Anglická gramatika

Distanční studijní text

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Obsah

ÚVODEM

Studijní opora je určena studentům bakalářského studijního programu Angličtina pro odbornou praxi jako podpůrný studijní materiál ke kurzu Úvod do gramatiky.

Sudijní opora obsahuje:

- teoretický základ probíraného tématu s konkrétními příklady,
- kontrolní cvičení,
- klíč ke cvičením,
- seznam citované a parafrázované literatury.

Student nastuduje dané téma a vypracuje úkoly, pomocí kterých si ověří pochopení vysvětleného gramatického jevu. Po kontrolních cvičeních následuje klíč se správným řešením, díky kterému má student možnost sám vyhodnotit, zda probírané látce dostatečně porozuměl.

RYCHLÝ NÁHLED STUDIJNÍ OPORY

Kurz je koncipován tak, aby měl po jeho absolvování student spolehlivý přehled o základních pravidlech a principech anglické gramatiky. Student se v opoře dozví, jak je strukturován jazyk, co zahrnuje pojem gramatika, jak se liší preskriptivní a deskriptivní přístup ke gramatice, a co znamenají termíny *morfology* a *syntax*. Student se v opoře také dozví, jaký je rozdíl mezi *content* a *function words*, naučí rozlišovat jednotlivé slovní druhy a fráze, i anglické větné členy. Naučí se dále rozpoznávat věty podle počtu a typu vět a také podle jejich účelu. Cílem tohoto úvodního kurzu do anglické gramatiky je poskytnout základ k hlubšímu studiu jednotlivých slovních druhů, frází a vět.

1 INTRODUCTION TO GRAMMAR

QUICK OVERVIEW

The first chapter introduces the principles of English grammar. It explains the difference between standard and non-standard English, and the difference between prescriptive and descriptive grammar. The chapter further introduces the structure of language, explains the difference between morphology and syntax, and presents types and families of words together with an overview of structures of words.

AIMS

In this chapter you will

- find out what grammar is
- learn the difference between prescriptive and descriptive grammar
- find out the difference between standard and non-standard English
- learn to distinguish morphology and syntax
- learn to recognise types of words
- learn to recognise families of words
- learn to identify structures of words

KEYWORDS

prescriptive grammar, descriptive grammar, morphology, syntax, types of words, families of words, structures of words

1.1 Structure of language

One way of looking at language is considering individual building blocks of language the way we think of a building material when we are constructing a house. We start with the smallest units (bricks) and start by building the foundations of the house, then we proceed to raise the walls where we install windows and doors, and finally we cap it off with a roof.

In terms of language, the smallest units (bricks of language) are ***morphemes*** which we use to form ***words***. The part of linguistics that studies words is called ***morphology***. Words are then grouped into ***phrases*** which form ***clauses*** that can be joined to create ***sentences*** (those are the walls of our house). The part of linguistics that studies phrases, clauses and sentences is called ***syntax***. The rules that govern the way words are put together to form phrase, clauses, and then sentences is generally called ***grammar***. When we move beyond the sentence level and start forming paragraphs and then whole texts (the roof of our house), we talk about ***text linguistics***, which is then complemented by the study of meaning (***semantics***) and the study of meaning in context (***pragmatics***).

The following table shows the structure of language starting at word level and moving up to whole texts. It demonstrates how individual parts of linguistics are concerned with language on different levels and from different perspectives. Morphology is concerned with structure of words, syntax deals with arrangement of phrases into clauses and sentences (the word *syntax* comes from a Greek word meaning *order* or *arrangement*), and in text analysis linguists analyse the relationship between sentences as they are linked together to form text.

Table 1: Structure of language

text	text analysis	
paragraph	(relationships between items)	
sentence	syntax	grammar
clause	(arrangement of items)	
phrase		
word	morphology	
morpheme	(structure of items)	

The following example shows a sample analysis of a sentence. The sentence *Jack played in the garden while his mum was working.* shows a grammatical analysis starting with the syntactic analysis on sentence level, moving to the clause level, then phrase level, then it moves to morphology as it shows the difference between words and morphemes. The sentence consists of two clauses, six phrases, ten words, and twelve morphemes.

sentence   *Jack played in the garden while his mum was working.*   1

clause   *[Jack played in the garden] [while his mum was working]*   2

phrase   *[Jack] [played] [in the garden] [while] [his mum] [was working]*   6

word   *[Jack] [played] [in] [the] [garden] [while] [his] [mum] [was] [working]*   10

morpheme   *Jack play+ed in   the   garden   while   his   mum   was   work+ing*   12

1.2 Prescriptive vs descriptive grammar

Grammar can be viewed and understood from two different perspectives. Those who think of grammar as a set of rules the speakers of a language should follow in order to speak correctly or properly subscribe to the *prescriptive* approach to grammar. This approach is typically used in language classes where students are taught to use certain structures and avoid others. It is a useful tool that can help us learn a language more quickly and efficiently, especially when we view the grammatical rules as guidelines rather than a dogma.

Modern linguistics aims to provide *descriptive* grammar, that is describing language as it actually is used without saying how it is supposed to be used. Linguists make use of language *corpora* (electronically stored, searchable collections of texts), which allow them to accurately track and quantify the language people use in different types of both spoken and written texts. The descriptive approach does not consider what is correct or proper. Linguists simply observe how people speak and then try to describe the mental processes that lead to the resulting language form. Descriptive grammar also views language change as a natural process that is not to be feared or criticised.

For example, in prescriptive grammar we are told to never end a sentence with a preposition or begin a sentence with a conjunction such as *and* or *but*. Descriptive grammar notes that people, in fact, often end their sentences with a preposition and begin their sentences with a conjunction.

What follows from this is that in *prescriptive grammar* people follow the rules, whilst in *descriptive grammar* rules follow people.

1.3 Standard vs non-standard English

Standard English is a variety of English that is perceived as official and is used by governments and the media, taught in schools, and used for international communication. It concerns all areas of language: that is grammar, vocabulary, spelling, and pronunciation. Standard English is typically associated with prestige, wealth, good education and a higher social class. Every English-speaking country has its own variety of Standard English. In the UK Standard English started as a regional dialect that developed in the southeast of England. Standard American English (also called General American) generated in North Midland and Western New England. Standard English is useful as a global *lingua franca*.

Non-standard dialects have a distinct grammar, lexis and pronunciation and they vary greatly throughout regions. Those speaking *non-standard English* are often from lower classes, are more likely to have left education earlier, and have non-professional jobs. Non-standard language has historically been stigmatised and often perceived as "incorrect". Today dialects have been gradually losing their negative connotation and people

often use non-standard language as a matter of pride to demonstrate they belong to a certain social group or come from a certain area.

An example of non-standard English is the usage of double negative.

*I **ain't never** done **nothin'** like that.*
*I **don't** got **no** time.*
*There **aren't no** people coming over.*

The following example sentences demonstrate a non-standard usage of pronouns.

***Me** mum and **me** dad are very proud.*
*That's **yourn**.*
*Have **yous** gentlemen finished talking?*

The past decades have seen a reduction of differences between local accents and dialects as a result of social mobility. New linguistic features are introduced by speakers from different areas and integrated in the local dialect. Two examples of this merging effect are Estuary English, which is a compromise between Received Pronunciation and Cockney, and Multicultural London English, which is a blend of Cockney with Indian, African, Asian, and Jamaican languages, and is considered by many the new sound of London.

1.4 Morphology vs syntax

The study of language generally concerns the internal structure of words and the way words are arranged into phrases, clauses and sentences.

The branch of linguistics that studies the structure of words is called ***morphology***. The smallest unit that carries meaning is called a ***morpheme***. Morphemes form ***words***, which are seen as the basic element of language. Some words consist of one morpheme only, others have more morphemes. Morphemes that can stand by themselves as single words are called ***free morphemes***, those that do not stand on their own but need to be attached to another form are called ***bound morphemes***. Bound morphemes can be ***inflectional*** (plural *–s*, the third-person singular *–s*, the past tense *–ed*, the present participle *–ing*, the comparative *–er*, and the superlative *–est*) or ***derivational*** (suffixes like *–ish, -ous, -y, -able, -ness,* and prefixes like *im-, re-, non-, pre-*).

Df ***DEFINITIONS***

Morphology is "the study of internal structures of words" (Aarts, Chalker and Weiner 2014, 257).

Have a look at the following examples that show how words are formed by morphemes. The free morphemes in the examples are underlined.

toys = <u>toy</u> + s
painter = <u>paint</u> + er
foolishness = <u>fool</u> + ish + ness
drank = <u>drink</u> + irregular a
bookcase = <u>book</u> + <u>case</u>
precook = pre + <u>cook</u>
unimaginable = un + <u>imagine</u> + able
flowerpots = <u>flower</u> + <u>pot</u> + s

COMPREHENSION CHECK

Identify the morphemes in the words below, and decide which morphemes are free and which bound. Underline the free morphemes.

teacher
irresistible
teeth
talking
keyboard
against
disqualified
submit
careless
buses
running
unexpectedly
dislocated
bargain

ANSWERS

Identify the morphemes in the words below, and decide which morphemes are free and which bound. Underline the free morphemes.

teacher	<u>teach</u> + er
irresistible	ir + <u>resist</u> + ible
teeth	<u>tooth</u> + ee (irregular plural)
talking	<u>talk</u> + ing
keyboard	<u>key</u> + <u>board</u>

against	<u>against</u>
disqualified	dis + <u>qualifi</u> + ed
submit	<u>submit</u>
careless	<u>care</u> + less
buses	<u>bus</u> + es
running	<u>run</u>+ning
unexpectedly	un+<u>expect</u>+ed+ly
dislocated	dis+<u>locat</u>+ed
bargain	<u>bargain</u>

The branch of linguistics that studies the way words are arranged into larger units of language is called *syntax*. Syntax deals with grammatical relations between words and other units within the sentence, it deals with word order and sentence formation. Unlike words, sentences are not finite in numbers and are not learnt individually. Speakers combine words and group them together following the grammatical principles to produce language.

