are used instead of the stronger *must* when the speaker lacks authority to impose the obligation. Tact, politeness or a lack of conviction of the absolute necessity of the predicated action are further motivations. The following invented advertisement clearly distinguishes the necessary from the merely desirable:

Candidates *must* be university graduates.
Candidates *must* be between 21 and 35.
Candidates *should have* a knowledge of two foreign languages.
Candidates *should have* at least three years' experience.

Referring to a past event, with *should* and *ought* + *have* + *-en*, the speaker implies that the obligation was not fulfilled. *Ought* is less common than *should* nowadays. *Be supposed to* is similar to *should* and *ought* in being contrary to fact:

He *ought to have* been more careful.
The Government *should have taken* a decision earlier.
They *were supposed to* be here by eight, but most people turned up at half-past.

14.13 Dynamic Modality: Possibility, Ability, Permission, Propensity Can, Be Able, Could, Will, Would, May

A. *Can*, *could*

Dynamic modality expresses properties or dispositions of the subject referent. The three related meanings are expressed by *can*, negative *cannot*, *can't*:

This paint can be applied with a spray. (= It is possible to apply this paint . . ./for this paint to be applied . . .) (dynamic possibility)

Can you reach the top shelf? (= Are you able to reach . . .?) (ability)
You can't park here (= You are not allowed to park here) (intrinsic permission)

It is important to distinguish dynamic possibility, which is expressed by *can* and is paraphrased by 'It is possible to . . .' or 'It is possible for . . . to . . .', from extrinsic possibility, which is expressed by *may*, *might* or *could*, and is paraphrased by 'It is possible that . . .'. Compare:

I can be there by 10 o'clock. (= It is possible *for me to* be there by 10 o'clock)
 I may/might be there by 10 o'clock. (= It is possible *that* I'll be there by 10 o'clock)

B. Will and would: propensity

This is a dynamic meaning which involves a property or a propensity of the subject referent. From our knowledge of how the world is structured, we are able to predict not only single instances (see p. 382) but regular occurrences, using *will*. *Would* is used in a past time-frame:

Ice *will* melt at room temperature. (Ice has the property to melt . . .)
 They'll gossip for hours. (They have a tendency to gossip for hours)
 They *would* gossip for hours, sitting in the park. (They tended to gossip...)

Heavy stress on *will* and *would* is emotive and can suggest that the propensity is not welcome to the speaker:

He WILL ring up late at night asking silly questions.

Dynamic *would* in narrative is illustrated in the following passage by James Thurber: With the lexical-modal *be apt to*, propensity shades into usuality, since it is based on the natural habits or tendency of the subject. It refers to repeated states or happenings, as in *He's apt to turn up for dinner without warning*.

When Grandpa got to his office, he *would* put his hat on his desk. . . . It was a device of his to get away from bores or talkative friends. As the door opened, he *would* automatically reach for his derby, and if it was somebody he didn't want to see, he *would* rise and say, 'I'm sorry, but I was just about to leave.' He *would* then walk to the street with his visitor, find out which way the man was going, and set off in the opposite direction, walking around the block and entering the store by the back door.

C. The core meaning of can - You can't do that

The meanings expressed by *can* all correspond to a basic pattern, which in its positive form can be expressed as 'nothing prevents x from occurring' and in its negative form as 'something prevents x from occurring'. That 'something' in each case represents a set of laws, whether natural laws, moral laws, laws of physics, of good manners, and perhaps many more. For this reason, an utterance such as *You can't do that* will be interpreted in different ways according to the context in which it occurs, and depending on which set of laws applies in a particular case:

You can't do that = It's not possible for you to do that, e.g. walk from Genoa to Tangier.
 You can't do that = You are not able to do that, e.g. lift such a heavy box.
 You can't do that = You are not allowed to do that, e.g. park your car in the square.
 You can't do that = social norms prevail against doing that, e.g. infringe local customs

As the possibility and ability to carry out an action is a necessary requirement for a person to perform that action, *can* lends itself to various pragmatic interpretations by implication:

willingness	I <i>can</i> get the copies for you, if you like.
command	If you won't keep quiet, you <i>can</i> get out.
request	<i>Can</i> you help me lift this sofa?
existential	It <i>can</i> be very cold in Edinburgh in winter.

