DESCRIPTIVE GRAMMAR (SYNTAX)–Section 1

Parts of speech

1. Closed-class items and open-class items.

   a/ Determiners.
   b/ Conjunctions.
   c/ Pronouns.
   d/ Prepositions.
   e/ Interjections.

   a/ Nouns.
   b/ Verbs.
   c/ Adjectives.
   d/ Adverbs.

Determiners, predeterminers, postdeterminers

1. Determiners: a/an, the, some, any, no, my, every, each, either, this, etc.

   a/ Articles can be definite, e.g. the book, or indefinite, e.g. a book.

   b/ Definite articles can be specific, e.g. The Italian is drinking coffee, or generic, e.g. The Italian is an artist.

   c/ Indefinite articles can be specific, e.g. There’s an Italian in the room, or generic, e.g. An Italian is an artist.

2. Predeterminers precede determiners, e.g. half the/a book, all the/my book, both those books.

3. Postdeterminers follow determiners, but precede adjectives, e.g. the first good book.

Conjunctions

1. Examples: and, or, but; after, when, so that, in order to, because, etc.

Pronouns

1. Classification.

   a/ Personal, e.g. I, you, they.
   b/ Possessive, e.g. my, his, their, mine.
   c/ Reciprocal, e.g. each other, one another.
   d/ Reflexive, e.g. myself, himself.
   e/ Relative, e.g. who, which, whose, that.
   f/ Demonstrative, e.g. this/that, these/those.
   g/ Interrogative, e.g. what, which, whose.
   h/ Partitive, e.g. some, any.
   i/ Universal, e.g. everything, nothing.
Prepositions

1. Classification.

a/ Parts of prepositional phrases, e.g. *in the room, at the bus stop.*
b/ Postposed prepositions, e.g. in *wh*-questions such as *Which house did you live in?*
c/ Complex prepositions, e.g. *out of, up to, due to, by means of, in comparison with.*

2. Syntactic functions of prepositional phrases.

a/ Adverbials, e.g. *She is waiting in the room.*
b/ Modifiers of a noun phrase, e.g. *the book on the shelf.*
c/ Complements of a verb, e.g. *They depended on her.*
d/ Complements of an adjective, e.g. *Be careful of that woman!*
e/ Nominals, e.g. *Across the river is not too far.*

Interjections

1. Examples: *ah, oh, ugh, phew.*

Nouns

1. Noun classes.

a/ Proper nouns vs. common nouns, e.g. *New York vs. a stone.*
b/ Abstract nouns vs. concrete nouns, e.g. *justice vs. a tree.*
c/ Count vs. non-count nouns, e.g. *a book vs. warmth.*

2. Problem cases.

a/ *He has had many experiences* vs. *This job requires experience.*
b/ *She was a beauty in her youth* vs. *She had beauty in her youth.*
c/ *There were bright lights there* vs. *Light travels faster than sound.*


3a. Number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Invariable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a/ Regular, e.g. <em>dog/dogs.</em></td>
<td>a/ Nouns always singular, e.g. <em>news.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b/ Irregular, e.g. <em>ox/oxen.</em></td>
<td>b/ Nouns always plural, e.g. <em>trousers.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c/ Foreign, e.g. <em>stimulus/stimuli.</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d/ Compound, e.g. <em>notary public, manservant, breakdown.</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3b. Gender.

Masculine and feminine

a/ Morphologically marked, e.g. *waiter/waitress.*
b/ Morphologically unmarked, e.g. monk/nun.
c/ Personal dual, e.g. teacher, writer.

Common

a/ Nouns intermediate between personal and non-personal, e.g. it referring to a child.

3c. Case.

Types of genitive case

a/ The –s genitive, e.g. the girl’s book.
b/ The of-genitive, e.g. the leg of the table.
c/ Group genitive, e.g. the teacher of music’s room.
d/ Double genitive, e.g. an opera of Verdi’s.

Genitive meanings

a/ Genitive of origin, e.g. the girl’s story.
b/ Descriptive genitive, e.g. a women’s college.
c/ Genitive of measure, e.g. ten days’ absence.
d/ Possessive genitive, e.g. my daughter’s husband.

Objective case

a/ Pronoun forms such as me, him, her, us, them.

Numerals

1. Classification.

a/ Cardinals, e.g. one, two, three, etc.
b/ Ordinals, e.g. first, second, third, etc.
c/ One:
    numerical, e.g. I have only one paper;
    replacing, e.g. –Do you need the book? –I have one already;
    indefinite, e.g. One has to learn grammar.

References:
DESCRIPTIVE GRAMMAR (SYNTAX)—Section 2

Adjectives

1. Classification: adjectives with respect to their effect on the noun phrase.
   
a/ Intensifying, e.g. a pure nonsense, a complete victory.
b/ Limiter, e.g. the main reason.
c/ Related to adverbials, e.g. my former friend (formerly my friend).
d/ Denominal, e.g. criminal law (law concerning crime).
e/ General, e.g. good, beautiful.

2. Syntactic functions.
   
a/ Attributive, e.g. a big house.
b/ Predicative, e.g. The house is big.
c/ Object complement, e.g. She made him happy.
d/ Postpositive, e.g. something large.
e/ Attributive with postposed complementation, e.g. the hardest nut to crack.
f/ Head of the noun phrase, e.g. the young, the French.
g/ Verbless clause, e.g. Very hungry, he opened the fridge.
h/ Exclamatory sentence, e.g. How nice of you!

3. Inflection.
   
a/ Absolute, comparative, superlative degrees, e.g. old/older/oldest (regular) and beautiful/more beautiful/most beautiful (periphrastic).
b/ Exceptions, e.g. good/better/best.

Adverbs

1. They generally end in –ly, e.g. warmly, nicely, but there are exceptions, e.g. hard, fast.

2. Syntactic functions.
   
a/ Adverbials, e.g. They are waiting outside.
b/ Modifiers of adjectives, e.g. It was a very funny film.
c/ Modifiers of adverbs, e.g. They left him well behind.
d/ Modifiers of prepositional phrases, e.g. The nail went right through the wall.
e/ Complements of prepositions, e.g. Before now she never heard of it.

3. Inflection.
   
a/ Absolute, comparative, superlative degrees, e.g. fast/faster/fastest (regular) and warmly/less warmly/least warmly (periphrastic).
b/ Exceptions, e.g. well/better/best.
Structure of a simple sentence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>predicate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HE</td>
<td>HAD GIVEN THE GIRL AN APPLE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>auxiliary</td>
<td>predication</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Simple sentence patterns

1. SV, e.g. *The girl slept.*
2. SVA, e.g. *Tom is at home.*
3. SVCs, e.g. *Mary is tired; John is a teacher.*
4. SVOd, e.g. *She read the book.*
5. SVOdA, e.g. *I put the book on the shelf.*
6. SVOdCo, e.g. *We consider him silly; We consider him a genius.*
7. SVOiOd, e.g. *I gave her a gift.*

Verbs

1. Forms.
   a/ Base, e.g. *call.*
   b/ The –s form, e.g. *calls.*
   c/ Past, e.g. *called.*
   d/ The –ing participle (present participle), e.g. *calling.*
   e/ The –ed participle (past participle), e.g. *called.*

2. Classification.
   a/ Intensive vs. extensive, e.g. *be, look, grow* (*Mary is a student; Joan looks happy; John grew tired*) vs. *show* (*Mary showed us some pictures*).
   b/ Stative vs. dynamic, e.g. *know* vs. *walk.*
   c/ Transitive vs. intransitive, e.g. *read* vs. *sleep.*

3. Classification of transitive verbs.
   a/ Monotransitive, e.g. *She is watching a film.*
   b/ Ditransitive, e.g. *She sent him a letter.*
   c/ Complex transitive, e.g. *She considers him an idiot*

Parts of a sentence

Subject

1. Syntactic properties.
   a/ Something is predicated of it, e.g. *Everyone left early.*
   b/ It is placed after the operator in questions, e.g. *Did he do it?*
c/ It is picked up in tag questions, e.g. You like grammar, don’t you?
d/ It determines the number/person of the verb, e.g. She has/They have read the book.

2. Semantic properties.

a/ Agentive, e.g. Tom broke the window.
b/ Affected, e.g. She died.
c/ Locative, e.g. This room is dirty.
d/ Eventive, e.g. The kick-off will be at noon.
e/ Temporal, e.g. Monday will be a fine day.
f/ External causer, e.g. The wind broke the trees.
g/ Instrumental, e.g. The key opened the door.
h/ Recipient, e.g. I know what to do, I have a car.
i/ Experiencer, e.g. I feel pain.