The basic unit in syntax is a *phrase*. A phrase can be one word only, or it can be a group of words that stay together when moved within a sentence. Phrases are joined together to form *clauses*, which are units of grammar that stand higher than a phrase, but lower than a sentence. A clause typically has its own subject and verb and can stand on its own (in which case it is called a sentence), or it can be a part of a larger sentence. A *sentence* is the largest unit in grammar, it can consist of one or more clauses.

The following example demonstrates the difference between the clause and sentence. The example sentence has two clauses (one main and one subordinate). The main clause (*the dog barked at him.*) can stand on its own and can therefore also function as a sentence. The subordinate clause (*When the man broke into the house*) depends on the main clause, it cannot stand on its own as it does not provide a complete thought, and cannot be considered a sentence. The two clauses form a sentence with one independent (main) clause and one dependent (subordinate) clause.

When the man broke into the house = **subordinate clause**

} **sentence**

the dog barked at him. = **main clause**

Syntax is "the study of the structure of sentences through the arrangement of words into phrases, phrases into clauses, and clauses into sentences" (Aarts, Chalker and Weiner 2014, 409).

1.5 Types of words

We can look at words from different perspectives. One way is considering possible senses of the term word.

- ***Orthographic words*** are words as we know them from written language. These are words on paper in books, magazines or newspapers, or words we read on product packaging, advertisement notices, or words we can read on the internet or in word processors. They can be typed or hand-written and they have spaces in between them to indicate the beginning and end of individual words.
- ***Grammatical words*** are words that fall into grammatical word classes (also called parts of speech). The orthographic word *leaves* can be either a verb (in the 3rd person singular) or a noun (the plural of *leaf*). In this course we deal with words from the grammatical perspective.
- ***Lexemes*** are words that share the same meaning, similar form, and are of the same word class. The word *leave*, *leaves*, *left*, and *leaving* are all members of the same verb lexeme *leave*. We know lexemes as entries in dictionaries.

Each time a word appears in a spoken or written text, we call it a ***token***. When the same word is repeated, we call it ***type***. An article in the newspaper may have the total number of 1,000 words (tokens), but only 400 unique occurrences (types), because certain words appear in the text more than once. The following sentence has 9 tokens, but only 7 types, because the article a and the word *wine* are repeated.

A good wine is a wine that you like.   9 tokens, 7 types

1.6 Families of words

Words can be grouped into families according to their main function and their grammatical behaviour.

1.6.1 CONTENT WORDS

Content words (also called *lexical words*) are the main carriers of information and meaning in a sentence. Content words are the most numerous words of all the word families. They include these word classes:

- nouns   e.g. *boy, horse, book, love, water, education*
- lexical verbs   e.g. *live, say, go, work, smile, help, consider*
- adjectives   e.g. *easy, tired, beautiful, fashionable, unique*
- adverbs   e.g. *quickly, happily, daily, clockwise, upwards*

Content words often have a complex structure, they consist of more morphemes. They are generally the words that are stressed most in speech. Content words are referred to as *open class* words, because we can add new words to these classes.

Every year the Oxford English Dictionary announces the word of the year, which is a word that has attracted a great deal of interest and was used extensively in the given year, often reflecting a new life reality. To name a few, the word of the year in 2009 was *unfriend*, in 2013 it was *selfie*, in 2014 *vape*, and in 2016 it was the term *post-truth*.

1.6.2 FUNCTION WORDS

Function words are words that do not have a clear lexical meaning but they have a grammatical function, they help express grammatical relationships among other words in a sentence. In this respect they are just as important as content words. Their job is to signal structural relationships and help hold sentences together. Function words are:

- articles   *a, an, the*
- auxiliary verbs   e.g. *do, be, have, must, can, should*
- pronouns   e.g. *he, she, them, us, myself, every, all, some, this, who, any*
- prepositions   e.g. *from, into, on, out of*
- conjunctions   e.g. *and, or, but, because, when, while*

Function words form a *closed class*, which means that it is very uncommon for a new function words to be created. There are only about 150 function words in English. Although they are small in numbers, they are used at a very high rate and make up about 50% of any English text. In fluent speech function words are typically unstressed.

COMPREHENSION CHECK

Underline the <u>content</u> words in the sentences.

1. Is it really going to rain tomorrow?

2. He spooned the ice cream into a cup and fed it to her.
3. The news apparently came as a complete surprise to everybody.
4. How many people are there in your family?
   We arrived at the station early, but waited until noon for the bus.
5. Mary has lived in England for ten years.
6. He's going to fly to Chicago next week.
7. I don't understand this chapter of the book.
8. John had eaten lunch before his colleague arrived.
9. The trees along the river are beginning to blossom.
10. Our friends called us yesterday and asked if we'd like to visit them on Tuesday.

ANSWERS ☑

Underline the <u>content</u> words in the sentences.

1. Is it <u>really</u> <u>going</u> to <u>rain</u> <u>tomorrow</u>?
2. He <u>spooned</u> the <u>ice</u> <u>cream</u> into a <u>cup</u> and <u>fed</u> it to her.
3. The <u>news</u> <u>apparently</u> <u>came</u> as a <u>complete</u> <u>surprise</u> to everybody.
4. How many <u>people</u> <u>are</u> there in your <u>family</u>?
   We <u>arrived</u> at the <u>station</u> <u>early</u>, but <u>waited</u> until <u>noon</u> for the <u>bus</u>.
5. <u>Mary</u> has <u>lived</u> in <u>England</u> for <u>ten</u> <u>years</u>.
6. He's going to <u>fly</u> to <u>Chicago</u> <u>next</u> <u>week</u>.
7. I don't <u>understand</u> this <u>chapter</u> of the <u>book</u>.
8. <u>John</u> had <u>eaten</u> <u>lunch</u> before his <u>colleague</u> <u>arrived</u>.
9. The <u>trees</u> along the <u>river</u> are <u>beginning</u> to <u>blossom</u>.
10. Our <u>friends</u> <u>called</u> us <u>yesterday</u> and <u>asked</u> if we'd <u>like</u> to <u>visit</u> them on <u>Tuesday</u>.

1.7 Structures of words

Another way of looking at words is according to the way they have been formed, that is looking at words according to their structure.

1.7.1 INFLECTION

Inflection is a change in the form of a content word that expresses a grammatical function or quality such as tense, mood, person, case, and gender. Nouns take inflections marking plural form (–s) and the genitive case ('s, s'). In verbs inflections express 3rd person singular in present tense (inflection –s), past tense (inflection –ed), past participle

(inflection –ed), and present participle (inflection -ing). Adjectives and adverbs take inflections to form comparatives (–er) and superlatives (–est).

The following table shows examples for all the word classes that take inflectional suffixes.

Table 2: Inflections by word class

Word class	Base form example	Forms with inflectional suffixes
nouns	*sister*	plural (*sisters*), genitive (*sister's, sisters'*)
verbs	*like* *do*	singular present tense (*likes, does*), past tense (*liked, did*), past participle (*liked, done*), ing-participle (*liking, doing*)
adjectives	*nice*	comparative (*nicer*), superlative (*the nicest*)
adverbs	*fast*	comparative (*faster*), superlative (*the fastest*)

1.7.2 DERIVATION

Derivation is a process of forming a new word from existing word by means of **affixation**. A new morpheme attached to the beginning of a word is called a **prefix**, a new morpheme attached to the end of the word is called a **suffix**.

While inflection does not change the part of speech of the word, the derivation process not only results in a change of meaning, but it can also create new nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Derived words can be built up using a number of different prefixes and suffixes, the new word can have several morphemes, e.g. *un+touch+able*, *ir+resist+ible*, or *industri+al+ise*.

Table 3: Examples of derivational suffixes

Word class	Suffix	Example
adjective to noun	*-ness*	*happy → happiness*
adjective to verb	*-ise* *-en*	*modern → modernise* *black → blacken*
adjective to adjective	*-ish*	*green → greenish*
adjective to adverb	*-ly*	*personal → personally*
noun to adjective	*-al* *-ful* *-les* *-ic* *-ous*	*recreation → recreational* *hope → hopeful* *price → priceless* *optimist → optimistic* *adventure → adventurous*
noun to verb	*-fy*	*glory → glorify*

verb to adjective	-able	*drink → drinkable*
	-ive	*assert → assertive*
verb to noun	-er	*work → worker*

Derivational prefixes typically do not result in the change of word class, they only change the meaning of the word. Among the few examples of derivational prefixes that change the part of speech are a- (*sleep → asleep*), be- (*friend → befriend*), or en- (*slave → enslave*).