D. *May* (negative *may not*) – *You may go now*

May is a more formal alternative to *can* in the meanings of permission and dynamic possibility, and is extended to such meanings as polite offer.

<i>May</i> I come in? Yes, you <i>may</i> .	(request for permission and giving permission)
In spring, wild orchids <i>may</i> be found in the woods.	(possibility = it is possible To find . . .)
<i>May</i> I help you with the luggage?	(polite offer)

Might is sometimes used for an indirect request:

You might fetch me a bottle of tonic water and a bag of crisps.

E. The past of *can* is *could* or *was/were able* + *to-infinitive*

Depending on whether an imperfective or perfective meaning is intended. With *be able* a single, predicated action is achieved, that is to say, it is seen as holistic, perfective; with *could*, the action is viewed as extended in the past, that is, as imperfective:

From the top of the hill we *could* see for miles.

He *was able* to escape in time. (not *He *could* escape in time)

This distinction is obligatory only in the affirmative and the interrogative. In the negative, *could* and *be able to* are interpreted as having the same result and are therefore interchangeable:

He *wasn't able* to escape. He *couldn't* escape.

14.14 Hypothetical Uses of the Modal

Apart from their other meanings, the past tense modals *could*, *might*, *would* can be used in a 'remote' or hypothetical sense in both main and subordinate clauses. Compare:

I <i>will</i> help you if I can.	I <i>would</i> help you if I <i>could</i> .
She <i>may</i> pass if she works hard.	She <i>might</i> pass if she worked harder.

To refer to a past event *have* + *-en* is used. The event is understood to be contrary to fact:

I would have helped you if I had been able to.
She would/ might have passed if she had worked harder.

Should is also used, especially in BrE, as the replacement of a subjunctive in referring to states of affairs that may exist or come into existence.

It is only natural that they *should* want a holiday.
I am amazed that he *should* think it's worth trying.

Summary of Intrinsic Modals and Modal Meanings

Will you sign here?	(willingness)
Shall we go to the theatre?	(suggestion/consulting addressee)
I'll let you know tomorrow	(intention)
You must try harder	(inescapable obligation, subjective)
You have to try harder	(inescapable obligation, objective)
We must go; we've got to/ gotta go	(inescapable obligation, self-imposed)
You needn't go; you don't have to go	(absence of obligation)
All competitors shall wear a number	(inescapable obligation, formal)
You should drive more carefully	(medium obligation, not necessarily fulfilled)
You can do it	(ability, possibility, or informal permission)
It can be cold in Edinburgh	(existential)
You may go now	(permission, formal)
You can go now	(permission, informal)
I would help you if I could	(hypothetical)

The following extract from a novel by David Lodge illustrates some of the realisations of modal meanings in English. It is noticeable that the dialogue, in which members of a family debate possible courses of action, contains more modals than the narrative part:

Their Dad *would be coming*¹ home the next day and they *would*² have to³ look after him until he was too ill to stay out of hospital. The question was, *should*⁴ he be told?

'How long . . .?' somebody *wondered*.⁵ The doctor hadn't been specific. A matter of months rather than weeks. One *could*⁶ never be sure. 'Who *would*⁷ tell him?' 'I *couldn't*. I just *couldn't*,'⁸ said their mother and wept. 'I *would*,⁹ said Angela, 'if we agreed that was the right thing to do.' 'Why tell him?' said the youngest sister. 'It *would*¹⁰ just be cruel.' 'But if he asks . . .' said another. 'Are you going to¹¹ lie to your own Dad?'

Tom lit a cigarette and blew smoke from his nostrils. A grey haze from previous cigarettes hung in the air. All the men in the family were heavy smokers, perhaps because cigarettes had always been readily available. No reference was made by anyone to this as the *likely*¹² cause of their father's disease.

'I see no reason to tell Dad yet,' Tom said at length. 'We *should*¹³ try to keep him as cheerful as possible.' Their mother looked at Tom gratefully, but fearfully. 'But he *must*¹⁴ have time to . . . receive the last . . . sacraments and everything,' she faltered. 'Of course, Mum, but there's *no need*¹⁵ to rush these things. Let's make him as happy as we can for the rest of his days.'