3. Realisations.

a/ Nominal group, e.g. The book is long.
b/ Adjectival group, e.g. The very old need social care.
c/ Adverbial group, e.g. Outside is dirty.
d/ Prepositional group, e.g. By plane costs more than by train.
e/ Unstressed there, e.g. There is a car outside.
f/ Prop it, e.g. It is windy today.
g/ Nominal finite clause, e.g. That she loved him was obvious.
h/ Nominal non-finite clause, e.g. To take such a risk was foolish.
i/ Anticipatory/introductory it + extraposed clause, e.g. It surprised me that he failed the exam.

Predicator

1. Syntactic properties.

a/ It follows the subject in declarative clauses, e.g. Tom must be joking.
b/ It precedes the subject in interrogative clauses, e.g. Is that book yours?
c/ It can be discontinuous, e.g. Does anyone know this place well?

2. Realisations.

a/ Verb group (single form), e.g. Mary drank the milk.
b/ Verb group (many forms), e.g. The room must have been repainted.

References:
DESCRIPTIVE GRAMMAR (SYNTAX)–Section 3

Direct object

1. Syntactic properties.
   a/ It is placed after the predicator, e.g. Susan read the book twice.
   b/ It can become the passive subject, e.g. The book was read by Susan.
   c/ It is placed after the indirect object, e.g. They sent her a card on that day.
   d/ No prepositional phrase is possible for it.

2. Semantic properties.
   a/ Affected, e.g. She kicked the ball.
   b/ Effected, e.g. Tom writes books.
   c/ Instrument, e.g. Mark used an ice axe to break the ice.
   d/ Phenomenon, e.g. I felt a pain in my arm.
   e/ Verbiage, e.g. Do you always tell the truth?
   f/ Range, e.g. We sang songs around the fire.

3. Realisations.
   a/ Nominal group, e.g. She has made herself a good meal.
   b/ Nominal finite clause, e.g. They say that he is moving to New York.
   c/ Nominal non-finite clause, e.g. Many Londoners prefer to travel by train.
   d/ Anticipatory it + extraposed clause, e.g. I find it strange that he refuses to come.
   e/ Prepositional group, e.g. I would prefer before noon for a meeting.

Indirect object

1. Syntactic properties.
   a/ It is a typical subject in a passive sentence with two objects, e.g. They sent Maria flowers/Maria was sent flowers.
   b/ It can be replaced by a to– or for– phrase complement after the direct object, e.g. They sent Maria flowers/They sent flowers to Maria
   c/ It can be left unexpounded, e.g. Someone has sent (me, us, them) a letter-bomb.

2. Semantic properties.
   a/ Recipient, e.g. They gave Tom a gift/They gave a gift to Tom.
   b/ Beneficiary, e.g. I’ll get you some coffee/I’ll get some coffee for you.
   c/ Affected, e.g. She gave the door a kick.

3. Realisations.
   a/ Nominal group, e.g. Ken has taught his wife Latin.
   b/ Nominal finite clause, e.g. You should lend whoever calls the bicycle pump.
   c/ Nominal non-finite clause, e.g. I am giving reading books less time these days.
   d/ Prepositional group, e.g. Let us give before lunch-time priority.
Prepositional object

1. Syntactic properties.
   a/ It is mediated by a preposition, e.g. *He agreed to the solution, She looked after the child.*
   b/ It can be passivized, e.g. *The solution was agreed to.*

2. Realisations: prepositional group with various completives.
   a/ Nominal group, e.g. *This job calls for great initiative.*
   b/ Nominal finite clause, e.g. *I strongly object to what you are saying.*
   c/ Nominal non-finite clause, e.g. *I don’t want to ask about what to do.*

Subject complement

1. Syntactic properties.
   a/ It follows a copular verb, e.g. *He is tired, She became a student.*
   b/ It cannot be made subject in a passive sentence.

2. Semantic properties.
   a/ Attributive, e.g. *The concert was marvellous.*
   b/ Identifying, e.g. *The orchestra was the London Philharmonic.*
   c/ Circumstantial, e.g. *The manager is in a good mood.*

3. Realisations.
   a/ Adjectival group, e.g. *Mountaineering can be very dangerous.*
   b/ Nominal group, e.g. *Tom is a very lucky man.*
   c/ Finite clause, e.g. *Ken’s belief is that things can’t get any worse.*
   d/ Non-finite clause, e.g. *What I don’t like is waiting for trains, My advice is to withdraw.*

Object complement

1. Syntactic properties.
   a/ It follows the direct object, e.g. *I like my coffee strong.*
   b/ It is in an intensive relationship with the direct object, e.g. *We found the secretary helpful* (The secretary was helpful).

2. Semantic properties.
   a/ Attributive, e.g. *I consider the book interesting.*
   b/ Identifying, e.g. *They appointed him the manager.*
   c/ Circumstantial, e.g. *I like them in this dress.*
3. Realisations.

a/ Adjectival group, e.g. They found the dog dead by the roadside.
b/ Indefinite nominal group, e.g. He considers himself a genius.
c/ Definite nominal group, e.g. Can you imagine yourself the President of America?
d/ As + nominal group, e.g. They regard him as the only candidate.
e/ For + nominal group, e.g. Do you take me for a complete idiot?
f/ Prepositional group, e.g. The burglars left the house in a mess.
g/ Finite clause, e.g. Our work has made the club what it is today.
h/ Non-finite clause, e.g. We left the children playing in the garden.

**Compound and complex sentence: elements of structure**

1. Compound sentence consists of two or more clauses of equal “value”. The clauses are co-ordinate, e.g. John is reading a newspaper and Mary is watching television.

2. Complex sentence consists of at least two clauses of unequal “value”. The relation of subordination is involved, e.g. Mary likes John (main clause) because he is handsome (subordinate clause). Multiple subordination is possible, e.g. I know that you will do it if you like. Clauses can be finite (tense expressed) or non-finite (tense not expressed).

3. Non-finite clauses have non-finite verb forms. Types of non-finite clauses.

a/ The –ing clause, e.g. Walking along the street, I met her.
b/ The –ed clause, e.g. If treated like that, he becomes aggressive.
c/ The to–infinitive clause, e.g. We want to learn grammar.
d/ Bare infinitive clause, e.g. I saw her open the window.

4. Types of participles as non-finite clauses.

a/ Doing the garden, she fainted (present participle/the –ing clause).
b/ The door being closed, she couldn’t go out (present passive participle/the –ing clause).
c/ The work done, he went home (past participle/the –ed clause).
d/ Having finished work, he went home (perfective participle/the –ing clause).
e/ Having been awarded the main prize, he was very happy (perfective passive participle/the –ing clause).

5. Gerunds are deverbal nouns. They can be used in non-finite clauses.

a/ They like swimming (active gerund/the –ing clause).
b/ Nobody likes being criticized (present passive gerund/the –ing clause).
c/ He forgot having lost the game (perfective gerund/the –ing clause).
d/ He regretted having been cheated (perfective passive gerund/the –ing clause).

**References:**
DESCRIPTIVE GRAMMAR (SYNTAX)–Section 4

Compound and complex sentence: elements of structure continued

6. Types of to–infinitives as non-finite clauses.
   a/ Present, e.g. I want to swim now.
   b/ Present progressive, e.g. He appears to be doing exercises.
   c/ Present passive, e.g. They don’t want to be chosen.
   d/ Perfective, e.g. She seems to have won a million dollars.
   e/ Perfective passive, e.g. They don’t appear to have been satisfied with the solution.
   g/ Perfective progressive, e.g. She appears to have been working for many hours.

7. Unattached/dangling/pendant clauses: subject of the main clause is not the same as the subject of the subordinate clause.
   a/ Since leaving her, life has seemed empty?
   b/ Reading the morning paper, the parrot started talking

8. Verbless clauses are subordinate clause with no verb phrase expressed, e.g. She took a walk along the beach, her dog with her.

Sentence connection

1. Time relaters.
   a/ Temporal adjectives, e.g. He wrote a good book. His previous books were not so good.
   b/ Temporal adverbials, e.g. He’s now the boss. Formerly, he was a simple worker.
   c/ Tense, e.g. He came back to his office. Someone had stolen the computer.
   d/ Aspect, e.g. When I turned on the radio, they were talking about economy.

2. Place relaters.
   a/ I went to France. There I met my wife.
   b/ He examined the car. The front was slightly damaged.