Table 4: Examples of derivational prefixes

Prefix	Example
anti-	*antifreeze, antivirus*
co-	*co-operate, co-worker*
dis-	*disagree, disconnect, disrespect*
de-	*decode, defrost*
ex-	*ex-husband, ex-friend*
mis-	*misinform, misunderstanding*
pre-	*pre-wash, prequel*
re-	*redo, reorganise*
un-	*unsee, untie, unexpected*
trans-	*transformation, transplant*
under-	*undergo, undercut*
out-	*outdo, outperform, outsourcing*
un-	*uncover, unpack, untie*
over-	*overcook, overdone, overbook*

1.7.3 COMPOUNDING

Compounding is a process when two or more words are joined together to make one word. The component stems of a compound can be of the same word class (e.g. two nouns *news+paper*) or they may belong to different word classes (e.g. an adjective and a noun *black+board*).

Typical combinations are:

- noun+noun: *life+style, girl+friend, maid+servant, flower+pot*
- verb+noun: *cook+book, guess+work*
- adjective+noun: *blue+bird, red+head*
- noun+adjective: *water+tight*
- preposition+noun: *by+stander, after+life*
- preposition+verb: *hair+cut, snow+fall*

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Compounds are pronounced with the main stress on the first element, and they have a meaning that cannot be determined from the individual parts (e.g. *small talk* is a light informal conversation that takes place in social situations, not a talk that is small).

Compounds are typically spelt as a single word, but they can be hyphenated (e.g. *six-pack, son-in-law*) or even written as two separate words (e.g. *ice cream, middle class*). Often more than just one spelling option is acceptable (e.g. *flower pot, flower-pot,* or *flowerpot*). It is always advisable to check the correct spelling in a dictionary.

Df   DEFINITIONS

"***Inflection*** is a change in the form of a word by adding inflections in order to indicate grammatical differences of tense, number, gender, case, etc."
(Aarts, Chalker and Weiner 2014, 215).

"***Derivation*** is the formation process of forming a new lexeme by adding an affix to an existing lexeme." (Aarts, Chalker and Weiner 2014, 115).

"***Compounding*** is the word formation process of forming compound words by joining at least two independent words (bases, lexemes) together." (Aarts, Chalker and Weiner 2014, 85).

??   COMPREHENSION CHECK

Decide whether the words were formed by means of inflection, derivation or compounding.

desktop
swims
overcook
byproduct
cat's
artistic
children
greenhouse
listened
unzip
fearless
written
miniskirt
bookshop
inventive

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☑

ANSWERS

Decide whether the words were formed by means of inflection, derivation or compounding.

desktop	compounding
swims	inflection
overcook	derivation
byproduct	derivation
cat's	inflection
artistic	derivation
children	inflection
greenhouse	compounding
listened	inflection
unzip	derivation
fearless	derivation
written	inflection
miniskirt	compounding
bookshop	compounding
inventive	derivation

SUMMARY

Σ

The first chapter introduced the key terminology of the English grammar. You learnt the difference between *standard* and *non-standard English*, and the difference between *prescriptive* and *descriptive grammar*. Now you understand the terms *morphology* and *syntax* and can identify *free* and *bound morphemes*, as well as distinguish a *clause* from a *sentence*. You also know what *content* and *function words* are and you can identify them. This knowledge helps you decide where stress goes in a sentence. In the last part of the chapter you found out about different structures of words and you now know the difference between *inflection*, *derivation*, and *compounding*.

2 CONTENT WORDS

QUICK OVERVIEW

The second chapter brings an overview of a grammatical category called content words. In English the content words are nouns, lexical verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

AIMS

In this chapter you will

- learn to recognise and identify nouns
- learn to recognise and identify lexical verbs
- learn to recognise and identify adjectives
- learn to recognise and identify adverbs

KEYWORDS

content words, nouns, lexical verbs, adjectives, adverbs

2.1 Content words

In the previous chapter you have learnt about the distinction of content and function words in English. Before we look at individual parts of speech that feature content words, it is important to note that in English the affiliation of a word to a particular word class is often a rather fluid notion. What this means is that many English words can operate as various parts of speech, depending on the context in which they are used.

To demonstrate this, consider the words *table* and *fast*. Most people would identify the word *table* as a noun, and the word *fast* as an adjective. And in the following examples, they would be right.

*Helen put her cup of tea down on the bedside **table**.*
*Josh was known among his friends as a very **fast** driver.*

However, the word *table* can also serve as an adjective or a verb.

> *Let's go to IKEA this weekend, I need a new **table** lamp.*
> *They've **tabled** the motion criticising the Government for doing nothing.*

The word *fast* can have the function of an adverb, a verb or a noun.

> *This war was fought **fast** and relatively bloodlessly.*
> *I **fasted** for a day and a half following a weekeend of gluttony.*
> *The **fast** is broken at sunset, traditionally with dates and water.*

This ambiguity of words should not be seen as a disadvantage, but rather as a means to multiply the use of many words and make language more suited to our needs and wishes. We only need to remember that it is important to always consider words with regard to the circumstances in which they appear.

In the following subchapters we will set aside the issue of ambiguity and consider the general characteristics of the four content words classes from the semantic, morphological, and syntactic perspective. In other words, we will look at the individual word classes from the point of view of meaning, word structure, and the position in a phrase or a sentence.

2.1.1 NOUNS

Nouns are often defined as words that describe a person, thing, or a place. Depending whether they refer to tangible or intangible things, we classify them as concrete or abstract. ***Concrete nouns*** name people, places, animals, or things we can see or touch, or that have some physical properties (e.g. *child, plant, stone, country, dog, air, water*). A sub-category of concrete nouns are ***proper nouns***, which are nouns used for an individual person, place, or organisation (e.g. *Mary, Europe, London, Buckingham Palace, Microsoft, OSN*) and which are spelled with capital letters. ***Abstract nouns*** are nouns that refer to concepts, ideas, feelings, characteristics, attributes, and generally all things you cannot see or touch (e.g. *love, envy, truth, talent, failure, peace*).

Morphologically, nouns have inflectional suffixes that mark the plural ***number*** (mostly –s), and they can form the ***genitive case*** by adding *'s* or only the apostrophe (e.g. *sister's toy, sisters' toys*). Nouns often contain more than just one morpheme. We identify compound nouns and nouns with derivational suffixes.

- compound nouns: *bookcase, football, boyfriend, desktop, toothpaste*
- nouns with derivational suffixes: *teach+er, father+hood, friend+ship, modest+y*

Syntactically, nouns appear at the most important element of the noun phrase (e.g. *[the most important **story**]*) and as such they are often placed at the beginning of a sentence in the form of a subject. They also help form prepositional phrases (e.g. *[in the **kitchen**]*).

Content words

Identify the nouns below as concrete, abstract or proper.
reality
The White House
sleep
Fluffy
paper
thought
Madrid
humour
foot
California
Google
excitement
loyalty
coffee
Jeremy

☑ **ANSWERS**

Identify the nouns below as concrete, abstract or proper.

reality	abstract
The White House	proper
sleep	abstract
Fluffy	proper
paper	concrete
thought	abstract
Madrid	proper
humour	abstract
foot	concrete
California	proper
Google	proper
excitement	abstract
loyalty	abstract
coffee	concrete
Jeremy	proper

2.1.2 LEXICAL VERBS

Verbs indicate actions, processes, conditions, or states of people or things that happen or exist in time. Verbs play a paramount role in the structure of a sentence, without a verb the sentence is not complete. A verb is the most important element in the predicate (other elements are optional) and together with the subject it forms a full sentence.

Finite verbs show tense, person, and number. They appear both in main clauses and subordinate clauses.

> She **was sitting** on the bench outside the house.
> Does he **know** about the meeting?
> We **went** upstairs to change.

Non-finite verbs are not marked for tense, person, and number. Non-finite verbs are infinitive forms with or without to, -ing (present participle) forms, and –ed (past participle) forms. Finite verbs occur in dependent clauses that combine with independent clauses to form sentences. In such sentences reference to time, person, and number is interpreted from context or from information in the finite clause.

- to infinitive   ***To open,*** *tear the tab.*
- bare infinitive   ***Worn out*** *by heat, they stopped for a drink.*
- -ing participle   ***Looking around,*** *he noticed a letter on the desk.*
- -ed participle   *The book* ***finished****, she felt a little disappointed.*

The grammatical categories we identify are tense and aspect, which together form grammatical tense, then voice and mood.

Table 5: Grammatical classification of verbs

TENSE	present, past	tense + aspect = grammatical tense
ASPECT	simple, perfect, progressive, perfect progressive	
VOICE	active, passive	
MOOD	indicative, imperative, subjunctive	

Morphologically, we identify the base form, -s form (3rd person singular), present participle, past form and past participle. **Regular verbs** have four forms, because the past form and past participle are the same. **Irregular verbs** have from five to eight forms. The most complex irregular verb in English is the verb *be* with its eight forms: *be, am, is, are, was, were, been, being*.

Content words

Table 6: Formal classification of verbs

Form	Example	Function
base	*work, eat*	infinitive, present tense (except 3rd person sg), subjunctive
-s form	*works, eats*	3rd person sg of the present tense
present participle	*working, eating*	continuous tenses
past form	*worked, ate*	simple past tense
past participle	*worked, eaten*	passive, perfect tenses

Syntactically, lexical verbs most commonly occur on their own. Verbs act as the central part of the clause, they are typically placed after the subject and before any other elements in the clause.

COMPREHENSION CHECK

Identify the verbs in bold as either finite or non-finite.

1. She worked hard **to pass** the test.
2. I **couldn't solve** the problem.
3. The doctor **is attending** to the injured people.
4. **Finding** the door wide open, the thief walked in.
5. We had the roof **repaired** before winter.
6. Susan **has done** her homework.
7. She **doesn't like** to do anything.
8. It's easy **to find** faults with others.