¹past time prediction; ²past time prediction; ³obligation; ⁴advisability; ⁵doubt; ⁶intrinsic possibility; ⁷willingness; ⁸incapability; ⁹willingness; ¹⁰hypothetical; ¹¹intention; ¹²probability; ¹³advisability; ¹⁴inescapable obligation; ¹⁵lack of necessity/ obligation

EXERCISE

A. Underline the Verbal Group in the sentences below.

- (1) A bicycle whizzed past me as I was crossing the road.
- (2) It startled me.
- (3) It also startled the elderly woman just ahead of me. She was clutching a bag or bundle or something, and almost fell.
- (4) 'Can't you be more careful?' I shouted after the cyclist.
- (5) He just turned his head a little, but said nothing.
- (6) He was pedalling fast and was soon lost in the traffic.
- (7) He could have injured us both.
- (8) The elderly woman's bundle had fallen open into the middle of the road. A strange collection of objects was rolling everywhere.
- (9) 'Are you all right?' I asked, as we scrambled to pick up the things before the lights changed.

B. Underline the correct option to complete each sentence.

1. Misunderstandings are common in relationships, simply because communication
2. Even when two people extremely well, they still have to talk to one another.
3. It's not unusual for people to because of some annoying habit.
4. For example, if someone often late, this can be very annoying.
5. It can also be very annoying if your partner in front of others.
6. Many people just accept these problems, and ignore what is

- | | | | |
|------------------|---------------|-----------------|--------------|
| 1. A breaks down | B goes on | C turns up | D shows off |
| 2. A turn up | B go on | C build up | D get along |
| 3. A Show off | B fall out | C get along | D turn up |
| 4. A Builds up | B falls out | C breaks down | D turns up |
| 5. A turns up | B gets along | C shows off | D goes on |
| 6. A going on | B turning out | C getting along | D turning up |

C. Underline the phrasal verbs in the text below.

It's official: people are more stressed now than they were in the past. Although our quality of life is better, we seem to have more to worry about than previous generations. Here are some stressful situations you may come up against at work, and ways to solve them.

Your boss is scary, and you don't want to speak out. You are asked for your opinion, but don't want to say what you really think because you don't want to annoy your boss. On with your boss is very important, so try to give your opinion politely.

You come up with a great idea, and someone else steals it. You work hard, but a colleague gets all the credit. The best thing to do is make a note of all your ideas, and send them to your boss. Then if someone else says they thought of it first, your boss will know what's really going on.

Your colleague always turns up late, and you have to do their work. Some people never do their share of their work, and when they finally get round to doing something, it's usually not very good. Try not to let your anger with them build up, and tell them calmly that you refuse to do any more of their work.

Your computer / telephone / photocopier breaks down. You can't finish your work because a vital piece of equipment isn't working. Take a deep breath, make yourself a cup of coffee and relax. You can catch up with the work later.

D. Read the following extract and identify the functions of *be*, *have (got)* to and *get* as primary verb, as part of a lexical auxiliary or as a lexical verb:

Imagine that you're out,¹ you're in Wolverhampton,² and you're about to cross the street,³ and round the corner comes a big lorry. What happens? Your sense organs have told you there's a big lorry. You've got to deal with it,⁴ you can't fight it. You've got to⁵ get across that road quickly.⁶ All these things happen to you, all those hormones, particularly adrenaline, have got into your bloodstream⁷ because you need this sudden burst of energy to get you across the road.⁸

E. Underline the Verbal Groups in the sentences below and then answer the questions:

- (1) A bicycle whizzed past me as I was crossing the road.
- (2) It startled me.
- (3) It also startled the elderly woman just ahead of me. She was clutching a bag or bundle or something, and almost fell.
- (4) 'Can't you be more careful?' I shouted after the cyclist.
- (5) He just turned his head a little, but said nothing.
- (6) He was pedalling fast and was soon lost in the traffic.
- (7) He could have injured us both.