3. Logical connecters.
   a/ Conjunction, e.g. They sang and they played the guitar.
   b/ Enumeration, e.g. First, they shouted. Second, they played loud music. Finally . . .
   c/ Addition, e.g. His wife left him. Also, someone stole his car.
   d/ Transition, e.g. Let us now introduce another topic.
   e/ Summation, e.g. To sum up, you have done absolutely nothing!
   f/ Inference, e.g. You want to marry her. If so, you shouldn’t quarrel with her.
   g/ Result, e.g. They couldn’t pay the rent. As a result, they were evicted.
   h/ Contrast, e.g. On the one hand, he is friendly. On the other hand, he’s jealous.
   i/ Substitution, e.g. –I can swim well. –So can I.
Functional classification of subordinate clauses

1. Comment clauses express the speaker’s attitude to the contents of the main clause or a way of expressing it.

a/ At that time, I presume, people were better.
b/ What’s more, he has lost his wallet.
c/ To be honest, I’m not sure what I should do.
d/ Speaking as a layman, I don’t think people can land on Mars.

2. Comparative clauses, with their correlative element in the main clause, are equivalent to degree adverbs.

a/ I love you more deeply than I can say.
b/ He’s not as clever a man as I thought.

3. Nominal clauses take all functions typical of noun phrases, e.g. subjects, objects, etc.

Non-finite to–infinitive clauses

a/ Subject, e.g. For Mike to win the game is unbelievable.
b/ Appositive to subject, e.g. His dream, to fly to Mars, is strange.
c/ Subject complement, e.g. My dream is to fly to Mars.
d/ Direct object, e.g. I want you to be silent.
e/ Adjectival complement, e.g. I am happy to be with you.

Non-finite –ing clauses

a/ Subject, e.g. Writing books is not an easy job.
b/ Appositive to subject, e.g. His hobby, playing cards, is silly.
c/ Subject complement, e.g. His hobby is playing cards.
d/ Direct object, e.g. No one likes leaving home.
e/ Adjectival complement, e.g. They were busy talking to each other.
f/ Prepositional complement, e.g. I am tired of playing football today.

Finite that–clauses

a/ Subject, e.g. That she still loves you is almost certain.
b/ Appositive to subject, e.g. Your view, that the climate changes, is stupid.
c/ Subject complement, e.g. The idea is that we should go.
d/ Direct object, e.g. I know that you will come.
e/ Adjectival complement, e.g. I am glad that you finally arrived.

Finite wh–interrogative clauses

a/ Subject, e.g. How the story will end is still uncertain.
b/ Appositive to subject, e.g. My question, who will go, wasn’t answered.
c/ Subject complement, e.g. The question is who will go.
d/ Direct object, e.g. I don’t know what made him so angry.
e/ Adjectival complement, e.g. I wasn’t sure who was coming.
f/ Prepositional complement, e.g. *No one asked them about what we should do.*

Finite *wh*–relative clauses

a/ Subject, e.g. *What you are doing is funny.*
b/ Subject complement, e.g. *School is where you study grammar.*
c/ Direct object, e.g. *I know who won the main award.*
d/ Appositive to direct object, e.g. *I gave you my address, that is, where I live.*
e/ Object complement, e.g. *You can call him whatever you like.*
f/ Indirect object, e.g. *He sent whoever he knew a letter.*
g/ Prepositional complement, e.g. *You can count on whoever you like.*

Finite ‘yes–no’ interrogative clauses

a/ Subject, e.g. *Whether you like it or not is not important.*
b/ Appositive to subject, e.g. *The decision, whether they should do it or not, has been taken.*
c/ Subject complement, e.g. *The question is whether it will happen or not.*
d/ Direct object, e.g. *I don’t know whether she will come or not.*
e/ Prepositional complement, e.g. *They depend on whether she will come or not.*

4. Adverbial clauses have the functions of adverbials, e.g. time, place, manner, etc.

a/ Time, e.g. *When he finished work, he went out.*
b/ Place, e.g. *He lived where she lived.*
c/ Concession/contrast, e.g. *Though I enjoyed the party, I left.*
d/ Reason/cause, e.g. *I went there because I liked the place.*
e/ Circumstance, e.g. *Seeing that he was furious, they escaped.*
f/ Purpose, e.g. *We opened the door so that the cat would get into the room.*
g/ Result, e.g. *We opened the door so (that) the cat went into the room.*
h/ Manner, e.g. *She sang (just) as she was instructed.*
i/ Comparison, e.g. *He looked as if (though) he won a million $.*
j/ Proportion, e.g. *The more he loved her, the less she hated him.*
k/ Preference, e.g. *Rather than staying there, I left.*
l/ Conditional-concessive, e.g. *Even if you knock on the door, they won’t hear you.*
m/ Alternative conditional-concessive, e.g. *Whether they win or lose, we’ll have a party.*
n/ Universal conditional-concessive, e.g. *Whatever she found, she lost it the next day.*

Conditional clauses

a/ Type 0 (cause and effect), e.g. *If they meet, they greet each other.*
b/ Type 1 (real conditions), e.g. *If I read the book, I will give you the answer.*
c/ Type 2 (possible or unreal conditions), e.g. *If we left now, we would get back soon or If I were Bill Clinton, I would ask him a few questions.*
d/ Type 3 (unreal conditions in the past), e.g. *If we had left earlier, we would have got back sooner.*
e/ Mixed (present effect of past action), e.g. *If I had studied law, I would be rich now.*

References:
DESCRIPTIVE GRAMMAR (SYNTAX)–Section 5

Functional classification of subordinate clauses continued

5. Adjectival/relative clauses take the functions of adjectives.

a/ Defining/restrictive, e.g. *The book which/that belongs to Mary is missing.*

b/ Non-defining/non-restrictive, e.g. *Mark's car, which stood in front of the house, was stolen.*

c/ Possessive defining, e.g. *The book whose cover was torn disappeared.*

d/ Possessive non-defining, e.g. *The new house, whose roof was repaired yesterday, collapsed.*

e/ Sentence relative, e.g. *They won the match, which pleased the fans.*

**Passive voice**

1. The basic pattern, e.g. *The woman killed the man* (active voice) vs. *The man was killed by the woman* (passive voice). The direct object takes the position of the subject and the lexical verb becomes the *–ed* participle (past participle).

2. Passive voice constraints.

a/ *Tom arrived yesterday* (verb expresses action; no direct object).

b/ *John lacks courage* (verb does not express action; obligatory complement).

c/ *You resemble your father* (‘reciprocal verbs’).

d/ *They have a good car* (‘verbs of possession’).

e/ *The room holds ten people* (‘verbs of containing’).

f/ *The shoes don’t fit you* (‘verbs of suiting’).

g/ *The stick measures 1 meter* (‘verbs of measure’).

h/ *The engineer went carefully into the tunnel* (literal meaning; no direct object) vs. *The engineer went carefully into the problem* (metaphorical meaning; direct object present).

i/ *Mark noticed Mary in the mirror* (direct object distinct from subject) vs. *Mark noticed himself in the mirror* (direct object being a reflexive pronoun, hence not distinct from subject).

j/ *They couldn’t recognize each other/one another* (direct object being a reciprocal pronoun, hence not distinct from subject).
k/ The woman broke her hand (direct object being a part of subject).

3. Simple sentence patterns and passive voice.

a/ Mark opened the window (SVOd; monotransitive complementation).

b/ Joe put the book on the shelf (SVOdA; complex transitive complementation).

c/ Mark opened the window wide (SVOdOc; complex transitive complementation).

d/ She sent them a long letter (SVOi recipient Od; ditransitive complementation).

e/ He bought her some flowers (SVOi beneficiary Od; ditransitive complementation).

f/ She gave the door a kick (SVOi affected Od; ditransitive complementation).

h/ We reminded him of the agreement (SVOiOd introduced by preposition; ditransitive complementation).

g/ They explained the problem to him (SVOdOi introduced by preposition; ditransitive complementation).

h/ They made room for the new wardrobe (S+verbal idiom [V+NP+Prep]+Oi; ditransitive complementation).

4. Complex sentence and passive voice.

a/ They wanted to leave the town (non-finite to–infinitive clause without its own subject functions as direct object; monotransitive complementation). Exceptions: verbs to agree, to decide, to arrange.

b/ She chose Mike to read the book (non-finite to–infinitive clause with its own subject functions as direct object; monotransitive complementation).

c/ They watched the kids play football (non-finite bare infinitive clause with its own subject functions as direct object; monotransitive complementation).
d/ Mary liked swimming in the sea (non-finite –ing clause without its own subject functions as direct object; monotransitive complementation).

e/ She heard Tom singing the aria (non-finite –ing clause with its own subject functions as direct object; monotransitive complementation).

f/ They kept the bottle filled with water (non-finite –ed clause with its own subject functions as direct object; monotransitive complementation).

g/ They persuaded John to see me (non-finite to–infinitive clause functions as direct object; ditransitive complementation–indirect object and subject of the non-finite clause being identical).

h/ They believe that he is a fool (finite that–clause functions as direct object; monotransitive complementation).

i/ They convinced me that she was wrong (finite that–clause functions as direct object; ditransitive complementation).

j/ They reported (to me) that the car had disappeared (finite that–clause functions as direct object; indirect object introduced by prepositional phrase; ditransitive complementation).