ANSWERS

Identify the verbs in bold as either finite or non-finite.

1. She worked hard **to pass** the test.   non-finite
2. I **couldn't solve** the problem.   finite
3. The doctor **is attending** to the injured people.   finite
4. **Finding** the door wide open, the thief walked in.   non-finite
5. We had the roof **repaired** before winter.   non-finite
6. Susan **has done** her homework.   finite
7. She **doesn't like** to do anything.   finite
8. It's easy **to find** faults with others.   non-finite

2.1.3 ADJECTIVES

Adjectives are describing words. They describe the qualities of people, things, and abstractions (e.g. *a **smart** man, a **dirty** car, a **complicated** thought*) and can refer to qualities such as opinion, emotion, sound, taste, touch, size, weight, smell, speed, temperature, shape, distance, colour, time, material, or purpose. Most adjectives are ***gradable***, which means they can be compared and modified for the degree or level of the quality they are describing. Non-gradable adjective refer to a quality, which is already superlative (*unique, horrible*), or non-gradable (*stationary, broken, dead*).

Morphologically, gradable adjectives take inflectional suffixes –er for the comparative and –est for the superlative form. Just like nouns, adjectives often contain more than just one morpheme. They are mostly derived, but there are also compound adjectives.

- derived adjectives: *sun**ny**, live**ly**, financ**ial**, gene**tic**, comfor**table**, danger**ous**, hope**ful**, tire**less**, attrac**tive**, child**ish***
- compound adjectives: *home-made, part-time, open-minded, four-foot, last-minute*

Syntactically, adverbs occur as the most important element of an adjective phrase. Adjectives are also often used as modifiers in noun phrases. Adjectives can be used **attributively**, which means they come before a noun, or **predicatively**, i.e. they follow a verb. The typical verbs followed by adjectives are e.g. *be, become, seem, appear, feel, grow, keep, look, make, smell, sound, taste, turn*; we call these verbs linking or copular. Some adjectives can be used both in the attributive and predicative position (e.g. a *hungry man, the man is hungry*), some are only attributive (e.g. *former, latter, upper, utter*), others exclusively predicative (e.g. *afraid, alive, asleep*).

2.1.4 ADVERBS

Adverbs typically function as modifiers of the words, phrases, or even sentences they precede or follow. In the following examples the underlined words are modified by adverbs in bold.

- verbs   *She <u>was singing</u> **loudly**. She **often** <u>made</u> mistakes.*
- adverbs   *He spoke <u>rather</u> **boldly**.*
- adjectives   *You're **quite** <u>right</u>. He's **highly** <u>intelligent</u>.*
- nouns   *I bought **only** <u>bread</u>.*
- noun phrases   *I meant **quite** <u>the opposite</u>.*
- prepositional phrases *She drove us **almost** <u>to the station</u>.*
- sentences   ***Frankly**, <u>I'm tired.</u>*
  <u>*I think she's leaving*</u> ***shortly**.*

Many adverbs are formed from adjectives or nouns by taking the suffix –ly (e.g. *deeply, finally, nicely, possibly, daily, partly*). Adverbs can also be formed by combining two

or more morphemes into one word (e.g. *anyway, nowhere, furthermore, upstairs, maybe, besides, someday*).

Syntactically, adverbs occur as heads of adverb phrases. They also appear in adjective phrases where they function as modifiers. Adverb phrases often acts as adverbials in the sentence. They can be placed at the beginning, in the middle (central) position between the subject and verb, or at the end of a sentence.

Σ **SUMMARY**

In the second chapter you learnt to recognise and identify ***content words***. The word classes discussed were ***nouns***, ***lexical verbs***, ***adjectives***, and ***adverbs***. You can now distinguish concrete, abstract, and proper nouns, identify finite and non-finite verbs, and recognise adjectives and adverbs.

3 FUNCTION WORDS

QUICK OVERVIEW

The third chapter brings an overview of function words, that is determiners, pronouns, auxiliary verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, particles, and interjections.

AIMS

In this chapter you will

- learn to recognise and identify determiners
- learn to recognise and identify pronouns
- learn to recognise and identify auxiliary verbs
- learn to recognise and identify prepositions
- learn to recognise and identify conjunctions
- learn to recognise and identify particles
- learn to recognise and identify interjections

KEYWORDS

function words, determiners, pronouns, auxiliary verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, particles, interjections

3.1 Function words

We know from Chapter 1 that function words are words which have ambiguous meaning, have very little or no semantic content, and whose job is to express grammatical relations within a sentence. Unlike content words, function words represent a closed class, i.e. their number is fairly final. The following subchapters offer a survey of word classes that fall in this category, considering their meaning and syntactic role.

3.1.1 DETERMINERS

Determiners typically precede nouns and their job is to clarify or modify the meaning of nouns. They may indicate whether the noun is referring to a concrete thing or person, a

specific number or quantity, to a closer or more distant element, or how something is distributed or divided. The following table shows an overview of the most important determiners in English.

Table 7: Determiners

Determiner	Meaning	Example
Definite article	Definite article is used to refer to a specific noun.	*the*
Indefinite article	Indefinite article refers to a general version of a noun.	*a, an*
Demonstratives	Demonstratives are used to point at items, making them more specific than definite articles.	*this, that, these, those*
Possesives	Posessives are used to indicate ownership.	*my, your, his, her, its, our, their*
Quantifiers	Quantifiers indicate how much or how many of the noun(s) is being discussed.	*a few, a little, many, much, a lot of, some, any, enough*
Distributives	Distributives show different ways of looking at individuals within a group, and they express how something is distributed, shared, or divided.	*each, every, any, either, neither*
Wh- determiners	Similarly to demonstratives, wh- determiners show possession.	*which, what, whose*
Numerals	Numerals as determiners refer to an exact number or to order in a sequence.	*one, two, first, second*

3.1.2 PRONOUNS

Pronouns can substitute a noun or a whole noun phrase. Pronouns often replace nouns for the purpose of brevity and to avoid repetition. The following table presents the eight type of pronouns in English.

Table 8: Pronouns

Pronoun	Meaning	Example
Personal pronouns	Personal pronouns refer to people, animals, or inanimate objects. They may be classified by person, number, gender, and case.	*I, you, he, she, it, me, him, them*
Possesive pronouns	Possessive pronouns are used to indicate posession.	*my, your, his, yours, mine, ours*

Demonstrative pronouns	Demonstrative pronouns are used to show, indicate, or point at people or objects.	*this, that, those, these*
Reflexive pronouns	Reflexive pronouns are used to refer back to the subject of the sentence.	*myself, yourself, herself, themselves*
Reciprocal pronouns	Reciprocal pronouns are used when each or two or more subjects are acting the same way towards each other.	*each other, one another*
Indefinite pronouns	Indefinite pronouns have a general indefinite meaning.	*all, some, many, nobody, someone*
Relative pronouns	Relative pronouns are used to introduce relative clauses.	*who, whom, which, that*
Interrogative pronouns	Interrogative pronouns are used to ask questions.	*who, what, when, where, why*

3.1.3 AUXILIARY VERBS

Auxiliary verbs form two categories. In the first category belong ***primary auxiliaries*** (*do, be, have*). Depending on how they are used in a sentence, they can all act as lexical verbs as well.

As an auxiliary verb, *do* is used to form questions and negatives in the present simple and past simple tense. It is also used to emphasise the meaning of the lexical verb (e.g. *Do sit down.* or *But I did tell him about it*.) The auxiliary *do* is further used in short answers, in tag questions, and in order to avoid repetition of the same verb (e.g. *He left school earlier than I did.*)

The verb *have* as an auxiliary is used to form present perfect and past perfect tenses, be it in the positive or negative form, or in questions.

The auxiliary *be* is used to form progressive aspect of the present and past tenses, to form passive voice, and to express the modal meaning of a planned, possible, or necessary action (e.g. *The conference was to be held in June*. or *What am I to tell him?*)

The second category of auxiliary verbs are **modal auxiliaries**. Modal auxiliaries are the verbs *can, could, shall, should, will, would, may, might, must, ought to*, and some grammar books also list the verbs *need* and *dare* in this categories, often with the note that these are semi-modals rather than modals. What sets the verbs *need* and *dare* aside is the fact that they can be used as standard lexical verbs as well. For example *You don't need to come tomorrow.* has the same meaning as *You needn't come tomorrow.*

The modal verbs form a special category because they have a set of qualities other auxiliary verbs do not possess.

- Negation is formed by adding the negative particle *not*.
- Questions are formed by means of simple inversion.
- There is no –s in 3rd person singular.
- Modal verbs are used in short answers and repetitions.
- Modal verbs are followed by bare infinitives (except *ought to*).

3.1.4 PREPOSITIONS

Prepositions are function words whose job is to link words together in a sentence. They connect ideas, object, people, and time or place references. One way of looking at prepositions is that they are the glue that holds sentences together. They do this by expressing position and movement, possession, time, place, and the way an action is completed.

Most prepositions are polysemantic, which means they have more than just one meaning. The meaning is determined by the meaning of the word before which the preposition stands or on which the preposition depends.