- (8) The elderly woman's bundle had fallen open into the middle of the road. A strange collection of objects was rolling everywhere.
- (9) 'Are you all right?' I asked, as we scrambled to pick up the things before the lights changed.

F. Rewrite the following sentences, which contain *that*-clauses, so that they have a raised subject with the same lexical auxiliary:

- (1) It's likely that the main markets will be France, Germany and Spain.
(2) It was virtually certain that Diana and Charles would divorce.
(3) It is sure that you will be among the first three.
(4) It is supposed that he is her boyfriend.
(5) It's not likely that you'll get a question like that.

G. What is the function of *be* in the following examples: lexical verb, progressive auxiliary, passive auxiliary or lexical auxiliary?

- (1) It's getting late.
(2) I have never been here before.
(3) Has he been invited to the reception?
(4) There is sure to be some delay at airports this summer.

H 1 Give the syntactic structure of the Verbal Groups in the sentences below, and analyse them for the tense and ABCD features they contain. Do you see any discontinuous VGs?

- (1) Someone *should be telling* the present administration about Kenya.
(2) Kenya *was about to take off* economically.
(3) Our population *has been* greatly increased.
(4) That increase *should have been expected*.
(5) It *was realised* that modern medicine *was cutting back* the death rate dramatically.
(6) But numerous mistakes *were being made* in the allocation of scarce national resources.
(7) Our exports *were earning* less in real terms than *they had been earning* a decade ago.
(8) Many developing nations *are* gradually *shifting* their economic policies towards free enterprise.
(9) We feel that the country *has not yet been able to achieve* its potential.
(10) But that potential *should* at least *be receiving* recognition.

H 2 Now, re-write each sentence in H1 with a different combination of features but maintaining the lexical verb. For instance, for 1: *should have told* or *may have told*.

I. Complete the sentences below (which make up a text) with Verbal Groups containing two, three or four auxiliaries, using the verbs indicated. Example 1 is done for you:

- (1) The last photograph - - - - - (prog. + pass.+ *take*) when I arrived.
a. (was being taken)
- (2) Pete - - - - - (*past* + perf. + prog. + pass.+ *instruct*) on how to use a wide-angle lens.
- (3) He - - - - - (*must* + perf. + prog. + *use*) a filter.
- (4) He - - - - - (*can't* + perf. + prog.+ *use*) a filter.
- (5) She - - - - - (*must* + perf.+ *move*) when the photograph - - - - - (*take* + prog. + pass.)
- (7) The film - - - - - (*will* + prog. + pass. + *develop*) by my brother.
- (8) More colour films - - - - - (*be likely* + *pass.* + *sell*) than ever this year.
- (9) And more cameras - - - - - (*be sure* + perf. + pass. + *buy*) in the holiday period.
- (10) Look! Some kind of television film - - - - - (prog. + pass. + *shoot*) over there.
- (11) I should say it - - - - - (*shoot* + *must* + perf. + prog. + pass. + *shoot*), rather. They seem to have finished.

J. Discuss the different behaviour of the italicised verbs in (a) their use as an ordinary lexical verb and (b) as a catenative in phased verbal groups.

- (1) (a) What has *happened*? I pressed the switch but nothing *happened*.
(b) We all *happened* to be away when the burglar broke in.
- (2)(a) A strange figure *appeared* in the doorway.
(b) He *appears* to have misunderstood your explanation.
- (3) (a) Pete has *failed* the driving test again.
(b) He *fails* to realise how important it is to practise.

K. Complete the phased Verbal Groups in the sentences below. The first one is done for you:

- (1) The supposedly quiet fishing village *turned out to be/proved to be quite different from* what the travel agency had led us to expect.
- (2) Did you go all the way to the other side of town to take part in the demonstration? – No, I just - - - - - there.
- (3) Some years ago we - - - - - to enquire whether a visa was necessary and were held up at the frontier for two days.
- (4) After - - - - - unsuccessfully on several occasions to pass the seamanship test, he eventually - - - - - do so at the fourth attempt.
- (5) Isn't there any washing-up liquid anywhere? – Well, there - - - - - a little left at the bottom of the container.
- (6) The shop assistant - - - - - reassure the child that her mother would come soon.
- (7) Even old black-and-white films - - - - - coloured these days.
- (8) He - - - - - convince the Customs official that he was not smuggling anything, but it - - - - - be impossible.