Passive voice of multi-word verbs

1. Classification.

a/ Phrasal verbs, e.g. John called up Mary.

b/ Prepositional verbs, e.g. John called on Mary.

c/ Phrasal-prepositional verbs, e.g. They get on with her well.

2. The concept of ‘semantic integrity’ and constraints.

a/ They back him up.

b/ She made the story up.

c/ They hinted at such possibility.

d/ She took to drink.

e/ Mary got over Tom.

f/ She ran for the position.

g/ They can’t put up with her.

References:
Adjuncts, disjuncts, and conjuncts

1. Adjuncts, disjuncts, and conjuncts are adverbials.

Adjuncts

1. They are partly integrated into the structure of the clause.


a/ Viewpoint, e.g. *economically, politically, historically, program-wise* (Politically, it was a big mistake).

b/ Focusing, e.g. *just, only, simply, chiefly, too, in particular, also, in addition* (You can pay 5 pounds only for that sweater).

c/ Intensifiers, e.g. *definitely, completely, hardly, entirely, a little, a bit* (You are completely wrong).

d/ Process, e.g. *cowboy-style, with a knife, peasant-fashion, by air* (He opened the bottle with a knife).

e/ Subject, e.g. *reluctantly, intentionally, kindly, deliberately* (He lent us the book reluctantly=He was reluctant to lend us the book).

f/ Place, e.g. *below, home, near, here, there* (I left the keys there).

g/ Time, e.g. *last year, after lunch, in a month* (I will be back in a month).

h/ Other categories, e.g. source: *from me* (She got the money from me).

Disjuncts

1. They are peripheral elements with respect to the structure of the clause.


a/ Style disjuncts express speaker’s comment on the form of what they are saying, e.g. *seriously, strictly speaking, frankly speaking, if I may say so* (Seriously, I don’t think he will succeed).
b/ Attitudinal disjuncts express speaker’s comment on the content of what they are saying, e.g. obviously, to our surprise, understandably, to be sure (To our surprise, they split up).

Conjuncts

1. They have a connective function.

2. Examples: first, second, third, also, moreover, consequently, likewise, anyway, however, etc. (She lost the job; consequently, she couldn’t pay the rent).

Apposition

1. Apposition links units having grammatical affinity.

2. The units are identical in reference, e.g. Our neighbour, Fred, is at home, or reference of one unit is included in reference of the other unit, e.g. The two men, one a soldier, were killed.

3. Apposition can be restrictive, e.g. Mr. Jones the lawyer was here last night, or non-restrictive, e.g. Mr. Jones, the lawyer, was here last night.

Forms of non-restrictive apposition

a/ Appellation, e.g. The commander, Mark Wilson, returned home.

b/ Designation, e.g. Mark Wilson, the commander, returned home.

c/ Identification, e.g. A young swimmer, Ian Thorpe, won the competition.

d/ Reformulation, e.g. He drew a triangle, that is (to say), a three-sided figure.

e/ Attribution, e.g. The house, an imposing building, collapsed.

f/ Inclusion/exemplification, e.g. Famous men, for example Churchill, visited this town.

g/ Inclusion/particularization, e.g. Animals, especially the monkeys, can be aggressive.

Multi-word verbs

Phrasal verbs

1. They consist of a lexical verb and a particle.
2. Classification.

a/ Intransitive phrasal verbs do not take direct objects, e.g. The children sat down, The plane has taken off, He turned up unexpectedly.

b/ Transitive phrasal verbs take direct objects, e.g. Drink up your milk quickly, He turned on the light, They called off the strike.

Prepositional verbs

1. They consist of a lexical verb and a preposition, e.g. He called on his father, They looked after the child.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phrasal verbs</th>
<th>vs.</th>
<th>prepositional verbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>They called up the man.</td>
<td></td>
<td>They called on the man.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They called the man up.</td>
<td></td>
<td>They called the man on.*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They called him up.</td>
<td></td>
<td>They called on him.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They called up him.*</td>
<td></td>
<td>They called him on.*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They called up the man/the man up early.</td>
<td></td>
<td>They called on the man early.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They called early up the man.*</td>
<td></td>
<td>They called early on the man.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The man whom they called up.</td>
<td></td>
<td>The man whom they called on.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The man up whom they called.*</td>
<td></td>
<td>The man on whom they called.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Phrasal-prepositional verbs

1. They consist of a lexical verb followed by two particles, e.g. He gets along with her very well.

2. Examples of usage.

a/ He puts up with his secretary.

b/ He puts up willingly with his secretary.

c/ Who(m) does he put up with willingly?

d/ With whom does he put up willingly?

References:
DESCRIPTIVE GRAMMAR (SYNTAX)—Section 7

Premodification

1. Complex noun phrase, e.g. *the old car standing in the street*, consists of three components.

   a/ The head, e.g. *car*, around which all the other components cluster.
   b/ The premodification, that is, all items placed before the head, e.g. *the old*.
   c/ The postmodification, that is, all items placed after the head, e.g. *standing in the street*.

2. Types of premodifying item.

   a/ Adjective, e.g. *I saw this delightful film*.
   b/ Participle, e.g. *I opened the crumbling door, I read his completed book*.
   c/ The –s genitive, e.g. *I visited his fisherman’s cottage*.
   d/ Noun, e.g. *I visited his country cottage*.
   e/ Adverbial, e.g. *I visited his far-away cottage*.
   f/ Sentence, e.g. *I visited his pop-down-for-the-weekend cottage*.

3. Further premodification is possible with adjectives, e.g. *his really quite unbelievably delightful cottage*.

4. Premodification by –ing participles.

   a/ Non-permanent/non-characteristic features, e.g. *He greeted me with a smiling look*.
   b/ Permanent/characteristic features, e.g. *He was a smiling man*.


   a/ Active –ed participle is rarely used in premodification, e.g. *the arrived immigrant* vs. *the newly-arrived immigrant*.
   b/ Passive –ed participle can be statal, e.g. *some complicated machinery* or actional, e.g. *the broken vase* (The vase was broken [permanent reference]) vs. *the described man* (The man was described [non-permanent reference]).

6. Premodification by nouns, e.g. the possibility of compounding, e.g. *the question of partition vs. the partition question*.

7. Multiple premodification.

   a/ Single head, e.g. *his last brilliant book*.
   b/ Multiple head, e.g. *the beautiful new table and chairs*.
   c/ Modified modifier, e.g. *the nasty woman’s clothing*.

8. Sequence of premodifiers.

   a/ Denominal and nominal, e.g. *the London social life, a United States political problem*.
   b/ The denominal adjective comes first and its sense is ‘consisting of’, ‘relating to’, or ‘involving’.
9. Classes of adjectives in premodification: determiner+‘general’ adjective+little+adjective of age+adjective of colour+participle+adjective of provenance/style+noun modifier+head noun, e.g. a nice little old green etched French ink pen.

Postmodification

1. Restrictive postmodification by non-finite clauses.

a/ You will see a man reading a newspaper (–ing clause).
b/ The car repaired by that mechanic is mine (–ed clause).
c/ The next train to arrive is from York (–to infinitive clause).

2. Non-restrictive postmodification by non-finite clauses.

a/ The old tree, swaying in the breeze, bore a lot of fruit (–ing clause).
b/ Radium, discovered by Maria Curie, revolutionized chemistry (–ed clause).
c/ The famous scholar, to be seen in the museum, has written a new book (–to infinitive clause).

3. Restrictive appositive postmodification, e.g. The appeal to join the movement was well received.

4. Non-restrictive appositive postmodification, e.g. This last appeal, to raise the money, was not well received.

5. Postmodification by prepositional phrases, e.g. the road to Lincoln, a tree by a stream, action in case of fire, the man of courage, John’s hope of Mary’s arrival.

6. Deverbal noun heads: the prepositional phrase as an adverbial or a postmodifier, e.g. the quarrel in the morning (The quarrel broke out in the morning).

7. Minor types of postmodification.

a/ The people behind were laughing (adverbial postmodification).
b/ Something strange happened today (postposed adjective).
c/ Another book à la Dickens has appeared (postposed ‘mode’ qualifier).

8. Multiple postmodification.

a/ The girl in the corner talking to John (two postmodifers of the first head NP).
b/ The girl in the corner nearest the window (the head NP of the postmodifier is itself postmodified).

References:
1. Compound is a unit which consists of two or more bases.

2. Most commonly, a compound consists of a dependent (the first element) and a head (the second element). The dependent always modifies the head, e.g. steamboat is a kind of boat.