Based on form, we identify:

- simple prepositions: *at, on, from, to, into*
- complex prepositions: *along with, as for, due to, because of, by means of, in comparison with, in front of*

Typical combinations prepositions occur in are:

- preposition + noun: *I gave the book to **Charlie**.*
- preposition + pronoun: *I gave it to **him**.*
- preposition + gerund: *He devotes his time to **reading**.*

Within a sentence prepositions are often placed at the end, especially in:

- questions *Who were you talking **to**?*
- relative clauses *This is the house I told you **about**.*
- passive constructions *Everything he said was laughed **at**.*
- infinitive clauses *He's impossible to work **with**.*

3.1.5 CONJUNCTIONS

Like prepositions, **conjunctions** also link words and phrases together, but they also join clauses to make sentences. Their job is to help build a meaningful relationship within a sentence, and also between clauses.

There are three basic types of conjunctions. **Coordinating conjunctions** join (or coordinate) two or more items that are of equal importance. In English there are seven coordinating conjunctions – *for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so*. We can remember them as a mnemonic acronym FANBOYS.

Subordinating conjunctions join an independent clause with a dependent clause. Some examples of subordinating conjunctions are *after, although, as, as soon as, because, before, even if, in order that, since, than, though, when, whenever, while*.

Correlative conjunctions are pairs of conjunctions that join words and groups of words of equal weight in a sentence. Some examples are *either...or, not only...but also, neither...nor, both...and, the...the, as...as, no sooner...than, rather...than*.

3.1.6 INTERJECTIONS

Interjections represent the most primitive type of utterance. They are very frequent in spoken and informal language. Interjections generally serve as a means of expressing feelings and emotions, whether positive (e.g. joy, pleasure, surprise, excitement) or negative (e.g. pain, anger, disappointment, disillusion).

Interjections can have two meanings:

1. **Emotional interjections** express the feelings of the speaker.

   > **Ah!** *is it you?* **Ah!** *what anguish!*
   > **Oh,** *how cold it is!*
   > **Oooops!**
   > **Wow**, *that's great!*

2. **Imperative interjections** show the will of the speaker or his order or appeal to the hearer.

   > **Hush**! *did you not hear the sound?*
   > **Oi**, *you there!*
   > **Listen**! *I didn't do it!*

Interjections can also be classified according to their origin.

1. **Primary interjections** are not derived from other parts of speech. Most of them are simple, primitive utterances, e.g. *ah, oh, eh, phew, hush, yippee, wow, ouch, ewww, hmph*.

function words

2. ***Secondary interjections*** are derived from other parts of speech. They are homonymous with the words they are derived from. Examples of secondary interjections are *well, now, here, there, come, why, dear me, fuck it, hang it,* etc.

COMPREHENSION CHECK

Identify the parts of speech in the sentences.

1. John likes the blue house at the end of the street.
2. Where is my suitcase?
3. He will practice his musical piece soon.
4. Hurray, our team has finally scored!
5. I want the house, although I know it's expensive.
6. We can certainly use your help during the ordeal.
7. Some of these stories are often discussed.
8. Jack is always watching a football game.

ANSWERS

Identify the parts of speech in the sentences.

1. *John likes the blue house at the end of the street.*
   noun, verb, determiner, adjective, noun, preposition, determiner, noun, preposition, determiner, noun

2. *Where is my suitcase?*
   adverb, verb, pronoun, noun

3. *He will practice his musical piece soon.*
   pronoun, verb, verb, pronoun, adjective, noun, adverb

4. *Hurray, our team has finally scored!*
   interjection, pronoun, noun, verb, adverb, verb

5. *I want the house, although I know it's expensive.*
   pronoun, verb, determiner, noun, conjunction, pronoun, verb, pronoun, verb, adjective

6. *We can certainly use your help during the ordeal.*
   pronoun, verb, adverb, verb, pronoun, noun, preposition, determiner, noun

7. *Some of these stories are often discussed.*
   pronoun, preposition, determiner, noun, verb, adverb, verb

8. *Jack is always watching a football game.*
   noun, verb, adverb, verb, determiner, adjective, noun

SUMMARY Σ

In the third chapter you learnt to recognise and identify ***function words.*** The word classes discussed were ***determiners***, ***pronouns***, ***auxiliary verbs***, ***prepositions***, ***conjunctions***, ***particles***, and ***interjections***.

4 PHRASE

QUICK OVERVIEW

The fourth chapter of the introductory course into grammar presents principal syntactic terms. It explains the difference between phrase and sentence and it further introduces different types of phrases (noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase, prepositional phrase).

AIMS

In this chapter you will

- learn to identify and name noun phrase
- learn to identify and name verb phrase
- learn to identify and name adjective phrase
- learn to identify and name adverb phrase
- learn to identify and name prepositional phrase

KEYWORDS

phrase, head, noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase, prepositional phrase

4.1 Phrases

A *phrase* is the basic building unit of the part of grammar called syntax. A phrase may consist of a single word or a set of words that are related within a sentence and act as a single unit. The number of words in a phrase is not limited. Unlike a sentence, a phrase does not have a subject and predicate, it is not a complete unit of utterance. A phrase serves as a component in a sentence.

For example the phrase *[in the evening]*[1] gives us information about time, but we do not know the subject (who) or the activity (what). To complete the information, we need to add more phrases.

[I] ['m seeing] [my friends] [in the evening].

The example sentence above contains four phrases, which together provide complete information about someone seeing their friends in the evening. Every phrase in the sentence provides a different type of information. Put together, all the phrases form a complete sentence that contains all the necessary information.

There are two useful techniques that can help us identify a phrase and distinguish it from other phrases. The first technique involves substituting multi-word units by a single word. When you can replace a whole set of words with a single word while keeping the sentence complete, you get your evidence that the replaced words belong to the same category and they form a phrase. This technique is called **substitution**.

1. **Substitution** = multi-word phrases can be replaced by a single word

   [*Students*] should study this material.
   ~[*You*] should study this material.

   [*All students*] should study this material.
   ~[*You*] should study this material.

   [*All the students in this class*] should study this material.
    ~ [*You*] should study this material.

The second technique that helps us identify a phrase is called the **movement test**. If it is possible to move a set of words to a different position in the sentence, it is a signal that the whole set belongs together and therefore forms a phrase. Sometimes the movement can involve a change of grammatical structure, e.g. a change from active to passive voice.

2. **Movement test** = phrase can be moved as a unit to a different position

   [*All the students in this class*] should study this material.
   This material should be studied by [*all the students in this class*].

   I'm seeing my friends *[in the evening].*
   [In the evening] I'm seeing my friends.

---

[1] In syntax we mark phrases by putting them into square brackets.

Df	*DEFINITIONS*

"A ***phrase*** is a linguistic unit at a level between the word and the clause." (Aarts, Chalker and Weiner 2014, 307).

4.2 Types of phrases

The function of a phrase depends on its construction and place in a sentence. A phrase can act as a noun, an adjective, an adverb or a preposition. Every phrase has a central element referred to as the ***head*** of the phrase. The head of the phrase is obligatory, any other elements coming before or after the head are optional.

Depending on the word class of the head, we recognise five types of phrases – noun phrase (NP), verb phrase (VP), adjective phrase (AdjP), adverb phrase (AdvP), and prepositional phrase (PP). The following table shows the five types of phrases with their heads, and gives an example for each phrase type.

Table 9: Types of phrases

Phrase type	**Head**	**Example**
Noun Phrase	noun/pronoun	*[the **students** in my class]*
Verb Phrase	verb	*[**has been playing**]*
Adjective Phrase	adjective	*[**delighted** to meet you]*
Adverb Phrase	adverb	*[very **quickly**]*
Prepositional Phrase	preposition	*[**in** the garden]*

4.2.1 NOUN PHRASE (NP)

The head of a noun phrase is either a noun or a pronoun. Often only a noun or a pronoun form the whole phrase as seen in the examples below.

*[**People**] want to be loved.*
*[**I**] am happy with the result.*
*[**Everybody**] cheered [**him**] on.*

Sometimes the phrase contains other words, for example determiners (e.g. *the, all, his, that*) or quantifiers (e.g. *first, next, many, few*).

*[**All my children**] still live at home.*

[***Both of his younger brothers***] *are in the army.*
[***Those two suitcases***] *are mine.*

When the phrase consists of either a noun or pronoun or when it includes other elements, such as articles, possessive or demonstrative pronouns, numerals, or quantifiers, we call it the ***basic noun phrase***. The elements that stand before the head are called ***determinatives***. Determinatives can further be subdivided into ***pre-determiners*** (*all, both, half, twice, double*), ***determiners*** (articles, pronouns, *some, any, each, every*) and ***post-determiners*** (numerals and quantifiers).

Table 10: Basic noun phrase

closed-system items			open-class items
DETERMINATIVES			**HEADS**
PRE-DETERMINERS	**DETERMINERS**	**POST-DETERMINERS**	
all both half twice double	the, a, an, θ my, your, his, her, their,... this, that,... whose some, any each, every	one, two, ... (cardinal numerals) first, second, ... (ordinal numerals) (general numerals) next, last, previous, ... (quantifiers) many, much, few, little, another, other, ...	nouns pronouns

[all	*the*		*answers]*
	[our	*last*	*trip]*
	[her	*few*	*friends]*
[both	*his*		*brothers]*

COMPREHENSION CHECK

Determine the elements in the basic noun phrases.

1. all those books
2. my first kiss
3. the next lesson
4. her many lies
5. his brother
6. both her sisters

DETERMINATIVE			
PRE-DETERMINER	**DETERMINER**	**POSTDETERMINER**	**HEAD**

phrase

Determine the elements in the basic noun phrases.