L. Discussion: Comment on the aspectual meaning of the past tense in: *His rubber-soled shoes squeaked on the vinyl floor*. Does it refer to one occurrence or more?

M. Decide whether the situation expressed in each sentence below is bounded (with an end-point) or unbounded (without an end-point).

- (1) They dumped their bags on the floor.
- (2) They are negotiating with the Chinese to buy a panda.
- (3) The west wind blows constantly across the beaches of Almeria.
- (4) The cat pounced on the unwary mouse.
- (5) Snow fell gently on the city streets.
- (6) He dragged himself along the road.
- (7) A man in a pin-striped suit stepped off
- (8) He slipped the pen into his pocket.
- (9) The sofa cast a shadow on the wall.
- (10) She handed me the paper bag containing the mushrooms.

N. Discussion: Modals in context: Do the modals in the following three short texts have intrinsic or extrinsic meanings? Give a gloss of each to help you decide.

- (a) 'He surrounds himself with people that want to win. He taught me to win at all costs. Quite simple. *Must* win. No secret to it. But you *have to* manage your way because if you fail, it's you that's done it.' [*He* refers to Sir Alex Ferguson, the manager of Manchester United]
- (b) Motorists who use their mobile phones at the wheel *are to* face fines of up to a thousand pounds from this December. But the real question *may* be whether these fines *can* or *could* be enforced.
- (c) You *could* be exceptionally bright and super-competent so far as brain work and the thought processes are concerned. The trouble *could* be that you put all this mental efficiency into unimportant, instead of worthwhile, issues. (Horoscope)

O. Supply the modal verb which corresponds to the paraphrase in each case. In some cases more than one form is acceptable:

- (1) I - - - - - let you know as soon as I have any news. (intention, promise)
- (2) We - - - - - get away until the end of August. (It will not be possible for us to get away.)
- (3) There - - - - - be something burning. I can smell it. (It is necessarily the case that . . .)
- (4) The banks - - - - - be closed at this time of day. (prediction)
- (5) You - - - - - have forgotten your house keys! (It's not possible that you have forgotten.)

- (6) This 12-can pack of beer - - - - - be enough. (probability, reasonable inference)
- (7) Because of his wide experience, he - - - - - to find an acceptable solution. ability, past)
- (8) That young man - - - - - be our next Prime Minister. (It is possible that)
- (9) You - - - - - not feed the animals at the zoo. (You are under the obligation not to . . .)
- (10) You - - - - - (not) tip the waiter. (It is not necessary that you tip the waiter.)

P. Change the modalised verb form in each sentence below to the past. Make any adjustments necessary to tenses or adverbs, for instance, in the rest of the sentence.

- (1) They *will not wait* for us more than ten minutes.
- (2) He *must be mistaken* about his daughter's age.
- (3) You *can't be listening* to what *I'm saying*.
- (4) Ben *should take* two tablets every day this week.
- (5) Lying in our tent, we *can hear* the wind howling down from the heights.
- (6) With their fast patrol-boats, the police *can capture* drug-traffickers operating in the Strait.
- (7) There *may be* a hold-up on the motorway this afternoon.
- (8) *I must have* the baby *vaccinated*.
- (9) He will *telephone us* immediately if he *can*.
- (10) They *oughtn't to be talking* while the pianist *is* playing.

Q. Study the following extract from an article by Angela Carter in *Nothing Sacred*, about her memories of her parents. The occasion is a visit to her father's new home, after her mother's death:

My father had lined the walls of his new home with pictures of my mother when she was young and beautiful; and beautiful she certainly was, with a broad, Slavonic jaw and high cheekbones like Anna Karenina, she took a striking photograph and had the talent for histrionics her pictures imply. They used to row dreadfully and pelt one another with household utensils, whilst shrieking with rage. Then my mother would finally break down and cry, possibly tears of sheer frustration that he was bigger than she, and my father, in an ecstasy of remorse – we've always been very good at remorse and its manifestations in action, emotional blackmail and irrational guilt – my father would go out and buy her chocolates.