3. Classification of compounds.
   a/ Endocentric (head+modifier subordinate to it), e.g. pipe tobacco.
   b/ Exocentric/bahuvrihi (no semantic head; the composite expression refers to some entity), e.g. red tape.
   c/ Appositive (both parts equally contribute to the meaning of the whole), e.g. woman doctor.
   d/ Dvandva (the relationship of co-ordination is present), e.g. Austria-Hungary.

4. Various syntactic and semantic relationships are possible within compounds, e.g. playboy (verb+subject=the boy plays) vs. call-girl (verb+direct object=X calls the girl).

   Noun compounds (the head is a noun)
   a/ Subject and verb, e.g. sunrise, rattlesnake, dancing girl.
   b/ Verb and object, e.g. sightseeing, taxpayer, bloodtest, chewing gum.
   c/ Verb and adverbial, e.g. swimming pool, daydreaming, baby-sitter, homework.
   d/ Verbless, e.g. windmill, toy factory, doorknob, darkroom, frogman, snowflake.
   e/ Exocentric/bahuvrihi, e.g. paperback, loudmouth, pickpocket.

   Adjective compounds (the head is an adjective or a participle functioning as adjective)
   a/ Verb and object, e.g. man-eating.
   b/ Verb and adverbial, e.g. ocean-going, heartfelt, hard-working.
   c/ Verbless, e.g. class-conscious, grass-green, British-American.

   Verb compounds (the head is a verb)
   a/ Verb and object, e.g. to sight-see.
   b/ Verb and adverbial, e.g. to sleep-walk.

   Functional perspective: theme and rheme
   1. Theme: the ‘point of departure’ in a clause; its first constituent.
   2. Rheme: the rest of the clause.
3. The choice of theme: the angle from which the speaker develops their message.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>theme</th>
<th>rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>can’t stand the noise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The noise</td>
<td>I can’t stand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can’t</td>
<td>I stand the noise?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Theme as distinguished from subject (syntactic category) and topic (discourse category).

5. Theme can be marked or unmarked.

a/ Unmarked theme is always the first constituent of a clause in each mood structure, e.g. Alice went home (declarative), Where did Alice go? (interrogative). It is always the expected element.

b/ Marked theme is present in declarative clauses only. Moving a constituent to the initial position is called thematic fronting or thematisation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>marked theme</th>
<th>rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Od) A nicer girl</td>
<td>you’ll never meet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Cs) Archibald</td>
<td>his name is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Co) Very angry</td>
<td>it made me</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Themes with subject–finite clause inversion represent the highest degree of markedness.

7. Various elements of sentence as themes.

a/ Expressions with negative meaning, e.g. Never have I seen her, Not a soul did they meet.

b/ Other expressions, e.g. Ed came and so did Mary, Were he alive, he would be very happy.

c/ Attributes as themes: fronting of a subject complement or of an object complement, e.g. Very pretty she is too, Very handy we found the tool.

d/ Direct objects, e.g. One half she ate in the morning (nominal group), What she expected from me, I can’t imagine (finite clause), He is all right, but her I found a bore (pronoun).

e/ Adjuncts, e.g. Only ten years ago, this coastline was quite unspoilt, Home went Alice, Across the campus raced the students.

8. Discourse themes.

a/ Conjunctive, e.g. however, because of that.

b/ Modal, e.g. possibly, perhaps.

c/ Relational, e.g. legally, politically.
9. Multiple themes: only the representational element is necessary, others are optional.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>theme</th>
<th>schema</th>
<th>rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>modal</td>
<td>representational</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possibly</td>
<td>the show</td>
<td>was a flop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>relational</td>
<td>conjunctive representational</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technologically then it is admirable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. Preposed and postposed themes are represented twice in the clause.

a/ Preposed: in their normal position and at its beginning, e.g. All these roses, who can have sent them?

b/ Postposed: in their normal position and at its end, e.g. They’re all bad, these apples.

11. Clauses as themes.

a/ He made a fortune and bought a plane (coordinate).

b/ When they went home, we sat on the floor (subordinate).

References:
DESCRIPTIVE GRAMMAR (SYNTAX)—Section 9

Functional perspective: ellipsis

1. Each message contains ‘given’ and ‘new’ information.
2. ‘Given’ information can be recovered from linguistic or social context.
3. ‘Given’ information can be identified by textual or situational ellipsis.

Textual ellipsis

1. It is dependent on the linguistic context.
2. The head of nominal group replaced.

a/ By a deictic expression, e.g. Ask Jane to bring some envelopes if there are any (envelopes).

b/ By a possessive construction, e.g. I was going to bring my book, but I brought John’s (book).

c/ By a numerative, e.g. I couldn’t answer the first question, but the last two (questions) were easy.

3. Part of a clause not repeated.

a/ I don’t know if you’re looking forward to the trip, but I am (looking forward to the trip).

b/ Peter and James are likely to vote in favour, but John certainly won’t (vote in favour).

c/ Mike should have checked the parcels, but he didn’t (check the parcels).

4. Subject and operator ellipted/predicator and complement replaced, e.g. –Are you writing a diary? –No, (I am) composing a poem.

5. Whole clause ellipted, e.g. –I am going to the supermarket. –When (are you going to the supermarket)?

Situational ellipsis

1. It is not dependent on linguistic context.

2. Examples of usage.

a/ (I) Beg your pardon.
b/ (I am) Sorry I couldn’t be there.
c/ (It’s) Good to see you.
d/ (I’ve) Got to go now.
e/ (You) Had a good time?
f/ (Are you) Looking for anybody?
g/ (Is) Anything the matter?
h/ (Does) Anybody need a lift?
Functional perspective: substitution

1. Substitution means avoiding repetition by means of pro-forms.
2. Pro-forms are used within and across sentences.
3. Examples of simple pro-forms.
   a/ For noun phrases and their constituents, e.g. Dr Solway not only took the student’s blood pressure, but he also examined his lungs.
   b/ For adverbials, e.g. Look in the top drawer. You’ll probably find it there.
   c/ For predicates, e.g. John drives a car. Bob does too.
   d/ For predications, e.g. John drives a car. I think Bob doesn’t.

4. Examples of complex pro-forms complex (combinations of auxiliaries with so, that, or it).
   a/ John drives a car. So does Bob (so+auxiliary+subject).
   b/ He seems nervous. So he does (so+subject+auxiliary).
   c/ I already sent my donation. I did so last week (subject+do+so).

Functional perspective: clefting

1. Communicative effect: initial and final position in the clause are most important.
2. Clefting: a clause is divided into two components in order to identify one of the elements as new information. The element which follows the verb be receives the focus and represents the new information.
3. Clefting of clause elements.
   a/ Subject, e.g. Mary brought the book for me → It was Mary who brought the book for me.
   b/ Direct object, e.g. Susan sent a book to me → It was a book that Susan sent to me.
   c/ Prepositional object, e.g. Mary brought the book for me → It was for me that Mary brought the book.
   d/ Adverbial, e.g. Susan bought the jacket in Oslo → It was in Oslo that Susan bought the jacket.
4. Clefting of subordinate clauses.
   a/ Adverbial clauses of time, e.g. He feels well when he is at work → It is when he is at work that he feels well.
   b/ Adverbial clauses of purpose, e.g. She took the money in order to pay for it → It was in order to pay for it that she took the money.
   c/ Adverbial clauses of reason, e.g. The match was cancelled because the snow fell → It was because the snow fell that the match was cancelled.
d/ Adverbial clauses of manner, e.g. *He finished the paper by staying up all night* → *It was by staying up all night that he finished the paper.*

e/ Adverbial clauses of condition, e.g. *I will go only if you drive* → *It is only if you drive that I will go.*

*wh*-clef t sentences (pseudo-clefs or thematic equatives)

1. Construction: the order can be reversed or two *wh*-clauses can be used.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>identified</th>
<th>identifier</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>What he really likes</em></td>
<td><em>is surfing</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>What she wants</em></td>
<td><em>is what she can’t have</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Functions.

a/ To introduce a new topic, e.g. *What we shall consider today is bilingual education.*

b/ To refer to a previous part of discourse, e.g. *We came home to find the place flooded; what had happened was that a pipe burst.*

c/ To correct a previous statement, e.g. –*Do you mean that we should go by car?* –*What I meant was that we should rent one.*

*Functional perspective: active–passive alternative*

Functions of passive voice.