1. all those books	3. the next lesson	5. his brother
2. my first kiss	4. her many lies	6. both her sisters

DETERMINATIVE			HEAD
PRE-DETERMINER	DETERMINER	POSTDETERMINER	
all	*those*		*books*
	my	*first*	*kiss*
	the	*next*	*lesson*
	her	*many*	*lies*
	his		*brother*
both	*her*		*sisters*

Apart from determinatives, the phrase can also include other elements, which can be placed before or after the head. Elements preceding the head are called **premodifiers**, those following it are called **postmodifiers**.

Table 11: Complex noun phrase

closed-class items	open-class items		
DETERMINATIVE	PREMODIFIER	HEAD	POSTMODIFIER
pre-determiners determiners post-determiners	adjectives nouns participles adverbs	noun pronoun	prepositional phrases non-finite clauses finite clauses adverbs complementations
[all the	*tired*	*students*	*in this class]*
[the first		*girl*	*to help me]*
[some	*big old*	*houses]*	

Below you will find examples of premodifiers.

- adjectives   *those **big** boxes, an **important** meeting,*
- nouns   *the **university** students, a **stone** wall*
- participles   ***long-awaited** announcement*
- adverbs   *the **late** Mrs Cooper*
- others   *these **men's** clothes, his **I don't know** expression*

Below you will find examples of postmodifiers.

- prepositional phrases   *those big boxes **in the garage***
- non-finite clauses   *the students **willing to volunteer***
- finite (relative) clauses   *the students **who are willing to volunteer***
- adverbs   *many big towns **nearby***
- complementations (of adj)   *a bigger car **than that***

COMPREHENSION CHECK

Determine the elements in the complex noun phrase.
1. the other teachers at school
2. all those wooden shelves for sale
3. some truly happy memories
4. all the promises to keep
5. your old blue scarf

DETERMINATIVE	PREMODIFIER	HEAD	POSTMODIFIER

ANSWERS

Determine the elements in the complex noun phrase.
1. the other teachers at school
2. all those wooden shelves for sale
3. some truly happy memories
4. all the promises to keep
5. your old blue scarf

DETERMINATIVE	PREMODIFIER	HEAD	POSTMODIFIER
the other		*teacher*	*at school*
all those	*wooden*	*shelves*	*for sale*
some	*truly happy*	*memories*	
all the		*promises*	*to keep*
your	*old blue*	*scarf*	

phrase

4.2.2 VERB PHRASE (VP)

The head of a verb phrase is a verb. When the phrase has only one verb, the phrase is called a ***simple verb phrase***. Simple verb phrases are used to form declarative sentences in simple and simple past tenses. Negative sentences and questions with the verb be also include a simple verb phrase.

*She [**lives**] next door.*
*They [**took**] it home with them.*
*[**Were**] you there?*

Complex verb phrases are used to form interrogative or negative sentences where an auxiliary verb is needed to form the structure, or declarative sentences with a modal verb or an auxiliary verb. They are used to form present perfect and past perfect tense, and all progressive tenses, as well as sentences. Complex verb phrases may include the following structures:

- auxiliary + lexical verb
     *[**Did**] he [**warn**] you?*
     *I [**did tell**] him about it.*
- modal + lexical verb
     *I [**can't take**] it any more.*
     *We [**must send**] them a thank-you letter.*
- auxiliary have + -ed participle of a lexical verb (perfect aspect)
     *We[**'ve talked**] about many times.*
- auxiliary be + -ing participle of a lexical verb (progressive aspect)
     *Tears [**were rolling**] down her face.*
- auxiliary be + -ed participle of a lexical verb (passive voice)
     *Brokeback Mountain [**was banned**] in some countries.*
     *He [**is being interviewed**] as we speak.*

4.2.3 ADJECTIVE PHRASE (ADJP)

In an ***adjective phrase***, the head word is an adjective.

*Susan is [**happy**].   The doctor is [very **late**].   My sister is [**fond** of animals].*

The adjective phrase can be premodified, typically by an adverb.

*[extremely **disappointed**]   [absolutely **stunning**]   [rather **shy**]*

The adjective head can also take complements, typically in the form of a prepositional phrase or a *to* infinitive non-finite clause.

*[**happy** to meet you]   [**covered** in mud]   [**afraid** of the dark]*

4.2.4 ADVERB PHRASE (ADVP)

The head of an ***adverb phrase*** is an adverb. Most commonly the premodifier is another adverb.

*[very **recently**]*　　　　　　*[quite **suddenly**]*　　　　　　*[unexpectedly **late**]*

Postmodifiers of adverb phrases are quite uncommon, here are some examples:

*[**unfortunately** for him]*　　　　*[**luckily** for us]*　　　　*[**quickly** enough]*

4.2.5 PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE (PP)

Prepositional phrases are typically noun phrases with a preposition, which is why they are sometimes called prepositional noun phrases. The preposition serves as a link connecting the noun phrase to the rest of the sentence. Prepositional phrases almost always begin with a preposition.

*[**above** the kitchen sink]*　　　　*[**with** my brother]*　　　　*[**in** the morning]*

Sometimes there is a premodifier, typically an adverb.

*[straight **through** the window]*　　*[right **over** the bar]*　　　　*[soon **after** midnight]*

COMPREHENSION CHECK

Identify the types of the phrases in the brackets.
1. [My grandma] [always] [shops] [in several stores] [for the best buys].
2. [We] [often] [visited] [them] [at their summer home].
3. [Her new outfit] [was] [incredibly pricey].
4. [We] [have gotten] [a lot of rain] [lately].
5. [My younger sister] [painted] [her bedroom] [lemony yellow].

Mark the phrases by putting them in square brackets and then identify them.
1. One of our close relatives never drinks alcohol at the parties.
2. A woman in the window pleadingly cried for help.
3. She greeted the visitors respectfully.
4. His boss was extremely disappointed with the result.
5. I was driven almost mad by the whining sound.

phrase

Identify the types of the phrases in the brackets.

    NP   AdvP   VP   PP   PP

1. [My grandma] [always] [shops] [in several stores] [for the best buys].

    NP   AdvP   VP   NP   PP

2. [We] [often] [visited] [them] [at their summer home].

    NP   VP   AdjP

3. [Her new outfit] [was] [incredibly pricey].

    NP   VP   NP   AdvP

4. [We] [have gotten] [a lot of rain] [lately].

    NP   VP   NP   AdjP

5. [My younger sister] [painted] [her bedroom] [lemony yellow].

Mark the phrases by putting them in square brackets and then identify them.

        NP   AdvP   VP   NP   PP

1. [One of our close relatives] [never] [drinks] [alcohol] [at the parties].

        NP   AdvP   VP   PrepP

2. [A woman in the window] [pleadingly] [cried] [for help].

    NP   VP   NP   AdvP

3. [She] [greeted] [the visitors] [respectfully].

    NP   VP   AdjP   PP

4. [His boss] [was] [extremely disappointed] [with the result].

    NP   VP   AdjP   PP

5. [I] [was driven] [almost mad] [by the whining sound].

Σ **SUMMARY**

    The third chapter introduced the key terminology of the English grammar. You learnt the difference between *phrase* and *sentence* and you learnt to recognise and identify five types of phrases – ***noun phrase, verb phrase, adverb phrase, adjective phrase,*** and ***prepositional phrase*** – and you now know how phrases are linked to form sentences.

5 CLAUSE AND SENTENCE

QUICK OVERVIEW

The fifth chapter of the introductory course into grammar presents the principal syntactic terms clause and sentence, and it introduces the terms subject and predicate. The chapter presents different typologies of sentences from the point of view or purpose and the number and type of clauses.

AIMS

In this chapter you will

- learn to identify and name sentences according to the number and type of clauses (simple sentence, compound sentence, complex sentence, compound-complex sentence)
- learn to identify and name types of sentences according to purpose (declarative sentence, interrogative sentence, imperative sentence, exclamative sentence)

KEYWORDS

clause, sentence, dependent clauses, independent clauses, simple sentence, compound sentence, complex sentence, compound-complex sentence, declarative sentence, interrogative sentence, imperative sentence, exclamative sentence

5.1 Clause and sentence

In the previous chapters we learnt that clauses and sentences may look very similar, because they both have a subject and predicate (unlike phrases). What further complicates the situation is that a clause can sometimes act as a sentence. The difference lies in the completeness of information. While a ***sentence*** always conveys an independent meaning, a ***clause*** does not always contain a complete thought and needs to be paired up with another clause to form a full sentence. In writing a sentence always begins with a capital

letter and ends with a punctuation mark (full stop, question mark, or an exclamation point). Because a clause is often a part of sentence, it may only have one of these attributes.

Based on this notion, we distinguish two types of clauses. An *independent clause* can stand on its own as it communicates a complete meaning. The clauses that cannot stand on their own because they lack a completeness of thought are called *dependent clauses*. Dependent clauses are typically introduced by a subordinating conjunction.

Df | *DEFINITIONS*

"A *clause* is a unit of grammar which typically involves a subject – predicate relationship, and which operates at a lever lower than a sentence, but higher than a phrase." (Aarts, Chalker and Weiner 2014, 64).

"A *sentence* is the largest unit in grammar [...] often formulated in notional terms, e.g. as a set of words expressing a complete thought ." (Aarts, Chalker and Weiner 2014, 375).

5.2 Types of clauses

We now know that every clause contains a **subject** and **predicate**. Subject indicates the topic of the sentence, it consists of a noun phrase, and in declarative sentences it is typically placed at the beginning of the clause. Predicate provides a comment on the subject, it starts with a verb phrase, and it typically follows the subject.