1. Focusing on the agent (the new information) with a *by*-phrase, e.g. *It was given to me by my girlfriend.*

2. Introducing a long agent, e.g. *The front seats were filled by members of the families of the victims.*

3. Not mentioning the agent.

a/ Agent is unknown, e.g. *My car has been stolen.*
b/ Agent is known or already referred to, e.g. *Everyone was invited.*
c/ Agent is understood, but irrelevant, e.g. *I was awarded a full travel grant.*
d/ Implied agent is ‘people’ or ‘one’, e.g. *It is hoped that war can be avoided.*
e/ Predicator is highlighted, e.g. *The documents have been stolen.*
f/ Rules of politeness are used, e.g. *I’m afraid the fax hasn’t been sent.*

*References:*


DESCRIPTIVE GRAMMAR (SYNTAX)–Section 10

Functional perspective: existential sentences

Existential sentences with *there*

1. Functions and properties.

a/ They begin with unstressed ‘there’ followed by the verb ‘to be’, e.g. *There is nothing worse than having no-one to play with*.

b/ The notional subject is an indefinite nominal group (NG).

c/ Their function is presentative, that is, they express states of affairs, e.g. *There was a fight, There were several passengers ill*.

2. Structure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Auxiliaries</th>
<th>‘be’</th>
<th>Predication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Someone</td>
<td>must</td>
<td>be</td>
<td>lying there</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There</td>
<td>must</td>
<td>be</td>
<td>notional subject + predication</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Patterns.

   a/ SV: *Noone was waiting*→*There was noone waiting*.

   b/ SVA: *Noone was around*→*There was noone around*.

   c/ SVCs: *Something must be wrong*→*There must be something wrong*.

   d/ SVOd: *Many people are buying cars*→*There are many people buying cars*.

   e/ SVOdCo: *Two men are keeping the place clean*→*There are two men keeping the place clean*.

   f/ SVOdA: *A woman is putting the plate on the table*→*There is a woman putting the plate on the table*.

   g/ SVOiOd: *Something is giving him trouble*→*There is something giving him trouble*.

4. *There* as subject.

   a/ As a ‘slot-filler’, it leaves the subject position without content.

   b/ It has no stress.

   c/ It determines concord: the verb is singular even if the notional subject is plural, e.g. *There is (are) two patients in the room*.

   d/ It is a subject in ‘yes-no’ questions, e.g. *Is there any more soup?*, and in tag questions, e.g. *There is nothing wrong, is there?*

   e/ It is a subject in to–infinitive clauses, e.g. *I don’t want there to be any problems*.

   f/ It is a subject in –ing clauses, e.g. *He was worried about there being so much to do*.

5. Patterns with relative clauses: structure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Direct Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Something</td>
<td>keeps disturbing</td>
<td>him</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There + be + notional subject + a postmodifying clause
There is something (that) keeps disturbing him.

There + be + nominal group + to–infinitive clause.
There was nothing to write home about.
There was nothing about which to write home.

6. Typology with respect to the structure of NG.

a/ NG without qualifier, e.g. There are no fairies.
b/ NG qualified by adverbial of time, e.g. There was a storm last night.
c/ NG qualified by adverbial of place, e.g. There’s a man at the door.
d/ NG qualified by adjectival group, e.g. There are several pages blank.
e/ NG qualified by finite clause, e.g. There are machines which can count.
f/ NG qualified by non-finite –ing clause, e.g. There’s a dog barking outside.
g/ NG qualified by non-finite to–infinitive clause, e.g. There’s plenty to eat.
h/ NG qualified by non-finite –ed clause, e.g. There was another plane high-jacked yesterday.

7. Sentences with other verbs than ‘be’: typical of literary style. The general pattern: S+V→there+V+S.

a/ SVA: Medieval castles exist in different countries→There exist medieval castles in different countries.
b/ SVA: A revolution occurred soon after→There occurred a revolution soon after.
c/ Time may come (SV) when you will be happy→There may come a time when you will be happy.

Existential sentences with have

1. Example: He has/had several friends in China→There are/were several friends of his in China.

2. The notional subject can be definite, e.g. He has his eldest son in the army.

3. Relative and to–infinitive clauses possible, e.g. I have something that I want to tell you→There is something that I want to tell you; He has a lot to do→There is a lot to do (for him).

Functional perspective: extraposition

1. Structure: a long nominal subject or object clause is shifted to the end of the sentence and replaced by it.

2. Function: emphatic contrast.

3. Most common examples according to the types of clauses that can be extraposed.
a/ Finite that–clause functioning as subject, e.g. *That banks are closed today is a nuisance*→ *It is a nuisance that banks are closed today.*

b/ Finite wh–relative clause functioning as subject, e.g. *What they are proposing to do is horrifying*→ *It is horrifying what they are proposing to do.*

c/ Finite that–clause functioning as direct object, e.g. *I find that you are still here strange*→ *I find it strange that you are still here.*

d/ Non-finite to–infinitive clause functioning as subject, e.g. *To interfere would be unwise*→ *It would be unwise to interfere.*

e/ Non-finite –ing clause functioning as subject, e.g. *Seeing you again was nice*→ *It was nice seeing you again.*

f/ Non-finite to–infinitive clause functioning as direct object, e.g. *I consider to know the truth essential*→ *I consider it essential to know the truth.*

4. Extraposition is obligatory after the verbs seem, appear, happen, chance, look as if, it’s high time, e.g. *It seems that he is tired;* the passives of say, hope, intend, e.g. *It is said that he failed the test.*

5. Additional type, e.g. *To live with Mary is difficult*→ *It is difficult to live with Mary*→ *Mary is difficult to live with.*

**Functional perspective: postponement**

1. Structure: some units are discontinued.

2. Examples: discontinued postmodifiers.

a/ *The time when no-one will write by hand anymore will come*→ *The time will come when no-one will write by hand anymore.*

b/ *A man carrying the puppy appeared*→ *A man appeared carrying the puppy.*

c/ *Everyone except for the prima donna arrived on time*→ *Everyone arrived on time except for the prima donna.*

3. Postponement with ditransitive verbs.

a/ *We’ve given the children bicycles*→ *We’ve given bicycles to the children.*

**References:**
DESCRIPTIVE GRAMMAR (SYNTAX)–Section 11

Assertive and non-assertive forms

1. The distinction between positive/assertive and non-positive/non-assertive contexts in English.

Assertive forms

1. Example: some.
3. They are common in positive declarative clauses, e.g. *I have some time today*.
4. They are used with a specific meaning, e.g. *I have some very good coffee, I’ve left my car keys somewhere*.

Non-assertive forms

1. Example: any.
3. They are common in interrogative, negative, and conditional clauses, e.g. *Do you have any time today?*
4. They are used with non-specific meaning, e.g. *Have you any good coffee?, Have you seen my glasses anywhere?*
5. Assertive *some* is possible in non-assertive contexts, e.g. *If someone rings, tell them I’m out; Will you have some coffee?*

Indirect speech

1. Indirect speech subordinates the words of a speaker by means of back-shift rules, which produces the effect of distancing.

2. The back-shift rules: changes of pronouns, tenses, and adverbials.

a/ “I will behave myself”→*He promised that he would behave himself.*

b/ “I am working”→*He said that he was working.*

c/ “I live here”→*She said that she lived there.*

3. Changes are not necessary if the reported statement holds for the present time and for the time of utterance.

a/ “Nothing can harm a good man”→*Socrates said that nothing can/could harm a good man.*

b/ “The Earth revolves around the Sun”→*Copernicus said that the Earth revolves/revolved around the Sun.*
4. Statements are transformed into subordinate *that*-clauses, e.g. “I am very tired” → *He said that he was very tired*.

5. Questions are transformed into subordinate *wh*-clauses or *if*-clauses.
   a/ “When will the plane leave?” → *I asked when the plane would leave*.
   b/ “Are you ready yet?” → *She asked if/whether I was ready yet*.

6. Exclamations are transformed into subordinate *wh*-clauses, e.g. “What a hero you are!” → *Mary exclaimed what a hero he was*.

7. Commands are transformed into subordinate *to*-infinitive clauses without subject, e.g. “Keep still!” → *She told the child to keep still*.