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
The children	*baked some potatoes in the fire.*
My mother	*was a friend of hers.*
Harry	*woke up with a start.*

Sometimes, however, the predicate can precede the subject or it can be split with the subject placed in the middle as demonstrated in the following examples.

PREDICATE	SUBJECT	PREDICATE
A rere old plant is	*the ivy green.*	
But now	*all*	*is to be changed.*

5.2.1 CLASSIFICATION BY NUMBER AND TYPE OF FINITE CLAUSES

One possible classification of sentences is by the number and type of finite clauses in the sentence. We recognise simple sentences, compound sentences, complex sentences, and compound-complex sentences.

SIMPLE SENTENCE

The first type is a ***simple sentence***, which is a sentence with one main clause. The subject of the sentence can be simple (one subject) or compound (more subject referring to the same predicate).

Joe **spent** *the whole day looking for the wretched dog.*
Peter, Mary, and grandma with grandpa **sat down** *to dinner.*

A simple sentence can also have a compound predicate, that is more than one verb referring to one subject.

Helen **opened** *her diary,* **wrote down** *the date, and then* **described** *her day in a minute detail.*

A combination of a compound subject and compound predicate is also possible.

Bobby and his friends **marched** *inside and* **demanded** *food.*

COMPOUND SENTENCE

A ***compound sentence*** is a sentence with two or more independent clauses (also called main clauses) joined together by a coordinating conjunction. The ***coordinators*** in English are the conjunctions ***for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so***.

He should've been here at five **and** *he's not here yet.*
It rained **so** *we stayed home.*
She was really busy that day, **yet** *she promised to come.*

COMPLEX SENTENCE

A ***complex sentence*** is a sentence with a main clause and one or more dependent clauses (also called subordinate clauses). The clauses are joined together by **subordinators**. These are subordinating conjunctions (e.g. *as, because, since, when, after, as soon as, while, since*) or a relative pronoun (*that, who, which*).

As soon as *she opened the envelope, she knew something was wrong.*
We went to the movies **after** *we'd finished studying.*
Although *Mexico has the better football team, it lost.*

COMPOUND-COMPLEX SENTENCE

A compound-complex sentence contains three or more clauses, at least two of which are independent and one is dependent.

*I don't like dogs, **and** my sister doesn't like cats **because** they make her sneeze.*
*You can write on paper, **but** using a computer is better **as** you can easily correct your mistakes.*
*Joe went to bed early, **but** he was still tired **when** he woke up the next day.*

When it comes to punctuation, use a comma before the main clause in the sentence to avoid confusion. Using a comma before the conjunction is optional, but there is a tendency to skip the comma, especially in short sentences.

*When he handed in his homework**,** he forgot to give the teacher the last page.*
The teacher returned the homework (no comma) *after she'd noticed the error.*

COMPREHENSION CHECK

Identify the sentences as either *simple, compound, complex* **or** *compound-complex.*

1. Since we had only gone a mile from camp, we could turn back before dark.
2. Mary and Samantha arrived at the bus station early but waited until noon for the bus.
3. After the storm had passed, we went out into the fields, and I picked flowers.
4. I've brought my umbrella with me in case it rains.
5. Joe said he was so disappointed that he would not try again.
6. Do you want to go swimming tomorrow, or would you prefer to play tennis?
7. He got up, walked over to the window, and jumped out.
8. The sun is shining through the clouds, so we can go swimming.
9. You should brush your teeth before you go to bed.
10. Sarah cried when her cat got sick, but he soon got better.

ANSWERS

Identify the sentences as either *simple, compound, complex* **or** *compound-complex.*

1. complex
2. simple
3. compound-complex
4. complex
5. complex
6. compound

7. simple
8. compound
9. complex
10. compound-complex

5.2.2 CLASSIFICATION BY PURPOSE

Another way of classifying sentences is by their purpose. Depending on the purpose of the sentence, we distinguish declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamative sentences.

DECLARATIVE SENTENCES

The purpose of a ***declarative sentence*** is to make a statement, provide information, give an explanation, or convey a fact. In declarative sentences the subject typically goes before the verb. Declarative sentences may be positive or negative. In writing they are punctuated by a full stop. The declarative sentence is the most common type of sentence in English.

> *They lived happily ever after.*
> *I've never seen anything like that.*
> *My neighbour's dog chases all the cars going down our street.*

INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES

The purpose of an ***interrogative sentence*** is to ask a question, make a request, or plea for information. In interrogative sentences the verb goes before the subject, often the question starts with a wh- word (*who, what, when, where, why, how*). In writing they are punctuated by a question mark.

> *Why did she call you?*
> *Do you know where she lives?*
> *Will you help me with this?*

IMPERATIVE SENTENCES

The purpose of ***imperative sentences*** is to make a demand, give a command, instruction, or make a request. The speaker orders the hearer to act in a certain way. The request can be accompanied by *please* to make it more polite. The imperative clause can end with a full stop or an exclamation mark.

> *Never talk to me like that again.*
> *Don't touch it, it's mine.*
> *Get off the table.*
> *Have fun at the party.*

EXCLAMATIVE SENTENCES

An *exclamative sentence* expresses a strong emphatic content. It communicates emotions such as surprise, wonder, happiness, pity, or sympathy. The standard structure of an exclamative sentence is what/how + subject + verb + other elements.

> *What a silly idea!*
> *How unfortunate!*
> *What big ears you have!*

COMPREHENSION CHECK

Identify the sentences as *declarative, interrogative, imperative* or *exclamative*.

1. I can't wait for the party tonight.
2. Drop what you're doing and come celebrate with us.
3. I never saw him again after that.
4. Who are you taking to the prom?
5. Watch out for the oncoming traffic.
6. What a wonderful idea!
7. Pass the potatoes, please.
8. Why haven't you called sooner?
9. Water is composed of hydrogen and oxygen.
10. How have you grown!

ANSWERS

Identify the sentences as *declarative, interrogative, imperative* or *exclamative*.

1. declarative
2. imperative
3. declarative
4. interrogative
5. imperative
6. exclamative
7. imperative
8. interrogative
9. declarative
10. exclamative

SUMMARY Σ

The fifth chapter introduced the key terminology of the English grammar. You learnt the difference between ***dependent*** and ***independent clauses***, which helped you identify types of sentences according to number and type of clauses (***simple, compound, complex,*** and ***complex-compound***) and according to purpose (***declarative, interrogative, impera-tive,*** and ***exclamative***).

6 SYNTACTIC ELEMENTS

The sixth chapter of the introductory course into grammar presents the division of a clause into subject and predicate, then the division of predicate into individual syntactic elements (verb, object, complement, adverbial).

In this chapter you will

- learn to about the distinction between subject and predicate
- learn to identify subject
- learn to identify verb
- learn to identify three types of objects
- learn to identify three types of complements
- learn to identify five types of adverbials

subject, predicate, clause elements, subject, verb, object, complement, adverbial

6.1 Clause elements

In the previous section you learnt that a clause can be divided into *subject* and predicate. A more fine-grained classification involves the division of predicate into other syntactic elements – *verb, object, complement,* and *adverbial*. The following diagram shows this division.

<div align="center">

CLAUSE

/ \

SUBJECT   **PREDICATE**
verb (**object**, **complement**, **adverbial**)

</div>
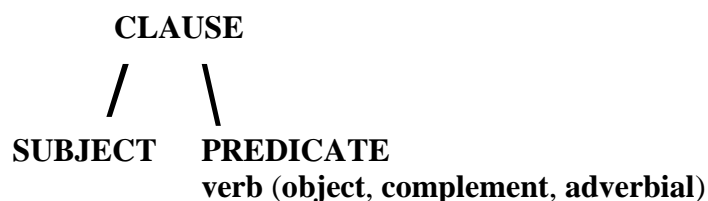
The subject and verb are the only compulsory elements, the remaining elements may or may not be present in a sentence. The example below shows three example sentences with all the clause elements present.

subject	verb	object	complement	adverbial
[They]	*[elected]*	*[him]*	*[president]*	*[at the meeting]*.
[We]	*[found]*	*[the house]*	*[empty]*	*[at last]*.
[The news]	*[made]*	*[his name]*	*[popular]*	*[at school]*.

6.1.1 SUBJECT

The ***subject*** of a sentence is traditionally said to be the topic or the 'doer' of the sentence, i.e. it tells us what the sentence is about. The subject typically comes before the verb in a declarative sentence, but inversion can take place to emphasize as demonstrated in the following examples.

> *Here's **the postman**.*
> *Never have **I** experienced such rudeness.*

Formally, the subject is most often a noun phrase, but it can also be a clause.

a) noun phrase   ***The next meeting*** *will be in March.*
                         One of my contact lenses *fell on the floor.*

b) clause
Finite clause:
        That-clause   ***That she's still alive*** *is sheer luck.*
        Nominal relative clause   ***What he needs*** *is another chance.*
Non-finite clause:
        To-infinitive   ***To know all*** *is to forgive all.*
        -ing-clause   ***Running in the rain*** *refreshes all my senses.*

In English there is also a specific category of subjects called ***dummy subject*** (or prop subject) – existential *there* and introductory *it*. *There* and *it* are not true subjects, they only signal that the subject will follow.

> ***It***'s a good idea [to book early].
> ***It***'s not surprising [that he failed].
> ***There***'s [disagreement] among experts.
> ***There***'s [coffee] in this jar.

syntactic elements

COMPREHENSION CHECK

Identify the subjects in the following sentences.

1. All parties wish to develop co-operation.
2. That he still loves her simply dumbfounds me.
3. Faint grew the sound of the bell.
4. Inside the house were two detectives.
5. It is exciting to learn new things.

ANSWERS

Identify the subjects in the following sentences.

1. **[All parties]** wish to develop co-operation.
2. **[That he still loves her simply]** dumbfounds me.
3. Faint grew [**the sound of the bell**].
4. Inside the house were [**two detectives**].
5. [It] = *dummy subject* is exciting [**to learn new things**].

6.1.2 VERB

Verb in a declarative sentence is always realised as a verb phrase. It typically takes the central position, which means it is placed after the subject, but before any other elements.

> *The next meeting **will be** in March.*
> *I **would** never **meddle** in these matters.*

6.1.3 OBJECT

Object in a declarative sentence typically follows a transitive verb (an action verb where the action is transferred onto the object). It is mostly a noun phrase, but it can also be a clause, both finite or non-finite.

a) noun phrase   *I sold **the car**.*
                          *We invited **them** over.*

b) clause
Finite:
    That-clause   *We think **that this test is unnecessary**.*
    Wh-clause   *They eat **what they can get**.*

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Non-finite:

Wh-infinitive clause	*They don't know **what to do**.*
To-infinitive clause	*She wanted **to know your e-mail address**.*
Bare inf clause	*She makes **me laugh**.*
-ing-clause	*I enjoy **singing in the choir**.*

DIRECT OBJECT (Od)

Direct object answers the question WHO/WHAT?

*I like **that restaurant**.*
*She kicked **him** in the shin.*
*They stole **a van** and then they robbed **a bank**.*

INDIRECT OBJECT (Oi)

Indirect object answers the question TO WHOM/TO WHAT? Indirect object cannot stand on its own, it always accompanies direct object.

*They handed **me** (Oi) **a pile of forms** (Od).*
*Her mother sent **her** (Oi) **a cheque** (Od).*
*Tell **the police** (Oi) **the truth** (Od).*

PREPOSITIONAL OBJECT (PrepO)

Prepositional object typically appears in combination with a direct object, but it can also stand on its own. The prepositional object always has the form of a prepositional phrase. It answers the questions TO/FOR/ON/FROM.... WHO/WHAT?

*Give **the parcel** (Od) **to him** (Oprep).*
*I base **my decision** (Od) **on your reply** (Oprep).*
*We were waiting **for Tommy** (Oprep).*

COMPREHENSION CHECK

Identify the Oi, Od, and PrepO in the following sentences.

1. You cannot teach an old dog new tricks.
2. He gave whoever opened the door a big smile.
3. Today we talked about Shakespeare.
4. He's teaching chemistry.
5. Paul gave a doll to his little sister.

☑ **ANSWERS**

Identify the Oi, Od, and PrepO in the following sentences.

1. You cannot teach [an old dog] [new tricks].	Oi, Od
2. He gave [whoever opened the door] [a big smile].	Oi, Od
3. Today we talked [about Shakespeare].	PrepO
4. He's teaching [chemistry].	Od
5. Paul gave [a doll] [to his little sister].	Od, PrepO

6.1.4 COMPLEMENT

The syntactic element **complement** gives extra information about either subject or object. Complements are usually noun phrases or adjective phrases, sometimes also adverb phrases and prepositional phrases.

SUBJECT COMPLEMENT (Cs)

Subject complement provides more information on the subject. It occurs after linking verbs (also copular verbs). Typical linking verbs are the verbs *appear, be, feel, look, seem, smell, sound, taste, become, get, go, grow, prove, turn*, etc.

>*My grandmother was **a novelist**.*
>*The leaves turned **yellow** this month.*
>*The child seemed **restless**.*

OBJECT COMPLEMENT (Co)

Object complement provides more information on the object in the clause. It typically follows the object.

>*They named him **Albert**.*
>*He painted the wall **white**.*
>*The secretary left all the letters **unopened**.*

❓ **COMPREHENSION CHECK**

Identify Cs and Co in the following sentences.

1. They painted the cottage dark brown.
2. The library was a place of retreat.
3. They accepted her as the member of the group.
4. The task seemed impossible to complete.

5. We found the guard sleeping.

Identify Cs and Co in the following sentences.

1. They painted the cottage [dark brown].   Co
2. The library was [a place of retreat].   Cs
3. They accepted her as [the member of the group].   Co
4. The task seemed [impossible to complete].   Cs
5. We found the guard [sleeping].   Co

6.1.5 ADVERBIAL

Adverbials are a peripheral elements of the clause, which means they can be freely added or removed without disturbing the grammar of the clause. Adverbials can take various positions in the sentence, they can stand at the very beginning before the subject, they can take central position (mid-position) between the subject and the verb (these are typically adverbials of frequency), or they can stand at the end of a sentence. The number of adverbials in a sentence is fairly free. Typical adverbials are adverb and prepositional phrases.

Based on the circumstances they relate to, we distinguish adverbials of:

- time (Atime)   *I'll see you **tomorrow**.*
- place (Aplace)   *Meet me **outside**.*
- manner (Amanner)   *She kissed him **sweetly**.*
- frequency (Afrequency)   *They **often** argue.*
- degree (Adegree)   *She **really** hates travelling.*

When there are more adverbials in the sentence, the standard order is the adverbial of manner, then place, and then time (e.g. *He was driving dangerously through the town last night*.) More adverbials of place in one sentence are presented in the order from a smaller to larger (e.g. *I took some great pictures in La Defense, Paris.*). Similarly, when there are more adverbials of time to be mentioned, we tend to start with a shorter period and move towards a longer period of time (e.g. *I'm having a skiing lesson at one on Friday.*) Any deviation from this standard order suggests that the last element is stressed.

?? COMPREHENSION CHECK

Identify the kinds of adverbials in the following sentences.

1. She takes the boat to the mainland every day.
2. She moved slowly and spoke quietly.
3. She shops in several stores in town.
4. You have to get back before dark.
5. We visited them at their summer home.

☑ ANSWERS

Identify the kinds of adverbials in the following sentences.

1. She takes the boat [to the mainland] [every day].   Aplace, Afrequency
2. She moved [slowly] and spoke [quietly].   Amanner, Amanner
3. She shops [in several stores in town].   Aplace
4. You have to get back [before dark].   Atime
5. We visited them [at their summer home].   Aplace

The final comprehension check of this chapter provides an exercise in which you can practise classification of all the syntactic elements.

?? COMPREHENSION CHECK

Identify the syntactic functions of the sentence elements.

1. [They] [heard] [high pitched cries] [in the middle of the night].
2. [I] [don't like] [listening] [to him].
3. [My parents] [are celebrating] [their silver wedding] [this month].
4. [How often] [do] [you] [visit] [your parents] [in Kent]?
5. [Pretty bright] [the students] [seem] [this year].
6. [Last night] [Mr Ford] [announced] [his resignation] [from the party].
7. [They] [made] [him] [a member of their gang].
8. [Luckily] [the weather] [was] [very nice] [that week].

Identify the syntactic functions of the sentence elements.

```
        S       V       Od                      Atime
1.  [They]  [heard]  [high pitched cries]  [in the middle of the night].
        S       V       Od      Oprep
2.  [I]  [don't like]  [listening]  [to him].
            S           V           Od              Atime
3.  [My parents]  [are celebrating]  [their silver wedding]  [this month].
    Afrequency    V    S    V        Od          Aplace
4.  [How often]  [do]  [you]  [visit]  [your parents]  [in Kent]?
            Cs              S       V       Atime
5.  [Pretty bright]  [the students]  [seem]  [this year].
    Atime           S           V           Od          Oprep
6.  [Last night]  [Mr Ford]  [announced]  [his resignation]  [from the party].
        S       V       Od          Co
7.  [They]  [made]  [him]  [a member of their gang].
    Amanner       S       V       Cs      Atime
8.  [Luckily]  [the weather]  [was]  [very nice]  [that week].
```

SUMMARY Σ

In the sixth chapter of the introductory course into grammar you learnt about the distinction between *subject* and *predicate*, and then you learnt to further divide the predicate into individual *syntactic elements* (***verb, object, complement, adverbial***).

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SHRNUTÍ STUDIJNÍ OPORY

Cílem této studijní opory bylo poskytnout čtenáři přehled o základních pravidlech a principech anglické gramatiky. Úvodní kapitola představila základní pojmy, jako jsou význam slova gramatika, rozdíl mezi preskriptivním a deskriptivním přístupem k mluvnici, termíny morfologie a syntax, všeobecnou strukturu jazyka, strukturu slov a skupin slov. Opora dále nabídla přehled všech anglických slovních druhů podle rozlišení *content words* a *function words*, přehled typů frází a větných členů. Cílem textu bylo poskytnout základ k dalšímu studiu anglické gramatiky.

PŘEHLED DOSTUPNÝCH IKON

	Čas potřebný ke studiu		Cíle kapitoly
	Klíčová slova		Nezapomeňte na odpočinek
	Průvodce studiem		Průvodce textem
	Rychlý náhled		Shrnutí
	Tutoriály		Definice
	K zapamatování		Případová studie
	Řešená úloha		Věta
	Kontrolní otázka		Korespondenční úkol
	Odpovědi		Otázky
	Samostatný úkol		Další zdroje
	Pro zájemce		Úkol k zamyšlení