8. Modal auxiliaries are back-shifted, but only those that have past tense equivalents.
   a/ “May I go?” → *She asked if she might go*.
   b/ “You must be careful” → *She said that I must be careful*.

   a/ “I am leaving tomorrow” (spoken on Monday).
   Reported later on Monday→*She said that she was leaving tomorrow*.
   Reported on Thursday→*She said that she was leaving on Tuesday/the following day*.
   b/ “I will come back next month” (spoken in May).
   Reported later in May→*He said he would come back next month*.
   Reported in August→*He said he would come back in June/the following month*.
   c/ “I saw him here” (spoken in a given place).
   Reported in the same place→*She said that she had seen him here*.
   Reported elsewhere→*She said that she had seen him there*. 
Inversion

1. The verb phrase is shifted to the position in front of the subject.

2. Most common is the inversion of the auxiliary verb and the subject, with the rest of the verb phrase coming after, e.g. *Have you read the book?*

3. Examples of inversion.

   a/ Questions, e.g. *Can you open the window?*

   b/ Conditionals. Examples:
   
   *Were I to lose, I would be very sorry.*
   *Had I known, I would have told you.*

   c/ After *as*, e.g. *She slept, as did most of them.*

   d/ After *neither, nor, so*, e.g. *–I work hard –So do I.*

   e/ After various adverbial expressions used at the beginning of the sentence. Examples:
   
   *Hardly had he woken up when he fell asleep again.*
   *No sooner had he woken up than he fell asleep again.*
   *Only now do I know what I want.*
   *In the corridor stood a tall man.*

   f/ In exclamations. Examples:
   
   *How nice are the kids!*
   *Isn’t it beautiful!*

   g/ After verbs of reporting, e.g. “*Where is the car?*, asked Tom.”

References:
DESCRIPTIVE GRAMMAR (SYNTAX)–Section 12

Questions

1. The criteria: one or more must be simultaneously present.

a/ The operator placed right in front of the subject, e.g. Will you open the door?
b/ Interrogative wh–element placed in the initial position, e.g. Who will speak to you?
c/ Rising intonation, e.g. You will speak to the boss?

2. Classification of questions according to the type of answer they expect.

a/ ‘Yes–no’ questions (affirmation or negation expected), e.g. Have you finished the book?
b/ Wh–questions (answer should supply an item of information), e.g. What is your name?
c/ Alternative questions (answer to two or more options presented is expected), e.g. Would you like to go for walk or stay at home?

‘Yes–no’ questions

1. The operator is placed before the subject, e.g. Can you lend me a hand?
2. Lexical be or have can be used as operator, e.g. Have you got a car? or Are you coming to the party tonight?
3. If there is no operator, do is used, e.g. Does he like Mary?
4. Rising intonation is used.
5. Non-assertive forms are generally used, e.g. Did anyone call last night?
6. Bias towards a positive or negative answer is possible, e.g. Did someone call last night? or Would you like some cake? vs. Isn’t your car working? or Does no-one believe me?

Declarative questions

1. A type of ‘yes–no’ questions.
2. Rising intonation is used.
3. Form is identical to statement, e.g. You’ve got the explosive?, They’ve spoken to the ambassador?, and He didn’t finish the race?

Wh–questions

1. Formed with the aid of one of the following interrogative words: who, whom, whose, what, which, when, where, why, and how.
2. The question word usually takes the first position in the question element, e.g. What did you base your prediction on? vs. On what did you base your prediction?
3. The clause functions of the question word/element.

a/ Subject, e.g. –Who opened my letter? –John did it.
b/ Direct object, e.g. –Which books have you lent him? –I lent him these books.
c/ Subject complement, e.g. –Whose shoes are these? –These shoes are mine.
d/ Object complement, e.g. –How wide did they make the table? –They made it 1 meter wide.
e/ Adverbial of time, e.g. –When will you come back? –I will be back tomorrow.
f/ Adverbial of place, e.g. –Where shall I put the glasses? –Please put them on the table.
g/ Adverbial of process, e.g. –How did you mend it? –I mended it by hand.
h/ Adverbial of duration, e.g. –How long have you been waiting? –I have been waiting for two hours.

i/ Adverbial of frequency, e.g. –How often do you exercise? –I exercise twice a week.

j/ Intensifier, e.g. –How much does he care? –He cares very much.

k/ Adverbial clause of reason, e.g. –Why are they always complaining? –They are always complaining because they are unhappy.

Alternative questions

1. They can be like ‘yes–no’ questions, e.g. Would you like a chocolate or strawberry ice-cream?
2. They can be like wh–questions, e.g. Which ice-cream would you like? Chocolate or strawberry?
3. Positive ‘yes–no’ question can be converted into an alternative question by adding or not, e.g. Are you coming? vs. Are you coming or not?

Minor types of questions

1. Exclamatory questions: questions in form, but they function as exclamations.

a/ Negative ‘yes–no’ question: listener’s agreement expected, e.g. Hasn’t she grown!
b/ Positive ‘yes–no’ question: a strong positive conviction expressed, e.g. Am I hungry!

2. Rhetorical questions: they function as forceful statements.

a/ If positive, they express a strong negative assertion, e.g. Is that a reason for despair?
b/ If negative, they express a strong positive assertion, e.g. Is no-one going to help me?
c/ Questions like Who knows? are equivalent to a statement in which the question element is replaced by a negative element: Nobody knows.

Tag questions

1. They have the function of ‘reply questions’ used to ask for confirmation of something or agreement to something.

2. Structure: auxiliary verb+personal pronoun; do, be, have and modal auxiliaries are used.

a/ The auxiliary of the main clause is used in the tag question, e.g. You haven’t met my wife, have you? or He can’t swim, can he?

b/ If there is no auxiliary in the main clause, do is used, e.g. The pub closes soon, doesn’t it? or He doesn’t like the opera, does he?

3. Most commonly, an affirmative sentence has a negative tag question, e.g. He likes the opera, doesn’t he?, and a negative sentence has an affirmative tag question, e.g. He doesn’t like the opera, does he?

a/ A negative sentence with a positive tag question is often a way of asking for information, e.g. You couldn’t lend me a pound, could you? (Could you lend me a pound?).
Special problems with tag questions

1. The tag question after *I am* is *aren’t I?* rather than *am I not* or *amn’t I?*

2. The following tag questions can be used after imperatives: *will you?, won’t you?, would you?, can you?, can’t you?, could you?*

   a/ *Won’t you?* is used to invite, e.g. *Do sit down, won’t you?*

   b/ The other tag questions are used to tell people to do things, e.g. *Open the door, will you?* Their meaning is similar to the formulaic adjunct *please.*

3. *There* can be used as subject in tag questions, e.g. *There is something wrong, isn’t there?* and *There won’t be any trouble, will there?*

4. *Nothing* and *nobody* are followed by positive tag questions, e.g. *Nothing can stop us, can it?* and *Nobody went there, did they?*

5. *It* is used instead of *nothing*, e.g. *Nothing can harm us, can it?*; *they* is used instead of *nobody, somebody, someone, everybody, and everyone*, e.g. *Somebody opened the door, didn’t they?* and *Everybody liked her, didn’t they?*

6. ‘Same-way’ tag questions take the patterns of negative–negative and affirmative–affirmative.

   a/ Depending on the intonation, they express interest, concern, surprise, or anger, e.g. *So you’re getting married, are you? How nice!; So she thinks she’s going to become a doctor, does she? Well, well; You think you’re funny, do you?*

   b/ If ‘same-way’ tags are used to ask questions, the main clause makes a guess, and the tag asks if it was correct: *Your mother is at home, is she?; This is the last bus, is it?; You can eat fish, can you?*

   c/ In negative sentences, ‘same-way’ tags usually sound aggressive, e.g. *So you don’t like my cooking, don’t you?*

6. Sentences with tag questions commonly leave out pronoun subjects and auxiliary verbs, e.g. *(It’s a) Nice day, isn’t it?* or *(She was) Talking to my husband, was she?*

7. In informal speech, tags can be used after a question, but only on condition that it involves ellipsis, e.g. *(Did you) Have a good time, did you?; (Is) Your mother at home, is she?; (Will) John be here tomorrow, will he?*

References:
DESCRIPTIVE GRAMMAR (SYNTAX)–Section 13

Negation

1. It is accomplished by inserting not or n’t between the operator and the predication, e.g. He is coming–He isn’t coming; We may win the match–We may not win the match.

2. When there is no operator, do is introduced, e.g. They see her every week–They don’t see her every week.

3. Abbreviated negation: the operator is abbreviated by the use of contracted form enclitic to subject, e.g. He isn’t coming–He’s not coming. Both forms are synonymous.

4. Non-assertive forms are used in negation, e.g. We’ve had some lunch–We haven’t had any lunch; He helped to some extent–He didn’t help at all; They have arrived already–They haven’t arrived yet.

5. Negation can be intensified, e.g. I found nothing at all or You have no excuse whatever.

6. Instead of a verb, it is possible to negate other elements, e.g. An honest man would not lie–No honest man would lie; I didn’t see any birds–I saw no birds.

7. Differences in the scope of negation are possible, e.g. Many people did not come vs. Not many people came.

8. Some words are negative in meaning, but not in form, e.g. adverbs seldom/rarely, scarcely/hardly/barely; quantifiers little/few; verbs deny, forget; adjective unaware; prepositions without, against.

a/ They are followed by non-assertive forms, e.g. I seldom get any sleep; Hardly anyone answered my question; He denied that he ever met them; He acted without any delay.

b/ Some of them involve subject-operator inversion, e.g. Little need I talk about the importance of this victory.

c/ They are followed by positive tag questions, e.g. She scarcely seems to care, does she?

9. Negation of modal auxiliaries: two forms must be distinguished.

a/ Auxiliary negation, e.g. You may not [are not allowed to] go swimming.

b/ Main verb negation, e.g. They may [it is possible] not win the match.

10. Standard English has single negation, e.g. I haven’t done any exercises.

Commands

1. They are used to express orders or instructions.

2. Two categories: commands without a subject and commands with a subject.
Commands without a subject

1. No subject; only imperative finite verb (base form, without endings for number or tense), e.g. Go.

2. The omitted subject of the imperative verb is the 2\textsuperscript{nd} person pronoun you, e.g. Be quiet, will you? or Behave yourself/yourselves.

3. The clause patterns have the same range and ordering as statements.
   a/ SV, e.g. Jump (V).
   b/ SVC, e.g. Be reasonable (VC).
   c/ SVOd, e.g. Open the window (V\textsubscript{od}).
   d/ SVOdCo, e.g. Make it big (V\textsubscript{odCo}).
   e/ SVOdA, e.g. Put it on the table (V\textsubscript{odA}).
   f/ SVOdOi, e.g. Give it to me (V\textsubscript{odOi}).

4. The imperative is restricted with respect to tense, aspect, voice, and modality.
   a/ No tense distinction or perfective aspect is possible; progressive aspect is rarely used, e.g. Be reading the book when he comes in.
   b/ Passive is rare, but possible with auxiliaries other than be, e.g. Get washed.
   c/ Modal auxiliaries do not occur in commands

5. Commands are often toned down by markers of politeness, e.g. Shut the door, please.

 Commands with a subject

1. The 2\textsuperscript{nd} person pronoun you is used as a subject.

2. They often express strong irritation, e.g. You be quiet!
   a/ The subject is always stressed.
   b/ They cannot be combined with markers of politeness.

3. They may single out two different addresses, e.g. You be quiet, Jack, and you go over there, Mary!

4. 3\textsuperscript{rd} person subject is possible, e.g. Somebody open this door; Everybody shut their eyes; Jack and Susan stand over there.
Commands with *let*

1. The verb *let* is followed by a subject.
   a/ 1\(^{st}\) person imperatives: the subject is a pronoun in the objective case, e.g. *Let me/us go*.
   b/ 3\(^{rd}\) person imperatives: the subject is a pronoun in objective case, e.g. *Let her/him/them go*, or a noun phrase, e.g. *Let each man decide for himself*.

Negative commands

1. 1\(^{st}\) person imperatives can be negated in two ways.
   a/ *Let’s open the door* vs. *Let’s not open the door*.
   b/ *Let’s open the door* vs. *Don’t let us open the door*.

2. 2\(^{nd}\) and 3\(^{rd}\) person imperatives can be negated by the initial *don’t*.
   a/ *Open some windows* vs. *Don’t open any windows*.
   b/ *You open the door!* vs. *Don’t you open the door!*
   c/ *Someone open the door* vs. *Don’t (let) anyone open the door*.

Elliptical commands

1. *Do, don’t*, and *let’s* can be used in isolation in them.

2. Examples of usage.
   a/ –*Shall I open the door?* –Yes, *do*/No, *don’t*.
   b/ –*Shall we watch the game?* –Yes, *let’s*/No, *don’t let us* or *No, let’s not*.

Persuasive/insistent imperatives

1. They are created by the addition of *do* before the main verb, e.g. *Do have some more sherry; Do let’s go to the theatre; Do be seated*.

2. *Do* also appears in quasi-imperative constructions, e.g. *Why don’t you be careful!*

References:
DESCRIPTIVE GRAMMAR (SYNTAX)–Section 14

Exclamations

1. An extreme degree of some variable factor is expressed.

2. Exclamatory sentences are introduced by what or how.

3. Like in wh-questions, the wh-element is placed initially; the element that follows (X) is typically taken from its usual position and given initial prominence.

4. Patterns of exclamatory sentences.
   a/ X as subject, e.g. What an enormous crowd came! (SV)
   b/ X as direct object, e.g. What a time we’ve had today! (OdSVA)
   c/ X as subject complement, e.g. How delightful her manners are! (CsSV)
   d/ X as adverbial, e.g. What a long time it lasted! (ASV)
   e/ X as prepositional complement, e.g. What a mess we’re in! (CpSVpostposed Prep)

Formulae

1. They only look like major class sentences, e.g. How do you do?

2. They are usually defective in terms of regular clause or sentence structure.

Patterns of formulae

1. Questions without auxiliaries, e.g. Why get so upset?

2. Verbless imperatives, e.g. Out with it!; Down with the bosses!

3. Exclamatory types, e.g. Oh to be free!; To think I was once a millionaire!; John and his ideas!

4. Fossilized elements.
   a/ Subjunctive with inversion, e.g. Suffice it to say (we lost); Long live the Beatles!
   b/ Subjunctive without inversion, e.g. God save the Queen!; God bless you!

Aphorisms

1. Sentence structure typical of many proverbs: they usually balance two equivalent constructions against each other.
2. Examples.

a/ The more, the merrier.

b/ Easy come, easy go.

c/ Handsome is that handsome does.

Syntax in world Englishes

1. Scotland

a/ Non-periphrastic negative, e.g. –Comes he? –He comes not.
b/ Cliticised negatives, e.g. isna, kanna, wilna, disna.

2. Wales.

a/ Strong verbs with weak forms, e.g. brought, caught, grew.
b/ Fronting of the constituent, e.g. Coal they are getting out; Singing they were.
c/ Word order in indirect questions, e.g. I’m not sure is it true or not.
d/ Double negation, e.g. I haven’t been nowhere.
e/ Suffix –s in all present tense forms, e.g. I knows that; They plays football.
f/ Repetition for intensification, e.g. She was pretty, pretty.

3. Ireland.

a/ Inflected do, e.g. He does come.
b/ Inflected be, e.g. There bees no partition.
c/ Both forms inflected, e.g. He does be weighing things.
d/ Copular be, e.g. That’s how it does be.
e/ Perfective after, e.g. I am after writing it.


a/ Past participle forms, e.g. She has already gotten the letter.
b/ Noun-verb agreement, e.g. She and the boy goes fishing.
c/ Subjunctive forms, e.g. I insist that he do it.
d/ Positioning of objects, e.g. Frank sent her it.
e/ Modal verbs, e.g. He must not be–his car has gone.
f/ Prepositions, e.g. This one is different than that one; Let’s meet at twenty o’clock/till three; Let’s meet at half after eight; They never lived on that street.

5. Australia.

a/ Past tense and past participle forms interchangeable, e.g. I seen him; He might have took it.
b/ 3rd conditionals, e.g. If I would have known . . .
c/ Optional noun-verb concord, e.g. The committee has/have decided.
d/ Terminal but, e.g Funny old car, I quite like it but.

a/ Do more frequent in have–constructions, e.g. Do you have time today?
b/ Will I used rather than shall I in questions, e.g. Will I open the window?
c/ Present Perfect used in Simple Past contexts, e.g. I have seen it last week.

7. Canada.

a/ Mixed verbal forms, e.g. gotten, dove, lend.
b/ Prepositions and articles, e.g. They live on this street; It is different than that; They put it behind the chair; She is in hospital.
c/ Sentence-initial as well, e.g. As well, I have to do some work.
d/ Anymore used in the sense of ‘nowadays’, e.g. He complains a lot anymore.
e/ Equivalents of Present Perfect tense, e.g. He is after telling me all about it.

8. South Africa.

a/ Forms of polite refusal, e.g. Dank du.
b/ Sentence initiators, e.g. No, sure, we will do it.
c/ Omitted articles, e.g. They went to bioscope.
d/ Informal propredicates, e.g. –They got married. –Is it?
e/ Prepositions, e.g. He parked the car otherside the bridge (anderkant die brug in South African Dutch).

9. South-East Asia.

a/ Reduplication used to intensify meanings, e.g. hot, hot coffee (very hot coffee).
b/ Complementation patterns, e.g. She hesitate from using it (She hesitated to use it).

10. The Caribbean.

a/ Nouns without Saxon genitive, e.g. di uman biebi (the woman’s baby).
b/ Simplified pronouns, e.g. mi (I, me, my); you (you, your); im (he, him, his); wi (we, us, our); um (you, your); dem (they, them).
c/ SVO word order, e.g. Im no wier shuuz (He doesn’t wear shoes).
d/ Questions formed without inversion, e.g. I can?

References: