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Semester V (Paper XI) (DSE - E15)
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Language and Linguistics

(Academic Year 2021-22 onwards)

For

B. A. Part III

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INTRODUCTION

Dear Students,

This textbook is prepared keeping in mind that you are distant learners. This course book is organized in such a way to help you study it on your own.

We hope that this book containing the Self-Instructional Material on Semester V and VI is basically learner-centered and will surely meet the needs of our dear students offering English as their special subject at B. A. Part-III. The material is designed and presented in such a way that it will encourage the students to read and enjoy the units independently. The Module writers have tried their best to present the relevant material in a simple manner, expressed in lucid, clear and easy but dignified language with suitable examples. You will find this book innovative in its approach, method and technique.

The course book offers the students opportunities for remediation, consolidation and extension of the language already learnt.

Each module is divided into sub-sections and at the end of each section, there are small tasks. You are expected to write answers on your own. Though at the end of every module, answers are given, do not look at them until you have written your own answers.

You are expected to read each sub-sections, answer the questions given in the tasks, check your answers and then go ahead. If you do this sincerely and honestly, it is hoped you will enjoy bright success.

We wish you great success.

– **Editors**

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Each Unit begins with the section Objectives -

Objectives are directive and indicative of :

1. What has been presented in the Unit and
2. What is expected from you
3. What you are expected to know pertaining to the specific Unit once you have completed working on the Unit.

The self-check exercises with possible answers will help you to understand the Unit in the right perspective. Go through the possible answers only after you write your answers. These exercises are not to be submitted to us for evaluation. They have been provided to you as Study Tools to help keep you in the right track as you study the Unit.

Module I

Language and Communication

- i) Definitions and Characteristics of Language**
- ii) Human and Animal Communication (Special reference to Hockett's 7 characteristics of language)**

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1.0 Objectives

After studying this unit you will be able to

1. understand what the language is
2. acquaint with the definitions of language.
3. understand the characteristic features of language.
4. examine the difference between human and animal communication with special reference to Hockett's Design Features.

1.1 Introduction

Linguistics is the scientific study of language. Language is a phenomenon having the concrete shape and structure. Linguists do the systematic study of the phenomenon enabling us to state some principles or theories regarding this phenomenon by examining its various components. But in order to understand what is a language, it is necessary to know the nature of language, the characteristic features of language. In this unit we are going to study language as a communication system of human beings with all its aspects.

1.2 Subject Matter – I

Definitions and Characteristics of Language

1.2.1 What is language?

Language is essentially a means of communication and it distinguishes human beings from animals. Knowing a language is to be able to speak it. It also means ability to produce and interpret meaningful sounds. Thus knowledge of language involves knowledge of the sound system of a particular language. It also requires knowledge of sound combinations and the order in which sounds occur in a word. Every language has its sound system and governing rules. Secondly, one must know the meaning producing aspect of different sounds. There are sound patterns and also sequences which suggest meaning. If we don't know a language and its rules, communication becomes only a noise.

Even though two languages have similar sounds, they differ in meaning. There is a degree of arbitrariness in the way sound and meaning attach themselves. Sometimes certain sounds suggest or echo meaning. Such words are onomatopoeic.

There are different rules of word formation. The knowledge of these rules helps us form new words. If you say that you know the language, you accept that, you can combine words and make phrases which help you also to prepare sentences. This ability of forming new sentences indicates creativity of language. The third thing to know about language is its usage. Language is ultimately a social tool for communication. Mere ability to form sentences will not help us use it socially. We must also know the situations which require a particular type of language response. Thus in other words is the context for appropriate use of language. The speaker and hearer must have common ground or common context to interpret sentences. This is also determined by cultural aspects of that language..

1.2.2 Definitions of Language

Language is a very complex human phenomenon. Linguistics is the scientific study of language, and its structure, including the study of grammar, syntax, and phonetics. Therefore, it is necessary for a linguist to know what language is. Many linguists have given their definitions of language. But all attempts to define it have proved inadequate. The definitions given by these linguists throw light upon one or other characteristic of language. Now let us see some of the well-known definitions of language.

1. **Language is primarily human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols.**

- Sapir : 'Language'

2. **Language may be defined as the expression of thought by means of speech sounds.**

Henry Sweet: 'The History of Language'

4. **A language is a symbol system based on pure or arbitrary convention, infinitely extendable and modifiable according to the changing needs and conditions of the speaker.**

R. H. Robins: 'General Linguistics'

7. **A language is a device that establishes sound - meaning correlations, pairing meanings with signals to enable people exchange ideas through observable sequences of sounds.**

R.W. Langacker: 'Language and Its structure

8. **Language is the innate capacity of native speakers to understand and form grammatical sentences.**

-Noam Chomsky

9. **Language is that human expression which is uttered out by speech organs.**

Patanjali

10. **Language is a system of conventional spoken or written symbols by means of which human beings, as members of social group and participants in its culture, communicate.**

Encyclopedia Britannica Vol. XIII

1.2.3 Basic Characteristics of Language

These definitions suggest the following characteristics of language.

1. Language and Communication:

Language is an important tool of human communication. We can express our ideas, emotions and feelings by messages framed in a particular language. We can exchange ideas through these messages. Thus human interaction depends upon our ability to put our ideas in linguistic structures.

2. Language and Speech:

We can organize sounds of a language which become vocal symbols. Thus knowledge of the sound system of a language is important. If we do not know, the sounds of a language, we can't speak it properly. We should also know how to combine different sounds of a language and form words which are meaningful.

3. Language and Creation:

Combination of different words can form phrases which lead to sentences. This capacity to make sentences with meaning is the quality of creativity of any language.

Only human beings can create any discourse as a creative result of linguistic knowledge.

4. Language and Context:

Language is used in social context. Hence, we must know exact usage of particular language in an appropriate context. Effective Communication requires knowledge of exact usage of language fit for a particular situation. Communication depends upon symbolic meaning and literal meaning of expression that we use. It is a context which determines and controls our selection of expressions. This appropriate Social context is related with choice of language

5. Language is Symbolic:

A Symbol stands for some idea or suggestion. It is an alternative to the words that we use. Word suggests concepts, objects and ideas. They are essentially symbols. The literal meaning has one to one correspondence between a word and the object or idea it stands for.

This is called denotation. Some words suggest secondary or associative meaning. This is called connotation. Thus a rose stands as a Symbol for freshness, youth and romantic ideas. Poets make use of this symbolic quality of language.

1.3 Subject Matter – III

II. Human and animal Communication Systems (Special reference to Hockett's Characteristics of language)

Communication is an essential phenomenon for life on this planet. Several factors which are social, environmental and based upon needs control communication system. It is clear that human Communication based upon language and non-verbal signals has a complex nature. In comparison with this, animal communication is less complex. Human Communication is helped by the unique feature of language .Human beings are blessed by being able to communicate with the help of language. Linguistic signals make the messages complex, for exchange between sender and receiver of messages. Human behavior depends upon complex interrelationships in society. Human beings can generate meaningful messages with the help of language. This Communication system has a dual nature of spoken and written language. Apart from this, human beings can express themselves through non-verbal signals such as, gesture, postures and other aspects of body language.

Animal Communication has its own special characteristics. Animals have their own inter- and intra-communication systems in the form of different sound Signals. Communication between bees has been studied at length. It is found that, bees have ability to communicate accurately the spot where they can find nectar or honey. These bees dance in a particular manner and create figure 8. It is suggested that, this figure indicates distance, excitement and quantity of honey found by the bee. This dance is performed near the beehive. The other worker bees also participate in this dance and thus the bees communicate direction and correct distance towards the flowers where honey is found. This is one kind of animal Communication.

In another type, a colony of bees is formed before going in search of honey in different directions. The bees fly in search of honey and bring reports. This is also a way of communication.

Animals produce different sounds such as bleating, hooting, and cooing. These are signals. Monkeys bark and smack their lips and dogs communicate by barking and snarling. These very many sounds produced by animals are means of communication but they are limited in and messages signals. Human language has a vast potential of complex messages as compared to the animal Communication.

Thus systems of animal communication are limited and depend upon vocal and gestural signals only. The vocal behavior is marked by imitation. Different birds imitate sounds which send signals. Human ability to produce sounds is superior and complex. Man can manage a number of combinations and variation of sounds to produce sequences which are meaningful. This phonetic ability which is a powerful communicative tool makes human communication meaningful and complex.

There are two levels of communication, instinctive or intuitive. This is found in all animals. Every animal instinctively responds to a sound. This kind of communication is unintentional and unplanned. This creates a pattern of behavior which communicates something. But human communication belongs to second type which is formal and conventional. Man follows different ways such as non-verbal Communication and verbal or Communication through language. This communication can take many forms, and is far superior to the instinctive animal communication system.

American linguist Charles Hockett (1916-2000) compared human language with animal Communication and devised what he calls Design Features of Language. Originally he posited 13 design feature of which, 9 features relate to primate Communication and 4 are reserved only for humans. Later he added 3 more qualities and argued that every human language has 16 characteristics. Of these 16, generally, the following 7 are discussed. These characteristics are as follows:

- 1) Arbitrariness
- 2) Duality of Structures
- 3) Productivity or Creativity
- 4) Interchangeability
- 5) Reflexivity
- 6) Displacement
- 7) Interchangeability
- 8) Cultural transmission
- 8) Discreteness

1) Arbitrariness:

Linguistic signs or words are arbitrary because the sound of a word and its meaning have no connection with each other. In animal communication the signal and the message are connected. An animal will take the pose of attacking to warn the enemy. In human Language however, there is no natural link between word and its meaning. The words are symbolic and their use is arbitrary. There is no logic behind the word and its meaning. Different languages have different words or signs for the same object or thing. It is not clear why an animal with four legs and certain qualities should be called 'dog'. Again different languages call this four legged animal by different terms: *Kuttain* Hindi, **Hund** in German, *kukkur* in Sanskrit and so on. There is an exception of certain onomatopoeic words which imitate sounds. These words have some kind of connection between sign and meaning. Coleridge uses the expression. "**Tu- whit! Tuwhoo!**" to signify whooting of a Bat, Here imitation of the sound of the Bat is suggested by the expression. So, the sign and the meaning have some connection. But such words are very few. Generally, each word indicates different a meaning and a student has to accept and memorize it when learning a

language. This arbitrariness is a special feature of every human language .It differentiates one language from another

2) Duality of Structure:

Animals have limited number of sounds and their commands. It is said that, Gorillas have 20 sounds where as, a cow has less than 10. So, there is a limit to the messages that animals send because they have very few sounds at their command. Human language on the other hand is more complex. The sounds produced by them combine with other sounds. Thus, languages are organized into dual structures or two levels simultaneously - the physical level at sounds and the abstract level of meanings.

English has 24 consonants, 20 vowels. But with the help of these, infinite number of meaningful messages can be formed. We utter certain sounds and this flow is automatically related to meaning. This duality which is also called dual articulation is the principle behind organization of human language. In animal communication each sound used in communication has a single fixed form. It cannot be broken into separate parts.

3) Productivity or Creativity:

Animal Communication has limited number of creative efforts. Animals can produce a limited range of messages. These messages cannot be used with variety of meanings. For example the bees can only communicate the place where nectar can be found. They cannot bring in other matters in their messages. In a sense, there are limitations to their creativity because, their productivity has limitations. Human language is marked by the ability to create new utterances out of their material of communication. This unlimited productivity of human language is a beautiful thing about human language. Great writers can easily exploit this quality for producing different complex messages. This meaning making activity is a special gift of human language

4) Interchangeability:

In all communication, there are two factors involved. Somebody sends a message (sender) and there is also a receiver. Communication can't be complete without this interchangeability between the messages of sender and receiver. The

roles of sender and receiver can be exchanged or interchanged. A receiver can become a sender and vice versa.

5) Displacement:

A special feature of human Communication is displacement. We can use language to think and talk about past things or things to happen in future. We can also talk about something that is hypothetical or imaginary. In animal communication, this is not possible because it is context bound. It is concerned with here and now. Human communication can range from this moment on to area of myths which are only to be imagined. Human Communication can talk about things which are not present. This property of human language is called displacement. Compared with human language, animal communication is very limited and narrow. A writer can write about the Trojan War and the fight for the sake of Helen of Troy. A modern science fiction writer can even imagine the world as it could be after 50 years. Our fiction books thus exploit this property of displacement to create literary structures. The entire world of literary fiction depends upon this ability to utilize the quality of displacement creatively.

6) Cultural Transmission:

Another important property of human language is cultural transmission. Languages acquired in a culture along with other speakers of the same language. Initially children learn language from their parents and then there are peer groups. They can also acquire language from the environment in which they live. A boy born in India but living in London can speak chaste English even though his appearance is not that of an Englishman. Language is an important element of culture. There are certain cultural presuppositions which are encoded in language. These cultural signals are automatically imbibed when one learns language. The famous American linguist Noam Chomsky proposed that, human beings are biologically programmed to acquire language. But it is also true that, one learns language by exposure to it. One generation hands down language to another. This can be called cultural transmission. A human child deprived of human society and exposed to existence with animals, will have only animal language in the form of their sounds. There will not be any touch of human communication there. This dimension brings in great variety in human communication and therefore it is an important property of language.

7) Discreteness:

Discreteness in language means that even though language is produced as a stream or flow, we can break it down into meaningful units such as discrete sounds. Again, these units can be combined in various ways to form longer units. Thus, the word 'tip' is formed by combining sounds like /t/, /i/ and /p/. When we learn a new language, we listen to the flow of speech of a native speaker of that language. First we try to focus upon separate or discrete sounds. Then gradually we learn the combination of these sounds forming words. Thus we begin discrete sounds and end with comprehension of the word pronunciation. This small set of discrete sounds and their combination to produce new words is the basic fact and characteristic of human language. Animal Communication doesn't have it. The words of a language try to capture different meanings. For example, the **words** and **wood**. The English language differentiates between voiceless or voiced vowels. This helps us to understand discreteness in the set of linguistic sounds

1.4 Check your progress

D) Answers the following questions in one word /phrase/sentence each

1. What is linguistics?
2. Who introduced the Design Features of language?
3. In any communication which two factors are interchangeable?
4. Who exploit the property of displacement to create literary structures?
5. How many sounds are there in Gorilla's sound system?
6. What is arbitrariness as a feature of human language?

1.5 Let's sum up

In this unit, we have studied that, language is an effective tool of human communication for expressing our feelings and emotions. We have to manage proper organization of sounds for articulating the meaningful words. Social context plays an important role in effective communication. The symbolic quality of language is exploited by the writers in their literary works in the form of connotative use of language. Human communication system is highly meaningful and complex system having variety of linguistic signals along with non-verbal signals. Animal

Communication on the other hand limits itself to vocal and gestural signals only. In 1960, the linguistic anthropologist Charles Francis Hockett conducted a pioneering featural study of language and introduced the **Design Features of Language**. with a specific focus on how human language can be compared to animal communication. He enlisted the specific features of human communication system as Arbitrariness, Duality of Structures, Productivity or Creativity, Inter changeability, Refleivity, Displacement, Cultural transmission and Discreteness.

1.6 Glossary and Notes

1. Linguistics: a scientific study of language
2. Phonetics: the study of speech sounds
3. Discourse: written or spoken communication
4. Social Context: the immediate physical and social setting of speech
5. Denotation: literal or primary meaning
6. Connotation: suggestive meaning
6. Non-verbal: not involving or using words or speech.
7. Gestural: related to movement of body parts
8. phonetic ability: ability to express through sounds
9. instinctive or intuitive: natural and inherent
10. conventional: usual or traditional
11. Design Features of Language: the key properties of language proposed by Charles Hockett
12. arbitrariness: based on impulse
13. duality: double
14. onomatopoeia: formation of words in imitation of the sounds
15. presupposition: the thing assumed beforehand

1.7 Exercises

D) Answer the following questions in 3 to 4 sentences each:

1. What is language?
2. What is arbitrariness?
4. How is language discrete?
5. What is interchangeability of language?
6. Explain the creativity of language.
7. How is context important in language?
8. Explain the symbolic quality of language.
9. How are speech and language related?
10. How is language a tool of communication?

II) Write short notes on the following:

1. Arbitrariness of language.
2. Duality of structure as a feature of language.
3. Productivity or Creativity of Language.
4. Interchangeability of language.
5. Displacement as a quality of language.
6. Human Language and Cultural Transmission.
7. Discreteness as a distinguishing feature of human language.

1.8 Reference Books

1. Hockett C.F. **A Course in Modern Linguistics'** Oxford & IBH Pub. Company, 1958.
2. Robins R. H. : **'General Linguistics : An Introductory Survey'**, Longman 1964.
3. Langacker R. W. : **Language and Its structure'** New York. Harcourt BraceJov, Inc. 1973

4. Verma S. K. & Krinshnaswamy N. : '**Modern Linguistics: An Introduction**', Oxford, 1992.
5. Todd Loreto: '**An Introduction to Linguistics**' Longman 1987.

1.9 Answers to check your progress

1) Answers in one word/phrase/sentence each:

1. The scientific study of language
2. Charles Hockett
3. Sender and reciever
4. The writers
5. 20
6. The sound of the word and its meaning have no connection with each other



Module II

Phonology

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2.0 Objectives

After studying this unit you will be able to:

1. understand the concepts of phonology, phoneme and allophone.
2. explain speech mechanism and organs of speech.
3. describe speech sounds with three term labels.
4. understand transcription of words and transcribe words phonetically.
5. comprehend the concept of primary word stress / accent.

2.1 Introduction

Dear students, in the previous module you have studied definitions and characteristics of language. Language is a means of communication. It displays two levels of patterning: patterns of sounds and patterns of morphemes and words. In other words, we can communicate using the spoken or the written medium. Language is a system of conventional oral and written symbols. We use a number of different speech sounds while speaking English. These speech sounds are called phonemes and the study of these speech sounds is called Phonology of English. The purpose of this unit is to introduce students to English speech sounds (phonemes) and speech mechanism and to enable them to pronounce English words properly.

2.2 Presentation of Subject Matter:

2.2.1 Section 1: Phonetic symbols, phonology, phoneme, allophones and minimal pairs :

Phonetic Symbols:

Linguistics is a systematic study of language. Phonetics is a branch of linguistics which deals with the medium of speech. It is the study of the articulation, transmission and reception of speech sounds. In English, we use 26 letters of alphabet from A to Z. It is the written form of English. However, we do not use the similar speech sounds for the particular letter or alphabet. So it is difficult to talk about speech sounds using the letters of the alphabet. Moreover, sometimes the same letter is pronounced differently in different words. For instance, the letter 'a' is pronounced in a different way in different words like- 'father', 'mate', 'cat', 'about',

'talk' etc. English has 44 phonemes or speech sounds which are further classified into: consonants, vowels and diphthongs.

Consonant Sounds

No.	Symbol	Examples
1	/p/	p age, p ump, a ppear
2	/b/	b aby, b erth , l obby
3	/t/	t able , c at, a ttack
4	/d/	d ate , l adder , d ead
5	/k/	k ey , s kill , l ock
6	/g/	g ame, a ugust , t ag
7	/tʃ/	ch alk , r itual, m atch
8	/dʒ/	j am , s uggest, j udge
9	/f/	f amily, l augh, a fford
10	/v/	v ivid , s ave, o f
11	/θ/	th ink, h ealthy, p ath
12	/ð/	th ey, m other s mooth
13	/s/	s ight , s ister , c lass
14	/z/	z oo, o zone, b irds
15	/ʃ/	sh ower, a mbition , fr esh
16	/ʒ/	v ision g arage , p leasure
17	/h/	h at , b ehind , b ehaviour
18	/m/	m ark, r emember, u niform
19	/n/	n ow, a nnoy , u nknown

20	/ŋ/	English , ankle , ring
21	/l/	last, foolish ,wall
22	/r/	real , marry ,pray
23	/j/	yes ,beauty ,few
24	/w/	wet ,swim ,away

Pure Vowels

25	/i:/	heel,see , machine
26	/ɪ/	list ,hill , minute
27	/e/	ate, dress, sentiment
28	/æ/	bat ,fact , action
29	/ɑ:/	dark ,father ,fast
30	/ɒ/	lock ,cot , wash
31	/ɔ:/	fall, cord, all
32	/ʊ/	look,should ,pull
33	/u:/	fool, wound, group
34	/ʌ/	luck , cut, couple
35	/ə/	attend,pilot, colour
36	/ɜ:/	purse ,girl , third

Diphthongs

37	/eɪ/	eight, paper, sail
38	/aɪ/	rice, like ,white
39	/ɔɪ/	toy, oil, hoist
40	/əʊ/	snow, close, low

41	/aʊ/	loud, doubt, town
42	/ɪə/	year, fear, fierce
43	/eə/	hair, stare, bare
44	/ʊə/	cure, insurance, pure

Phonetics, Phonology and Phoneme:

Linguistics is a systematic study of language. Phonetics is a branch of linguistics. It deals with the production, transmission and reception of the sounds of human speech. On the other hand, phonology is a branch of linguistics which deals with the sound system of a particular language. The selection and organization of the speech sounds in that particular language constitutes the phonology of that language. It also studies how the phonemes are combined into syllables and how the prosodic features of length, stress and pitch are organized into certain patterns. It is notable that phonology of one language can be different from the phonology of other languages.

A word can be divided into smallest linguistic units which are called as ‘Phonemes’. Every language has certain number of distinctive sound units which are called ‘phonemes’. Thus, a phoneme is a minimal distinctive sound unit of language. For example, the word ‘bat’ can be divided into the smallest linguistic units such as /b/, /æ/ and /t/. These are the smallest linguistic units which cannot be divided further. They are distinctive because they are the smallest units in the sound system of a language which can be used to differentiate meanings from one another. This means that when one phoneme is substituted by another, it produces change in meaning. Thus, /b/ and /k/ are distinctive sound units because if /b/ is substituted by /k/ in the word ‘bat’ /bæt/, it produces a change of meaning, it becomes a different word ‘cat’ /kæt/. In this way, /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /n/..... etc. are distinctive sound units and hence they are different phonemes.

Minimal Pairs

A ‘minimal pair’ is a pair of words which differ only in one sound segment. The difference in the sound can be at the initial position, in the medial or in the end of the pair. For example:

- | | | |
|----------------|------------|------------|
| 1) beat /bi:t/ | meat/mi:t/ | - /b/, /m/ |
| 2) bat /bæt/ | bet /bet/ | - /æ/, /e/ |
| 3) cut /kʌt/ | cup /kʌp/ | - /t/, /p/ |

In the same way a series of words like *pet, bet, get, set, met, net, wet* supply us with sounds which are distinctive simply by a change in the first element of the sound sequence. It gives us a list of English phonemes like /p/, /b/, /g/, /s/, /m/, /n/, /w/ which are different phonemes.

Allophones

Allophones are positional variants of phonemes. For example, the phoneme /k/ in word 'key' and 'car' at the initial position are phonetically different. The phoneme /k/ in 'key' can be fit to be a forward articulation as it is pronounced near the hard palate; whereas the phoneme /k/ in 'car' is pronounced at the back of tongue. This difference or variation in the pronunciation of the same phoneme is called 'allophone'. In the same way, the pronunciation of the phoneme 'k' in 'kill' is with a strong puff of air or aspiration which is represented by the symbol /h/ on the top of /k/. Thus 'kill' is written as [k^hɪl]. On the other hand, the phoneme /k/ in the word 'skill' is unseparated. Thus, /k^h/ in 'kill' and /k/ in 'skill' are the variants. Phonemes are enclosed in slant lines (/.../) while allophones are enclosed in square brackets. For Example, [p^h], [k^h] and [t^h] are allophones of the phonemes /p/, /k/ and /t/ respectively.

Phoneme	Allophone
/p/	[p ^h] [p]
/t/	[t ^h] [t]
/k/	[k ^h] [k]

Allophones do not bring change in meaning of a word.

Check your progress- I

Q.1. Complete the following sentences by choosing the correct alternatives:

- There are phonemes in English.

a) 26	b) 28	c) 44	d) 24
-------	-------	-------	-------

2. is the smallest unit of language.
a) Phoneme b) Morpheme c) Antonym d) Synonym
3. deals with the production, transmission and reception of the sounds of human speech.
a) Aesthetics b) Phonetics c) Mathematics d) Phonics
4. A minimal pair is a pair of words which differs from each other only in ----
---- sound segment.
a) one b) two c) three d) four
5. ----- are variants of phonemes.
a) Sounds b) Symbols c) Words d) Allophones

2.2.2 Section 2 : Speech Mechanism

The speech sounds are produced by human beings using a specific mechanism of body. It is called speech mechanism. We need an air-stream for the production of speech. The air that we breathe out is modified into speech sounds with the help of the actions of speech organs. The respiratory lung air that is the air that we breathe out is the basis for the articulation (production) of most speech sounds. Hence, the air-stream involving lung- air is called ‘pulmonic air stream’. The sounds which are produced when the air is breathed out are called ‘egressive’ sounds. The sounds which are produced when the air is taken in are called ‘ingressive’ sounds. All the English speech sounds are produced when the air from the lungs is breathed out. Therefore all the English speech sounds are ‘pulmonic egressive’ sounds.

The air that we breathe out undergoes important modifications in the upper stages of the respiratory tract before it acquires the quality of a speech sound. The respiratory system consists of the lungs, the muscles of the chest and the windpipe which is called trachea. The lungs are the spongy bodies which are made up of small sacs called ‘alveoli’. In these sacs the blood is cleaned of its carbon- dioxide and provided with fresh oxygen from the outer air. The air is supplied to alveoli by small tubes which are called ‘bronchioles’. The bronchioles come together into two large tubes which are called ‘bronchi’. The bronchi joins the trachea or the windpipe. It is through the windpipe the breathed air passes through the larynx which contains ‘vocal cords’. The vocal cords are movable. They can come closer to each other or

can be held apart. When the vocal cords are loosely held together, there is a little gap between them and the air passes through this gap making them vibrate. Such sounds are called as ‘voiced’ sounds. For example /b/, /d/, /g/, /z/ etc. When the vocal cords are held wide apart, they do not vibrate while sounds are produced. Such sounds are called ‘voiceless’ sounds. e.g. /p/, /t/, /k/ etc.

When the air stream passes through larynx it is further modified by the upper cavities of the pharynx, the mouth and the nasal cavity. The air from the lungs comes at the soft palate. The soft palate can be raised or lowered. The lowering or raising of the soft palate decides whether the sound is ‘nasal’ or ‘oral’. When the soft palate is raised the air cannot enter the nasal cavity and it goes only through the mouth cavity. Such sounds are ‘oral’ sounds. When the soft palate is lowered, the air passes through the nasal cavity. Such sounds are ‘nasal’ sounds.

The oral or mouth cavity contains the speech organs like the tongue, the palate, the teeth and the lips. The shape of the mouth cavity depends on the position of the tongue. The roof of the mouth which is called ‘palate’ is divided into three parts-the alveolar or teeth ridge which is located just behind the upper front teeth, the hard palate and the soft palate and the end of the palate is called the ‘uvula’. The tongue is the most flexible and movable organ of speech. It is divided into four parts for the sake of descriptive convenience- the back, the front, the blade and the tip. The tongue comes in contact with the parts of the palate and certain sounds are produced. Though the teeth are not active they are used in the production of the sounds like /θ/, /ð/.

The lips constitute the final orifice/opening of the mouth cavity. The lips can be held close together or far apart. The lips are used in the production of consonant sounds as well as vowel sounds. Some consonant sounds like /p/, /b/ are produced when the lips are closed tightly with complete obstruction to the air-stream. Some speech sounds like /f/, /v/ are produced when the lower lip comes closer to the upper front teeth and the air-stream passes with friction. Besides, in the production of vowel sounds, the lips are rounded, unrounded or at the neutral position. For example, in the production of the vowel sound /ɒ/ the lips are rounded, in the production of sound /e/ they are unrounded while in the production of /ə/ they are neutral.

These are the complex modifications which are made to the original air-stream by the speech mechanism.

Check your progress- II

Q.1 Complete the following sentences by choosing the correct alternatives:

1. The that we breathe out is modified into speech sounds with the help of the actions of speech organs.
a) air b) food c) water d) none of these
2. The sounds which are produced when the air is taken in are called sounds.
a) ingressive b) egressive c) comparative d) positive
3. All the English speech sounds are -----
a) pulmonicegressive b) ingressive c) glottal d) Valerie
4. When the vocal cords are held apart, ----- sounds are produced without the vibration of vocal cords.
a) voiceless b) delicate c) voiced d) hard
5. What among the following is not the part of palate?
a) the alveolar or teeth ridge b) the hard palate
c) the soft palate d) vocal cords

Q. 2 Write short notes on the following:

1. Pulmonicegressive sounds
2. Speech organs in mouth cavity
3. Oral and nasal speech sounds
4. Various positions of lips in the production of speech sounds.

2.2.3 Section 3: Organs of Speech

The air released from the lungs when we breathe out helps to produce speech sounds. With the help of various organs in our body which convert it into speech

sounds. These organs are known as ‘organs of speech’. The following diagram (Fig. 1 Source: *A Textbook of English Phonetics for Indian Students* .P.5) is a vertical cross-section of human speech organs.

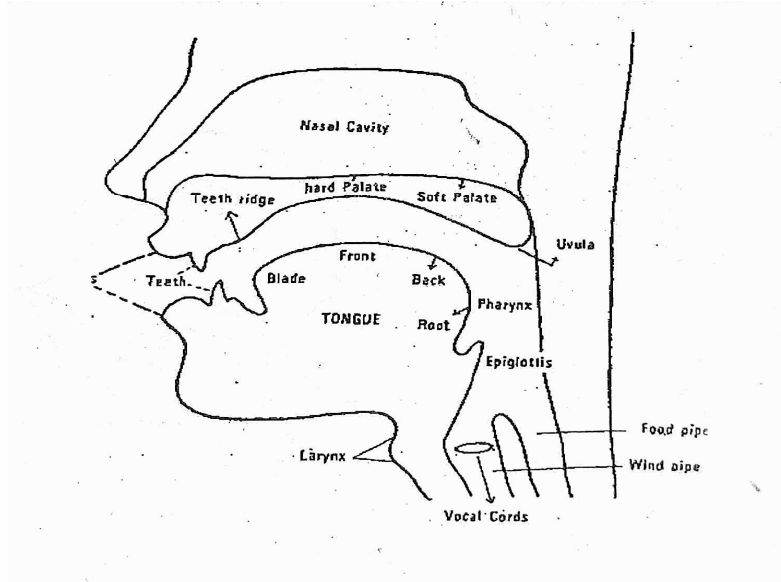


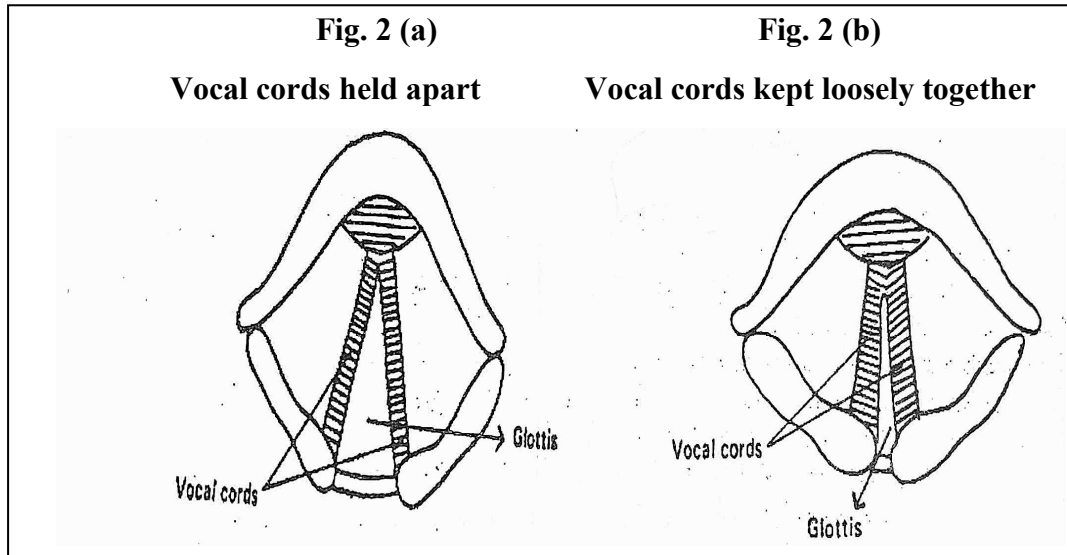
Fig.1: Organs of Speech

The organs of speech include the vocal cords, the palate, the tongue, the teeth and the lips.

Let us see how these speech organs work in the production of sounds.

The vocal cords:

The air which is released by the lungs comes up through the wind pipe or trachea and arrives at the larynx. Larynx is situated at the top of windpipe. The larynx contains a pair of lip-like small bands of elastic tissue lying opposite to each other across the air passage. These are vocal cords. They are flexible. They can be moved closer to each other or held apart. The space between the vocal cords when they are drawn apart is called ‘glottis’. Through it the air passes freely. This is the usual position when we breathe in and out`



In the production of speech sounds like /t/, /p/, /s/, /f/ etc. the vocal cords are held wide apart and the air from the lungs passes through them easily without vibration. Such ‘non-vibrated’ sounds produced with a wide open glottis are called ‘voiceless’ sounds. (See figure 2 (a))

When we produce speech sounds like /b/, /d/, /g/, /dʒ/, /m/ etc. the vocal cords are loosely held together with a narrow gap and the air from the lungs passes with pressure through this narrow gap causing the vocal cords vibrate and thus vibrated speech sounds are produced. Thus, the sounds produced when the vocal cords vibrate are called ‘voiced sounds’. (See figure 2 (b)). In this way, the vocal cords play a very important role in the production of speech sounds.

The palate:

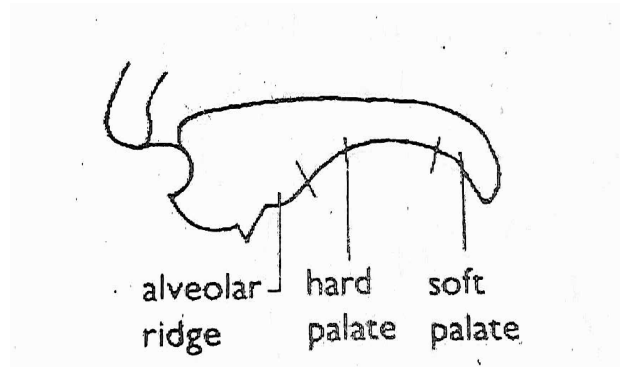


Fig. 3: The Parts of Palate

The palate, as shown in the above figure, forms the roof of the mouth and separates the mouth cavity from the nasal cavity. (See Fig. 3). It is divided into three parts for the sake of convenience. The hard, convex bony part or raised part adjacent to the upper front teeth is called the 'teeth ridge' or 'alveolar ridge'. The hard and bony concave area behind the teeth-ridge is called the 'hard palate'. There is a soft portion behind the hard palate, it is the 'soft palate'. The fleshy finger like structure at the end of the soft palate is called the 'uvula'.

The soft palate is movable as it can be raised or lowered. If raised, it touches the back wall of the pharynx and the passage into the nose is closed. It forms a firm contact with the rear wall of the mouth and this stops the breath from entering the nasal cavity. The air goes through mouth cavity only. Such sounds are called 'oral sounds' e.g. /p/, /b/, /s/ etc. If the soft palate is lowered, the passage into the nose opens and the air from the lungs passes through the nasal cavity. Thus, the sounds during the production of which the air escapes only through the nose/ nasal cavity are called 'nasal sounds' e.g. /m/, /n/ and /ŋ/.

Apart from this raising or lowering of the soft palate the whole of the palate (including the alveolar ridge, hard palate and soft palate) is used to produce certain sounds. The alveolar ridge is used when we produce sounds like /t/, /d/, /s/, /z/, /n/ and /l/. The hard palate is used in the production of /tʃ/, /dʒ/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/ and /j/. The soft palate is used in the production of sounds like /k/, /g/, /ŋ/.

The Tongue:

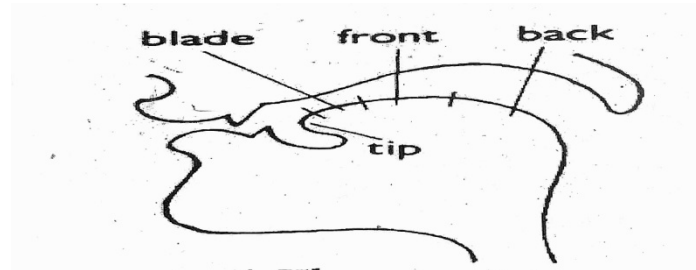


Fig. 4: The Parts of the Tongue

The tongue is the most important speech organ as it has greater variety of movement. It has a number of different positions during the production of various sounds. Although the tongue has no natural divisions like the palate, for the sake of convenience, it is divided into four parts- the tip, the blade, the front and the back. The extreme edge of the tongue is called the 'tip'. The part immediately after the tip is called 'blade'. Both the 'tip' and 'the blade' lie under the alveolar ridge during resting position. Both these parts of the tongue are particularly movable and can touch the lips, the teeth, the alveolar ridge and the hard palate. The 'front' of the tongue lies under the hard palate. Beyond the front is the 'back' of the tongue, which lies opposite the soft palate when the speech organs are at rest. These various parts of the tongue are used to produce different speech sounds.

The Teeth:

The teeth, in fact, are not active articulators. They are the passive articulators. The upper front teeth and the lower front teeth are useful in the production of speech sounds. But the two upper front teeth are used in English to produce speech sounds like /θ/ 'thin' or /ð/ in 'they'.

The Lips:

The lips can take various different positions. Both the lower and upper lips play their part to produce certain consonant and vowel sounds. The two lips are brought together so that they completely block or obstruct the mouth and then suddenly released and certain sounds like /p/ in 'put', /b/ in 'bill' or /m/ in 'meet' are produced. The lower lip is drawn inward and slightly upward to touch the upper front teeth in the production of sounds like /f/ in 'fan' or /v/ in 'van'.

The lips play an important part in the production of some vowel sounds. In the production of some vowel sounds like /ʊ/ in 'look', /ɒ/ in 'lock', etc. the lips are in round shape. This is called 'lip rounding'. The lips are said to be either rounded or unrounded as in the production of vowel sounds like /æ/ in 'bat', /e/ in 'net', /ɪ/ in 'list', etc. The lips with regular position at the time of rest is called 'neutral'.

Check your progress- III

Q.1 Complete the following sentences by choosing the correct alternatives:

1. A pair of lip-like small bands of elastic tissue lying opposite to each other in the larynx are called
a) vocal cords b) palate c) uvula d) lungs
2. Vibrated speech sounds are produced when vocal cords are
a) loosely held together b) held wide apart
c) rounded d) unrounded
3. In the articulation of nasal sounds, the is lowered and the air passes through the nose.
a) hard palate b) tongue c) upper lip d) soft palate
4. of the tongue lie under the alveolar ridge during resting position.
a) Tip b) Blade c) Both the tip and blade d) Back
5. are passive articulators.
a) The lips b) The tongue c) The vocal cords d) The teeth
6. In the production of some vowel sounds like /ʊ/, /ɒ/ the lips are in shape.
a) round b) unrounded c) neutral d) none of these

2.2.4 Section 4: Description of sounds with three term labels

In the beginning of this module you have studied that in English there are 44 speech sounds. These sounds are broadly divided into two categories- consonants and vowels. This division is based on whether the obstruction is created to the air-stream during the production of sound or not. The English language has 24

consonant sounds and 20 vowel sounds. The vowel sounds are further divided into two groups- pure vowels and diphthongs. A vowel sound is a sound in the production of which the air passes over the tongue without audible friction in the mouth while a diphthong is a union of two vowels within a syllable.

I) Description of consonant sounds

Consonant sounds are those sounds in the production of which the obstruction is created to the air-stream. These sounds are generally made by a definite interference of the speech organs with the air stream. During the production of consonant sounds the air released from the lungs escapes through mouth with friction.

The 24 consonant sounds in English are -

/p, /b, /t, /d, /k, /g, /tʃ, /dʒ, /f, /v, /θ, /ð, /s, /z, /ʃ, /ʒ, /h, /m, /n, /ŋ, /l, /r, /j, /w/

The description of these consonant sounds involves:

- a) The State of Glottis(voiced or voiceless consonant sounds)
- b) Place of articulation
- c) Manner of articulation

Let us study these points in a detailed way:

a) The State of Glottis (Voiced or Voiceless consonant sounds) :-

You have studied in speech mechanism that whether the consonant sounds are voiceless or voiced depends upon the state of glottis in the vocal cords. In the production of some consonant sounds, the vocal cords are kept loosely together and therefore they vibrate while producing sounds. Such sounds are called ‘Voiced sounds’. In the production of some consonant sounds, the vocal cords are kept apart and the glottis is widely open. Hence, they do not vibrate. Such sounds without vibration are known as ‘Voiceless’ sounds. Thus, the 24 consonant sounds are divided into voiceless and voiced in a following way:

Voiceless Consonant sounds -*/p, /t, /k, /f, /tʃ, /θ, /s, /ʃ/* and *h/*

Voiced consonant sounds- */b, /d, /g, /dʒ, /v, /ð, /z, /ʒ, /m, /n, /ŋ, /l, /r, /j/* and *w/*

b) Place of Articulation:-

Consonants can be described according to their places of articulation which refers to the organs of speech used for the production of the consonant sounds. Consonant sounds can be classified according to the place of articulation as follows:

i) Bilabial: The sounds are articulated by the two lips. The two lips (the lower and the upper lip) are used in the production of the sounds. e. g. /p/, /b/, /m/, /w/.

ii) Labio-dental: These sounds are articulated by the active articulator- lower lip and the passive articulator- the upper front teeth. e.g. /f/, /v/.

iii) Dental: These sounds are articulated by the tip of the tongue which is an active articulator and the upper front teeth which is a passive articulator. e. g. /θ/, /ð/

iv) Alveolar: The tip or the blade of the tongue and the teeth ridge are the articulators in the production of these sounds. e. g. /t/, /d/, /n/, /l/, /s/, /z/.

v) Post –alveolar: The sound is articulated by the tip of the tongue against the back of the teeth ridge. e. g. /r/

vi) Palato –alveolar: The tip or blade of the tongue is articulated against the teeth ridge .Simultaneously the front of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate. e.g. /tʃ/, /dʒ/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/.

vii) Palatal: The front of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate. e.g. /j/.

viii) Velar: The back of the tongue is raised against the soft palate which is the passive articulator. e.g. /k/, /g/, /ŋ/.

ix) Glottal: The sound is produced by an obstruction and narrowing between the vocal cords. Glottal sounds are produced at the glottis of vocal cords. e.g. /h/.

c) Manner of articulation:-

It includes the stricture involved in the articulation of consonants. The term ‘stricture’ refers to the way or manner in which the passage of air is restricted by the various speech organs. The way in which the sound is articulated is called the manner of articulation. Consonants can be classified according to the manner of articulation as follows:

I) Plosive: The two articulators come together in the mouth cavity to form a complete closure of the air pressure. The air released from the lungs is blocked at this

closure. Then the air is released suddenly with a slight explosive sound. Thus, the sound is produced with complete closure and sudden release. e.g. /p/,/b/,/t/,/d/,/k/, and /g/.

II) Affricatives: The speech organs in the mouth cavity come together to form a complete closure of the air passage in the mouth. The air pressure builds up at the closure. Then the organs are separated slowly so that friction is heard. Thus, affricate sounds are produced with a structure of complete closure and slow release. e.g. /tʃ/, /dʒ/.

III) Fricatives: The two speech organs come close to each other but there is a narrow passage between them. The air passes through this narrow passage with friction. Thus, fricatives are the sounds that are articulated with a structure of close approximation. e.g. /f/,/v/,/θ/,/ð/,/s/,/z/,/ʃ/,/ʒ/,/h/.

IV) Nasal: The two organs come together to form a complete closure in the mouth. Then the soft palate is lowered. Therefore the air escapes through the nose cavity. Thus, the sounds that are articulated with a structure of complete oral closure are called nasals. e.g. /m/,/n/,/ŋ/

V) Laterals: At some point in the mouth there is a closure or contact in the middle but the air escapes through the sides of the contact. Thus, the lateral sounds are articulated with a complete closure in the centre of the vocal tract but with the air escaping along the sides of the tongue without any friction. e.g. /l/

VI) Frictionless continuant or Rolled: There is no closure or friction but the sound has a consonantal function. The sound is produced with a structure of open approximation. e.g. /r/

VII) Semi Vowels: The sounds have a vowel glide with a consonantal function. e.g. /j/,/w/,

Consonant chart

Place →	Bilabial		Labio-dental		Dental		Alveolar		Post – Alveolar	Palato – Alveolar		Palatal	Velar		Glottal	
Manner ↓	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl	
Plosive	p	b					t	d						k	g	
Affricate										tʃ	dʒ					

Fricative		f	v	θ	ð	s	z		ʃ	ʒ				h
Nasal		m					n							ŋ
Lateral							l							
Frictionless continuant								r						
Semi- vowel		w									j			

Vl – Voiceless

Vd – Voiced

Three Term Labels-Consonants:

Consonants are described using three term labels. The three terms refer to the state of glottis (voiced or voiceless sounds), the place of articulation and the manner of articulation which you have studied above. The three term labels of consonant sounds are:

/p/ - voiceless, bilabial, plosive

/b/ - voiced, bilabial, plosive

/t/ - voiceless, alveolar, plosive

/d/ - voiced, alveolar, plosive

/k/ - voiceless, velar, plosive

/g/ - voiced, velar, plosive

/f/ - voiceless, labio-dental, fricative

/v/ - voiced, labio-dental, fricative

/θ/ - voiceless, dental, fricative

/ð/ - voiced, dental, fricative

/s/ - voiceless, alveolar, fricative

/z/ - voiced, alveolar, fricative

/ʃ/ - voiceless, palate-alveolar, fricative

/ʒ/ - voiced, palate-alveolar, fricative

/h/ - voiceless, glottal, fricative

/tʃ/ - voiceless, palate-alveolar, affricate

/dʒ/ - voiced, palate-alveolar, affricate

/m/ - voiced, bilabial, nasal

/n/ - voiced, alveolar, nasal

/ŋ/ - voiced, velar, nasal

/l/ - voiced, alveolar, lateral

/r/ - voiced, post-alveolar, frictionless continuant/rolled

/j/ - voiced, palatal, semi-vowel

/w/ - voiced, bilabial, semi-vowel

II) Description of vowel sounds

Vowel sounds are produced by voiced air passing through different mouth shapes. A vowel sound can be defined as a voiced (vibrated) sound in the production of which the air released from the lungs passes over the tongue without audible friction in the mouth. The air is not disturbed or cut off at any point. There is no closure of the air passage and no narrowing that would cause friction. There are two types of vowels in English: pure vowels/ monophthongs and mixed vowels/ diphthongs.

The 12 pure vowel sounds in English are-

/i:/, /ɪ/, /e/, /æ/, /ɑ:/, /ɒ/, /ɔ:/, /ʊ/, /u:/, /ʌ/, /ə/, /ɜ:/

We classify the English pure vowel sounds with the help of three points.

- a) Part of the tongue that is raised (front/central/back)
- b) Height of the tongue
- c) Position of the lips (rounded/unrounded/neutral)

a) Part of the tongue that is raised:-

The part of the tongue can be raised towards the palate of the mouth. Thus, there can be raising of different parts of the tongue- front/central/back. In the production of certain vowels, the front of the tongue is raised. Such vowels are called 'front' vowels. /i:/, /ɪ/, /e/ and /æ/ are the front vowels. In the production of some vowels the back of the tongue is raised. These vowels are called 'back' vowels, which are /u:/, /ʊ/ /ɒ/, /ɔ:/ and /ɑ:/. In the production of some vowel sounds, the central part of the

tongue is raised. These vowels are called the ‘central’ vowels. There are three central vowels in English. They are /ʌ /, /ə/ and /ɜ:/.

a) Height of the tongue:-

According to the degree of raising of the tongue, vowel sounds are positioned at/between four levels in the mouth cavity: close, half-close, half-open and open. The following diagram (Fig.4. Source: *A Textbook of English Phonetics for Indian Students*. P.40) shows the four different tongue positions in the production of vowel sounds. These four different positions are marked in the diagram.

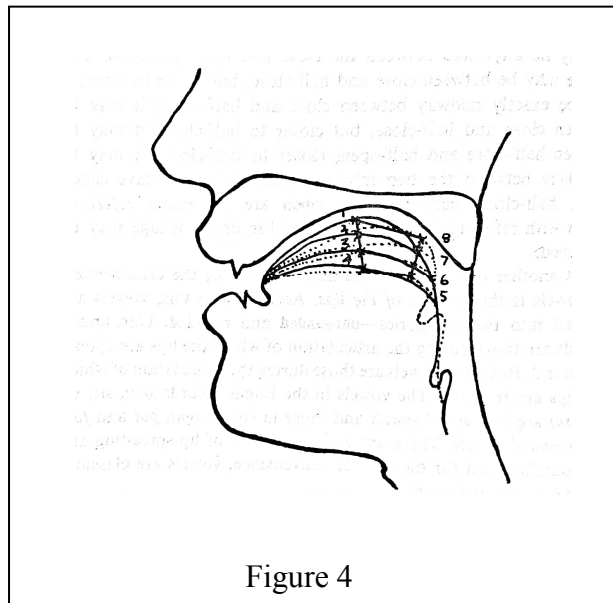
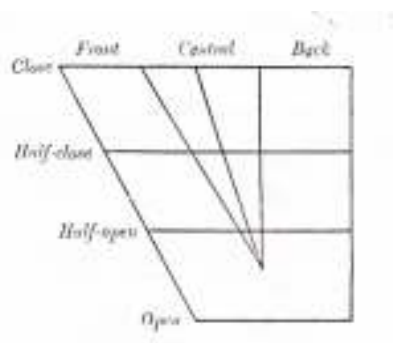


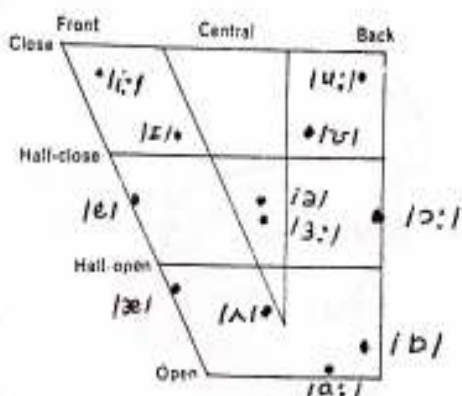
Figure 4

In the production of some vowel sounds, the tongue remains at the lowest position (see number 4). When the tongue is at the lowest position, the mouth cavity remains open. This position is called ‘open’ position. Here, the tongue is far away from the hard palate. In the production of some vowel sounds, the tongue is raised towards the palate. The front of the tongue is raised very close to the hard palate. (See number 1). Therefore, this position is called ‘close’ position. When the tongue is between the close and open position, and closer to the close position, it is called ‘half-close’ position (See number 2). When the tongue is between the close and open position, but closer to open position, it is called ‘half- open’ position (See number 3)

According to the height of the tongue and position of the lips, we get the cardinal vowel scale which is given below:



Now all the 12 vowels can be marked on the cardinal vowel scale as shown in the following diagram



b) Position of the lips (rounded/unrounded/neutral):

You have already studied above that the lips can take various different shapes. The lips play an important part in the production of some vowel sounds. In the production of vowel sounds like /ʊ/, /u:/, /ɒ/ and /ɔ:/ the lips are in round shape. This is called ‘rounded’ position. In the production of vowel sounds /ɪ, i:, e, æ, ɜ:, ə, ʌ and ɑ:/ the lips are in ‘unrounded’ position. The lips with regular position at the time of rest are in the ‘neutral’ position.

Now we can describe the English vowels with the help of three terms:

- i) Part of the tongue that is raised (front/central/back)
- ii) Height of the tongue (close, half-close, half-open, open)

iii) Position of lips (rounded/unrounded/neutral)

Now let us describe the English vowels.

1) /i: / :-

This is front vowel. During the articulation of this vowel the front of the tongue is raised towards hard palate to a position almost near close. The lips are unrounded. It can be described as a *front close unrounded vowel*.

e.g. beat/bi:t/, dream/dri:m/, free /fri:/, green/gri:n/

2) /ɪ/ :-

During the production of this vowel the rear part of the front of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate, just above the half- closed position. The lips are loosely spread. It can be described as *front, just above the half close, unrounded*.

e.g. city/siti:/, effect /ɪfekt/, stick /stɪk/, build /bɪld/

3) /e / :-

This is a front vowel. During the articulation of the vowel the front part of the tongue is raised to a position between half close and half open. The lips are loosely spread. The vowel can be described as *front, between half close and half open, unrounded*.

e.g. dead /ded/, pen/pen/, sell /sel/, fresh/freʃ/

4) /æ / :-

The front of the tongue is raised slightly below the half-open position. The lips are naturally open. It can be described as *front, just below the half open, unrounded*.

e.g. back /bæk/, action /ækʃn/, mat /mæt/, tank /tæŋk/

5) /ɑ: / :-

This is a back vowel. During the production of this vowel the back of the tongue is in fully open position. The lips are neutrally open. It can be described as *back, open, unrounded*.

e.g. card /kɑ:d/, dance /dɑ:ns/, laugh /lɑ:f/, past /pɑ:st/

6) /ɒ/ :-

During the articulation of this vowel the back of the tongue is raised just above the open position. The lips are slightly rounded. The vowel is described as *back, just above the open, unrounded*.

e.g. cost /kɒst/ sorry /sɒri/
frost /frɒst/ lock /lɒk/

7) /ɔ:/ :-

This is back vowel. The back of the tongue is raised to a position between half-open and half-close. The lips are rounded. The vowel can be described as *back, between half open and half-close, rounded*.

e.g. ward /wɔ:d/ audible /ɔ:dəbl/
August /ɔ:gəst/ board /bɔ:d/

8) /ʊ/ :-

During the articulation of this sound the front part of the back of the tongue is raised towards just above half close position. The lips are rounded. The vowel can be described as *back, just above half close, rounded*.

e.g. book /bʊk/, push/pʊʃ/,
full /fʊl/, cushion /kʊʃən/.

9) /u:/ :-

During the articulation of this vowel the back of the tongue is raised very near the close position. The lips are rounded. The vowel can be described as *back, close, rounded*.

e.g. super /su:pə/ root /ru:t/
group /gru:p/ proof /pru:f/

10) /ʌ/ :-

This is a central vowel. During the articulation of this vowel the central part of the tongue is raised to a height just above the open position. The lips are neutrally open. The vowel can be described as *central, just above open, unrounded*.

e.g. cut /kʌt/ duck /dʌk/
uncle /ʌŋkl/ shut /ʃʌt/

11) /ɜ:/ :-

This is a central vowel. The central part of the tongue is raised to a height between half close and half open position. The lips are spread. The vowel can be described as *central, between half close and half-open, unrounded*.

e.g. curd /kɜ:d/ girl /gɜ:l/
person/pɜ:sən/ surface /sɜ:fes/

12) /ə/ :-

This is a central vowel. The central part of the tongue is raised just below half-open position. The vowel can be described as *central, just below half-open, unrounded*.

e.g. about /əbʊt/ father /fɑ:ðə/
ignorant /ignərənt/ human /hju:mən/.

Three Term Labels-Vowels:

We can describe the vowels using three term labels as follows:

- 1) /i:/ :- front, close, unrounded
- 2) /ɪ/ :- centralised front, just above the half-close, unrounded
- 3) /e/ :- front, between half close and half open, unrounded
- 4) /æ/ :- front, just below the half-open, unrounded
- 5) /ɑ:/ :- back, open, unrounded
- 6) /ɒ/ :- back, just above open, rounded
- 7) /ɔ:/ :- back, between half-open and half close, rounded
- 8) /ʊ/ :- back, just above half close, rounded
- 9) /u:/ :- back, close, rounded
- 10) /ʌ/ :- central, just above open, unrounded
- 11) /ɜ:/ :- central, between half-close and half-open, unrounded

12) /ə/:- central, just below half-open, unrounded

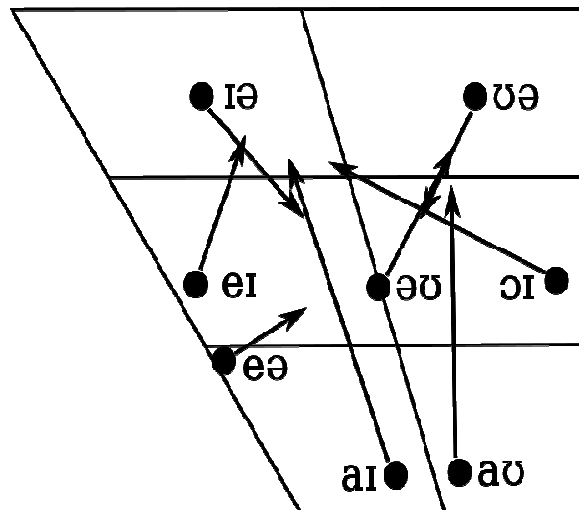
III) Description of Diphthongs/ Mixed vowels:

Diphthongs are vowel glides within a syllable. In the production of the diphthong sound, the tongue begins from a position required for the production of one vowel and moves towards another vowel within a single syllable. In diphthongs most of the length and stress is given to the first element (vowel). Thus, diphthong sounds are made up of the combination of two pure vowels where the glide begins at one element and moves towards another. That is why diphthongs are also called mixed vowels.

There are eight diphthongs in English. They are:

/eɪ/, /aɪ/, /ɔɪ/, /əʊ/, /aʊ/, /ɪə/, /eə/, /ʊə/

The following diagram represents the diphthongs in English



(Source:

https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/d/da/RP_English_diphthongs_chart.svg)

Now let us describe the diphthongs in English

1) /eɪ/ :-

13) During the articulation of this diphthong the glide begins from /e/ (front, between half-open and half-close, unrounded) and moves towards RP /ɪ/ (front, just above half-close, unrounded). The lips are spread.

e.g. play/pleɪ/ table/teɪbl/
 great/greɪt/ waist /weɪst/

2) /aɪ/:-

During the articulation of this diphthong the glide begins from/a/ (front, open, unrounded) and moves towards RP /ɪ/ (front, just above half-close, unrounded). The lips are neutral at the beginning and become loosely spread towards the end..

e.g. bright/braɪt/ white /waɪt/
 silence/saɪləns/ like /laɪk/

3) /ɔɪ/ :-

The glide for this diphthong begins at /ɔ/ (back, open and half-open, rounded) and moves towards RP /ɪ/ (front, just above half-close, unrounded). The lips are rounded in the beginning and loosely spread at the end.

e.g. boil/bɔɪl/ point /pɔɪnt/
 moist/mɔɪst/ voice /vɔɪs/

4) /əʊ/:-

During the articulation of this diphthong the glide begins at /ə/(central, between half-close and half-open, unrounded) and moves towards RP /ʊ/ (back, just above half close, rounded). The lips are neutral in the beginning and rounded at the end.

e.g. note /nəʊt/ home /həʊm/
 snow/snəʊ/ close /kləʊz/

5) /aʊ/:-

During the articulation of this diphthong the glide begins from /a/(back, open, unrounded) and proceeds towards RP/ʊ/ (back, just above half close, rounded). The lips are neutral in the beginning and rounded at the end.

e.g. house /haʊs/ found /faʊnd/
 about /əbaʊt/ mouth /maʊθ/

6) /ɪə/:-

During the articulation of this diphthong the glide begins from /ɪ/ (front, just above half-close, unrounded) and moves towards R.P./ə/ (central, between half-close and half-open, unrounded). The lips are spread during the articulation of both the elements.

e.g. cheer /tʃiə(r)/, period /pɪəriəd/, ear /ɪə/, clear /kliə/

7) /eə/:-

During articulation of this diphthong, the glide begins from /e/ (front, between half-open and half-close, unrounded) and moves towards RP /ə/ (central, between half-close and half-open, unrounded). The lips are neutral throughout.

e. g. aeroplane /eərəpleɪn/ chair /tʃeə(r)/
dairy /deəri:/ share /ʃeə(r)/

8) /ʊə/:-

During the articulation of this diphthong the glide begins at /ʊ/ (back, just above half-close, unrounded) and moves towards RP /ə/ (central, between half-close and half-open, unrounded). The lips are rounded in the beginning and spread towards the end.

e.g. pure /pjʊə/ insurance /ɪnʃʊərəns/
tour /tʊə(r)/ furious /fjʊəri;əs/

Three term labels- Diphthongs

Now let us describe the diphthongs with three term labels.

1) /eɪ/ :-

The glide begins from /e/ (front, between half-open and half-close, unrounded) and moves towards RP /ɪ/ (front, just above half-close, unrounded).

2) /aɪ/:-

The glide begins at /a/ (back, open and half-open, rounded) and moves towards RP /ɪ/ (front, just above half-close, unrounded).

3) /ɔɪ/:-

The glide starts at /ɔ/ (back, open and half-open, rounded) and moves towards RP /ɪ/ (front, just above half-close, unrounded).

4) /əʊ/:-

The glide begins at /ə/(central, between half-close and half-open,unrounded) and moves towards RP /ʊ/ (back, just above half close, rounded).

5) /aʊ/:-

The glide begins from /a/(back, open, unrounded) and proceeds towards RP/ʊ/ (back, just above half close, rounded).

6) /ɪə/:-

The glide begins from/ɪ/ (front, just above half-close, unrounded) and moves towards R.P./ə/ (central, between half-close and half-open, unrounded).

7) /eə/:-

The glide begins from /e/(front, between half-open and half-close, unrounded) and moves towards RP /ə/ (central, between half-close and half-open, unrounded).

8) /ʊə/ :-

This glide begins at /ʊ/ (back, just above half-close, unrounded) and moves towards RP /ə/ (central, between half-close and half-open, unrounded).

Check your progress –IV

Q. No. 1 Describe the following sounds giving three term labels:

/p/,/t/,/dʒ/,/tʃ/, /v/,/i/,/ei/,/aʊ/

2.2.5 Section 5: Word Transcription

As you know that in English language, there is no one to one correspondence between the letters of the alphabet and the speech sounds that they represent. One letter of the alphabet may stand for more than one sound or the same sound is represented by different letters of the alphabet. For example the alphabet ‘a’ can be represented in phonetic transcription in a different ways like ant /ænt/, laugh /lɑ:f/, about /əbəʊt/, etc. Phonetic transcription is a useful way to avoid limitation and to be more correct in pronunciation. Phonetic transcription is a way of writing words using the phonetic script. For instance, the phonetic transcription of the word ‘tax’ is /tæks/. In the same way we can transcribe ‘laugh’ as /lɑ:f/, ‘young’ as /jʊŋ/, etc.

In phonetic transcription we transcribe the word using the standard pronunciation of the word. The standard pronunciation is also known as ‘Received Pronunciation’ (RP). The transcription of words is written between two slant lines (/...../) using the phonetic script. Good dictionaries like *Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary* (Written by A.S. Hornby) and *English Pronouncing Dictionary* (Written by Daniel Jones) etc. give standard pronunciation of words with stress.

Here are some words with phonetic transcription

action /ækʃən/	admit /ədmi:t/	thank /'θæŋk/
book /bʊk/	brave /breɪv/	colour/'kʌlə/
computer /kəm'pjʊ:tə/	market/'mɑ:kɪt/	condition /kən'dɪʃən/
fashion/'fæʃən/	day /'deɪ/	decision /dɪ'sɪʒən/
academy/ə'kædəmɪ/	pocket/'pɒkɪt/	difficult /'dɪfɪkəlt/
earth /ɜ:θ/	permission/pə'mɪʃən/	examination /ɪgzæmɪ'neɪʃən/
fact /fækt/	place/'pleɪs/	freedom /'fri:dəm/
garden /'gɑ:dən/	close /'kləʊs/	mouse /maʊs/
habit /'hæbɪt/	home /'həʊm/	impress /ɪm'pres/
complete/kəm'pli:t/	because/bɪ'kɒz/	church/'tʃɜ:tʃ/
nation/'neɪʃən/	job /dʒɒb/	journal /'dʒɜ:nəl/
mistake/mɪ'steɪk/	person/'pɜ:sən/	river/'rɪvə/
habit /'hæbɪt/	paper/'peɪpə/	kind /kaɪnd/
mobile/'məʊbaɪl/	lamp /læmp/	liquid /'lɪkwɪd/
cricket/'krɪkɪt/	college/'kɒlɪdʒ/	machine /mə'ʃi:n/

Check your progress: - V

Q. 1 Give the phonetic transcription of the following words:

Message, practice, position, powder, object (N), famous, water

2.2.6 Section 6: Word stress/Accent: primary stress

We have seen how to give phonetic transcription of the words. Now let us see syllable and word accent/stress.

The syllable:

Phoneme is the smallest unit of speech. Vowels and consonants are organized into syllables to form a word. A word is made up of one or many syllables. A 'syllable' is a natural division of a word. A syllable is formed by the natural change in glide within the word. For instance, the word 'tailor' has two pauses within word tai-lor. It means that the word 'tailor' has two syllables. Similarly the word 'population' consist of four syllables- 'po-pu-la-tion'. The most important segment in forming syllable of a word is the 'vowel'. If vowels are removed from a word 'solid' we will get /sld/ which do not form a syllable. Hence, the vowel is called the nucleus of a syllable.

The words containing only one syllable are called 'monosyllabic' words. e .g. get /get /, lamp/læmp/, root/ru:t/, etc. The words containing two syllables are called 'disyllabic' words. e.g.tailor/teɪlə(r)/, father/fɑ:ð(r)/ etc. The words containing more than two syllables are called 'polysyllabic' words. e.g.relationship/rɪleɪʃnʃɪp/, examination /ɪgzæmɪneɪʃən/etc.

Word stress/Accent: primary Stress:

The syllable which is articulated with greater breath force or muscular force carries stress or accent. In other words, the syllable that is pronounced more prominently than the other or others in the same word is known as accented or stressed syllable. In English, there are several words consisting of more than one syllables. For example, the word 'examination' has five syllables- /ɪg-zæ-mɪ-neɪ-ʃən/. The forth syllable /neɪ/ is pronounced with maximum prominence. In a polysyllabic word the syllable on which pitch movement or change takes place is said to have primary stress/accent. It is also known as tonic accent. For example, in a word 'bicycle' the pitch movement is on the first syllable 'bi'. Primary stress or accent is marked with a vertical bar/'/ above and in front of the syllable to which it refers. Let us study some examples.

ad'vantage, 'calculate, de'sire, 'light

exami'nation, 'offer, 'sclupture, 'educate

It is difficult for non-native speakers of English to place the accent on the correct syllable. The second difficulty about the English word-accent is a shift in the accented syllable eg. a'cademy (N) and aca'demic (Aj).

To overcome these difficulties, here are some general guidelines about placing primary stress/accent correctly.

1) Compound words:

A compound word is a word composed of two separate words. In compounding words the primary stress/accent is generally on the first element.

e.g. 'raincoat, 'goldsmith, 'lifeboat

'schoolbus, 'postman, 'crossword

However, there are a few compound words ending with '-ever' or '-self' in which the second element receives primary stress

e.g. him'self, what'ever, when'ever

There are other compound words where both the elements are stressed but primary stress is given on the second element.

e.g. home'made, country'house, good-'looking

2) Conversion words :

There are a number of words of two syllables in which the stress pattern depends on the class of word. When the word is a noun or an adjective the stress is on the first syllable and when the word is a verb, the stress is on the second syllable

e.g.	Word	noun or adjective	verb
	absent	/'æbsənt/	/əb'sənt/
	object	/'ɒbdʒɪkt/	/əb'dʒəkt/
	perfect	/'pɜ:fɪkt/	/pə'fækt/
	produce	/'prɒdju:s/	/prə'dju:s/

3) Words with weak prefixes are stressed on the root and not on the prefixes.

e.g. a'lone, a'cross, be'cause,

4) The inflexional suffixes – *ed*, *s/es* and *ing* do not affect the stress or accent

e.g. -s/es	'match	'matches
-ed	sub'mit	sub'mited
-ing	'reason	'reasoning

- 5) The derivational suffixes – age, ance, en, er, ess, ful, hood, ice, ish, ive, less, ly, ment, ness, or, ship, ter, ure and zen do not affect the accent. Such words do not change stress in spite of addition of these suffixes.

-age	'drain	drainage
	'cover	'coverage
	'foot	'footage
-ance	a'ppear	ap'pearance
	per'form	per'formance
	'clear	'clearance
-en	'dark	'darken
	'bright	'brighten
	'fright	'frighten
-er	'read	'reader
	be'gin	be'ginner
	'fight	'fighter
-ess	'actor	'actress
	'waiter	'waitress
	'tiger	'tigress
-ful	'beauty	beautiful
	'faith	'faithful
	'truth	'truthful
-hood	'brother	'brotherhood

	'child	'childhood
	'widow	'widowhood
-ice	'coward	'cowardice
-ish	'fool	'foolish
	'green	'greenish
	'child	'childish
-iveat	'tract	at'tractive
	'act	'active
	per'mit (V)	per'missive
-less	'aim	'aimless
	'care	'careless
	'colour	'colourless
-ly	'certain	'certainly
	'day	'daily
	'true	'truly
-ment	'manage	'management
	'arrange	'arrangement
	'settle	'settlement
-ness	'bitter	'bitterness
	'good	'goodness
	'lovely	'loveliness
-or	col'lect	col'lector
	'act	'actor
	'fact	'factor
-ship	'author	'authorship
	'friend	'friendship

	'scholar	'scholarship
-ter	'laugh	'laughter
-zen	'city	'citizen

- 6) Words ending with the suffixes – ion, ity, ic, ical, ically, ial, ian, ious take the stress on the syllable preceding the suffix

-ion	'prepare	prepa'ration
	'destiny	desti'nation
	e'xtend	ex'tension
-ic	'hero	he'roic
	'patriot	patrio'tic
	'sympathy	sympa'thetic
-ical	bi'ology	bio'logical
	psy'chology	psycho'logical
	e'lectric	e'lectrical
-ous	'labour	la'borious
	'courage	cou'rageous

- 7) Words with the suffix – ee, eer, aire etc. take the stress on the suffix.

em'ploy	emplo'yee
'engine	engi'neer
'million	millio'nair

- 8) Polysyllabic words ending with suffix ‘-ity’ take the stress/accent on the third syllable from the end.

e.g. mo'rality, ca'pacity, oppor'tunity, elec'tricity.

- 9) Words ending with the suffixes al, ally, affect the stress pattern.

e.g. 'origin - o'iginal
'autumn - au'tumnal

Now, let us see some more words and their primary stress/accent.

Apology/ə'pɒlədʒi:/	international /ɪntə'næʃənəl/
backlog /'bækləg/	present (N)/'prezənt/
object (V) /ə'bdʒekt/	contact (N) /'kɒntækt/
beaker /'bi:ke(r)/	beautiful /'bjʊ:təfəl/
bouquet /bu'keɪ/	alone /ə'ləʊn/
cement/sɪ'ment/	chalkboard /'tʃɔ:kbɔ:d/
prevention/prɪ'venʃən/	application /æplɪ'keɪʃən/
entry /'entri/	estate/'ɪsteɪt/
private/'praɪvɪt/	breakfast/'brekfəst/
circular /sɜ:kjələ/	advice/əd'vaɪs/
faithful /'feɪθfəl/	contradiction /kɒntrə'dɪkʃən/
interest /'ɪntrəst/	measure/'meʒə/
commerce/'kɒmɜ:s/	everywhere /'evri:hweə/
finger /'fɪŋgə/	ground /'grəʊnd/
journey /'dʒɜ:ni:/	satisfaction /sætɪs'fækʃən/

Check your progress- VI

Q.1 Mark the following words with the primary stress /accent:

footprint, perfect (V), solid, factory, faceless, target

2.3 Summary

Language is a system of conventional oral and written signals. We use a number of different speech sounds while speaking English. These speech sounds are called phonemes and the study of these speech sounds is called Phonology. A phoneme is a minimal distinctive sound unit of language. While 'minimal pair' is a pair of words which differ only in one sound segment. The variants in a phoneme is allophones. We have also studied the concepts of phonetics and phonology. Phonetics deals with

the production, transmission and reception of the sounds of human speech while phonology deals with the sound system, as well as different patterns of sounds in a particular language. You have also studied how speech mechanism works. The organs which are used for the production of speech sounds are called organs of speech. The speech organs like the vocal cords, the palate, the tongue, the teeth, the lips are active articulators. You have studied in detail the description of speech sounds with three term labels as well as phonetic transcription of words. A word is made up of one or many syllables. A 'syllable' is a natural division of a word. A syllable is formed by the natural change in glide within the word. The syllable which is articulated with greater breath force or muscular force is called stress or accent. In a polysyllabic word the syllable on which pitch movement or change takes place is said to have primary stress/accent.

2.4 Terms to Remember

1. **Phonology** : a branch of linguistics which studies the sound system of a particular language.
2. **Phoneme** : minimal distinctive sound unit of language
3. **Consonant** : sounds in the production of which the obstructions is created to the air released from lungs.
4. **Vowel** : a voiced sound in the production of which the air passes out without obstruction or friction in the mouth.
5. **Diphthong** : union of two vowel sounds where the glide begins from one position and moves towards another vowel position in the mouth cavity.
6. **Syllable** : minimum rhythmic unit of spoken language consisting of a vowel often preceded or followed by consonants
7. **Primary stress** : the syllable on which pitch movement/change takes place
8. **RP**: Received Pronunciation or standard pronunciation.

2.5 Answers to Check Your Progress

Check your progress- I

Q.1 Complete the following sentences by choosing the correct alternatives:

1. c) 44

2. a) Phoneme
3. b) Phonetics
4. a) one
5. d) Allophones

Check your progress- II

Q.1 Complete the following sentences by choosing the correct alternatives:

1. a) air
2. a) ingressive
3. a) Pulmonic egressive
4. a) Voiceless
5. d) vocal cords

Check your progress- III

Q.1 Complete the following sentences by choosing the correct alternatives:

1. a) vocal cords
2. a) loosely held together
3. d) soft palate
4. c) Both the tip and blade
5. d) The teeth
6. a) round

Check your progress –IV

Q. No. 1 Describe the following sounds giving three term labels:

/p/ - voiceless, bilabial, plosive

/t/- voiceless, alveolar, plosive

/dʒ/ - voiced, palat- alveolar, affricate

/tʃ/ - voiceless, palate-alveolar, affricate

/ɒ/ - back, just above open, rounded

/i:/ - front, close, unrounded

/eɪ/ :- The glide begins from /e/ (front, between half-open and half-close, unrounded) and moves towards RP /i/ (front, just above half-close, unrounded).

/aʊ/:-The glide begins from /a/(back, open, unrounded) and proceeds towards RP/ʊ/ (back, just above half close, rounded).

Check your progress: - V

Q. 1 Give the phonetic transcription of the following words:

message /mesɪdʒ/, practice /præktɪs/, position/pəzɪʃən/
powder/paʊdə(r)/, object (N)/ɒbdʒɪkt/famous/feɪməs/
water /wɔ:tə/

Check your progress- VI

Q. 1 Make the primary stress/accent on the following words:

'footprint, per'fect (V), 'solid,
'factory, 'faceless, tar'get

2.6 Exercises

Q. 1 Give the three term label description of the sounds.

/f/, /k/, /m/, /ʌ /, /ɪ /, /eɪ/, /ɔɪ/

Q. 2 Give the phonemic transcription of the following words

Feather, unhappy, progress (N), book, culture, emotion, develop

Q. 3 Make the primary stress/accent on the following words.

analysis, bread, whoever, reason, achievement, student.

Q. 4 Write Short notes on the following

1. Phoneme
2. Vocal cords
3. Voiced consonants

4. Primary stress
5. The tongue
6. The palate
7. The lips
8. Voiced and Voiceless consonant sounds
9. Place of articulation of consonant sounds.
10. Nasal consonants
11. Three term labels of vowels
12. Fricatives

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Module III

Morphology

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3.0 Objectives

- To understand the English word-formation processes and ‘Morphology’.
- To study the terms ‘Morphs’, ‘Morphemes’ and ‘Allomorphs’.
- To identify the types of morphemes
- To analyze the structure of complex words and study the affixes, roots and stems.
- To study various word-formation processes.

3.1 Introduction:

Linguistics is the scientific study of language. In the study of language, we can study Phonology, Grammar and Semantics. Phonology is the study of sounds. Semantics is the study of meaning in all its aspects. In Grammar we study Morphology and syntax. Morphology is the study of words-formation. Syntax is the study of sentences. In linguistics, morphology is the study of words, how they are formed, and their relationship to other words in the same language. It analyzes the structure of words and parts of words, such as stems, roots, prefixes and suffixes. Morphological study enriches the knowledge of vocabulary. It is useful to understand the process of various word-formation processes.

3.2 Subject Matter – I

3.2.1 Morphology

Morphology is the scientific study of word-formation. It is one of the major components of grammar. It studies word structures, especially morphemes, which are the smallest units of language. They can be base words or components that form words, such as affixes.

Definitions of Morphology:

1. **Bloomfield:** Morphology is the study of the constructions which sound forms appear among the constituents.
2. **Dorfman:** Morphology is the study of the ways and methods of grouping sounds into sound complexes or words of definite, distinct and conventional meaning.

Morphology is the study of word-formation process. It focuses on the origin of the words, the function of prefixes and suffixes in the word-formation process. Morphology is the structure level between phonology and the syntax. This is the level of words and word-endings, to put it in simplified terms. It is what one normally understands by grammar (along with syntax). The term *morphology* refers to the analysis of minimal forms in language which are, however, themselves comprised of sounds and which are used to construct words which have either a grammatical or a lexical function.

3.2.2 Morpheme

Morphemes are minimum meaningful elements. These are regular combination of phonemes. A morpheme is a minimal grammatical system of a language. Morphemes are the distinct grammatical units which form words. A morpheme is a distinct linguistic form which is not divisible or analyzable into its constituents or smaller forms/units. If the morpheme is analyzed into smaller units, it loses its identity and it will be converted into a sequence of meaningless noises, e.g. ‘dance’ (dan+ce) or (da+nce). Thus analyzing morphemes is found meaningless.

Morphemes are meaningful sequences of sounds-

"A word cannot be divided into morphemes just by sounding out its syllables. A morpheme is a form (a sequence of sounds) with a recognizable meaning. Knowing a word's early history, may be useful in dividing it into morphemes, but the decisive factor is the form-meaning link."A morpheme may, however, have more than one pronunciation or spelling. For example, the regular noun plural ending has two spellings (-s and -es) and three pronunciations (/s/ as in *backs*, /z/ as in *bags*, and /ɪz/ as in *batches*). Similarly, when the morpheme *-ate* is followed by *-ion* (as in *activate-ion*), the *t* of *-ate* combines with the *i* of *-ion* as the sound ‘sh’ /ʃ/ (so we might spell the word 'activashun'). Such allomorphic variation is typical of the morphemes of English, even though the spelling does not represent it."

A morpheme may be monosyllabic as (cat, dog, write, sing, etc.). These words are made up of one morpheme. Such words are called as ‘monomorphemic’ or ‘simplex’ words. A morpheme may be polysyllabic as (cats, writing, singing careful, etc.). These words are made up of more than one morpheme. Such words are called ‘polymorphemic’ or ‘complex’ words.

3.2.3 Classification of Morphemes

Ronald W Langacker in his book '*Language and its Structure*' has divided morphemes into two classes: Lexical and Grammatical.

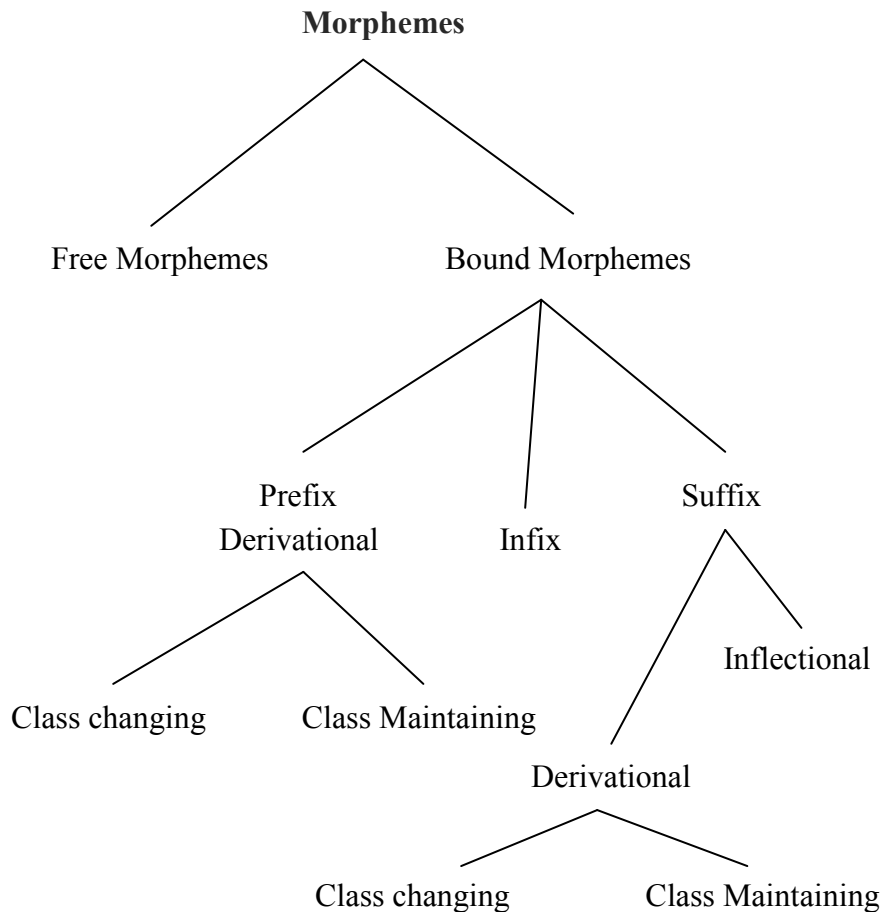
Lexical Morphemes: Lexical Morphemes are – Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives and Adverbs. They have more or less independent meaning. They change their forms frequently. Lexical morphemes are in large numbers in the language. They are open ended. So the new members are added to the lexicon quite often.

E.g. flower, rose, pluck, beautiful, rare etc.

Lexical morphemes carry the main meaning (or significance) of the word it belongs to. The morpheme 'ready' in 'readiness' carries the meaning of the word, as does 'bound' in 'unbound', or 'cran' in 'cranberry'. These morphemes, because they carry the lexical meaning, are lexical morphemes.

Grammatical morphemes: Grammatical morphemes are elements like prepositions, articles, conjunctions, forms indicating number, gender, tense or so on. They, by and large, do not change frequently. New members in their family in any language are added rather infrequently. Grammatical morphemes can become attached to lexical morphemes. The 'ing' in 'singing' carries no lexical meaning, but it does provide a grammatical context for the lexical morpheme. It tells us that the 'sing' is 'ing' (as in 'on-going'). In the same way, the morpheme '-ly' in 'timely' carries no meaning independently, but it does turn the noun 'time' into a word more frequently used as an adverb.

Types of Morpheme:



Free Morpheme: Free morphemes are those morphemes that occur alone as independent words. For example, *dog, film, run, front* etc. Free morphemes can be used freely as words having their own specific meaning. They always contain and sustain their meaning wherever they occur in a sentence.

Bound Morpheme:

A morpheme that doesn't have any independent meaning and can be formed with the help of free morphemes is called a bound morpheme. Bound morphemes are those morphemes that cannot occur as independent words. For example; *-less, -ness, pre-, un-, en-, -ceive, -ment*. In bound morphemes we can study Prefix, Suffix, and Infix. It is also called as Affixation. All affixes are examples of bound morphemes.

However, some morphemes like *and, or, but* etc. are grammatical morphemes yet they are independent words.

Roots

The root of a word is the part that remains after the removal of affixes. The roots are unlimited in a language because language is open-ended. Number of new words is added to the language. In a word ‘happiness’, **happy** is the root word.

Affixes

All affixes are bound morphemes because they cannot occur alone. Affixes are those bound morphemes that are naturally attached to different types of words and used to change the meaning or function of those words. For example, *-ment* in *payment, enjoyment, entertainment*, *en-* in *enlighten, enhance, enlarge*, *-’s* in *Joseph’s, Lora’s*, *-ing* in *reading, sleeping, singing* etc.

Affixes can be categorized into three sub-classes according to their position in the word and function in a phrase or sentence. They are:

- Prefixes
- Infixes
- Suffixes

Prefixes

Prefixes are kind of bound morphemes included at the beginning of different types of words. They are class changing and class maintaining. For example: *in-*, *un-*, *sub-* respectively in *incomplete, injustice, unable, uneducated, subway* etc. Prefixes are affixed before the roots. They cannot occur independently.

Examples:

Negative prefixes:

Prefix	Words/examples
un-	unhappy
non-	non-smoker
in-	inactive
a-	amoral

il	illogical
mis-	misfortune
mal-	malpractice
dis-	dishonor

Prefixes of time and order

Prefix	Words/examples
Fore-	foretell
Pre-	pre-war
Post	post-war
Ex-	ex-husband
Re-	rebuild

Number prefixes

Prefix	Words/examples
Uni-	unilateral
Bi-	bilingual
Tri-	tri-colour
Multi-	multinational

Other prefixes

Prefix	Words/examples
Auto-	autobiography
Neo-	neoclassical
Pan-	pan-Indian
Proto-	prototype
Semi-	semicircle
Vice-	vice-president

Infixes

Infixes are those bound morphemes which are included within the words. They are less commonly found in English. They are used by the literary writers. For example, -bloody- in *absolutely*

Suffixes

Suffixes are those bound morphemes which are added at the end of different types of words. Suffixes are affixed after the roots or stems. Suffixes frequently alter the word class of the base.

Suffixes are of two types- 1. Derivational 2. Inflectional

Suffixes:

Suffixes are affixed after the roots or stems. Suffixes frequently alter the word class of the base.

Noun → **suffixes**

-ster – gangster

-er – teenager

-let – booklet

-ess – waitress

-hood – boyhood

-ship – friendship

-ing – paneling

-ful – mouthful

Verb → **noun suffixes**

-er – driver

-or – actor

-ation – exploration

-ee – employee

-al – refusal

-age - drainage

Adjective → **noun suffixes**

-ness – happiness

-ity – sanity

Verb suffixes

-ify – simplify

-ize – popularize

Noun → **adjective suffixes**

-ful – useful

-less – childless

-like – childlike

-y – creamy

Adverb suffixes

-ly – happily

-ward(s) – backward(s)

-wise – weather-wise

Derivational Suffixes

Derivational suffixes are used to make new words by changing their meaning or grammatical category. In other words, derivational morphemes form new words with a meaning and category distinct through the addition of affixes.

Thus, the derivational suffix, ‘-ness’ changes the adjective, ‘kind’ into the noun, ‘kindness’. Similarly, the noun ‘care’ becomes the adjective careless. This is how derivational affixes make new words by changing their meaning or grammatical category. Derivational morphemes can be categorized into two sub-classes. They are:

1. Class-maintaining derivational affixes
2. Class-changing derivational affixes

1. Class-Maintaining Derivational Affixes

Class-maintaining derivational affixes usually produce a derived form of the same class as the root. They don't change the class of the parts of speech. For example; *-ship -hood*, in *relationship, leadership, livelihood, manhood* etc.

2. Class-Changing Derivational Affixes

Class-changing derivational affixes usually produce a derived form of the other class than the class of the root. They change the class of the parts of speech. For example; *-er* (teach~teacher), *-ish* (boy~boyish), *-al* (nation~national), etc.

Inflectional and Derivational Suffixes:

Suffixes are of two types: 1) Inflectional suffixes

2) Derivational suffixes

1) Inflectional Suffixes:

Nouns	Adjectives and Adverbs	Verbs
i) Plural: -s, -es e.g. cats, toys, benches	i) Comparative: -er e.g. bigger, greater, taller	i) Simple Present Tense- When subject is 3 rd person singular: -s, -es e.g. plays, goes
i) Possessive: -'s e.g. sister's, father's	i) Superlative: -est e.g. smallest, fastest	i) Past Tense: -ed e.g. played, worked
		i) Present participle: -ing e.g. writing, working ii) Past participle: -en e.g. written, given

2) Derivational Suffixes:

Derivational suffixes are classified into two types; i) Class maintaining derivational suffix and ii) Class changing derivational suffix.

a) Class Maintaining Derivational Suffix: Class maintaining derivational suffixes do not change the class or the part of speech of a word to which they are attached.

e.g.

Suffix	Stem	Derived Word
-ship	friend(N)	friendship(N)
-let	book(N)	booklet(N)
-hood	mother(N)	motherhood(N)
-dom	king(N)	kingdom(N)

b) Class Changing Derivational suffix: Class-changing derivational suffixes usually produce a derived form of the other class from the root. They change the class of a word to which they are attached

Suffix	Stem	Derived Word
-ful	beauty (N)	beautiful (Aj)
-able	read (V)	readable (Aj)
-ous	virtue (N)	virtuous (Aj)
-ness	happy (Aj)	happiness (N)

Subject Matter –II

3.3.1 Allomorphs

An allomorph is a variant phonetic form of a morpheme, or, a unit of meaning that varies in sound and spelling without changing the meaning. The term allomorph describes the realization of phonological variations for a specific environment of a morpheme.

Lyons says, “When a word is segmented into parts, these segments are referred to as morphs”. Each morph represents a particular morpheme, but each morpheme does not have a morph.

e.g. The plural noun *sheep* has one morph, but two morphemes.

First morpheme – sheep

Second morpheme – plural aspect

Morpheme	Allomorph	Example
Plural morpheme(s/es)	(-s)	Cats
	(-z)	Bags
	(-iz)	Judges
Past tense morpheme (-ed)	(-t)	Walked
	(-d)	Bagged
	(-id)	wanted

There are several irregular forms. In case of plural form of *Child-children*, *sheep-sheep*, explanation is not possible. These are morphological conditioning.

A. Zero Suffix: e.g. sheep(s) sheep(p)

Cut (present) cut (past)

B. i) Vowel mutation/replacive: A change or replacement in vowel.

e.g. find-found mouse-mice

ii) Consonant change:

e.g. send-sent wife- wives

C. Suppletion:

In suppletion, instead of a partial change in root (vowel change/ consonant change/ addition of 's'), the entire form of the root is replaced by a new form.

e.g. go – went, Be- am, are- was, were.

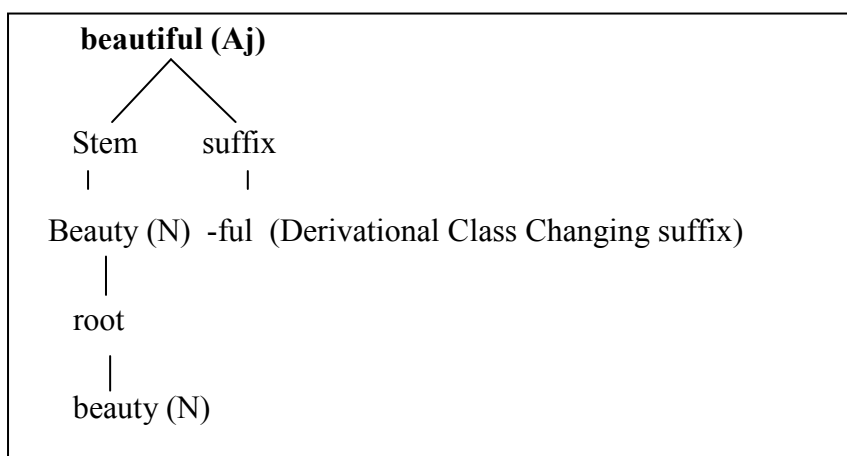
Morphological Analysis

Morphological analysis is the observation and description of the grammatical elements in a language by studying their form and function, their phonological

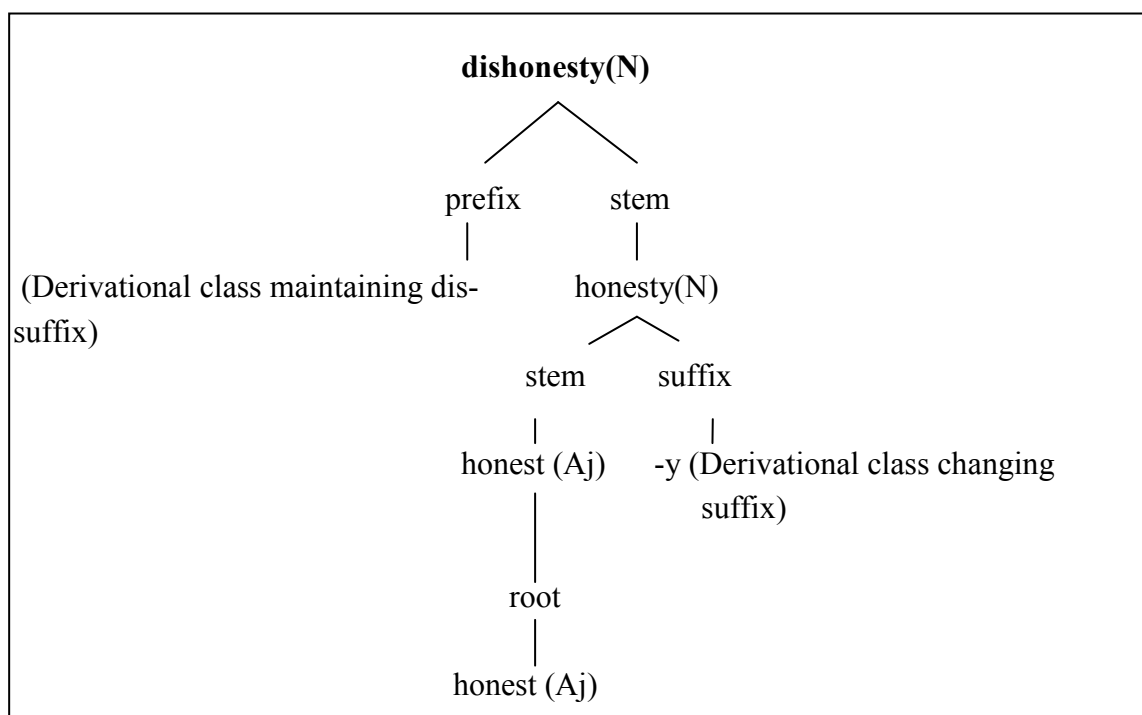
variants, and their distribution and mutual relationships within larger stretches of speech.

For example,

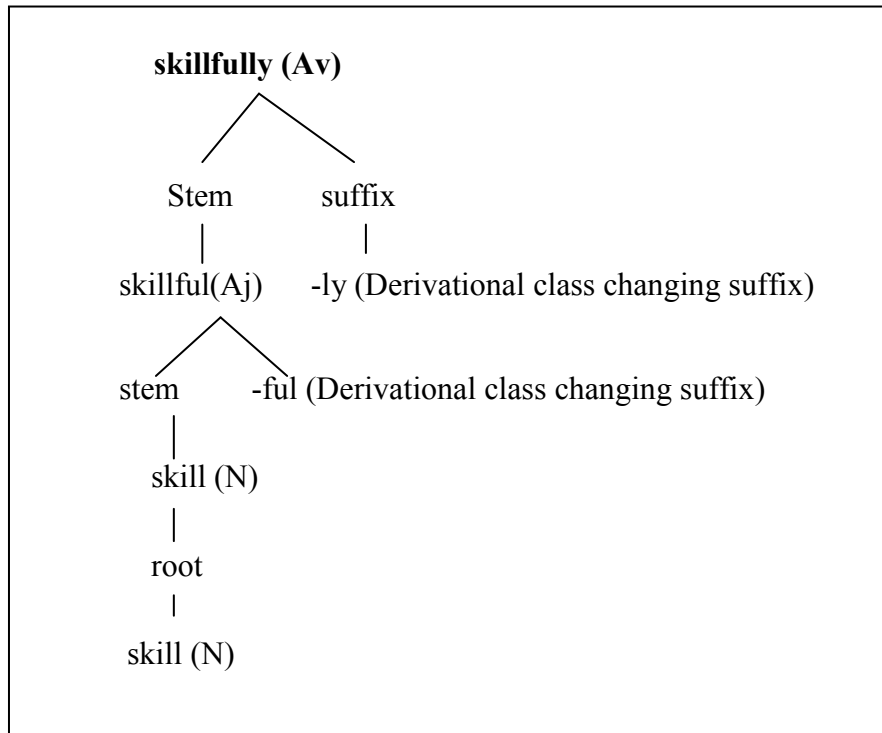
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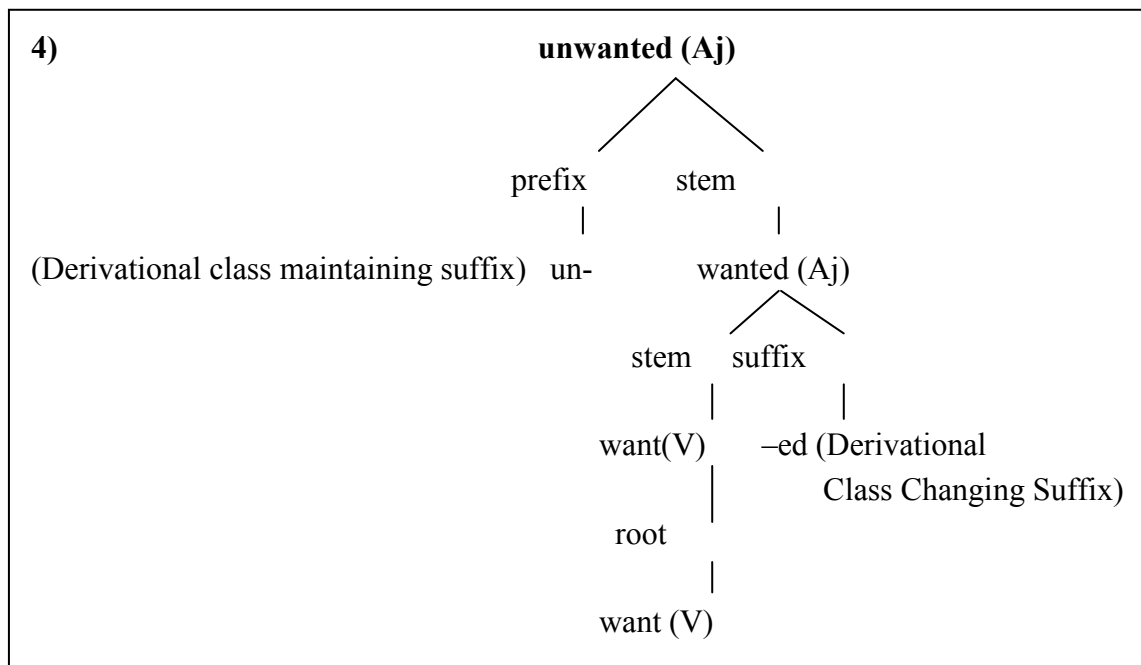
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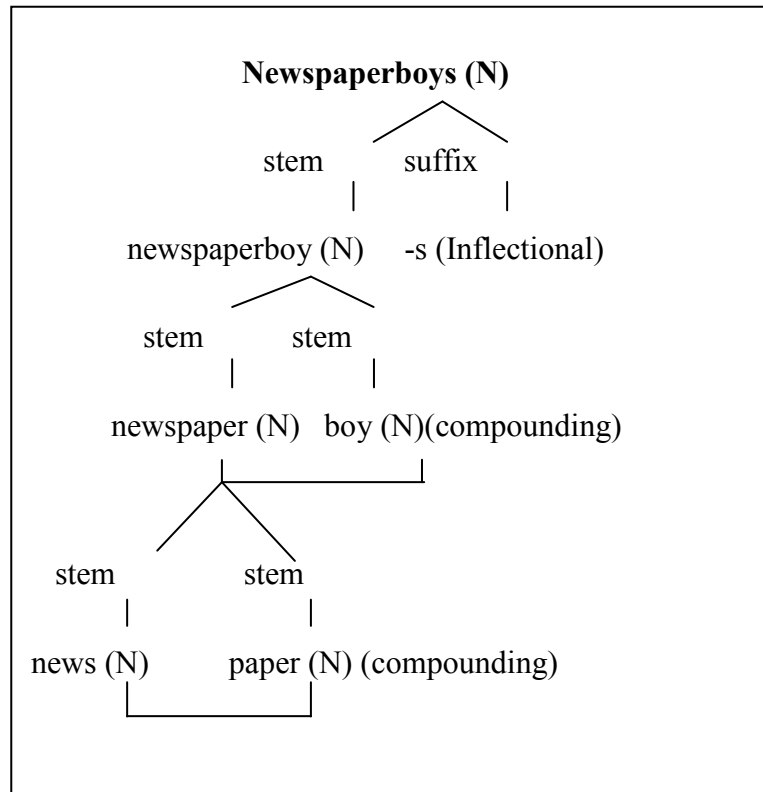
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3.3.3 Check Your Progress I

Answer the following questions in a word/phrase/sentence each:

1. Define the term 'Morphology'?
2. What is a morpheme?
3. What is a bound morpheme?
4. What is a free morpheme?
5. What is 'prefix'?
6. What is 'Suffix'?
7. Give an example of compound word.

8. Give two examples of inflectional suffix.
9. Identify the free and bound morphemes in a word 'misfortunate'.
10. Identify prefix and suffix in the word 'unfriendly'.

3.4 Subject Matter – III

3.4.1 Word-Formation Processes / Morphological Processes

Word-formation processes or morphological processes produce new words. These processes are classified into major and minor word-formation processes as per their contribution in forming new words.

A) **Major word-formation processes:** Affixation, Compounding and Conversion are major word-formation processes. Let us see them one by one:

1. **Affixation:** Affixation is a morphological process which creates new words. Affixes are divided into two types: prefixes, suffixes.

On the basis of this division, there are two sub-processes.

- (a) **Prefixation:** Prefixation means fixing the prefix before the root or base form. All the prefixes are derivational. They are class maintaining or class changing. *A-* in *asleep*, *be-* in *becalm*, *en-* in *encage*, *de-* in *deforest*, *dis-* in *disbar*, *non-* in *non-stick*, and *un-* in *unhorse* are class changing prefixes. All the other prefixes are class maintaining.

Semantic types of Prefixes: negative prefixes (*un-*, *non-*, *in-*, *a-*), reversative or privative prefixes (*un-*, *de-*, *dis-*), pejorative prefixes (*mis-*, *mal-*, *pseudo-*, and others), prefixes of degree or size (*arch-*, *super-*, *out-*, *sur-*, *sub-*, *over-*, *under-*, *hyper-*, *mini-*, and others), prefixes of attitude (*co-*, *counter-*, *anti-*, *pro-*), locative prefixes (*super-*, *sub-*, *inter-*, *trans-*), prefixes of time and other (*fore-*, *pre-*, *post-*, *ex-*, *re-*), and number prefixes (*uni-*, *mono-*, *bi-*, *di-*, *tri-*, *multi-*, *poly-* and others).

Suffixation: Suffixation means fixing an affix after the root or base. Suffixes are inflectional or derivational. Derivational suffixes are class maintaining and class changing. Suffixes are occupational (-or in actor), diminutive or feminine (-ess in tigress), suffixes of status or domain (-dom in kingdom), noun suffixes (-hood in childhood), adjective suffixes (-ful in beautiful), verb suffixes (-ify in classify) etc.

2. **Compounding:** Compounding is a morphological process in which two roots or bases are brought together to form a new word. The roots or bases in a compound word are treated as a single word.

e.g Noun compounds: black-board, windmill, bloodstain, doorknob etc.

Adjective compounds: mouth-watering, colour-blind, home-sick, etc.

Verb compounds: sleep-walk, hand-writing, sun-bathing etc.

3. **Conversion:** This is a morphological process which give changes the class of the word without changing its form.

Noun →Verb

1. Sachin *batted* well.
2. He *penned* the letter.

Verb →Noun

1. The judge ordered his *release*.
2. We paid attention to her *walk*.

Adjective→Verb

1. Bolt *bettered* his performance.

Grammatical unit→Noun

1. English is a *must* subject.
2. Students must follow these *dos*, and *don'ts*.

B) Minor word-formation processes: They include the following processes:

1. Reduplicatives:

Some compounds have two or more elements which are either identical or only slightly different; e.g.: *goody-goody*. The difference between the two elements may be in the initial consonants, e.g.: *walkie-talkie*, or in the middle vowel, e.g.: *criss-cross*. Most of the reduplicatives are highly informal or familiar.

The most common uses of reduplicative are

- (a) to imitate sounds, e.g.: *tick-tock, criss-cross, din-din* etc.
- (b) to suggest alternating movements, e.g.: *seesaw*
- (c) to suggest instability, insincerity, etc. :e.g. *wishy-washy*
- (d) to intensify, e.g.: *tip-top*

2. Clipping:

The term ‘clipping’ denotes the subtraction of one or more syllables from a word. The shortening may occur at

- (a) the beginning of the word:
e.g.: telephone-phone
- (b) the end of the word:
e.g.: photograph-photo
- (c) at both ends of the word:
e.g.: influenza-flu

3. Blends:

In a blend at least one of the elements is fragmentary. In this process fragments of the two word are brought together to form a new word.

e.g:

Sr. No.	Original words	Blends
1	Motor + Hotel	Motel
2	Breakfast + Lunch	Brunch
3	Potato + Tomato	Pomato
4	Smoke + Fog	Smog
5	Transfer + Resistor	Transistor

4. Acronyms:

Acronyms are words formed from the initial letters (or larger parts) of words.

1. Acronyms pronounced as sequences of letters can be called ‘alpha-betisms’:
 - (a) The letters represent full words:

e.g. C.O.D – Cash on delivery
UN – the United Nations
USA –United States of America
 - (b) The letters represent elements in a compound or just parts of a word:

e.g. TV – Television
GHQ – General Headquarters
2. Many acronyms are pronounced as words.

e.g. radar – radio detecting and ranging

3.4.2 Check Your Progress II

Identify the word formation (morphological) processes in the underlined words in the following sentences.

1. The scientists completed the project successfully.
2. He bought a new type-writer.
3. She dialed wrong number.
4. He uses his old moped.
5. Mr. Patil suffered from flu.
6. Mary heard the ding-dong sound of the church bell.
7. His uncle came from USA.
8. The company offered us the brunch.
9. The tick-tock sound of the watch irritated me.
10. The teacher is writing on a black-board.

Answers to Check Your Progress- I

1. Morphology is the scientific study of words.
2. Morpheme is the minimal meaningful unit.
3. A morpheme that doesn't have any independent meaning and can be formed with the help of free morphemes is called a bound morpheme.
4. A morpheme that can be used as a unit in a phrase or a sentence.
5. Prefixes are kind of bound morphemes included at the beginning of different types of words.
6. Suffixes are those bound morphemes included at the end of different types of words.
7. Example: windmill
8. Examples: drawing, clapped
9. Free Morpheme- mis- and Bound Morpheme - -ate
10. Prefix: un-, suffix: -ly

Answers to Check Your Progress – II

- 1) Suffixation 2) Compounding 3) Suffixation
- 4) Blending 5) Clipping 6) Reduplication 7) Acronym 8) Blending
- 9) Reduplication 10) Compounding

3.5 Let Us Sum Up:

This unit discusses Morphology, the scientific study of the formation of the words. It considers morpheme, the smallest unit of form into which a word can be divided. It also discusses the difference between morphemes and allomorphs, the major and minor word-formation processes: affixation, compounding, conversion, reduplication, blending, clipping and acronymy. The unit acquaints you with morphological analysis.

3.6 Glossary and Notes:

1. Morphology: Study of words
2. Minimal: Smallest
3. Phonetic: about pronunciation
4. Conversion: change the class of the word
5. Monosyllabic: having one syllable
6. Polysyllabic: having more than two syllables.
7. Segment: part or unit

3.7 Exercises:

I) Answer the following questions about 100 to 150 words.

1. What is morpheme? Discuss the classification of morpheme.
2. Explain the term Allomorphs. Give suitable examples.
3. What is affixation? Explain Prefix, suffix and infix.
4. Write a note on Inflectional suffixes.
5. Write a note on Conversion.
6. Explain the term Reduplication.

II) Give a labeled morphological analysis of the following words using tree diagrams:

- 1) unfaithful
- 2) readability
- 3) supernatural
- 4) wallpapers
- 5) multicultural
- 6) motor-boats
- 7) painfully
- 8) disinterestedly
- 9) interchangeable
- 10) misunderstanding
- 11) Pan-American
- 12) unknowingly

3.8 Reference Books:

1. Velaydhan and Mohanan: *An Introduction to the Phonetics and Structure of English*, Somaiya Pub. Ltd., New Delhi.
2. Hocket Charles: *The course In Modern Linguistics*.
3. Krishanaswamy N.: *An Introduction to Linguistics for Language Teachers*.
4. Dr. Varshneypaul: *An Introductory Textbook of Linguistics and Phonetics*.
5. Leech G. N.: *English Grammar Today: A New Introduction*.
6. Quirk R. and Greenbaum S.: *A University Grammar of English*.
7. Richard Nordquist: *Morphology Field of studies*



Module IV

Words

- i. Open and closed word classes
- ii. The open classes
- iii. Closed word classes

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4.0 Objectives

This unit aims to:-

- introduce students to the grammatical unit called ‘words’.
- to tell students the difference between the simple and complex words.
- acquaint students with the classes of word in English.
- familiarize students with the function of words.
- make students learn about form of words in English.
- explain to students the meaning of words.

4.1 Introduction

Hello students, in the previous unit you learned about Morphology of English. Morphology is a part of grammar that studies how words are structured. At present you are familiar with the two units of grammar namely, ‘Phoneme’ and ‘Morpheme’. A phoneme is the minimal distinct unit of language. It has no meaning. On the other hand, a Morpheme is the smallest meaningful grammatical unit of language. This clearly shows that language is a compositional system. It is a system made of subsystems like Phonology, Morphology, Syntax, Semantics and others.

While studying Morphology of English, you have studied the nature of English words. There are two types of words: simple and complex. The simple words are made of only one morpheme. They have a stem but no affixes. *Ant, bat, can, dream, eagle* and several others are simple words. The complex words are made of two or morphemes. They can have one or more stems or a stem and one or more affixes. *Rechargeable, teapots, impurity, maltreatment* and countless other such words are complex.

The complex words show that language has units which are made of smaller units. Sentence, clause, phrase, word, and morpheme are the grammatical units of English. These units can be ordered in terms of 'high' and 'low' grammatical ranks. It should be remembered that a unit of the higher rank consists of one or more of the units of the next lower rank. This means a sentence is made of one or more clauses. A clause is made of one or more phrases. A phrase is made of one or more words. Similarly, a word is made of one or more morphemes. The following figure shows the hierarchy of the grammatical units:

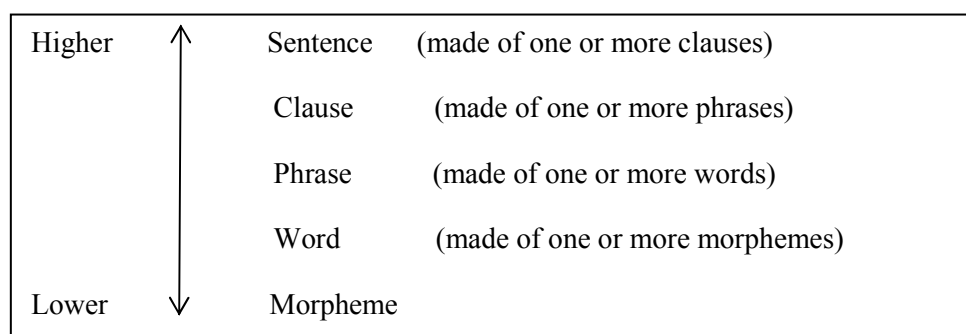


Figure No. 3.1

The figure gives the rank scale of the grammatical units. Sentence is the highest unit of grammar and morpheme is the smallest unit of grammar. The focus of the present unit is word. And it is discussed in detail in following parts of the unit.

3.2 Presentation of Subject Matter

Students, now we have reached to a special level of development in which language has played a very important and unquestionable role. We cannot imagine a language without word. Subsequently, there cannot be a human world without word. According to Dr. Earnest Klein (1966), "What elements are to Chemistry, what the sounds are to music, are words to language. However, words are not only the

elements of a language but also the history of the people speaking it. They are important milestones along the way leading to the majestic Palace of Human Knowledge” (X).

The words in this unit refer to words in English. There are different types of words. They are categorized according to the role they perform in grammar. Traditionally the types of words are called ‘parts of speech’. English, as you know, has eight parts of speech: Noun, Pronoun, Adjective, Adverb, Verb, Preposition, Conjunction and Interjection. These are classified into content words and structure words. Noun, Adjective, Verb and Adverb are content words. On the other hand, pronoun, preposition, conjunction and interjection are structure words. But Modern Grammar treats words in a different way. Instead of referring to words as parts of speech, they are understood as different classes. The traditional approach to grammar is chiefly semantic. It means it gives importance to the meaning of the grammatical units. On the contrary, the modern approach to grammar is mainly functional. It considers the position of the grammatical item rather important than its meaning. It distinguishes the words according to the way they are used.

3.2.1 Open and closed word classes

English has two major kinds of word classes: OPEN CLASSES and CLOSED CLASSES. There are four open word classes in English. The following table 3.1 shows them:

Sr. No.	Open word class	Symbol for form label	Examples
1.	Noun	N	apple, boy, matter, plan, idea, sky, turn
2.	Verb (Full-verb)	V	accept, run, sit, come, appear, turn
3.	Adjective	Aj	nice, happy, flowery, quiet, uncomfortable
4.	Adverb	Av	here, then, today, too, seldom, frequently

Table 3.1

The above classes are called open word classes because new members (words) can be freely invented and added to the existing list of these word classes. Presently, under the influence of globalization and information technology, the English

language has been continually evolving. New words and expressions are being invented or reinvented. ‘Google’, ‘jeggings’, ‘listicle’, ‘Locavore’, ‘screenager’, ‘snackable’, ‘rage-quit’, ‘Youtuber’, and many others are some of the 21st century words. ‘Google’ was a nonsense word in the beginning.

The membership of the open word classes is fairly open-ended. For example, the word, ‘google’ is a noun which came into existence in 1996-1998. It refers to a search engine that gives access to huge data available on internet. But nowadays it can be found somebody speaking, “They google celebrities.” In this sentence ‘google’ is used as a verb which means ‘search the internet (for information) using the Google search engine’. This small and simple example shows that English vocabulary is constantly developed to fulfill the new requirements.

It must also be noted that a member of one class may be similar in spelling as well as pronunciation with a member of another class. See for instance the following examples:

1. ‘Milk’ can be a noun or a verb as in:
 - a. We need *milk* (noun).
 - b. Farmers *milk* (verb) cows.
2. ‘Fast’ can be an adjective, adverb, a noun or a verb.
 - a. The *fast* (adjective) train arrived.
 - b. The train went *fast* (adverb).
 - c. They observe *fast* (noun) every Thursday.
 - d. They *fast* (verb) every Thursday.

Now let’s see the closed word classes. Determiner, pronoun, proposition, conjunction, operator verb, interjection and enumerator are closed word classes in English. Unlike the open word classes, the closed word classes have a fairly fixed membership and not open-ended and that is why they are called closed word classes. We seldom develop new words like ‘a’ (determiner), ‘I’ (pronoun), ‘but’ (conjunction), ‘can’ (operator verb) and ‘by’ (preposition). Therefore, it is possible to give a full list of each closed word class practically. However, in some ways interjections and enumerators are like open classes but for the sake of convenience

they are considered under the closed word classes. Table 3.2 gives some common members of each closed word class.

Sr. No.	Open word class	Symbol for form label	Examples
1.	Determiner	d	a, the, this, that, these, those, some, many
2.	Pronoun	pn	i, we, you, he, she, it they one, some
3.	Preposition	p	at, before, by, for, from, in, of, on, past, to, under
4.	Conjunction	cj	and, or, but, if, when, that, because, so, though
5.	Operator-verb	v	be, have, do, shall, will, can, may
6.	Interjection	ij	ah, oh, gee, hell, hey, gee, OMG, shoo, ugh
7.	Enumerator	e	one, two, three, first, third, last, seventh

Table 3.2

Table 3.1 and Table 3.2 clearly show that the open word class symbols are capital letters while the symbols used for the closed word classes are small letters.

It must be noted that the closed word classes are not as simple as they appear. They too have some confusing qualities. Firstly, the prepositions, for example, can be made of a single word (at, by, in, to, with), two words (into, inside, within, instead of, away from, up to) or a sequence of words (according to, with a view to, by virtue of, with reference to). The two words prepositions or double prepositions and the prepositions made of a sequence of words or phrase prepositions sometimes act like a single preposition and sometimes like a sequence of words.

Secondly, there is an overlap between the members of the closed word classes. They have members which are similar in spelling and pronunciation to members of other classes, for instance, ‘this’, ‘that’, ‘these’, ‘those’ can be determiners or pronouns. Similarly, ‘as’ and ‘than’ can be either prepositions or conjunctions. In addition to this, there can also be the overlap between a closed class word and an open class word: for example, ‘in’ can be either a preposition or an adverb. Similarly, ‘round’ can be an adjective, a noun, a verb, or a preposition.

Furthermore, it must also be noted that the traditional part of speech namely 'Verbs' is included separately under the open word classes and the closed word classes. The verbs under the open word classes become the full-verbs which are large in number. On the other hand, the verbs under the closed word classes are operator, helping or auxiliary verbs which make a small closed class with a fixed number of members. The full-verbs are labeled with the capital 'V' and the operator verbs are labeled with the small 'v'.

3.2.2 Three types of criterion or test:

Traditionally, the part of speech of a word is mostly defined by its meaning. However, with constituent structure approach uses three types of test or criterion to define the class of a word. The three types of test or criterion are Function, Form and Meaning.

1. **Function:** The class of a word can be identified by the way it comes in certain positions or structural contexts. The function of a word means the position taken by it in a phrase and subsequently indirectly in a clause or sentence. For example,

'They drink only the lemon drink.' It can be easily recognized that the first 'drink' is a verb and the second 'drink' is a noun according to their function.

2. **Form:** The class of a word can be recognized partly from its form which means the affixes attached to the word. In the previous unit, 'Morphology', you have studied how new words are derived by adding derivational affixes. For example, *-al* (proposal), *-ation* (examination), *-cy* (delicacy), *-dom* (kingdom, freedom), *-ee* (employee), *-er* (worker), *-ess* (poetess), *-ette* (kitchenette), *-hood* (childhood, falsehood), *-ism* (Marxism), *-ist* (socialist), *-let* (flatlet), *-ling* (duckling), *-ment* (enjoyment), *-ness* (happiness), *-scape* (landscape), *-ship* friendship *-th* (warmth) and others are noun forming suffixes. It means the class of a word can easily be recognized by its form.

Similarly, *-ify*, *-ize* and *-en* are verb forming suffixes and *-ly*, *-ward(s)* and *-wise* are adverb forming suffixes. In this way the class of words belonging to open classes can be identified by their form.

3. **Meaning:** As pointed out earlier, traditionally the class of a word is recognized by its meaning. Meaning of a word means the thing or idea that it represents. However,

with the constituent structural approach in grammar meaning is a less reliable criterion.

In this way, the position of the word plays a very important role in recognizing its class. Next to function, the affixes attached to the word also help in identifying its class. Accordingly, the above three criteria can be arranged in the following order of importance:

- Function is the most important.
- Form is the next important.
- Meaning is the least important.

It is necessary to understand the above order importance. Meaning is always not useful in defining word classes. Let's see the following nonsense verse, "The Faulty Bagnose" by John Lennon

The Munglepilgriffs far away
Religeorge too thee world.
Sam fells on the waysock-side
And somforbe on a gurlled,
With all her faulty bagnose!

You will see that the words 'Mungle', 'somforbe', 'gurlled', 'bagnose' are unfamiliar to us. We do not know their meanings. Still we can identify their word class with the help of the function. The function means the position the words have in the larger unit. It can be seen that the words given above are all nouns. 'Mungle' comes between the determiner, 'the' and the verb, 'pilgriffs' which is in Vs form. Similarly, 'bagnose' comes after the adjective, 'faulty'. In this way class of all the nonsense words can be identified by considering their function. That is why meaning is a less reliable test or criterion to identify the class of a word.

As far as form is concerned it can be partly useful in identifying the class of a word. As discussed earlier form refers to the affixes added to a word. But there are so many words containing no affixes such as answer, stand, fast, early, work, too, seldom and many others. Such words may belong to more than one word class. For example, in 'The passengers fast₁ in the fast₂ train that do not go fast₃.' fast₁ is a noun; fast₂ is an adjective; and fast₃ is an adverb.

Similarly it would be misleading to suppose that all the words ending in '-ly' are adverb and all the words ending in '-ed' and '-ing' are verbs. For example, 'lovely' and 'womanly' are adjectives and 'tired' in 'a tired horse' and 'approved' in 'the approved proposal' are adjectives. So the criterion of form is less important than the criterion of function. All this shows that the criteria of form and meaning have limitations in defining the class of a word, so as it is pointed out by Leech, Deuchar and Hoogenraad (2015) we chiefly rely on the function of a word as a criterion of identifying its class. Now let us consider the four open word classes:

3.2.3 The open classes

As discussed earlier, there are four open word classes. Let us discuss nouns as per the criteria considered above:

3.2.3.1 Nouns (N)

It is the most abundant class.

I) Function:

Nouns can function as :

i) Head (H) of a noun phrase (NP):

$\overset{H}{NP(N \text{ stars})}$, $\overset{M}{NP(d \text{ a } N \text{ book})}$, $\overset{M}{NP(d \text{ the } A_{jP} \overset{H}{best} N \overset{M}{friend} Av \text{ ever})}$,

$\overset{M}{NP(GP(N \text{ Shakespeare's})^M \overset{H}{lovely} N \overset{M}{poem}_{PP} \text{ (on true love)})}$

ii) Premodifier (M) in an NP:

$\overset{M}{NP(d \text{ a } N \overset{H}{gold} N \overset{M}{necklace})}$, $\overset{M}{NP(d \text{ the } N \overset{M}{noun} N \overset{H}{phrase})}$,

$\overset{M}{NP(d \text{ the } N \overset{M}{marriage} \text{ function})}$

iii) Head of a prepositional phrase (PP)

$\overset{M}{PP(p \text{ on } d \text{ a } N \overset{H}{table})}$, $\overset{H}{PP(p \text{ to } N \text{ Kolhapur})}$, $\overset{M}{PP(p \text{ inside } d \text{ the } N \overset{H}{haveli})}$

iv) Head of a genitive phrase (GP):

(^H_{GP}(^H_N Ravi's)_N runs), (^H_{GP}(^H_N Dinkar's)_N dance)

[^H_{NP}(^H_{GP}(^H_N Lata's)) is a big car].

It must be noted that Head (H) is the chief or main word of a phrase. It is the compulsory element of the noun phrases, prepositional phrases, genitive phrases, adjective phrases and adverb phrases. A single head makes one phrase. On the other hand, modifiers (M) are optional elements of these phrases. Premodifiers (M) come before the Head and the post-modifiers (M) come after the Head.

II) Form:

i) Usually count nouns have two forms: singular and plural. Most count nouns can be changed from singular to plural form by adding the plural inflectional suffix -s (apples, books, bags, teachers), -es (buses, churches, judges) or -ies (babies, mangoes, spies) These are called regular plural nouns. Irregular plural nouns are formed by some other change of form. They are unpredictable. For example, *wife: wives /waɪvz/, man~men, child~children, stimulus~stimuli*.

ii) The following derivational suffixes are characteristic noun suffixes:

a) Suffixes Forming Nouns from Nouns:

-dom (duke ~ dukedom), *-ess* (poet ~ poetess), *-er* (bat ~ batter), *-ette*(kitchen ~ kitchenette), *-hood* (boy ~ boyhood), *-ism* (Gandhi ~ Gandhism), *-let* (book ~ booklet), *-ling* (duck ~ duckling), *-scape* (land ~ landscape), *-ship* (relation ~ relationship), and others.

b) Suffixes forming Nouns from Verbs:

-ation (examine ~ examination), *-ee* (employ ~ employee), *-al* (propose ~ proposal), *-ary* (dispense ~ dispensary), *-er* (work ~ worker), *-ment* (enjoy ~ enjoyment), and many others.

c) Suffixes Forming Nouns from Adjectives:

-cy (delicate ~ delicacy), *-dom* (free ~ freedom), *-er* (ten ~ tenner), *-hood* (false ~ falsehood), *-ist* (social ~ socialist), *-ness* (happy ~ happiness), *-th* (warm ~ warmth), and others

III) Meaning:

As far as meaning is concerned nouns can be subclassified into proper/ common nouns, concrete/abstract nouns, count/mass nouns and collective nouns. It must be noted that nouns indicate physical things, objects, places, substances, events, states, activities, processes, times, occasions, etc.

- A) Proper vs Common Nouns: Proper nouns are used refer to a specific individual person, things, etc. Normally a proper noun begins with a capital letter (e.g. Rohan, India, Shivaji University, Sangli, etc.). Furthermore, a proper noun does not have a plural form (e.g. Rohans*, Indias*, or Sanglis*), therefore it cannot generally come after ‘a/an’ or ‘the’ (e.g. a Rohan*, the Sangli*). On the other hand, common nouns are used to refer to animals, persons, things, places in general (horse, boy, woman, book, village, city, etc.). A common noun can have a plural form (men, boys, matches, trees). Hence, common nouns can come after the determiners, ‘a/an’ or ‘the’. But occasionally, proper nouns are treated like common nouns as in ‘There is a Gandhinagar in Kolhapur.’ And ‘I have seen such many Patils.’
- B) Concrete vs Abstract Nouns: Concrete nouns refer to everything that can be seen, touched, heard, tasted, and/or smelled. It means a concrete noun is used to identify whatever that is tangible. It represents actual substance, living- non-living things animals and places such as sugar, water, air, plant, tiger, officer, stone, book, school, hospital, etc. On the other hand, abstract nouns refer to everything which is fictional and non-tangible. For example, happiness, joy, bliss, ecstasy, pleasure, delight, gladness, and many others.
- C) Count vs Mass Nouns: Count nouns refer to countable things that can have a plural form. For example, book~books, star~stars, joy~joys, litre~litres, and many more. On the other hand, mass nouns refer to things that cannot be counted. They refer to substances, qualities, etc. Mass nouns normally have no plural forms. For example, milk~*milks, sugar~*sugars, happiness~*happinesses, gold~*golds, etc. However, it must be noticed that a noun can be both count (countable) and mass (uncountable). For example, chicken, hair, room, etc. as used in the following examples:
1. She likes to eat **chicken**. (Mass)

- 1a. She has kept five **chickens**. (Count)
2. She has long **hair**. (Mass)
 - 2a. She found two long **hairs**.(Count)
3. He has no **room** in her life.(Mass)
 - 3a. He owns two big **rooms**. (Count)

In addition, a good indicator of count nouns is the use of the indefinite article, ‘a’ or ‘an’ and numbers which normally premodify the count nouns. For example, ‘a girl’, ‘a book’, ‘an eagle’, ‘an umbrella’, ‘two men’, ‘one pen’, ‘four fans’, etc. On the other hand, the mass nouns do not take such premodifiers. For example, ‘*a sugar’, ‘*one happiness’ and ‘*ten cheeses’ are not approved.

- D) Collective Nouns: Normally the collective nouns are count nouns. Even in their singular form they refer to groups of people, animals or things (heard, crowd, family, government, committee) but grammatically they can take a plural verb. For example, 1. The crowd enters/enter the park. 2. The committee visits/visit Kolhapur. 3. The pride has/have left the area.

3.2.3.2 Verbs (V)

As pointed out earlier, English has two types of verbs. One belongs to the open classes. It is called Full verbs which can come independently. And when they come with other operator verbs, they always come after all the operator verbs in a verb phrase. The other belongs to the closed classes. It is called operator verbs. Here we will discuss the full verbs.

I) Function:

The full verb always functions as the MAIN VERB in a verb phrase. They can come independently as a predicator. In a verb phrase a full verb can either come on its own or come after other operator verbs. For example,

[^S (They) ^P (_v dance)],

[^S (Birds) ^P (can _v sing)],

[^S (She) ^P (was _v walking)],

[^S (The tree) ^P (has been ^{Mv} _v watered)],

[^S (That room) ^P (might have been being ^{Mv} _v painted)].

II) Form:

There are some affixes that help in identifying verbs. There are a few verb forming prefixes in English. For example, *be-* in *befriend*, *bemoan*; *en-* in *encode*, *enjoy*; *de-* in *derail*, *denude*; *un-* in *unhorse* and others.

Similarly, English has only three suffixes to form verbs: *-ify* in *classify*, *beautify*; *-ize/-ise* in *realize*, *civilize*, *energise*, *modernise*; and *-en* in *brighten*, *hasten*, and *soften*.

Moreover, English full verbs also take different inflectional suffixes. Accordingly they have six forms which express tense and aspects. The inflectional forms of English verbs are Vo, Vs, Ved, Vi, Ving and Ven. They are presented in Table 3.3. It must be noticed that Vo and Vi forms look identical. However, Vo shows present tense and is used if the Subject is not third person singular. On the other hand Vi is infinitive form. It is a tenseless verb form. It comes without subject in imperative clauses. Normally Vi follows the particle, *to* in subordinate clauses. It must also be noticed that the Ved and Ven forms of the REGULAR VERBS like *agree*, *call*, and others are identical. They are formed by adding *-ed* suffix. The Ven form is the past participle form of the verb. It is called so because some verbs take *-en*, inflectional suffix for the past participle form. The past participle is also called the passive participle (*are taken*, *is written*, *was connected*) and perfect participle (*has taken*, *have written*, *had collected*). The verbs that do not have identical Ved and Ven forms formed by adding *-ed* are IRREGULAR VERBS (*come*, *cut*, *buy*, *take*). There are around 200 IRREGULAR VERBS in English.

Verb type	Vo	Vs	Ved	Vi	Ving	Ven
Regular	accept	accepts	accepted	to accept	accepting	accepted
	call	calls	called	to call	calling	called
	move	moves	moved	to move	moving	moved

	wait	waits	waited	to wait	waiting	waited
Irregular	buy	buys	bought	to buy	buying	bought
	cut	cuts	cut	to cut	cutting	cut
	write	writes	wrote	to write	writing	written
	shake	shakes	shook	to shake	shaking	shaken

Table 3.3

It must be noticed that the Vo form of a verb is the plain verb form. It is without any suffix. The Vo, Vs and Ved forms are tensed or finite. They show tense. The Vo and Vs forms show the present tense. On the other hand, the Ved form shows the past tense.

III) Meaning: As far as meaning is concerned, full verbs show happenings. They express actions, events, processes, activities, states. Accordingly, there are verbs of action/dynamic verbs (eat, cut, run, walk) and verbs of emotions/ static verbs (enjoy, think, worry, meditate). Further, the full verbs show the actions which are physical (dance, jump, bend); mental (agree, think, wonder); perceptual (see, feel, taste, hear, sense); social (buy, sell, work); and others.

3.2.3.3 Adjectives (Aj)

Traditionally adjectives are the words that give additional information about a noun. Let us see the function, form and meaning of adjectives.

D) Function:

Adjectives can function as:

- a) Head of an Adjective Phrase (AjP):

[She is ^M_{AjP} (_{Av} ^Hvery ^{Aj}clever)], [The tea was ^M_{AjP} (_{Av} ^Htoo ^{Aj}hot)]

- b) Premodifier (M) in a Noun Phrase (NP):

[They met ^M_{NP} (_d ^Ma ^{Aj}beautiful ^Hlady)], [She likes ^M_{NP} (_d ^Mthose ^{Aj}good ^Hguys)]

- c) Postmodifier (M) in a Noun Phrase (NP):

[He saw_{NP} (^H_{Pn} something^M_{Aj} horrible)], [She needs_{NP} (^H_{Pn} someone^M_{Aj} scholarly)]

d) Head of a Noun Phrase:

[^M_{NP} (_d ^H_{Aj} The greedy) ate everything.] [She met_{NP} (_d ^M_{Aj} the haunted).]

II) Form:

Morphologically, adjectives are formed by adding suffixes to Nouns. For example, *-al* (nation ~ national), *-ate* (passion ~ passionate), *-en* (gold ~ golden), *-ese* (Pekin ~ Pekinese), *-esque* (picture ~ picturesque), *-ful* (colour ~ colourful), *-ic* (artist ~ artistic), *-ly* (friend ~ friendly), *-ous* (courage ~ courageous), *-y* (luck ~ lucky) and others.

Further, some adjectives are also formed by suffixes to Verbs. For example, *-able* (walk ~ walkable), *-ant/-ent* (ignore ~ ignorant), *-atory* (affirm ~ affirmatory), *-ful* (scorn ~ scornful), *-ive* (possess ~ possessive), *-less* (help ~ helpless), and others.

Grammatically, gradable adjectives have degree forms. They can occur in positive/plain, comparative or superlative degree forms. For comparative and superlative gradable adjectives take *-er* and *-est* inflectional suffixes respectively: *tall~taller~tallest*, *heavy~heavier~heaviest*.

III) Meaning

Usually adjectives refer to the qualities or properties of nouns. They are used to delimit or define specifically meaning of nouns. Adjective express different types of meanings, such as:

- Physical qualities like colour (blue, green), size (huge, tiny), shape (oval, short);
- Psychological qualities of emotion such as happy, sad, angry, serene, joyful;
- Evaluative qualities: nice, right, childish, lovely, intelligent;
- Temporal (time-based) qualities: recent, modern, present, new, old, early, late;

Besides, adjectives can be attributive and/or predicative. The attributive adjective typically modify the meaning of a noun as in (a good girl), (those tall trees), (something energetic), etc. On the other hand, the predicative adjectives come as a part of the predicate of a sentence and modify the meaning of the subject or object.

For example, in the sentence [That boy is happy] the adjective, ‘happy’ describes some quality of the subject, ‘that boy’. In this way it is SUBJECT COMPLEMENT (Cs). Similarly, in the sentence [That boy made the king happy] the adjective ‘happy’ attributes some quality to the Object, ‘the king’. Hence, in a way it is OBJECT COMPLEMENT (Co).

However, to function as COMPLEMENT an adjective has to be the HEAD of an Adjective phrase. As the Cs an adjective typically come after the so-called COPULA verb *to be*. Hence, it becomes a good test to identify an adjective if there is a form of BE as the Main Verb in a sentence. For example,

$\begin{matrix} \text{Cs} & \text{H} \\ \text{A}_{jP} & (\text{A}_j \text{ lucky}) \end{matrix}$], [$\begin{matrix} \text{Cs} & \text{H} \\ \text{A}_{jP} & (\text{A}_j \text{ fine}) \end{matrix}$].

On the other hand, the OBJECT COMPLEMENT comes after the OBJECT:

[They made the boy $\begin{matrix} \text{Co} & \text{H} \\ \text{A}_{jP} & (\text{A}_j \text{ happy}) \end{matrix}$].

Notice should be taken of GRADABLE and NON-GRADABLE adjectives. Gradable adjectives refer to the qualities like size, age, weight, emotion, etc.: big/tiny, young/old, heavy/light, happy/sad. They can be modified by degree adverbs like very, too, extremely, utterly, rather. They can have comparative and superlative forms too. The shorter and more common gradable adjectives take -er and -est suffixes, while the longer and less common gradable adjectives are modified by a separate comparative or superlative adverb: more or most.

Non-gradable adjectives describe ‘all-or-nothing’ qualities, such as sex/gender and nationality: female, Indian, chemical, golden. They do not have comparative and superlative forms.

Furthermore, adjectives can also be REGULAR and IRREGULAR. The former take either –er and –est or more and most respectively for their comparative and superlative forms. The later, the irregular adjectives have special comparative and superlative forms like bad/worse/worst. Table 3.4 shows the classification of Adjectives:

Type of Adjective		Plain	Comparative	Superlative	Degree adverb
Gradable	Regular	wise	wiser	wisest	very wise

		marvellous	more marvellous	most marvellous	quite marvellous
		easy	easier	easiest	rather easy
	Irregular	good	better	best	very good
		little	less	least	too little
Non-gradable		male	*maler	*malest	*very male
		Indian	*Indianer	*Indianest	*very Indian

It can be seen from the above table that non-gradable adjectives can only come in the plain construction.

3.2.3.4 Adverbs (Av)

An adverb is a word that gives additional information about the action. It modifies an adjective, a noun or an adverb. There are three chief kinds of Adverb.

- i) **Circumstance Adverbs:** They add some kind of circumstantial information such as time, place, manner, etc. to the action expressed in the clause:

^S [(She) ^P (came) ^A (home) ^A (_{Av} quickly) ^A (_{Av} yesterday)].

(A= Adverbial, an element of clause)

- ii) **Degree Adverbs** give additional information about adjectives and other words in terms of gradability. For example, *very happy, too hot, rather fast, etc.*

- iii) **Sentence Adverbs:** Usually these adverbs come in the beginning of a sentence or clause. They are semantically applicable to the whole clause or sentence. They express an attitude to the sentence. They can also show a connection

between two clauses or sentences. For example, [^A (_{Av} Thus), we reached at the place], [^A (_{Av} Actually), she knows the secret] It must be noticed that there is considerable overlap between adverbs of different kinds.

- I) **Function:** At the level of phrase, an adverb can function as:

- a) **Head of Adverb Phrase (AvP):** _{AvP} (^H_{Av} happily), _{AvP} (^H_{Av} very _{Av} slowly)

b) Premodifier in Adjective Phrase (AjP), Adverb phrase (AvP) and Noun

Phrase (NP): $\overset{M}{(Av)}$ $\overset{H}{too}$ $\overset{H}{Aj}$ $\overset{H}{easy}$), $\overset{M}{(Av)}$ $\overset{M}{rather}$ $\overset{M}{Av}$ $\overset{H}{quite}$ $\overset{H}{Aj}$ $\overset{H}{simple}$),

$\overset{M}{(Av)}$ $\overset{H}{too}$ $\overset{H}{Av}$ $\overset{H}{fast}$), $\overset{M}{(Av)}$ $\overset{H}{very}$ $\overset{H}{Av}$ $\overset{H}{luckily}$) $\overset{M}{(Av)}$ $\overset{M}{quite}$ $\overset{M}{d}$ $\overset{M}{a}$ $\overset{H}{Aj}$ $\overset{H}{quiet}$ $\overset{H}{N}$ $\overset{H}{queue}$),

$\overset{M}{(Av)}$ $\overset{M}{rather}$ $\overset{M}{d}$ $\overset{M}{a}$ $\overset{H}{Aj}$ $\overset{H}{rosy}$ $\overset{H}{N}$ $\overset{H}{row}$)

c) Postmodifier in Noun Phrase, Adjective phrase and Adverb phrase:

$\overset{M}{(d)}$ $\overset{M}{the}$ $\overset{M}{N}$ $\overset{M}{girls}$ $\overset{M}{Av}$ $\overset{M}{upstairs}$), $\overset{M}{(d)}$ $\overset{M}{the}$ $\overset{M}{N}$ $\overset{M}{people}$ $\overset{M}{Av}$ $\overset{M}{there}$);

$\overset{M}{(Av)}$ $\overset{H}{too}$ $\overset{H}{Aj}$ $\overset{H}{tall}$ $\overset{M}{Av}$ $\overset{H}{indeed}$), $\overset{H}{(Aj)}$ $\overset{H}{useful}$ $\overset{M}{Av}$ $\overset{H}{enough}$); $\overset{H}{(Av)}$ $\overset{H}{happily}$ $\overset{M}{Av}$ $\overset{H}{indeed}$)

II) Form: Normally *-ly*, *-ward(s)*, and *-wise* are adverb-forming suffixes of English. Out of these, *-ly* is very productive and is added to adjective to form adverb. For example, *happy ~ happily*, *slow~slowly*, *careful~carefully*. *-ward(s)*, and *-wise* are added to noun to produce adverb. For example, *home ~ homeward(s)*, and *student ~ studentwise*.

Besides, a few adverbs have comparative and superlative forms like adjectives: *fast ~faster~fastest*; *well~better~best*; etc.

III) Meaning: Semantically adverbs play a very important role. They can express several types of meaning, especially as Adverbial (A) in the clause. Accordingly, there are adverbs expressing manner (well, happily, skillfully); place (here, there, everywhere); direction (up, back, forward); time-when (now, then, soon, yesterday); frequency (daily, always, often, seldom); and degree (very, rather, much, more, pretty).

In addition there are sentence adverbs which are either ATTITUDE ADVERBS (fortunately, actually, oddly, perhaps, surely, actually and others) or CONNECTIVE ADVERBS (so, yet, however, therefore, secondly, though, etc.) Sentence adverbs modify the meaning of a sentence or a clause.

I. Check Your Progress I

1. Which of the following nouns are count nouns; which are mass nouns; and which are both count and mass nouns?

airplane, paper, weed, room, silver, cake, happiness, laugh, grass, rubbish, employer, music, steam, month, rope

2. Identify the word classes of the repeated words in the following sentences:

- i. The ¹early bus came²early.
- ii. The ¹daily exercise is done ²daily.
- iii. She¹left him at the ²left side of the bus-stop.
- iv. The soldiers ¹point towards the lowest ²point.

3.2.4 Closed word classes

Now let us see the Closed Word Classes. They are, as seen earlier, seven. They have relatively few members so that they can be listed. As they are structure words their function within the higher units is a key to identify their class. You should notice that the closed word classes tend to come at or towards the beginning of the larger units of which they are part. In this way they become the **MARKERS OF IDENTITY** of the units they introduce. Let us consider the closed word classes one by one:

3.2.4.1 Determiners (d)

Normally determiners come at the beginning of noun phrases. When there is a singular count noun, a determiner becomes a compulsory part of the noun phrase.

Function: Determiners function as premodifiers in a noun phrase. For example,

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \text{M} & \text{M} & & \text{M} & \text{M} & & \text{M} & \text{M} & & \text{M} \\ \text{NP} & (\text{d} & \text{this}_N & \text{book}), & \text{NP} & (\text{d} & \text{those}_N & \text{eyes}), & \text{NP} & (\text{d} & \text{a}_{Aj} & \text{beautiful}_N & \text{girl}), & \text{NP} & (\text{d} & \text{less} \\ & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & \text{M} \\ & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & \text{N} \\ & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & \text{money}) \end{array}$$

The list of the determiners is as follows:

the, a/an; this, that, these, those; all, some, any, no, every, each, either, neither, one, several, enough, such; many, much, more, most; (a) few, fewer, fewest; (a) little, less, least; what, which, whatever, whichever, half, my, our, your, his, her, its, their, yon.

The articles *a* and *the* are the most common determiners and *yon* is the least used determiner.

3.2.4.2 Pronouns (pn)

Pronouns are words which are used in the place of nouns. So they are in a sense ‘dummy’ nouns or noun phrases. They are meaningful only contextually.

Function: Pronouns always function as the head of noun phrases. For example,

H H H H
NP (P_n I), NP (P_n them), NP (P_n everybody), NP (P_n who)

List of pronouns is as below:

I, me, mine, myself; we, us, ourselves, ours; you, yourself, yourselves, your, yours; he, him, himself, his; she, her, herself, hers; it itself; they, them, themselves, theirs; this, that these, those; all, some, any, none, each, either, neither, one, oneself, several enough; everybody, everyone, everything; somebody, someone, something; anybody, anyone, anything; nobody, no one, nothing; many, much, more, most; (a) few, fewer, fewest; (a) little, less, least; who, whom, whose; what, which; whoever, whichever, whatever; each other, one another.

You can find that there is a great overlap between pronouns and determiners. *This, that, these, those, all, some, which* can be both pronouns and determiners. It is their function that helps us to identify their class. For instance,

S M H
1) [NP (d That N girl) (is) (clever).]

S H
1a) [NP (P_n That) (is) (a clever girl).]

S M H
2) [NP (d Some N mangoes) (were) (ripe).]

S H M
2a) [NP (P_n Some PP (of the mangoes)) (were) (ripe).]

3.2.4.3 Enumerators

Enumerators are number words. There are three types of enumerators:

1. **CARDINAL NUMBERS:** They are natural numbers used in counting to show quantity. They are :*one, two, three, ... twenty, hundred,*

2. ORDINAL NUMBERS: They are numbers that show the position or order of something in relation other numbers. They are: *first, second, third, ..., twentieth, ...hundredth...*
3. GENERAL ORDINALS: They indicate the position of the something in general. They are: *next, last, other, further, etc.*

Function: Enumerators can function as:

i) premodifier in a noun phrase: $NP ({}^M_e \text{ three } {}^H_N \text{ thieves}), NP ({}^M_e \text{ five } {}^H_N \text{ figures}),$

$NP ({}^M_d \text{ those } {}^M_e \text{ ten tall } {}^H_N \text{ trees}), NP ({}^M_d \text{ the } {}^M_e \text{ next } {}^H_N \text{ question}),$

$NP ({}^M_e \text{ fifth } {}^H_N \text{ fairy})$

ii) Head of a noun phrase: $[(\text{He}) ({}^M \text{ ate}) ({}^H_d \text{ all } {}^H_e \text{ ten})],$

$[{}^M_{NP} ({}^H_d \text{ The } {}^H_e \text{ nine}) (\text{could pass}) (\text{the test})]$

You should note that in a noun phrase enumerators come after determiners.

3.2.4.4 Prepositions

Prepositions are words used to show relations about place and time with the event. They play various semantic roles. They do not have any function label as such like determiners, pronouns and enumerators.

Prepositions come in the beginning of prepositional phrases (PP). The PPs are Noun Phrase that begin with a preposition. They express relations of place, time, direction, possession, agency, instrument and many other meanings. For example,

$PP ({}^M_p \text{ at } {}^H_d \text{ the } {}^H_N \text{ station}), PP ({}^M_p \text{ by } {}^H_{Pn} \text{ him}), PP ({}^M_p \text{ to } {}^H_N \text{ Kolhapur}), PP ({}^M_p \text{ with } {}^H_d \text{ a } {}^H_N \text{ knife}),$

$PP ({}^M_p \text{ to } {}^H_{Pn} \text{ us}), PP ({}^M_p \text{ of } {}^H_d \text{ a } {}^H_N \text{ boy}), PP ({}^M_p \text{ in } {}^H_d \text{ the } {}^H_N \text{ morning})$

English prepositions are: *about*, above*, across*, after*, against, along*, alongside*, amid, among, around*, as, at, before*, behind*, below*, beneath*, beside, besides*, between*, beyond*, by*, despite, down*, during, for, from, in*, inside*, into, of, off*, on*, opposite*, outside*, over*, past*, round*, since*, than,*

*through**, *throughout**, *till*, *do toward(s)*, *under**, *underneath**, *until*, *up**, *via*, *with*, *within**, *without**.

The words marked * in the above list can also be adverbs. This means there is large overlap between prepositions and adverbs, especially adverbs of place or direction:

1. [(The tigr^S) (walked)^P PP (p^A about^M d^H our^N courtyard)].

1a. [(The tigr^S) (walked)^P AVP (Av^A about)^H].

2. [(He)^S (went)^P PP (p^A down^M d^H the^N town)].

2a. [(He)^S (went)^P AVP (Av^A down)^H].

3.2.4.5 Conjunctions (cj):

Conjunctions are the words used to join words, phrases, clauses and/or sentences together. They allow us to join together the grammatical units of equal as well as unequal status. Like prepositions, conjunctions also do not have function label.

Conjunctions are linking words which have two main types:

I) Coordinating conjunctions:

They connect two or more units of equal grammatical rank (i.e. two or more words, phrases, and clauses). The coordinating conjunctions are: *and*, *or*, *but*, *nor*, *neither*.

e.g. 1. NP (the^H <A_j beautiful^{cj} and A_j fresh^H>_N flowers),

2. NP (d^M those^M A_j tall^H <N boys^{cj} and N girls>)

3. [(She)^S (will come)^P <PP (in car)^A cj OR PP (on motorcycle)>]

4. [(He)^S (knows)^P <NCl [what she learns]^O cj and NCl [how she learns]>]

5. Se \langle_{MCI} [She will come here] \rangle_{cj} or \langle_{MCI} [she will send us a message] \rangle

II) Subordinating conjunctions: They join Subordinate clauses (SCI) to Main clauses (MCI). They come in the beginning of a subordinate clause. They are as follows:

after, although, as, because, before, but, if, how, however, like, once, since, than, that, till, unless, until, when, whenever, wherever, whereas, whereby, whereupon, while; in that, so that, in order that, except that; as far as, as soon as; rather than, as if, as though, in case.

For example, 1. [Students cannot speak English \langle_{SCI} [\rangle_{cj} because they do not speak it.]]

2. [she knows \langle_{SCI} [\rangle_{cj} that English is very easy.]]

III) Correlative Conjunctions: They are pairs of conjunctions that work together. Out of the two one comes before one construction and another comes before the other. They are two types:

A) **Subordinating correlative conjunctions:** if...then, although...yet, hardly...when, no sooner...than.

B) **Coordinating correlative conjunctions:** both ... and, either...or, neither...nor, not only...but also.

3.2.4.6 Operator-verbs

The operator verbs are called so because they perform various grammatical operations. They are also called auxiliary verbs or helping verbs. They can function as Auxiliary (Aux) in the verb phrase. The operator verbs have two chief types: Modal verbs and Primary verbs.

A) **Modal verbs:** *can, will, may, shall; could, would, might, should; must, ought to* are the modal verbs. They cannot be used independently. Whenever they are used, they come at the beginning of a verb phrase and are followed by the Vi form of a verb. For example,

1. [We \langle_{VP} (\langle_{v} ^{P Aux} can ^{Mv} \rangle_{v} speak) English.]

2. [She ^P_{VP} (^{Aux}_v might ^{Aux}_v have ^{Aux}_v been ^{Mv}_v offered) the job]

The modal verbs express modality meanings like ability, possibility, permission, compulsion, probability, certainty, surety, etc.

Function: The modal verbs can function as only ‘Auxiliary’ (Aux) in a verb phrase.

- B) Primary verbs: They are the three most important verbs in English. They are called primary verbs because each of them can function either as auxiliary or as main verb (Mv) in a verb phrase. They are so irregular that they have an irregular Vs form. Like full verbs primary verbs have six forms:

Primary verb	Vo	Vs	Ved	Vi	Ving	Ven
BE	am, are	is	was, were	to be	being	Been
HAVE	have	has	had	to have	having	Had
DO	do	does	did	to do	doing	done

The primary verb ‘be’ as an operator verb shows either progressive aspect or passive aspect. When a form of ‘be’ is followed by the Ving form of a verb, it is progressive aspect. And when a form of ‘be’ is followed by the Ven form of a verb, it is passive aspect. For example,

1. [She ^P_{VP} (^{Aux}_v was ^{Mv}_v watching) TV] = progressive

2. [He ^P_{VP} (^{Aux}_v has ^{Aux}_v been ^{Mv}_v trained)] = passive

The primary verb, ‘have’ as an operator verb expresses perfect aspect. When a form of ‘have’ is followed by the Ven form of a verb, it is perfect aspect. For example,

1. [They ^P_{VP} (^{Aux}_v have ^{Mv}_v taken) precautions] = perfect

2. [We ^P_{VP} (^{Aux}_v had ^{Mv}_v had) lot of fun] = perfect

The primary verb, 'do' as an operator is used as a 'DUMMY' verb. It is used while deriving negative and interrogative sentences, the verb phrase of the basic sentence does not have any operator verb. For example,

1. They know answers.
- 1a. They do not know answers. = Negative
- 1b. Do they know answers? = Interrogative
- 1c. What do they know? = Interrogative

Function: Primary verbs can functions as:

A) **Main verb (Mv) in a verb phrase:** $VP (\overset{P}{\text{v}} \overset{Mv}{\text{was}}), VP (\overset{P}{\text{v}} \overset{Mv}{\text{has}}), VP (\overset{P}{\text{v}} \overset{Mv}{\text{did}})$

B) **Auxiliary (Aux) in a verb phrase:** $VP (\overset{P}{\text{v}} \overset{Aux}{\text{was}} \overset{Mv}{\text{reading}}),$

$VP (\overset{P}{\text{v}} \overset{Aux}{\text{has}} \overset{Aux}{\text{been}} \overset{Mv}{\text{studying}}), VP (\overset{P}{\text{v}} \overset{Aux}{\text{has}} \overset{Mv}{\text{had}}), VP (\overset{P}{\text{v}} \overset{Aux}{\text{didn't}} \overset{Mv}{\text{know}})$

3.2.4.7 Interjections (ij)

Interjections have relatively a minor status in language. They are spontaneous words or expressions that express spontaneous feelings or reactions. They include words like 'ah', 'oh', 'ouch' 'phew', 'ugh', 'wow' and many others. Interjections also include swear words like 'damn', 'hell', 'Jesus', 'shit' and others; greetings such as 'good morning', 'hello', 'Hi' and others; and other signaling words like 'goodbye', 'gee', 'yes', 'no', 'okay', 'shoo', etc.

Like prepositions and conjunctions, interjections too do not have any function label. For example, 1. [ij Ugh, I forgot my purse].

2.[ij Wow, they are serving ice-cream].

3.2.4.8 Particles

The closed class words are further classified into the words having a function in phrases and the words having no function in phrases. Determiners, enumerators, pronouns, operator verbs have a function in phrases. On the other hand, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections have no function in function labels. They are simply

‘markers’. For instance, prepositions are introductory markers in prepositional phrases. These marker words are called ‘particles’ which literally means ‘little part’. It means prepositions, conjunctions and interjections are ‘little parts of sentences. However, they meaning and importance but they do not come in the structure of phrases. The following sentence is an example:

[_{cj} And _{ij} alas she did not get the bus].

Furthermore, there are words which cannot be included in any of the word classes we have discussed so far. They are unique in function. For example, the word ‘to’ which comes before the infinitive verb form (‘to read’, ‘to be’, ‘to write’) and the negative word ‘not’. These words do not have any special label in the constituent structure grammar.

Check Your Progress II

1. Identify the class of the underlined words in the following examples:

- i. She came in.
- ii. They love English.
- iii. Guradi has been reading a book.
- iv. The climbers need a solid support.
- v. She could see no man on the hill.
- vi. We have something for everybody.
- vii. The third step is quiet easy.
- viii. Now the sun will set and the stars will twinkle.
- ix. She lives for him.
- x. They are beinghonoured.
- xi. Hey!, wait a minute.
- xii. That might not happen.

Terms to Remember

1. Word : a unit of grammar bigger than morpheme and smaller than phrase

2. Open word classes: open ended word classes
3. Closes word classes: word classes with fixed number of members
4. Form labels: labels given at the foot of the unit and showing its grammatical class
5. Function labels: labels showing the position the unit and given at the top of the unit
6. Function: the position taken by the unit in a large unit.
7. Form: structure of the unit
8. Particles: word classes without any function labels

3.3 Summary

The course 'Language and Linguistics' introduces you to the constituent structure grammar. In this unit we have discussed word classes which are traditionally called parts of speech. Now you are familiar with the following word classes:

- A) Open word classes: noun (N), verb (i.e. full-verb) (V), adjective (Aj), adverb (Av)
- B) Closed word classes: determiner (d), pronoun (pn), enumerator (e), preposition (p), conjunction (cj), operator-verb (v) and interjection (ij)

3.4 Answers to Check Your Progress

- I) 1. Count nouns: airplane, weed, laugh, employer, month,
Mass nouns: silver, happiness, rubbish, music, steam
Nouns both count and mass: paper, grass cake, room, rope
2. i. ¹early (Aj), ²early (Av); ii. ¹daily(Aj), ²daily(Av); iii. ¹left (V), ²left(Aj);
iv. ¹point(V), ²point(N).
- II) 1. i. in (Av);ii. love (V); iii.Guradi (N); iv. solid (Aj); v. no (d); vi. something (pn); vii. third (e); viii. and (cj); ix. for (p); x. being (v); xi. Hey!(ij); xii. might (v)

3.5 Exercises

I. Write short notes:

- a) Three criteria b) Open word classes c) Closed word classes

II. Distinguish between:

a) Form and function b) count nouns and mass nouns c) concrete nouns and abstract nouns d) proper nouns and common nouns e) gradable adjectives and non-gradable adjectives f) regular verbs and irregular verbs g) full verbs and operator verbs h) primary verbs and modal verbs i) determiners and pronouns j) prepositions and adverbs

III. Give the plural forms of the following nouns:

- a) child b) woman c) foot d) radius

IV. Give the Ved and Ven forms of the following verbs:

- a) come b) sit c) be d) see e) write f) cut

3.6 Further Readings:

Leech, Geoffrey N. (1969), Margarette Deuchar and Robert Hoogenrood. (1982). *English Grammar for Today A New Introduction*. London: MacMillan Press Ltd.

Quirk, Randolph., Greenbaum, S., Leech, N., and Svartvik, J. (1972). *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*. England: Longman.

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Module V

Phrases

Contents:

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 - 5.2.4 Section IV: Prepositional Phrases
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 - 5.2.6 Section VI: The Adjective Phrases
 - 5.2.7 Section VII: The Adverb Phrases
 - 5.2.8 Section VIII: The Verb Phrases
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- 5.4 Terms to remember
- 5.5 Answers to Check Your Progress
- 5.6 Exercises
- 5.6 References for further study

5.0 Objectives:

This unit aims to :-

- familiarise students to the grammatical unit called 'phrase' in English.
- let students know the classes of phrase in English.
- acquaint students with the main and subordinate phrases.
- introduce students to structure of phrases in English.

- inform students about the elements of phrases in English.
- explain to students the functions of phrases.
- help students to understand and use phrases in English on their own.
- enhance the linguistic competence of students.

5.1 Introduction:

Dear students, by this time you are acquainted with words and word classes in the English language. Language is a system of systems. It is compositional whereby bigger units are made of smaller units. Therefore, phonemes are used to compose morphemes which are used to form words which are used to make phrases and so on. Words are the building blocks. They are the signifiers that signify things, persons, places, concepts, ideas, emotions, desires, qualities, actions, manner, degree and every tangible and intangible thing that exists around us.

The word classes, as it has been discussed in the previous unit, have specific function in the phrases in which they occur. An open word class normally comes as an essential element of a phrase and the closed classes of words like determiners (d), enumerators (e), prepositions (p), and operator verbs (v) play a significant role in building the grammatical skeletons of phrases. This means to understand phrases in English one should know the forms and functions of word classes.

The current unit discusses in detail the classes of phrases in English. It explains the types and classes of phrases and their functions and structures.

5.2 Subject Matter

5.2.1 Section I: Classes of Phrases

English has the grammatical units such as **Morpheme** (Mo), **Word** (Wo), **Phrase** (Ph), **Clause** (Cl) and **Sentence** (Se). Out of these units the SENTENCE is the largest unit which is made of CLAUSES, PHRASES and WORDS. In the hierarchy of these units, PHRASES are units intermediate between clause and word. A phrase contains one or more words.

English has six classes of phrases: Noun Phrases (NP), Prepositional Phrases (PP), Genitive Phrases (GP), Adjective Phrases (AjP), Adverb Phrases (AvP) and Verb Phrases (VP). Out of these, NPs, AjPs and AvPs have the same basic structure:

({M*}H{M*}) in which – ‘H’ stands for the HEAD word of phrase; ‘M’ stands for the MODIFIERS in phrase; and the asterisk ‘*’ means that there can be any number of modifiers in a phrase. This means that NPs, AjPs and AvPs must have a HEAD. Furthermore, the curl bracket {} around the modifiers in the structure shows that they are optional. The structure also shows that there are two kinds of modifiers: PREMODIFIERS and POSTMODIFIERS. The former comes before the HEAD, while the later comes after the HEAD. This is very helpful for us to think about the possible structures of NPs, AjPs and AvPs which can be: (H), (M H), (H M), (M H M), (M M H), (H M M), or (M M H M):.

1. NP(^HRamakant) : (*Ramakant* is a head).
2. NP(^M an ^M icy ^H road) : (*an* and *icy* are premodifiers)
3. NP (^H somebody ^M handsome): (*handsome* is a postmodifier).

But, PPs and GPs can be considered as NPs with an additional particle or marker, for example:

- a) the house _{PP(p)}(^M of _d ^M the _{Aj} ^H famous _N lady)

The part in round bracket in the above example is a prepositional phrase in which the preposition, ‘of’ is added to the front of the PP.

- b) _{GP(d)}(^M the _{Aj} ^M famous _N ^H lady’s) house

The part in round bracket in the above example is a genitive phrase in which the genitive marker (‘s) is added to the end of the GP. This shows that PPs and GPs are similar in that they have a noun as the Head.

Finally, the VP has a unique structure. It is different from other phrases as far as structure is concerned. The VP plays a very important role in the clause. The structure of the Verb Phrase will be discussed in the end of this unit.

5.2.2 Section II: Main and Subordinate Phrases

Actually, subordination is a way to make a unit of grammar as complex as we like. On the basis of your study of the grammar of English till now, you might know the difference between main and subordinate clauses. But, here we consider the same difference for phrases. It must be noted that subordination takes place when a unit

occurs as a part of another unit of the equal or lower rank. Phrase is a grammatical unit. It consists of words and it comes as a part of clause. The position taken by a unit in relation to other units is referred to as its function. In the context of words, function determines the class or form of a word. Similarly, in the context of phrases, function of a phrase determines whether the phrase is a MAIN PHRASE or a SUBORDINATE PHRASE.

A MAIN PHRASE is the phrase which occurs as a direct element of a clause. On the other hand, a SUBORDINATE PHRASE is one which comes as a part of another phrase. For example, the phrases in the following sentence are main phrases:

S P O
 [NP (Kavita) VP (buys) NP (many books)].

On the other hand, just observe the following sentence:

S M P C M
 [NP (The covers PP (of the books)) VP (are) AdjP (as red PP (as blood))].

In the above example ‘of the books’ and ‘as blood’ do not come as the direct elements of the clause. They occur as the elements of the main phrases. Therefore they are called the subordinate phrases. ‘Of the books’ is a prepositional phrase which functions as the postmodifier in the noun phrase and ‘as blood’ is another prepositional which acts as the postmodifier in the adjective phrase.

As far as bracketing is concerned, phrases are put into round brackets and square brackets are put around clauses and the following bracketing notations are the pointers of main and subordinate phrases:

Main phrase = [.....(Ph)....] and Subordinate phrase = (.....(Ph).....)

Main and subordinate phrases can be indicated in terms of tree diagrams as given below:



Besides, a subordinate phrase is always directly or indirectly a part of a main phrase. This leads to the possibility of phrases within phrases which results in subordinate phrases containing further subordinate phrases to an indefinite extent. The following examples show this very clearly:

1. NP(the meeting ^M PP (of workers ^M PP (in the factory)))
2. NP(the notice ^M PP (of the meeting ^M PP (of workers ^M PP (in the factory))))
3. NP(the drafting ^M PP (of the notice ^M PP (of the meeting ^M PP (of workers ^M PP (in the factory))))))

This is presented in the form of the tree diagrams as given below:

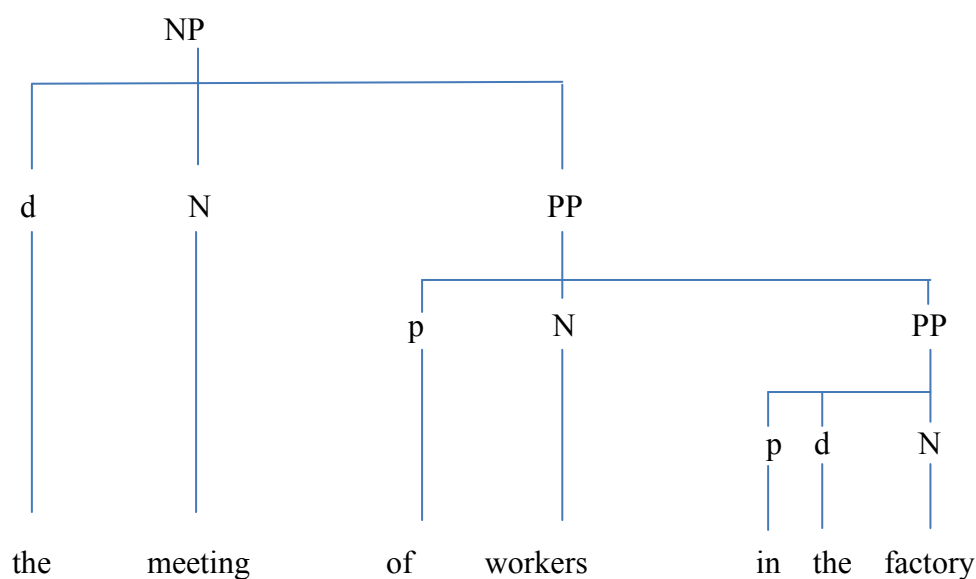


Diagram 5.1

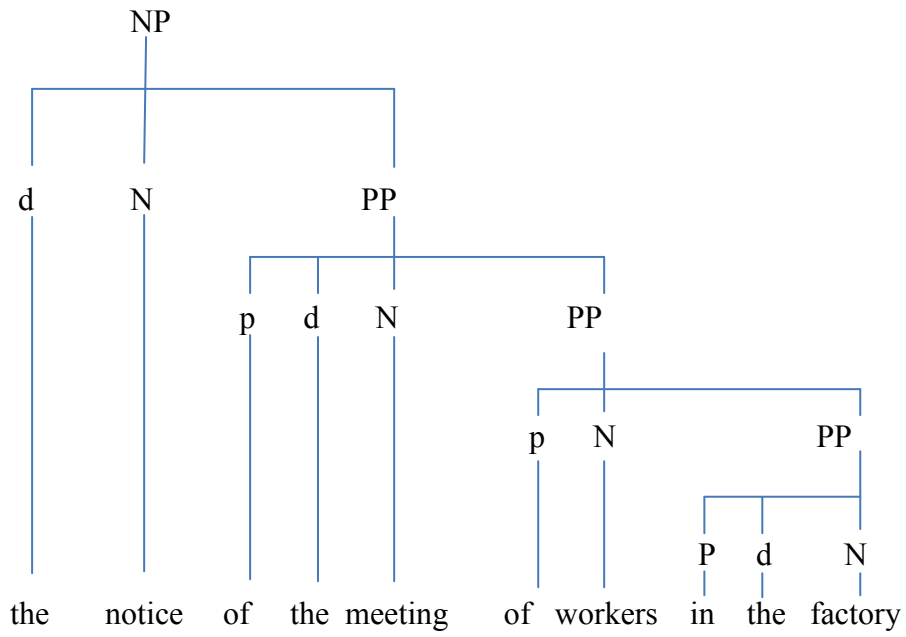


Diagram 5.2

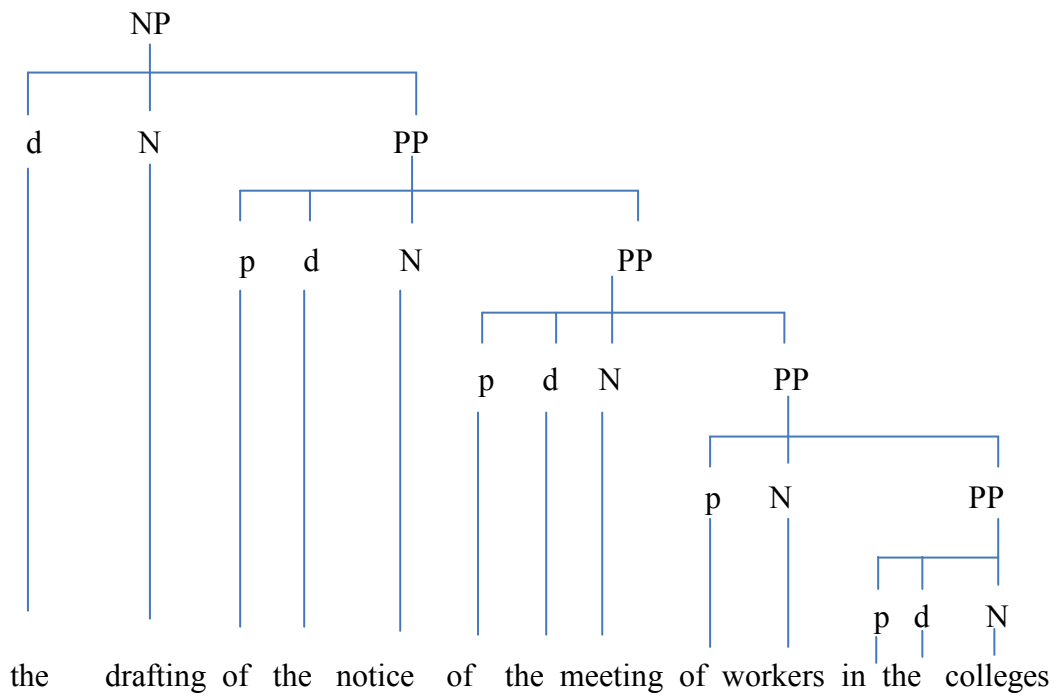


Diagram 5.3

Bracketing and tree diagrams are used for the analysis of the grammatical units. The round brackets, () are put around phrases; the square brackets, [] are put around clauses and sentences; and the angled brackets, < > are put around the coordinated grammatical units. While processing analysis form and function labels are used. NP, PP, GP, AjP, AvP, VP are the form labels which are given at the foot of the elements and M, H, Mv (Main verb), Aux (Auxiliary verb), Voc (Vocative), P (Predicator), S (Subject), O (Object), Od (Direct object), Oi (Indirect Object), C (Complement), Cs (Subject Complement), Co (Object Complement) and A (Adverbial) which are the function labels. They are written at the top of the element. In the following units these labels will be used for grammatical analysis.

Subordination is used to make grammatical structures complex and subordination of phrases is one of the major sources of grammatical complexity. This kind of complexity is mostly exemplified by NPs and PPs. Now it is time to discuss the classes of phrases in English.

The class of a grammatical unit is identified with help of the three criteria namely, function, form and meaning. As you have studied in the previous unit, function is the most important; form is the next important and meaning is the least important. There are six classes of phrases in English. They can be partly classified by their external function in a unit of which they are elements. Phrases can also be classified partly by their internal structure which means elements of which a phrase is made of. Normally, when a phrase is made of head and modifiers, premodifiers are likely to be single words. On the other hand, postmodifiers are likely to be phrases or clauses. But the genitive phrase is a significant exception to this. Generally, this tendency is exemplified by the structure of the NP which is discussed below.

5.2.3 Section III: The Noun Phrases (NP):

During its analysis a sentence is not immediately divided into words. It is, in the beginning, divided into clauses, if any, then into phrases and lastly into words. In this way, phrases in a clause or a sentence are identified. As discussed earlier, the function of a grammatical unit in the group of units plays a very significant role in the identification of its grammatical class. So let us see function of the noun phrase.

A) Function

Noun phrases are one of the very important elements of the clause. They have multiple functions.

a) In the clause NPs can act as:

1. **Subject (S):** a. [^S_{NP} (**The song**)^P (is) ^C(very nice)].

b. [^S_{NP} (**She**)^P (is) ^C(lucky)].

2. **Object (O):** a. [^S(He) ^P(collects) ^O_{NP} (**funds**)].

b. [^S(Her brother) ^P(gifted) ^O_{NP} (**her husband**) ^O_{NP} (**an electric scooter**)].

‘Funds’ in (2a) and ‘an electric scooter’ in (2b) are Direct Objects (O_d). On the other hand, ‘her husband’ in (2b) is Indirect Object (O_i).

3. **Complement (C):** a. [^S(Radha) ^P(is) ^C_{NP} (**a teacher**)].

b. [^S(The girls) ^P(made) ^O(that boy) ^C_{NP} (**the group leader**)].

‘A teacher’ in (3a) is Subject Complement (C_s) and ‘the group leader’ in (3b) is Object Complement (C_o).

4. **Adverbial (A):** a. [^S(The police) ^P(ran) ^A_{NP} (**six miles**) ^A_{NP} (**last night**)].

b. [^S(The exams) ^P(will be conducted) ^A_{NP} (**next month**)].

In (4a) and (4b) the NPs function as adverbials. Such kinds of NPs express the meaning related to distance (six miles) and time (last night), (next month).

b) An NP can occur as a subordinate phrase. Such NPs act as post-modifiers in other NPs:

a. (_d ^Mher _N ^Hbrother, _{NP} ^M(**the versatile teacher**))

b. ^H(_N Manmohan Singh, ^M_{NP} (**the economist**))

This is called APPOSITION in which the main NP is separated from the subordinate NP with a comma and the subordinate NP modifies the main NP.

(B) Structure

As mentioned earlier, the structure of NPs is ($\{M^*\}H\{M^*\}$). Head, premodifiers and postmodifiers are the chief elements of NPs. However, NPs have very different structures. Therefore it is necessary to know elements of NPs in detail.

➤ **Head of an NP:** The HEAD of a Noun Phrase can be:

1. **aNoun:** ^M ^M ^H ^M ^M ^H ^H
_{NP(d a Aj good N girl), NP(d the Aj little N lamb), NP(N Kolhapur), and others.}
2. **aPronoun:** ^H ^H ^H
_{NP(P_n I), NP(P_n he), NP(P_n somebody PP(from Kolhapur)), and others.}
3. **anAdjective:** ^M ^H ^M ^H ^M ^H
_{NP(d the Aj bold), NP(d the Aj beautiful), NP(d the Aj poor), and others.}
4. **anEnumerator:** ^M ^H ^M ^H ^M ^H
_{NP(d the e three), NP(d all e five), NP(d the e four), and others.}
5. **aGenitive Phrase:** ^H ^H
_{NP(GP (Mira's)), NP(GP (My mother's)), and others.}

It must be noted that adjectives and enumerators less commonly function as the head of an NP. And in such cases there is generally a noun which is semantically understood to be the Head, as it is exemplified in the following pair:

- a. 'There are four books and *the smart* will read *all four*.' is understood to be -
- b. 'There are four books and the smart **person/ student** will read all four **books**.'

'The smart' and 'all four' in (a) above are the NPs having adjective and enumerator as head respectively. 'The smart' is understood as 'the smart person/student' and 'all four' refers to 'all four books' as the word, 'books' occurs in the earlier clause in the sentence (a).

➤ **Premodifiers of an NP can be:**

1. **Determiners:** NP (^M_d **that**ball), NP (^M_d **what** ^M_d **a** song), NP (^M_d **more** money)
2. **Enumerators:** NP (^M_e **five** fairies), NP (the ^M_e **second** run), NP (his ^M_e **first** marriage)
3. **Adjectives:** NP (^M_{Aj} **good** girls), NP (a ^M_{Aj} **tasty** toast), NP (the ^M_{Aj} **sweet** songs)
4. **Nouns:** NP (a ^M_N **silver** ring), NP (the ^M_N **verb** phrase), NP (^M_N **Mahalaxmi** express)
5. **Genitive phrases:** NP (^M_{GP} (**Shiva's**) shoes), NP (^M_{GP} (**someone's**) support),
NP (^M_{GP} (**his father's**) fear)
6. **Adverbs** (in the initial position): NP (^M_{Av} **quite** a right suggestion) NP (^M_{Av} **reasonably** a big house) NP (^M_{Av} **rather** a deadly disease)
7. **Adjective phrases:** NP (an ^M_{AjP} (**extremely hot**) room), NP (a ^M_{AjP} (**rather too simple**) test)
8. **Prepositional phrases:** NP (^M_{PP} (**round-the-clock**) protection),
9. **Compound words:** NP (the **narrow-minded** boy)
10. **Ven forms of verbs:** NP (the **roasted** nuts), NP (a **sanitized** room)
11. **Ving forms of verbs:** NP (the **sleeping** beauty), NP (a **sanitizing** spray)

It must be noted that compound words and Ven and Ving forms of verbs are adjectives in this context.

➤ **Postmodifiers of an NP:**

The postmodifiers of a Noun phrase can be:

1. **Prepositional phrases:** NP (men ^M_{PP} (**in the room**)),

NP (the girl ^MPP (**from a village**)), NP(a book ^MPP (**on the table**))

2. **Relative clauses:** NP(the boy ^MRCI [**who loves music**])

NP(the bike ^MRCI [**which he bought**]),

3. **Adverbs:** NP (the books ^MAv **downstairs**), NP (the girls ^MAv **upstairs**),

4. **Adjectives:** NP(someone ^MAj **strong**), NP(something ^MAj **sweet**)

5. **Noun phrases (in apposition):** NP (English, ^MNP (**the global language**)),

NP (Meena, ^MNP (**the group leader**)), NP (the basil, ^MNP (**a medicinal plant**))

6. **Comparative clauses:** They read NP (more books ^MCCI [**than they can buy books**]).

7. **Prepositional clauses:** They had NP(the idea ^MPCI [**of when corona would start**]).

Furthermore, a noun phrase can be considerably complex because of these various kinds of modifiers. The following example shows a likely premodification in an NP:

NP (^MAv exactly ^d the ^e ^M first ^e two ^M AjP uncensored ^M AjP adult ^M AjP popular ^H N films)

Even postmodification also makes NPs more complex. There is no limit to the length of NPs because of the common occurrence of subordinate PPs and RCIs. The following examples show the complex NPs with postmodification:

A. NP(^d the ^N ball ^{PP} (in the bag ^{PP} (on the table ^{PP} (in the bed room ^{PP} (of my sister))))))

B. NP (a woman ^{PP} (at the Rankalalake) ^{PP} (with a blue bag))

C. [(This) (is)_{NP} (the ball [which was (in the bag [which was (on the table [which is(in the bed room [which belongs to my sister])])])])])].

The examples (A), (B) and (C) show that postmodification in NPs is more complex than premodification as in postmodification there no limit to the length of NPs. (A) and (B) show that PPs can occur as postmodifiers in NPs as well as PPs. (A) is an example of the phrase within phrase within phrase within phrase structure. On the other hand, in (B) the two PPs are independent elements of the NP. The complexity can be increased as in (C) where RCIs are used as postmodifiers in NPs and then in the postmodifying PPs.

Moreover, in order to understand the structure of NPs clearly, there is a need to understand the two closed word classes, pronouns and determiners and their subtypes. As it has been discussed in the earlier unit, pronouns function as Head in NPs and determiners act as premodifiers in NPs. The complete list of the English pronouns and determiners has been provided in the previous unit. However, there is a considerable overlap between the two. So let us see the subtypes of pronouns and determiners:

➤ **A. Pronouns (pn):**

- a. **Personal pronouns:** I, you, he, she, it, we, they, me, us, him, her, them, myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves, one, oneself.
- b. **Possessive pronouns:** mine, ours, yours, his, hers, theirs.
- c. **Demonstrative pronouns:** this, that, these, those.
- d. **Quantifier pronouns:**
 - **General:** all, some, any, none, one, another, each, both, several, either, neither, etc.
 - **Compound:** everybody, somebody, anybody, nobody, everyone, someone, anyone, no one, everything, something, anything, nothing.
 - **Gradable:** many, much, more, most; few, fewer, fewest; little, less, least.
- e. **Wh-pronouns:** who, whom, whose, what, which, whatever, etc.

➤ **B. Determiners (d):**

- a. **Articles:** the, a/an.
- b. **Possessive determiners:** my, our, your, his, her, its, their.
- c. **Demonstrative determiners:** this, that, these, those (the same as pronouns).
- d. **Quantifier determiners:**
 - **General:** all, some, any, no, every, another, each, both, several, either, neither, etc.
 - **Gradable:** many, much, more, most, few, etc. (the same as pronouns).
 - e. **Wh-determiners:** what, which, whose, whatever, whichever.

The above information shows that except the personal pronouns and articles all the other classes of pronouns and determiners are almost the same. The demonstratives and the gradable quantifiers are exactly the same for both pronouns and determiners. It is the function of pronouns and determiners in NPs that differentiates them. The pronouns always function as Head of NPs. On contrary, the determiners always function as Premodifiers of NPs. The following examples show this difference quite clearly:

1. [_{NP} (^H_{Pn} That) (is) _{NP} (^H_{Pn} yours)].
2. [_{NP} (^M_d That ^H_N man)(has taken) _{NP} (^M_d your ^H_N pen)].

The possessive pronouns and determiners mean the same but their function in NPs make them different. The possessive pronouns (mine, ours, yours, his, hers and theirs) can come in NPs alone as the head as in _{NP} (^H_{Pn} yours) in (1) above. The possessive determiners need a head to come after them as in _{NP} (^M_d your ^H_N pen) in (2). The meanings of possessive determiners (my, our, your, his, her, its and their) are similar to respective genitive phrases (Rafika's roses). However, the possessive determiners are single words which come in the

position of the determiners, so they are treated as determiners. Previously they used to be treated as pronouns.

5.2.4 Section IV: Prepositional Phrases (PP)

As per earlier discussion, prepositional phrases play a significant role as far as their function and structure is concerned. Like noun phrases, prepositional phrases can occur as both a main phrase and a subordinate phrase.

(A) Function:

Prepositional phrases act as:

A) Adverbials (A) in the clause:

1. [_{PP}^A (For the first time), (they) (went) _{PP}^A (to Panhala) _{PP}^A (on Monday) _{PP}^A (in the evening) _{PP}^A (by KMT)].
2. [_{PP}^A (In summer) (she) (sent) (a letter) _{PP}^A (to him) _{PP}^A (about a project) _{PP}^A (in the company) _{PP}^A (by speed post)]

The above examples show that there can be any number of prepositional phrases in a clause. All these PPs are called the ‘Adverbial PPs’. They express various extra-circumstantial meanings such as place, time, agency, duration, purpose and others.

B) Premodifier in an NP:

1. NP(_{PP}^M (**round the clock**) service)
2. NP(_{PP}^M (**across the state**) sale)

C) Postmodifier:

1. **in an NP:** _{NP}(a tree _{PP}^M (**by the well**)), _{NP}(a man _{PP}^M (**from the Mars**))
2. **in an AjP:** _{AjP}(too small _{PP}^M (**for comfort**)), _{AjP} (taller _{PP}^M (**than a tree**))

3. **in an adverb phrase:** $_{AVP}(\text{too slowly } \overset{M}{\underset{PP}{\text{(for joy)}}})$
2. **in a prepositional phrase:** $_{PP}(\text{in a room } \overset{M}{\underset{PP}{\text{(in that house)}}})$,
 $_{PP}(\text{under the Jujibe tree } \overset{M}{\underset{PP}{\text{(behind your bungalow)}}})$

(B) Structure:

So far as structure is concerned, PPs are exactly like NPs, except that they begin with a preposition. Consequently, the equation is $PP = p + NP$ as in the following examples:

$_{PP}(\overset{M}{p}\text{at}_d \overset{H}{\text{the}}_N \text{college})$ $_{PP}(\overset{M}{p}\text{on}_d \overset{H}{\text{the}}_N \text{tower})$ $_{PP}(\overset{M}{p}\text{by}_d \overset{H}{\text{that}}_N \text{time})$
 $_{PP}(\overset{M}{p}\text{to}_d \overset{H}{\text{the}}_N \text{university})$ $_{PP}(\overset{H}{p}\text{from}_N \text{London})$

Generally prepositions cannot be separated from the head and modifiers that come after them. But in different conditions a preposition can be separated from the NP following it:

- (a) (the boy [$_{PP}(\overset{A}{\text{with whom}})_{NP}(\overset{S}{\text{she}})_{VP}(\overset{P}{\text{lives}})$]))
- (b) (the boy [$_{NP}(\overset{S}{\text{whom}})_{NP}(\overset{P}{\text{she}})_{VP}(\overset{P}{\text{lives}}) (\overset{P}{\text{with}})$]))

In (a) above ‘with whom’ is a PP. However, in (b) the preposition, ‘with’ has been separated and kept at the end of the clause, and the pronoun, ‘whom’ has become a separate NP.

Furthermore, prepositions can be separated in another way. There is a difference in **prepositional phrases**, **prepositional verbs** and **phrasal verbs**. Let us see the difference:

- (a) The players stayed in a room.
- (b) The players looked for a room.
- (c) The players had a few thousand rupees put away for a stay in a room.

The PP in (a), ‘in a room’ function as an adverbial. In (b) ‘looked for’ is an idiom. Such idioms (*look at, stand by, deal with*) are often called prepositional verbs and the NPs which come after them are called prepositional objects.

There is also a need to understand very common English verb idioms which are called phrasal verbs (hang about, make up, take off) like ‘put away’ in (c). In this case the second word (about, up, off, away) is an adverb and not a preposition. To Leech et. al.(2006:74-75), phrasal verbs and prepositional verbs are important but problematic areas of English grammar. It is difficult to analyse sentences with phrasal verbs and prepositional verbs correctly. As far as meaning is concerned, phrasal verbs act like a single unit but they are combination of two words (verb+adverb). Here the adverb is treated as part of the VP and not as an independent adverb phrase.

5.2.5 Section V: The Genitive Phrase

Prepositional phrases and genitive phrases are subtly related to noun phrases. Noun phrases and prepositional phrases can occur as main as well as subordinate phrases. But genitive phrases occur only as subordinate phrases. They always have a subordinate status according to which they function.

(A) Function

Genitive phrases act as :

(a) premodifiers in NPs:

1. $\text{NP}(\overset{\text{M}}{\text{GP}} \text{ (the friend's)} \text{ car})$, 2. $\text{NP}(\overset{\text{M}}{\text{GP}} \text{ (her father's)} \text{ chair})$,
3. $\text{NP}(\overset{\text{M}}{\text{GP}} \text{ (Rohan's)} \text{ medical report})$

(b) premodifiers in GPs: As prepositional phrases and noun phrases can function as postmodifiers in other PPs and NPs, GPs can function as premodifiers in GPs as in:

1. $\text{NP}(\overset{\text{M}}{\text{GP}} (\overset{\text{M}}{\text{GP}} \text{ (Payal's)} \text{ mother's}) \overset{\text{H}}{\text{N}} \text{ scooter})$
2. $\text{NP}(\overset{\text{M}}{\text{GP}} (\overset{\text{M}}{\text{GP}} (\overset{\text{M}}{\text{GP}} (\overset{\text{M}}{\text{GP}} \text{ (her teacher's)} \text{ wife's}) \text{ sister's}) \text{ husband's}) \overset{\text{H}}{\text{N}} \text{ house})$

3. [This farm is $\overset{C}{NP}(\overset{H}{GP}(\overset{M}{GP}(\overset{M}{GP}(\overset{M}{(their\ leader's)}\ brother's)}\ teacher's)}\ supervisor's))]$

(c) **thead of NP:**

1. $\overset{S}{NP}(\overset{H}{GP}(\text{Uttam's}))\ (is)\ (an\ informative\ book)]$.
2. $[(\text{This\ pen})\ (is)\ \overset{C}{NP}(\overset{H}{GP}(\text{Radha's}))]$.
3. $[(\text{These\ stories})\ (are)\ \overset{C}{NP}(\overset{H}{GP}(\text{the\ young\ boy's}))]$.

(B) **Structure**

Like PPs, GPs are precisely like NPs except that they end with the particle (genitive morpheme) -'s. This is presented in the equation, $GP = NP + 's$ as in *the short soldier's*. The genitive morpheme is realized as zero morph (i.e. it is not separately pronounced), if the base noun to which it is added ends with /z/ or /s/. It is simply written as an apostrophe ('), for example, *for Jesus' sake, Socrates' principles, boys' hostel, students' union* and others.

Check Your Progress I

Identify the main and subordinate phrases in the following sentences.

1. Pushpa purchased a pen with two caps.
2. The colour of the tower was as black as coal.
3. She loves the comfort of the chair in Jeevan's old house.
4. Vasant is a farmer.
5. Kavya has been reading this novel since last night.

5.2.6 Section VI: The Adjective Phrases (AjP)

As per the structure, AjPs tend to be simpler than NPs, though both classes of phrases have the same elements. The structure of AjP is $(\{M^*\}H\{M^*\})$. But AjPs are often made of only a head, and unusually they have more than one premodifier and one postmodifier.

(A) Function

AjPs function as:

(a) complement (C) in a clause:

1. [(That) (seems) ^C_{AjP} (awesome)]. 2. [(The girl) (is) ^C_{AjP} (very clever)]
3. [(She) (appears) ^C_{AjP} (smarter [than her mother is])].

(b) premodifier in an NP:

1. NP(a ^M_{AjP} (very easy) question) 2. NP (^M_{AjP} (too tall) tree)

(c) apostmodifier in an NP:

1. NP (someone ^M_{Aj} (very kind)) 2. NP (something ^M_{Aj} (slightly sweet))

(B) Structure

As discussed earlier, the structure of AjPs is ($\{M^*\}H\{M^*\}$).

(a) Head of an AjP is always an adjective:

1. ^H_{AjP} (_{Aj} free) 2. ^H_{AjP} (very _{Aj} nice) 3. ^H_{AjP} (_{Aj} wiser) 4. ^H_{AjP} (_{Aj} cheapest)

(3) and (4) show that the adjectives even in their comparative and superlative forms function as the Head of AjPs.

(b) Premodifiers in an AjP are generally adverbs and characteristically adverbs of degree like *extremely*, *rather*, *too*, *very*.

1. ^M_{AjP} (_{Av} extremely spicy) 2. ^M_{AjP} (_{Av} rather fresh) 3. ^M_{AjP} (_{Av} too tasty)
4. ^M_{AjP} (_{Av} very vast) 5. (^M_{Av} rather ^M_{Av} too funny)

The degree adverbs *very* and *too* can be repeated: ^M_{AjP} (_{Av} very ^M_{Av} very ^M_{Av} very happy).

(c) **Postmodifiers in an AjP** can be:

1. adverbs:

i. [She has become ^M_{AjP} (^H_{Av} very ^M_{Aj} clever ^M_{Av} **indeed**)].

ii. [The boy became ^H_{AjP} (^M_{Aj} confident ^M_{Av} **enough**)].

2. prepositional phrases:

i. ^M_{AjP} (^H_{Av} too ^M_{Aj} small ^M_{PP} (**for party**)) ii. ^M_{AjP} (^M_{Av} rather ^M_{Av} very ^H_{Av} too ^M_{Aj} hard ^M_{PP} (**for comfort**))

3. comparative clauses:

i. [She looks ^H_{AjP} (^M_{Aj} taller ^M_{CCI} [**than her mother is**])].

ii. [He is ^M_{AjP} (^H_{Av} more ^M_{Aj} handsome ^M_{CCI} [**than his father was at his age**])].

4. prepositional clauses:

i. [The milk is ^M_{AjP} (^H_{Av} too ^M_{Aj} creamy ^M_{PCI} [**for her to consume**])].

ii. [The river was ^M_{AjP} (^H_{Av} too ^M_{Aj} shallow ^M_{PCI} [**for the swimmers to swim**])].

5.2.7 Section VII: The Adverb Phrases (AvP)

Adverb phrases are used to modify meaning at the level of clause. They add extra-circumstantial information such as place, time, manner, degree, etc.

(A) Function

Adverb phrases function as adverbials (A) in a clause:

i. [He runs ^A_{AvP} (**rather slowly**)]. ii. [She will reach ^A_{AvP} (**there**) ^A_{AvP} (**very soon**)].

(B) Structure

As discussed earlier, NPs, AjPs and AvPs have the same structure i.e. (^{M*}H^{M*}).

1. **The head of an AvP** is always an adverb:

- i. $\text{AvP}(\overset{\text{H}}{\text{very}}_{\text{Av}} \text{fast})$ ii. $\text{AvP}(\text{rather} \overset{\text{H}}{\text{Av}} \text{happily})$ iii. $\text{AvP}(\overset{\text{H}}{\text{Av}} \text{seldom})$

2. **Premodifiers in AvPs** are always adverbs:

- i. $\text{AvP}(\overset{\text{M}}{\text{Av}} \overset{\text{H}}{\text{very}}_{\text{Av}} \text{luckily})$ ii. $\text{AvP}(\overset{\text{M}}{\text{Av}} \overset{\text{H}}{\text{too}}_{\text{Av}} \text{seldom})$ iii. $\text{AvP}(\overset{\text{M}}{\text{Av}} \overset{\text{H}}{\text{quite}}_{\text{Av}} \text{quietly})$

3. **Postmodifiers in an AvP** can be:

(a) **an adverb**: $\text{AvP}(\overset{\text{M}}{\text{Av}} \overset{\text{M}}{\text{cleverly}}_{\text{Av}} \text{indeed})$

(b) **a PP**: $\text{AvP}(\overset{\text{M}}{\text{Av}} \overset{\text{M}}{\text{rather}}_{\text{Av}} \overset{\text{H}}{\text{too}}_{\text{Av}} \overset{\text{M}}{\text{fast}}_{\text{PP}} \text{(for success)})$

$\text{AvP}(\overset{\text{M}}{\text{Av}} \overset{\text{H}}{\text{more}}_{\text{Av}} \overset{\text{M}}{\text{comfortably}}_{\text{PP}} \text{(than last attempt)})$

(c) **a comparative clause**:

i. [He spoke English $\text{AvP}(\overset{\text{M}}{\text{Av}} \overset{\text{H}}{\text{more}}_{\text{Av}} \overset{\text{M}}{\text{fluently}}_{\text{CCI}} \text{[than we had expected]})$].

ii. [The farmers work $\text{AvP}(\overset{\text{M}}{\text{Av}} \overset{\text{H}}{\text{as}}_{\text{Av}} \overset{\text{M}}{\text{happily}}_{\text{CCI}} \text{[as a singer sings a favourite song]})$].

Check Your Progress II

Give function and form labels for each of the following words and phrases:

1. it
2. the book on the table
3. very nice
4. on a day in May
5. Gulabo's garden
6. rather hastily
7. her last poem

8. Damodar's
9. more active than an ant
10. an extremely tall tower

5.2.8 Section VIII: The Verb Phrase (VP)

The verb phrase is the most essential of all the phrase classes. It is different from all the other phrases as far as both its function and form are concerned. There can be a tensed clause without an NP, AjP, AvP or a PP, but there cannot be a tensed clause without a VP. A tensed clause has the tensed predicator and a tenseless clause has the tenseless predicator.

(A) Function

The verb phrase always functions as predicator (P) in a clause. It has no other function and no other phrase can have its function. On the contrary, an NP can function as S, O, C and/or A in a clause and an AjP acts as C in a clause; an AvP and a PP function as A in a clause. This clearly shows how verb phrases are different from other phrases.

- i. [^PWe _{VP} (**have been studying**) English for atleast fifteen years].
- ii. [^PRahul _{VP} (**works**) here].

(B) Structure

As far as structure is concerned, the verb phrases differ from all the other phrases. The verb has two kinds of elements: the main verb (Mv) and auxiliaries (Aux). The structure of the verb phrase is: ({Aux}{Aux}{Aux}{Aux}Mv). ‘{ }’ is put round the optional element. It means the main verb is an obligatory element which always comes at the end of the verb phrase.

The structure also clearly shows that a verb phrase can be made of any number of auxiliaries from zero up to four:

- i. [^PThey _{VP} (eat) noodles]. : zero auxiliary
- ii. [^PShe _{VP} (has bought) a grammar book].: one auxiliary

- iii. [He ^P_{VP} (has been invited) to the party].: two auxiliaries
- iv. [This fish ^P_{VP} (has been being imported)].: three auxiliaries
- v. [The girls ^P_{VP} (might have been being appointed) in the company].: four auxiliaries

These auxiliaries can be differentiated as per their function. They perform four different functions. They are used to express modal aspect, perfect aspect, progressive aspect and passive aspect.

The modal aspect refers to the concepts like permission, ability, possibility, probability, obligation, etc. which are expressed by the modal operator verbs. The perfect aspect means the action is completed. It is also called perfect tense. It is indicated by the primary verb 'have', when followed by the Ven form of a verb. The progressive aspect refers to the concept of action in progress or continuous action or tense. It is indicated by the primary verb 'be' when followed by the Ving form of a verb and the passive aspect denotes passivisation of subject. It is also expressed with help of the primary verb 'be', when followed by the Ven form of a transitive verb.

These elements of the verb phrase can be combined in sixteen different ways which are kinds of verb phrase. The following table shows sixteen kinds of VP:

Sr. No.	S NP		P VP					A AvP
	M e	H N	Modal Mod m	Perfect Aspect Perf hv	Progressive Aspect Prog be	Passive Aspect Pass be	Main Verb Mv V	H Av
1	Two	hearts					vibrated	gently.
2	Two	hearts	can				vibrate	gently.
3	Two	hearts		have			vibrated	gently.
4	Two	hearts			were		vibrating	gently.
5	Two	hearts				were	vibrated	gently.
6	Two	hearts	might	have			vibrated	gently.

7	Two	hearts	may		be		vibrating	gently.
8	Two	hearts	should			be	vibrated	gently.
9	Two	hearts		have	been		vibrating	gently.
10	Two	hearts		had		been	vibrated	gently.
11	Two	hearts			are	being	vibrated	gently.
12	Two	hearts	might	have	been		vibrating	gently.
13	Two	hearts	might	have		been	vibrated	gently.
14	Two	hearts	might		be	being	vibrated	gently.
15	Two	hearts		had	been	being	vibrated	gently.
16	Two	hearts	might	have	been	being	vibrated	gently.

Table 5.1

It can be seen from the above table that Modal element of a verb phrase always takes one of the modal verbs and it is followed by the INFINITIVE form (Vi) of a verb (sentences: 2,6,7,8,12,13,14,16 from the table 5.1). Perfect element of a verb phrase always takes a form of the primary verb ‘have’ followed by -EN PARTICIPLE (Ven) of a verb (sentences: 3,6,9,10,12,13,15,16 from the table 5.1). Progressive and passive elements of the verb phrase always take a form of the primary verb ‘be’. If ‘be’ is progressive, it is followed by -ING PARTICIPLE (Ving) of a verb (sentences: 4,7,9,11,12,14,15,16 from the table 5.1) and when ‘be’ is passive, it is followed by -EN PARTICIPLE (sentences: 5,8,10,11,13,14,15,16 from the table 5.1). Traditionally, -EN PARTICIPLE is called past participle. However, as per its functions it is also called perfect participle and passive participle.

The above details clearly show that the elements of the verb phrase come in a fixed order only. When a VP has only one element, it is a form of either a full verb or a primary operator verb. Modal verbs never function as the main verb of a verb phrase. Full verbs always functions as main verb and the primary operator verbs act as either auxiliary or main verb in a verb phrase. In order to understand the structure of verb phrase, there is a need to understand verb forms.

5.2.8.1 Verb forms:

All the full verbs and primary operator verbs in English have six forms. Let us see some example of the fixed patterns in which verb phrases are constructed: English verb forms can be TENSED or TENSELESS. The forms are: Vo, Vs, Ved,

Vi, Ving, Ven. The full verbs and primary operator verbs have these six forms. The following table shows the distinction between the verb forms:

Type of Verb		Tensed forms			Tenseless forms			
Class of Verb	Type of Verb	Tense			Infinitive	Participles		
		Present		Past		Past (Perfect-Passive)	Present	
		3 rd person singular Vs	Other Vo	Ved		Vi	Ven	Ving
Full-verbs	Regular	agrees	agree	agreed	agree	agreed	agreeing	
		cancel	cancel	cancelled	cancel	cancelled	cancelling	
		talks	talk	talked	talk	talked	talking	
	Irregular	brings	bring	brought	bring	brought	bring	
		cuts	cut	cut	cut	cut	cutting	
		sees	see	saw	see	seen	seeing	
Operator-verbs	Primary verbs	do	does	do	did	do	done	doing
		have (hv)	has	have	had	have	had	Having
		Be (be)	is	am/are	was/were	be	been	being
	Modals (m)	Can, may, must etc.		Could, might, etc.				

Table 5.2

As shown in the table Vo is used to indicate the present tense when the subject is not third person singular. Vs is used to show the present tense when the subject is third person singular. Vo and Vs refer to the subject predicator concord or agreement which will be discussed in the next unit. Ved is used to show the past tense. Vi is the INFINITIVE verb form. It is the plain form. It is a tenseless form. It used in imperative clauses and subordinate clauses where it is preceded by the particle, ‘to’

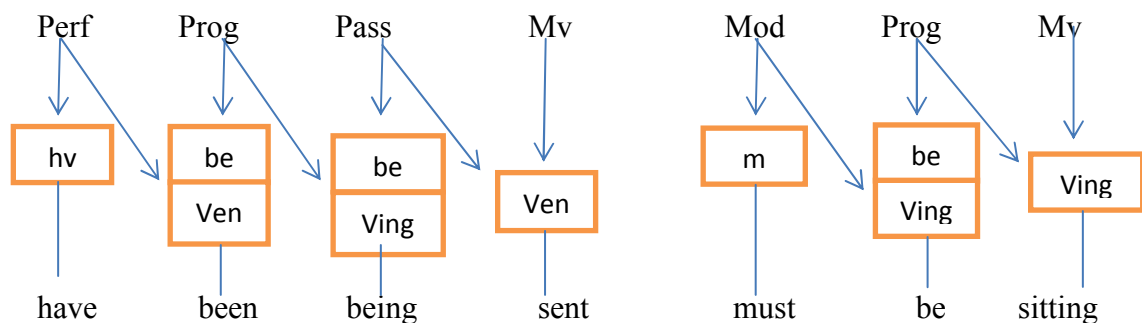
as in ‘She wants *to study* English.’ Vo, Vs, Ved and Vi forms of full verbs and primary verbs can occur independently in a clause and function as the main verb in a verb phrase.

Ven is the past participle form of the verb. When it follows a form of *have*, it is the perfect tense or aspect of the action. When Ven follows a form of *be*, it is the passive voice. Ving is the present participle. Normally it comes after a form of *be* to show that the action is in progressive aspect or continuous tense. Moreover, Ven and Ving forms cannot occur independently in a tensed clause. This means a verb phrase can be the result of combination of different types of verbs. The combining possibilities of verbs can be presented as in the following table:

	Function	Class of verb	Form of following verb
Optional elements	Modal (Mod)	Modal verb (m)	Infinitive (Vi)
	Perfect aspect (Perf)	Have (hv)	-en participle (Ven)
	Progressive element (Prog)	Be (be)	-ing participle (Ving)
	Passive voice (pass)	Be (be)	-en participle (Ven)
Obligatory	Main verb (Mv)	Verb (V)	(Nothing follows ‘V’)

Table 5.3

Accordingly, the verb phrases can be combined in sixteen different structures which are given in the table 2.1. In this way, to construct a verb phrase with the structure *progMv*, as per Table 2.3 the *Mv* must be a Ving e.g. ‘is coming’. The following figures show the rules for constructing complex verb phrases.



As per the structure, there are two types of the verb phrase: Tensed verb phrase and Tenseless verb phrase. Tensed verb phrases begin with a tensed verb form and tenseless verb phrases begin with a tenseless verb form. The non-initial parts of any verb phrase are always tenseless. In this way the structure of tensed verb phrase is:

VP (+T {-T} {-T} {-T} {-T}) e.g. VP (^{Aux} m might _{vi} have _{ven} been _{ving} being _{ven} collected) and the structure of tenseless verb phrase is : VP (-T {-T} {-T}) e.g. VP (_{ving} having _{ven} been _{ven} sent).

In these structures +T means tensed and –T means tenseless. While labelling the elements of a verb phrase *Aux* and *Mv* should be used as function labels and m (for modal), be, hv, do and V (for full verb) as form labels:

1. VP(^{Mv} _v reads), 2. VP(^{Aux} _m can ^{Mv} _v drive), 3. VP(^{Aux} _m will ^{Aux} _{be} ^{Mv} _v counting),
4. VP(^{Aux} _m could ^{Aux} _{hv} have ^{Mv} _v won), 5. VP(^{Aux} _{hv} have ^{Aux} _{be} ^{Mv} _v suggested),
6. VP(^{Aux} _m might ^{Aux} _{hv} have ^{Aux} _{be} ^{Aux} _{be} ^{Mv} _v being ^{Mv} _v written), 7. VP(^{Mv} _v come), 8. VP(^{Aux} _{be} ^{Mv} _v is ^{Aux} _v typing)

In the above labelling the more detailed form labels like m, be, hv, and do are used for operator verbs. This can be presented in a simpler way by using the single form label ‘v’ in the place of all these four labels (m be, hv, do) as in:

- 2a. VP(^{Aux} _v can ^{Mv} _v drive), 3a. VP(^{Aux} _v will ^{Aux} _v be ^{Mv} _v counting), 4a. VP(^{Aux} _v could ^{Aux} _v have ^{Mv} _v won),
- 5a. VP(^{Aux} _v have ^{Aux} _v been ^{Mv} _v suggested), 6a. VP(^{Aux} _v might ^{Aux} _v have ^{Aux} _v been ^{Aux} _v being ^{Mv} _v written),
- 7a. VP(^{Mv} _v come), 8a. VP(^{Aux} _v is ^{Mv} _v typing)

5.2.8.2 The dummy operator ‘do’

The verb phrase differs from other phrases at the level of not only function but structure too. It has many features. As it is discussed earlier, a verb phrase consists of a main verb which is obligatory and the auxiliaries which are optional. The auxiliaries are the closed class of verbs which is called operator verbs. They are

called so because they are used in various ‘operations’ like indicating tense, aspects or making a clause negative or interrogative. Consider the following examples:

1. She can speak English. 1a. She cannot speak English. 1b. Can she speak English?
2. She has used funds. 2a. She has not used funds. 2b. Has she used funds?
3. A song is being sung. 3a. A song is not being sung. 3b. Is a song being sung?

1, 2, 3 are basic sentences. 1a, 2a, 3a are the negatives of 1, 2, 3 and 1b, 2b, 3b are the interrogatives derived from 1, 2, 3. The verb phrases in 1, 2, 3 are tensed and they have a tensed form as first word. While making the negative the negative marker, the particle ‘not’ is placed after the first tensed operator verb as it is done in 1a, 2a and 3a. Similarly, while forming interrogatives the verb phrase is split and the first tensed operator is placed behind the subject as it is done in 1b, 2b and 3b. This means operator verbs play a very important role in making negative and interrogative sentences.

However, there can be verb phrases without operator verbs as in:

- A. Birds dance.
- B. She sells her hair.
- C. They pushed the car.

The verb phrases in A, B and C have only a full verb functioning as main verb. There is no operator verb. In such cases the negative particle, ‘not’ cannot be used after the tensed operator as it is done in 1a, 2a and 3a. Similarly, there is a problem of making A, B and C interrogatives, as they do not have a tensed operator to be placed before the subject. Here we need something that takes the place of the tensed operator verb or operates as the dummy of operator verb. The primary verb ‘do’ comes to rescue. It is used in such cases as an operator verb. So it is called the ‘dummy operator’ do.

Accordingly, while making the negative or Yes/No interrogative of a sentence having only main verb in the verb phrase, a form of ‘do’ is used as per the form of the main verb in the sentence. Hence, ‘dance’ in A is realized as ‘do + dance’ in which ‘do’ is V_0 and ‘dance’ is V_i . Similarly, ‘sells’ in ‘B’ is implied to be ‘does + sell’ where ‘does’ is V_s and ‘sell’ is V_i . Likewise, ‘pushed’ in ‘C’ is realized as ‘did + push’ in which ‘did’ is V_{ed} and ‘push’ is V_i . This means when the tensed form of

'do' is separated from the main verb what remains is its Vi form. It can be seen that the dummy operator 'do' behaves like modals. When modals are used, they are followed the Vi form of a verb. When 'do' is used as auxiliary, it is followed by Vi form of a verb. Subsequently, we get the following negatives and interrogatives:

- A1. Birds do not dance. A2. Do birds dance?
B1. She does not sell her hair. B2. Does she sell her hair?
C1. They did not push the car. C2. Did they push the car?

A1, B1 and C1 are the negatives and A2, B2 and C2 are the Yes/No of A, B and C. Here the negative cannot be formed by just adding the particle 'not' after the first word of the VP as in:

- A3. *Birds dance not.
B3. *She sells not her hair.
C3. *She pushed not the car.

These are grammatically unacceptable sentences. Hence, if a verb phrase does not have the tensed operator verb, the negative particle cannot be added to form a negative sentence. The role of the tensed operator verb is played by 'do' which is rightly called the 'dummy operator'.

This is not applicable in the case of 'Be'. The primary verb 'be' works as an operator even when it is a main verb:

- | | | |
|-------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I am lucky. | 1a. I am not lucky. | 1b. Am I lucky? |
| 2. They are from Pune. | 2a. They are not from Pune. | 2b. Are they from Pune? |
| 3. This is fine. | 3a. This is not fine. | 3b. Is this fine? |
| 4. Sita was in. | 4a. Sita was not in. | 4b. Was Sita in? |
| 5. The girls were free. | 5a. The girls were not free. | 5b. Were the girls free? |

The same is applicable to 'have' in some varieties of English but most users of English prefer the operator 'do' before 'have'. 'I don't have time' is preferred to 'I have not time'.

Check Your Progress III

A) Give function labels and form labels to the words and phrases:

1. are, 2. were dancing, 3. must study, 4. had had, 5. can be completed, 6. might have been completed, 7. could have been being constructed.

B) Transform the following sentences into the negatives and Yes/No interrogatives:

1. She may come soon.
2. They want help.
3. He knows the place.
4. We had a lot of fun.
5. She was beautiful.
6. The boys got gifts.
7. We can win.

5.3 Summary

To conclude, phrase is a set of words. There are six classes of phrases in English: NP, AjP, AvP, PP, GP and VP. Out of these NP, AjP and AvP have the same structure: ($\{M^*\}H\{M^*\}$). PPs are NPs beginning with a preposition. So PP = ($p\{M^*\}H\{M^*\}$). Similarly, GPs are NPs ending with -'s. So GP = ($\{M^*\}H\{M^*\}'s$). GPs are always subordinate phrases. VPs and AvPs are always main phrases.

Sr. No	Class of Phrase	Function		Pre-modifiers	Head	Postmodifiers
		as Main Phrase in a Clause	as Subordinate Phrase			
1	NP	S, O, C, A, Voc	Postmodifier in NP	d, e, Aj, N, GP, Av, AjP, PP	N, pn, Aj, e, GP	PP, RCl, Av, Aj, NP, CCl, PCl
2	PP	A	Postmodifier in NP, AjP,	As in NP	As in NP	As in NP

			Avp and PP			
3	GP	--	H in NP and premodifier in NP	As in NP	As in NP	As in NP
4	AjP	C	Premodifier in NP	Av	Aj	CCI, PP
5	AvP	A	--	Av	Av	CCI, PP
6	VP	P	--	({Aux} {Aux} {Aux} {Aux} Mv) Aux = operator verb (v), and Mv = Full verb (V) or a primary verb (v)		

5.4 Terms to remember

1. Auxiliary: a primary or modal verb used with Main verb to show tense etc. and to form questions and negatives
2. criteria: plural of criterion, a principle by which something is judged
3. demonstrative: a pronoun or determiner used to identify the person or thing that is being referred to
4. function: a position taken by a grammatical unit in a group of units
5. gradable: that can be used in the comparative or superlative forms or be used with wordlike 'very' and 'less'
6. Head: the chief word of NP, AjP, AvP, PP, GP which is obligatory
7. main phrase: a phrase which is a direct element of a clause
8. Main verb: a full-verb or primary verb which is obligatory in VPs.
9. modifier: a word that describes Head of a phrase or restricts its meaning in some way
10. phrase: a unit of grammar bigger than word and smaller than clause
11. possessive: genitive, a form of a pronoun or a form of a word that expresses the fact that something belongs to somebody/something
12. postmodifier: a modifier that occurs after the Head in NP, AjP, AvP, PP, GP

13. premodifier: a modifier that comes before the Head in NP, AjP, AvP, PP, GP
 14. quantifier: a determiner or pronoun that expresses quantity

5.5 Answers to check your progress

Answers to check your progress –I

Main phrases: 1. [(Pushpa) (purchased) (a pen with two caps)]; 2. [(The colour of the tower) (was) (as black as coal)]; 3. [(She) (loves) (the comfort of the chair in Jeevan's old house)]; 4. [(Vasant) (is) (a farmer)]; 5. [(Kavya) (has been reading) (this novel) (since last night)].

Subordinate phrases: 1. (with two caps), 2. (of the tower) (as coal), 3. (of the chair in Jeevan's old house), (in Jeevan's old house), (Jeevan's), 4. No subordinate phrase, 5. No subordinate phrase.

Answers to check your progress –II

1. NP(^H_{Pn} it), 2. NP (^M_d the ^H_N book ^M_{PP} (^M_p ^H_d the ^M_N table)), 3. AjP(^M_{Av} very ^H_{Aj} nice),
 4. PP(^M_p ^H_d a ^M_N day ^H_{PP} (^M_p ^H_{in} ^M_N May)), 5. NP(^M_{GP} (^H_N Gulabo's) ^H_N garden),
 6. AvP(^M_{Av} rather ^H_{Av} hastily), 7. NP (^M_d her ^M_e last ^H_N poem), 8. NP (^H_{GP} (^H_N Damodar's)),
 9. AjP(^M_{Av} more ^H_{Aj} active ^M_{PP} (^M_p ^H_d an ^M_N ant)),
 10. NP(^M_d an ^M_{AjP} (^M_{Av} extremely ^H_{Aj} tall) ^H_N tower)

Answers to check your progress –III

- A. 1. VP (^{Mv}_{be} are), 2. VP (^{Aux}_{be} were ^{Mv}_{Ving} dancing), 3. VP (^{Aux}_m must ^{Mv}_{Vi} study),
 4. VP (^{Aux}_{hv} had ^{Mv}_{hv} had), 5. VP (^{Aux}_m can ^{Aux}_{be} be ^{Mv}_{Ven} completed),
 6. VP (^{Aux}_m might ^{Aux}_{hv} have ^{Aux}_{be} been ^{Mv}_{Ven} completed),

7. VP (^{Aux} m could ^{Aux} hv have ^{Aux} be been ^{Aux} be being ^{Mv} Ven constructed).

- B. Negatives:** 1. She may not come soon. 2. They do not /(don't) want help.
3. He does not/(doesn't) know the place. 4. We did not/(didn't) have a lot of fun.
5. She was not /(wasn't) beautiful. 6. The boys did not /(didn't) get gifts.
7. We cannot/(can't) win.

- Y/N Interrogatives:** 1. May she come soon? 2. Do they want help?
3. Does he know the place? 4. Did we have a lot of fun? 5. Was she beautiful?
6. Did the boys get gifts? 7. Can we win?

5.6 Exercises

- I.** A) Distinguish main and subordinate phrases with illustration.
B) Elaborate Noun Phrases in English.

II. Distinguish between:

- a) Modifiers and head
- b) Premodifiers and postmodifiers
- c) Auxiliary and main verb
- d) Pronouns and determiners

III. Write short notes on the following:

- a) Head in noun phrases
- b) Premodifiers in noun phrases
- c) Postmodifiers in noun phrases
- d) Prepositional phrases
- e) Genitive phrases
- f) Adjective phrases
- g) Adverb phrases
- h) Structure of verb phrases

IV. Analyse the following phrases using tree-diagram:

1. an interesting event, 2. in the office, 3. mine, 4. Dhoni's bat, 5. too good, 6. a very large stadium, 7. should be invited, 8. under a tree in a garden

5.7 References for further study

Leech, Geoffrey., Margaret Deuchar and Robert Hoogenraad. (2015). *English Grammar for Today A New Introduction Second Edition*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

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Module VI

Clauses

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6.0 Objectives:

After studying this unit you will be able to

1. define clause.
2. understand the elements of clause.
3. identify major types of clauses.
4. differentiate between tensed (finite) and tenseless (Non-finite) clause.
5. fix form and function labels to the elements of clause.

6.1 Introduction:

In the previous unit you have studied phrases which are the units intermediate between word and clause. Word is the smallest unit in hierarchy consists of one or more morphemes. Phrase consists of one or more words; and clause consists of one or more phrases. We also learned different classes of phrase, their different forms and functions in the clause. These functions of phrase are known as clause elements. In the present unit, we will see clauses which are the major units of which sentences are composed. First, we will see the definition of clause and its different elements. Then we shall study basic clause patterns; form and function labels of the clause elements and major types of clauses.

6.2 Subject Matter-I

6.2.1 Clause

A clause is usually only a part of the sentence. More specifically, it is traditionally a group of words that comprises both a subject and a predicate. A clause contains only one subject and one predicator (i.e. a verb phrase). The subject of a clause can be mentioned or hidden, but the predicator must be apparent & distinguishable. Every complete sentence is made up of at least one clause.

Let us glance at the following examples:

1. Rajesh bought a new car.(one sentence, one clause)
2. Rajesh bought a new car, but he still has the old one.(one sentence, two clauses)
3. Although he still has his old one, Rajesh now has a new car.(one sentence two clauses)

6.2.2. Elements of the Clause

In English, clause elements are the minimum set of units needed to describe the linear structure of a clause. The clause consists of five principal elements which are arranged below according to their significance in the clause structure.

Clause Elements	Label
Predicator	P
Subject	S
Object	O
Complement	C
Adverbial	A

The five elements are illustrated in the following example.

[^S(He) ^P(drew) ^O(the picture) ^C(beautiful) ^A(for the exhibition)]

The ordering of these elements is SPOCA. A clause may consist of a single unit or more than one unit. Sometimes all these elements may occur in a sentence.

Now let us study each of the elements in depth.

1. Predicator (P)

Predicator is a verb phrase in the clause. It is the central part of the clause. It may consist of one word or more than one word. It denotes an action, sensation or state of being. It could be dynamic or static. There must be an agreement or concord between the Subject and the Predicator in terms of number and gender.

[^S(He) ^P(plays) Tennis] (Singular S, Singular P)

[^S(They) ^P(play) Tennis] (Plural S, Plural P)

2. Subject (S)

Subject is the main person or item that commits the action. It denotes the theme or topic of the clause. It is a noun or noun phrase which normally occurs at the beginning of the clause. A Substitution Test is used for substituting the phrase in the subject position by personal pronouns.

[^S(Ramesh) ^P(eats) a mango] = [^S(He) ^P(eats) a mango]

$[\text{S}(\text{Children}) \text{P}(\text{love}) \text{O}(\text{chocolates})] = [\text{S}(\text{They}) \text{P}(\text{love}) \text{O}(\text{chocolates})]$.

3. Object (O)

Object is very closely tied to the predicator in terms of meaning. It denotes the person or the thing most intimately affected by the action or state denoted by the predicator. Objects are of two types: Indirect and Direct. Passivisation is a test to identify an object.

$[\text{S}(\text{He}) \text{P}(\text{bought}) \text{O}(\text{a new computer})] = \text{Direct Object}$

$[\text{S}(\text{My mother}) \text{P}(\text{give}) \text{O}_i(\text{me}) \text{O}_d(\text{a new dress})] = \text{me-Indirect Object}$
 a new dress- Direct Object

$[\text{S}(\text{He}) \text{P}(\text{served}) \text{O}_i(\text{her})] = \text{Indirect Object}$

4. Complement(c)

Complement is an element that modifies either subject or object. It looks superficially like an object (as both can be NPs) in terms of structure but in terms of meaning it describes subject or object. Therefore there are two types of complements: Subject Complement (Cs) and Object Complement(Co).

$[\text{S}(\text{She}) \text{P}(\text{is}) \text{C}_s(\text{smart})] = \text{Subject Complement}$

The word 'smart' is the complement of the subject 'she'.

$[\text{S}(\text{The judge}) \text{P}(\text{declared}) \text{O}(\text{him}) \text{C}_o(\text{guilty})] = \text{Object Complement}$

'guilty' is a complement and it adds more information to the object 'him'.

Subject Complements normally follow the Predicator which is usually 'BE, look, seem or appear'. If there are both Object and Complement in the clause, then normally the Complement follows the Object.

5. Adverbials (A)

Adverbials perform a wide range of functions within a clause. They provide extra-circumstantial information about time, place, manner, comment and degree. They specify when, where, why and how an event took place. Adverbials can be used anywhere in the sentence. Hence, they are free and mobile. Even there is no fixed number of adverbials in a clause. The following clause has four adverbials.

$[\text{A}(\text{Actually}), \text{S}(\text{she}) \text{P}(\text{works}) \text{A}(\text{at home}) \text{A}(\text{very rarely}) \text{A}(\text{these days})]$

There are certain adverbials that can be placed in the middle of the predicator interrupting its elements.

[^S(The place) ^P(is ^A(fast) going) ^A(to the dogs).]

In most of the clause types, adverbials are optional. They can normally be omitted from the clause.

[^S(She) ^P(works) ^A(at home) ^A(very rarely.)] → [(She) (works).]

There are various types of adverbials based on the kind of meaning they convey:

Adverbial Type	Eliciting Question	Example
Place	Where?	[The book is ^A (on the table).]
Direction	Where to/ From?	[He threw the key ^A (at him).]
Time	When?	[I go to college ^A (in the morning).]
Duration	How long?	[They were in Pune ^A (for three years).]
Frequency	How often?	I visit the orphanage ^A (every Sunday).]
Manner	How?	[She speaks French ^A (fluently).]
Agency	By whom?	[The ball was caught ^A (by him).]
Reason	Why?	[I missed the train ^A [because I was late]]
Condition	In what circumstances?	[^A [If he comes]I will leave the hall]
Degree	How far/How much?	[You come ^A (too late).]
Sentence Adverbial	--	[^A (Luckily),I got the key.]

6.2.2 Basic Clause Patterns:

Elements of clause are organised in particular patterns or word orders. These patterns show how ideas are related to each other. In clause pattern Subject and Predicator are always obligatory but whether Object, Complement and Adverbial are obligatory or even possible, specifically, depends on the nature of the main verb.

Let us see what are the eight major basic clause patterns enlisted by G. N. Leech, and et.al:

1. [SP] [Birds fly.]
2. [SPO_d] [He likes coffee.]
3. [SPO_i] [Grandma told her]
4. [SPO_iO_d] [He gave me a book]
5. [SPC] [My father is an engineer]
6. [SPO_dC] [I proved her wrong]
7. [SPA] [She lives in Pune]
8. [SPO_dA] [He puts the paper on the table]

These clause patterns can be extended using additional optional clause elements.

Passive Clause Patterns :

Generally, a clause pattern with an object can be changed into a passive clause pattern. The object functions as subject with the same verb phrase, and the tense remains the same. For example, if the verb is in present tense it remains the same in the passive clause; the subject is changed into a Prepositional Phrase, hence it becomes an optional element of the clause. In the same way, for the [SPO_i] and [SPO_iO_d] patterns, more commonly [O_i] becomes the subject. The predicator in the active voice is added with the passive participle or passive aspect (a form of BE+Ven). The object of the active clause becomes the subject of the passive clause. The subject in the active voice is both logical and grammatical but in the passive voice it becomes the Adverbial of agency (a PP beginning with the proposition, 'by'). In fact, in the passive voice clause the active voice clause subject is made passive and the focus is shifted to the object. The expression is made impersonal in which who did what is less important than what is done. See the following examples:

1. [SPO]→[SP]
 [^S(He) ^P(writes) ^O(a letter) →
 [^S(A letter) ^P(is written) {^A(by him)}]
2. [SPO;O_d] →[SPA]/[SPO_d]
 [^S(She) ^P(gave) ^{O_i}(me) ^{O_d}(a sari)] →
 [^S(A sari) ^P(was given) ^A(to me) {^A(by her)}] /
 [^S(I) ^P(was given) ^{O_d}(a saree) {^A(by her)}]
3. [SPOC] →[SPC]
 [^S(He) ^P(made) ^O(her) ^C(a secretary) →
 [^S(She) ^P(was made) ^C(a secretary) {^A(by him)}]
4. [SPOA] →[SPA]
 [^S(He) ^P(puts) ^O(his paper) ^A(on the table)] →
 [^S(His paper) ^P(was put) ^A(on the table) {^A(by him)}.]

Check your Progress I

I. Answer the following questions in one word/phrase/sentence:

1. What is a clause?
2. How many principal elements are there in a clause?
3. Which element denotes an action or state of being in the clause?
4. Which test is used to identify the phrase in subject position?
5. Which element is free and mobile in the clause?

II. Identify the clause elements underlined in the following sentences in terms of S,P,O,C,A:

1. Airmen fly aeroplanes.
2. John and Tom are very good friends.
3. They fed their dogs biscuits.
4. She looks very smart.

5. He drives the car very fast.

6.3 Subject matter II

6.3.1 Classes of Clauses

There are two types of clauses:

1. **An Independent Clause or Main Clause (MCI):** a clause that stands alone as a sentence.
2. **A Dependent Clause or Subordinate Clause (SCI):** a clause which is usually a supporting part of a sentence and it cannot form a complete sentence.

Subordinating conjunctions link a dependent clause to an independent clause.

[They will learn a lot [_{cj} if they come to me]]

So far as the main clauses are concerned, there are three major forms of clauses in English: Declarative clause, Interrogative clause and imperative clause. Let us have a look on these forms:

5.3.1.1 Declarative Clauses:

Declarative clause is the most basic form of the clause. It is generally used to make statement. They are used to give information. So all statements are declarative clauses. They have a usual pattern SPO/C/A.

They can be affirmative or negative.

[^S(He) ^P(Speaks) ^O(English) ^A(confidently)] – Affirmative

[^S(He) ^P(does not run) ^A(fast)] – Negative

6.3.1.2 Interrogative Clauses:

There are two types of interrogatives: Yes/No Interrogative and WH-Interrogative.

Yes/No Interrogative

The Yes/No Interrogatives ask for Yes/No answer. They are self-explanatory and they are formed by placing the tensed operator verb of the verb phrase before the subject:

The form of Yes/No Interrogative-

[Has^S (he) completed his work?] (P= v---V)

[Hasn't^S(he) completed his work?] (P= v---V)

But in some cases if there is no operator, a suitable form of dummy operator, 'do' is used followed by an infinitive.

A tensed form of 'do' (do, does or did) is used in agreement with the subject.

[^S(He) ^P(won) ^O(the first prize)] P=V

[Did^S(he) win the first prize] P= v---V

WH – Interrogative

The WH – Interrogatives ask for information. They ask about one of the clause elements S, O, C or A using a WH- word.

WH– Determiners– what, which

WH– Pronouns– who, whose, which, whom, what

WH– Adverbs– when, where, why, how

In WH Interrogative the finite operator is normally placed before subject. WH-word is so placed before the operator for the focus of attention.

WH-Questions begin with WH- words. Hence, the structure of WH Interrogative can be: [WH - word + Aux + S + MV].

What are you doing? [WH - word + Aux + S + MV].

6.3.1.3. The Imperative Clause:

The Imperative Clause has the tenseless predicator [Infinitive verb form –(Vi)] and no subject.

Most Imperative Clauses are in the second person. They are used to express command, order, request, instructions etc..

[^S(You) ^P(will close) ^O(the window).]

[Close the window.]The subject 'You' is implied.

6.3.2 Active and Passive Clause:

The Active Voice is the basic and unmarked form of the clause.

In this clause, Subject, that is, the 'doer' of the action is important.

[^S(Mohan) ^P(eats) ^O(a mango)]

[^S(He) ^P(taught) ^O(French) ^A(in a college)]

The Passive Voice is the more marked form of the clause. In this clause Subject remains inactive i.e. passive. This happens only when there is transitive verb. Here importance is given to object.

[^S(A mango) ^P(is eaten) {^A(by Mohan)}]

[^S(French) ^P(was taught) {^A(by him)} ^A(in a college)]

It is to be noted that while changing the voice, the Subject of the corresponding Active becomes an optional Adverbial of Agency in the Passive and it is marked with the preposition 'by'. Many times, it can be omitted.

[^S(We) ^P(saw) ^O(three films)] → Active

[^S(Three films) ^P(were seen) ^A(by us)] → Passive

[^S(Three films) ^P(were seen)] → Passive

Check the progress II

Answer the following questions in one word/phrase/sentence:

1. What are the three major forms of main clause?
2. Which is the usual pattern of the declarative clause?
3. Which are the two types of interrogative clause?
4. What is the function of imperative clause?
5. Which is the basic and unmarked form of the clause?

6.4 Subject Matter III

6.4.1 Complex Sentences:

So far we have discussed simple sentences which comprise only a main clause (MCI). It is a clause that can stand alone as a simple sentence.

$se_{MCI}[{}^S(\text{She}) {}^P(\text{works}) {}^A(\text{in a factory})]$

However, we often come across complex sentences in the texts. Let us study complex sentences. Complex sentences may comprise multiple clauses, that is, Main clauses and Subordinate clauses

Main clauses (Matrix clauses, Independent clauses) are those that can stand alone as a sentence. Subordinate clauses (Embedded clauses, Dependent clauses) are those that would be incomplete if they were alone. Complex sentences consist of more than one clause in them and additional clauses in them are joined either by coordination or subordination.

In coordination two clauses of equal rank or status are joined together with the help of coordinating conjunction such as and, or, but etc.

$se_{MCI}[[\text{You support your colleagues}] \text{ and } {}_{MCL}[\text{they will support you.}]]$

In subordination there are two clauses. One is Main clause and the other is additional clause. This additional subordinate clause is joined to the Main clause with the help of subordinating conjunction. The subordinate clause doesn't have any independent meaning unless it is linked to the Main clause.

$se_{MCI}[{}^A_{SCI}[\text{If you work hard}] {}^S_{NP}(\text{you}) {}^P_{VP}(\text{will get}) {}^A_{NP}(\text{good marks})]$

A subordinate clause is grammatically subordinate because it is a part of another clause. It is either an element (S, O, C or A) in a clause or a post modifier (M) in a phrase within a clause.

$se_{MCI}[{}^A_{SCI}[\text{If you support your team-mates}] {}^S_{NP}(\text{they}) {}^P_{VP}(\text{will support}) {}^O_{NP}(\text{you})]$

$se_{MCI}[{}^S_{NP}(\text{N Players}) {}^H_{SCI}[\text{who support their team-mates}] {}^P_{VP}(\text{are supported}) {}^A_{PP}(\text{in turn}) {}^A_{PP}(\text{by them})]$.

6.4.2 Tensed and Tense less Clauses:

In the previous unit we have studied Tensed (Finite) Verb Phrases containing a tensed verb form which shows tense (past or present) and subject-predicator concord

(for person and number) or modality aspects. A tensed verb can be either an operator verb or a full verb.

Tensed clauses have tensed verb phrases which begin with a tensed verb form (Vs, Vo and Ved) i.e. Third person singular subject present tense form (Vs) Base form (Vo) and past tense form (Ved).

There are also tenseless verb phrases which begin with a tense less verb form (Vi =Infinitive, Ving=present participle, or Ven=past participle) and are made of only tenseless verb forms. A tenseless verb does not show any particular tense. Moreover, it does not show the subject-predicator concord or modality aspect. The particle, 'to' is always followed by an infinitive (Vi).

Clauses having tenseless verb phrases are called Tenseless Clauses. The following table shows the structure of both the tensed and tenseless Verb phrases:

Tensed VP	Structure	Tenseless VP	Structure
wrote	Mv Ved	writing	Mv Ving
will write	Aux Mv m Vi	to write	Mv Vi
is written	Aux Mv vs Ven	be written	Aux Mv vi Ven
have been written	Aux Aux Mv v0 ven Ving	having been written	Aux Aux Mv ving ven Ven

Now see the examples of tensed and tenseless clauses:

- P Mv

1. [It would be nice _{SCI}[if you _{VP}(_{Ved} wrote) a letter]] [Tensed_{SCI}]

P Mv

[It would be nice _{SCI}[if you _{VP}(to _{Vi} write) a letter]] [Tenseless_{SCI}]
- P Mv

2. [_{SCI}[The girl _{SCI}[who _{VP}(_{vs} has) green eyes] is surprising] [Tensed _{SCI}]

P Mv

[That girl _{SCI}[_{VP}(_{ving} having) green eyes] is surprising] [Tenseless_{SCI}]

Check Your Progress III

State whether the following statements are true or false:

1. Complex sentence comprises only one clause in it.
2. In subordination two clauses of equal rank are joined together.
3. The subordinate clause cannot stand alone as a complete sentence.
4. The tenseless clause has no subject.
5. A tenseless verb shows tense and subject concord.

6.5 Summary

A Clause is the central unit of a language. It is a unit higher in rank than a phrase and lower in rank than a sentence. The clause consists of five principal elements namely Subject(S), Predicate (P), Object (O), Complement(C) and Adverbial (A). The basic clause patterns are based on these elements. There are basically two types of clause: Main (independent) or Subordinate (dependent). Main clauses are declarative, Interrogative and Imperative. Besides, there are Active and Passive clauses. Active voice is the basic and unmarked form of the clause whereas passive voice is more marked form of the clause. The complex sentence consists of more than one clause. If these clauses are equal in status there is coordination and if the clauses joined together are not of the same rank then there is subordination.

6.6 Terms to Remember

- Concord: Agreement between subject and predicator
- Tensed clause: A clause containing the 'P' having a tensed verb form in the beginning.
- Tenseless clause: A clause containing the 'P' having a tenseless verb form in the beginning.
- Declarative: Making statement
- Interrogative: Asking questions
- Imperative: Giving orders, commands, making request

- Subordination: A unit of grammar occurring as an element of another unit of the equal rank or lower rank.
- Coordination: Two or more independent units of equal rank and status are joined together using coordinating conjunctions like ‘but, or, and’.

6.7 Answers to check your progress

Check Your Progress I

- I.**
1. A clause is a group of words that comprises both the subject and the verb.
 2. Five
 3. Predicator
 4. A substitution test
 5. Adverbial
- II.**
1. Object
 2. Complement to subject
 3. Object direct
 4. Subject
 5. Adverbial

Check your Progress II

1. Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative
2. S V O /C/ A
3. 1 Yes/ No interrogative, WH-Interrogative
4. To express command, order, request, instruction
5. Active voice

Check Your Progress III

1. False
2. False

3. True
4. True
5. False

6.8 Exercises

I. Identify the clause elements in the following sentences in terms of S, P, O, C, A

1. I broke my pen yesterday.
2. A thief had entered the house.
3. My cousin may become a doctor.
4. They were told the whole story.
5. My wife always has a good cry over a wedding.
6. The court released him from jail.
7. His father went to school to visit the principal.
8. Mahesh will finish his work today.
9. You can't teach an old dog new tricks.
10. He sold his car yesterday

II. Write short notes on the following:

- 1) Basic elements of clause
- 2) Declarative and imperative clauses
- 3) Interrogative clauses
- 4) Active and passive clauses
- 5) Complex sentences
- 6) Finite and non-finite clauses
- 7) Basic clause patterns

6.9 References

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Module VII

Subordination and Coordination

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7.0 Objectives:

After Studying this unit you will be able to:

- i. Understand the structure of sentences
- ii. Identify the subordinate clauses in the sentence

- iii. Analyze the form and function of subordinate clauses
- iv. Find relationship between subordination and coordination
- v. Analyze the sentences in general

7.1 Introduction:

We have already studied the grammatical units of word, phrase and clause. There is a hierarchy in language. 'Word' is at the bottom of this hierarchy and 'sentence' is at the highest position. Here we are going to study the highest grammatical unit of language, the sentence. The sentence has a structure different from that of lower units.

Sentences and its types:

Sentence is the largest grammatical unit of language. It can be recognized by signals like capital letter in the beginning and a full stop, question mark or exclamatory mark at the end.

Types of sentences:

Sentences are classified in two different ways.

1. On the basis of meaning:
 - i) Declarative sentence: A statement - I am a boy.
 - ii) Interrogative sentence: A question - Are you a boy?
 - iii) Imperative sentence: An order or a request – Sit down. / Please come in.
 - iv) Exclamatory sentence: An exclamation – What a person! / How beautiful she is!
2. On the basis of form: (As per the traditional grammar, sentences are classified into three types)
 - i) Simple sentence: If there is a single clause in sentence, it is called a simple sentence. e.g. I am a doctor. / He works hard. / He goes to school.
 - ii) Compound sentence: If a sentence is made up of two or more than two main clauses, it is called a compound sentence. e.g. I like music and I like singing but I do not like movies.
 - iii) Complex sentence: If sentence is made up of one main clause and one or

more than one subordinate clauses, it is called as a complex sentence. e.g. I do not like chess because it is very boring.

But Geoffrey Leech, Margaret Deuchar and Robert Hoogenraadin 'English Grammar for Today' have classified the sentences into two types.

- i) Simple sentence
- ii) Complex sentence

According to them, "A sentence consisting of a single clause is known as a **simple sentence**. Sometimes a sentence consists of more than one clause, in which case it is known as a **complex sentence**. In the complex sentence the clauses may be related to one another by **subordination** or **coordination**.

7.2 Subject Matter I

Subordination:

Subordination is not necessarily a relation between two clauses. It may be a relation between two phrases, or two words. The same can be applied to coordination. To understand the concept of subordination we should understand the concepts of main clause, subordinate clause and coordinate clause.

A **Main clause** (MCI) is also called as an independent clause because it does not depend on another clause for its meaning.

A **Coordinate clause** is joined with another clause(s) of equal rank and status. A **Subordinate clause** is always a part of another clause.

Let us study these concepts with examples.

- i. Se[You give me money]. Se[I will buy a dress]. – Two simple sentences
- ii. Se_{MCI}[You give me money] _{cj} and _{MCI}[I will buy a dress].- Two main clauses in a sentence with coordination.
- iii. Se_{MCI}[_{SCI}[_{cj}If you give me a money], I will buy a dress].- One subordinate clause and one main clause within one and the same sentence.

We shall first study subordinate clauses, and then coordination.

Function of Subordinate Clause:

We can classify subordinate clauses by their ability to function within larger units, especially within clauses. The functions of subordinate clause are S, O, C and A. For example, the subordinate clause *what this institute needs* functions as S, O, and C in the following:

^S
[_{SCI} [*What this institute needs*] is an ideal administration].

[As a chairman, you should know ^O_{SCI} [*what this institute needs*]].

[An active and scholarly faculties is exactly ^C_{SCI} [*what this institute needs*]].

[The thieves ran away ^A_{SCI} [*while we were arguing*]].

Besides, a subordinate clause can function as the post-modifier in an NP, PP, AjP and AvP:

^S ^M
[_{NP} (**The man** _{SCI} [**who works happily**]) lives happily]

^A ^M
[We went _{PP} (**in the forest** _{SCI} [**where tigers live.**])]

^C ^M
[He is _{AjP} (**taller** _{SCI} [**than his father was at this age.**])]

^A ^M
The girls runs _{AvP} (**as smoothly** _{SCI} [**as a butterfly flies.**])]

Structure of Subordinate Clause:

As far as internal structure is concerned, subordinate clauses are divisible into the clause elements such as predicator (P), subject (S), object (O), complement(C) and adverbial (A).

^S
[_{SCI} [*what this institute needs*] ^P(is) ^C(an ideal administration)]

In this sentence the subordinate clause acts as the subject of the main clause. The subordinate clause itself is divisible in S, P and O as shown below.

S O S P
 SCI [NP (What) NP (this institute) VP (needs)]

But in addition, subordinate clauses usually have some marker to indicate their subordinate status. There are three types of marking:

1. **A subordinating conjunction:** A subordinate clause may begin with a subordinating conjunction such as *because, so, though, if, when, that, although* and others. For example,

A
 MCI [SCI [cj **If**S(Rajani)P(wears)O(a pink saree)], she will look beautiful].

2. **A WH-word or phrase:** A subordinate clause may begin with a WH-element like *what, who, whoever, which girl, what time, how* and others. For example,

A
 [She looks beautiful_{SCI} [O(**whatever**)S(she) P(wears)]]].

3. **A tenseless predicator:** As we have studied previously, Vi, Ving or Ven appears as the first element of the tenseless predicator. They rarely occur so in main clauses. For example,

A
 [She looks beautiful_{SCI} [P(**wearing**)O(pink saree)]]].

There can be overlap between a subordinating conjunction and a WH-word. What differentiates a wh-word from subordinating conjunction is that a WH-word comes as one of the major elements of that clause and the conjunction comes just as a particle.

A
 MCI [SCI [cj If she wears pink saree,] she will look beautiful]. Here ‘if’ is a subordinating conjunction.

A
 MCI [She looks beautiful_{SCI} [whatever she wears]]. Here ‘whatever’ is an object.

Types of Subordinate Clauses:

- i) Noun clause(NCl)
- ii) Adverbial clause(ACl)
- iii) Relative clause(RCl)
- iv) Comparative clause(CCl)
- v) Prepositional clause(PCl)

Previously we have studied Tensed and Tenseless clauses. All the clauses mentioned above can be further divided into Tensed and Tenseless clauses.

1) **Noun Clause (NCl)**: It is also called a nominal clause. There are three types of NCl:

- i) That clause
- ii) Zero that clause
- iii) WH- clause

That-Noun clauses: A Noun clause which begins with the conjunction, ‘that’ is known as that-noun clause. It can function as subject, object, or complement in the main clause or modifier in a phrase.

^S
MCl [NCl [_{ej} That she loves him] is hardly unbelievable].

^O
MCl [They do not believe NCl [_{ej} that she loves him]].

^C
MCl [The fact is NCl [_{ej} that she loves him]]

^O ^M
MCl [One should know NP (the fact NCl [_{ej} that she loves him])]. This is an uncommon use of Noun clause.

Zero-That Noun clauses: They are just like that-noun clauses. But the only difference is that the subordinating conjunction, ‘that’ itself is omitted. It means if

you use that clause without ‘that’ it is called zero that clause. We can insert the conjunction ‘that’ at the beginning of the zero-that noun clause:

O

MCI [Manishatold Pramod_{NCI} [theearthisround]].

O

MCI [Manishatold Pramod_{NCI} [_{Cj} *that* the earth isround]].

WH-Noun clauses: They begin with a WH-element which may function as S, O or C in the clause.

S S

MCI [N_{CI} [NP (**Who**) stole the diamond] is amystery].

Od A

MCI [Naziya asked Rohina_{NCI} [AvP (**how**)she should arrange the party]].

C S

MCI [The issue is _{NCI} [NP (**Who**) will win the race]].

2) Adverbial clauses(ACI)

Adverb clauses are like adverb phrases. Like adverbs, you can get adverbial clauses by asking questions like When, Where, how, why, etc. Like adverb phrase, adverbial clause always functions as adverbial (A) which expresses extra-circumstantial information such as place, time, manner, cause, condition, etc.

Types of Adverbial clause: Adverbial clauses can be of the following types from the point of view of meaning:

- i) **Adverbial clause of place:** Normally this type of clause begins with where and wherever.

A

MCI [_{ACI} [Wherever you go] you will witness the pollution in air].

A

MCI [The students went _{ACI} [where they could find job]].

- ii) **Adverbial clause of time:** Normally it begins with the words like ‘when’, ‘before’, ‘after’, ‘while’, ‘until’, ‘since’, or ‘whenever’

A

MCI [_{ACI} [When Archana came home], I was in the college].

MCI [Mahesh left the college^A_{ACI} [before she came]].

MCI [Suresh left the place^A_{ACI} [after she left]].

MCI [^A_{ACI} [While I was listening to music] my friend came in].

MCI [You should wait ^A_{ACI} [until Dr. Mahesh comes].

MCI [_{ACI} [^ASince she returned from America] she is completely changed].

MCI [_{ACI} [^AWhenever I get time] I visit the temple].

iii) **Adverbial clause of manner:** Normally it begins with- ‘as if’

MCI [Tanaji talked to Mahesh^A_{ACI} as if he was a stranger]].

iv) **Adverbial clause of reason:** Normally it begins with the words like ‘because’, ‘as’, ‘since’.

MCI [Dattu could not attend the meeting^A_{ACI} [because he was not feeling well]].

MCI [_{ACI} [^AAs I was not feeling well] I could not attend the meeting].

MCI [_{ACI} [^ASince I was not feeling well] I could not attend the meeting].

v) **Adverbial clause of condition:** Normally it begins with the words like ‘if’, ‘unless’

MCI [_{ACI} [^AIf you work hard] you will get the success].

MCI [_{ACI} [^AUnless you work hard] you will not get the success].

vi) **Adverbial clause of contrast:** Normally it begins with the words like ‘though’, ‘although’

MCI^A[ACI [Though he is poor], he is happy].

MCI^A[ACI [Although he is rich], he is not happy].

- 3) **Relative Clauses (RCI)**: It begins with a relative pronoun like ‘who’, ‘whom’, ‘whose’, ‘which’ or ‘that’. These pronouns relate a clause to the word. Relative clauses function as post modifier in a noun phrase or prepositional phrase and are thus only indirectly part of another clause. For example,

MCI^S[NP (The boy^M_{RCI} [who delivered a wonderful speech]) is my brother].

In this sentence a pronoun ‘who’ is related to the noun ‘boy’. This sentence is made of two sentences- ‘The boy delivered a wonderful speech’ and ‘The boy is my brother’. The relative pronoun is used to avoid the repetition of ‘the boy’.

MCI^O[Do you know^M_{NP} (anyone_{RCI} [who can lend me his car])]?]

Here in the above sentence, pronoun, ‘who’ is related to pronoun ‘anyone’.

The pronouns, ‘**who**’ and ‘**whom**’ are used for human beings and higher animals whereas the pronoun, ‘**which**’ is used for non-living things and lower things such as birds and insects etc. and ‘**that**’ can be used for both living and non-living things. For example:

MCI^S[NP (The man^M_{RCI} [who/that is in white dress] is my uncle)].

MCI^S[NP (The person^M_{RCI} [whom/that you met yesterday] is my uncle)].

MCI^C[This is^M_{NP} (the fort_{RCI} [that/which the king built])].

The difference between ‘That Noun Clause’ and ‘That Relative Clause’: Like noun clause, relative clause can also begin with ‘that’. The word ‘that’ in a relative clause is different from ‘that’ in a noun clause. ‘That’ in the Relative clause is a pronoun and functions as Subject or Object of the relative clause. On the other hand ‘that’ in the Noun clause is a subordinating conjunction. For example:

S
MCI [NCl [c_j **That** his wife ran away] is not true].-NCl with conjunction ‘that’

S M O H
MCI [NP (The news_{RCI} [NP (p_n **that**) his wife wrote]) is not true].- RCl with object ‘that’

Relative clause with relative adverb: Now you know that Relative clauses begin with relative pronouns such as who, whom, whose, which and that. You also know when, why, where and how are adverbs. Sometimes some of these adverbs come as relative pronouns, so they are called relative adverbs.

O M A H
MCI [Iremember_{NP} (the place_{RCI} [AvP (Av where) I spent my childhood])].

O M A H
MCI [Iforgot_{NP} (the year_{RCI} [AvP (Av when) Dr. Kalam was born])].

The relative adverb can be omitted in zero relative clauses.

O M
MCI [I forgot_{NP} (the year_{RCI} [Dr. Kalam was born])].

Further possibility is the use of prepositional phrase in place of a single pronoun.

O M
MCI [I forgot_{NP} (the year_{RCI} [(in which) Dr. Kalam was born])].

O M
MCI [Iremember_{NP} (the friends_{RCI} [(with whom) I spent my childhood])].

In other possibility in both these examples we can omit the pronoun and shift the at the end of the clause.

O M
MCI [I forgot_{NP} (the year_{RCI} [Dr. Kalam was born in])].

O M
MCI [Iremember_{NP} (the friends_{RCI} [I spent my childhood with])].

4) **Comparative clauses (CCI):** Like relative clause comparative clauses always occur as an element in a phrase. It always functions as a post modifier in an NP, AjP or AvP.

Comparative clauses are easy to identify because they have a typical marker such as ‘more.....than’, ‘less.....than’, ‘(big) er.....than’, ‘as.....as’,

‘so.....as’, or ‘so.....that’.

MCI [We eat^O_{NP} (more food^M_{CCl} [than we can grow])]. – CCl in NP

MCI [Ravi got^O_{NP} (less marks^M_{CCl} [than he expected])]. – CCl in NP

MCI [Shivani is^C_{AjP} (more talented^M_{CCl} [than her sister was at this age])]. – CCl in AjP

MCI [I found the office^C_{AjP} (bigger^M_{CCl} [than I thought])]. – CCl in AjP

MCI [Vikas has been working^A_{AvP} (harder^M_{CCl} [than his boss expected])]. – CCl in AvP

MCI [He ran^A_{AvP} (as quickly^M_{CCl} [as she could possibly run])]. – CCl in AvP

MCI [She is not^C_{AjP} (so stupid^M_{CCl} [as some people think])]. – CCl in AjP

MCI [The coffee was^C_{AjP} (so hot^M_{CCl} [that I could not drink])]. – CCl in AjP

5) **Prepositional clauses (PCI):** If a noun phrase begins with Preposition it is called a prepositional phrase. P+NP=PP. For example (in the garden=PP, on the table=PP)

If noun clause begins with a preposition it is called a prepositional clause. P+NCl=PCI.

For example: MCI [The man was surprised_{PCI} [_p at what he saw on the road]]

Like a prepositional phrase, a PCI can function as modifier in a noun phrase and Adverbial in a clause.

MCI [We have ^O_{NP} (little information^M_{PCI} [of who misbehaved in exam])]. – PCI is modifier in the NP

In the following example, the PCI functions as a modifier in an adjective phrase. This is a very rare example.

MCI [Our group is ^C_{AjP} (ready ^M_{PCI} [for whatever our opponents may do])]. – PCI is modifier in the AjP

MCI [The police were surprised^A_{PCI} [at what they saw in the garden]]. – PCI is an adverbial in the clause.

Prepositional clauses are rare and they occur as Adverbials only in WH-noun clauses.

MCI [Nikita was not interested^A_{PCI} [in what other people talk about her]].

Tenseless subordinate clauses: You have already learned the concept of tensed and tenseless clause. The clause with a tenseless verb form in the beginning of the VP is called as a tenseless clause. Remember that a tenseless predicator can occur only in the subordinate clause. As per the structure of the tenseless VPs, there are three types of tenseless clauses:

i) Infinitive clause (Cli): If a verb is used with ‘to’ in a clause it is called a tenseless infinitive clause. e.g.

MCI [He wants^O_{SCLi} [to know the fact]].

ii) –ING clause (Cling): If a verb +ing is used without auxiliary it is called a non-finite clause because without auxiliary verb +ing doesn’t indicate tense. e.g.

MCI [^A_{SCLing} [Running down the track], he caught the train]].

iii) –EN clause (Clen): If past participle of a verb is used without auxiliary it is called a non-finite clause because without auxiliary, past participle of the verb doesn't indicate tense. This happens only in the passive clause. e.g.

S M

MCI [_{NP} (The report_{SClen} [submitted to us]) was not correct].

Features of tenseless clause:

- a. A tenseless clause is normally without a subject.
- b. It occurs mostly in a subordinate clause.
- c. It depends on another clause so it is also called the dependent / embedded clause.
- d. If it has a subject it is in an abnormal form. A Prepositional phrase can be subject of it. For example:

S M

MCI [_{NP} (The best mobile_{SCli} [_S(for you) to buy))] is Samsung].

Let us see the examples of tenseless clauses.

1) Tenseless Noun Clauses:

a) Infinitive Noun clause (NCl_i):

S

MCI [NCl_i [To read the motivational books] is my hobby]

Od

MCI [Meghana asked her husband NCl_i [to play a piano in the party]].

O

MCI [The chairman wanted NCl_i [them to go]].

Od

MCI [The principal asked him NCl_i [(to go)]].

b) -ING Noun clause (NCl_{ing}):

S

MCI [NCl_{ing} [Seeing a ghost in your bed room] is a serious thing].

MCI [NCl^{ing} [Wasting time] is not good]

MCI [People saw^O NCl^{ing} [him being tortured by the police]].

2) Tenseless Adverbial Clauses:

a) Infinitive Adverbial clause (ACli)-

MCI [Workers work overtime^A ACli [in order to earn extra income]].

You can insert conjunction 'in order to' before the infinitive in all these tenseless adverbial clauses as shown in above example.

MCI [ACli^A [To earn extra income] workers work overtime].

MCI [He went Mumbai^A ACli [to make his career]].

b) –ING Adverbial clause (ACling)

MCI [ACling^A [Leaving the gate opened], he rushed to the chairman cabin].

MCI [ACling^A [Not knowing Hitler's intention], Russia signed the agreement].

c) –EN Adverbial clause (AClen)

MCI [AClen^A [The task finished], they left the cabin].

MCI [AClen^A [The project completed], the researchers were freed].

MCI [AClen^A [Tired], he left the ground].

3) Tenseless Relative clause:

a) Infinitive Relative clause (RCli) :

MCI [A dancer is not^O NP (a girl^M RCli [to marry with])].

MCI [NP (The best way^S RCli^M [to achieve success]) is to take efforts]].

b) –ING Relative clause (RCling):

MCI [Imet^ONP (the workers^M RCling [working in the garden])].

MCI [NP (The girl^S RCling^M [dancing in the party]) is my relative].

c) –EN Relative clause (RClen):

MCI [I read^O NP (a motivational book^M RClen [written by Paulo Coelho])].

MCI [NP (The book^S RClen^M [gifted to us]) is very famous].

4) Tenseless comparative clause:

a) Infinitive Comparative clause (CCli):

MCI [Advait is^A AvP (more likely to act^M CCli [than to think])].

b) –ING Comparative clause (CCling):

MCI [Shreya is^C AjP (better at sleeping^M CCling [than doing study])].

5) **Tenseless prepositional clause:** If tenseless comparative clauses are rare, non-finite prepositional clauses are the rarest. Only –ING clause occurs in this category.

MCI [They escaped^A PCling [climbing through the window]].

Check your progress I

A. Answer the following question in one word/phrase/sentence:

- i) Name the relative pronouns used in relative clauses.
- ii) How many clauses make a complex sentence?
- iii) State some of the subordinating conjunctions.

- iv) What are the three types of tenseless clauses?
- v) Name the relative adverbs.
- vi) Which WH words are used to get Adverbial clauses?
- vii) Give the markers of comparative clauses.
- viii) Does the verb indicate tense in tenseless clause?
- ix) What are the two types of sentences according to Leech?

B. Identify the finite subordinate clauses in the following sentences and give them form and function labels:

- i) The candidate who delivered the best speech is rewarded.
- ii) He doesn't know who robbed the diamond.
- iii) The question is who will inform the police.
- iiii) If you take efforts, you will achieve your goal.
- iv) He reached late, so he missed the interview.
- v) Raj doesn't remember the day when he proposed her.
- vi) Atish could not answer the questions that interviewers asked.
- vii) That you reached at the peak is unbelievable.
- viii) I forgot the key which you gave me yesterday.
- ix) Vikram doesn't look as handsome as he said.

C. Identify the tenseless subordinate clauses bracketed in the following sentences as Cli, Cling, Clen and give them function labels such as S, O, A and M.

- i) [Living in slum], she brought up her children.
- ii) Abhi regrets [speaking to teacher so impolitely].
- iii) I have news [to discuss with you].
- iv) I saw (robbers [caught by police]) last Sunday.
- v) I want [you to go].
- vi) [Always involved in criminal activities], he committed suicide.

- vii) I am very sorry [to have caused you the offence].
- viii) [For Vrushali to pay her debt in time] is really difficult.
- ix) I asked her [to sing].
- x) The books [written by American Writers] are very difficult to understand.

D. Identify the tenseless subordinate clauses in the following sentences and give them form and function labels.

- i) Kavya does not know how to pray
- ii) Tired, she walked out of the office.
- iii) Giving poor people justice is a mission of my life.
- iv) The blood donation camp completed the doctors left.
- v) The man wearing white shirt is my brother.
- vi) Anushree knows how to solve the problem.
- vii) To prepare for battle is a very difficult task.
- viii) The question how to do should not be asked.
- ix) The program is about to start soon.
- x) The best book for you to buy is Gitanjali.

E. Give the form and function labels to the tensed and tenseless subordinate clauses bracketed in the following sentences.

- i) I like the songs [sung by Udit Narayan].
- ii) [Unless you know the fact], you should not react.
- iii) Ujwala told Vishwajit [to leave the company].
- iv) The workers [who work in MIDC], get less payment.
- iv) [Speaking on the unknown topic] is very dangerous.
- vi) [Heavily disguised], the king escaped from the prison.
- vii) The tower [which was at the corner of lane] collapsed yesterday.
- viii) [Why did he commit suicide] is still a mystery.

ix) The philosophical books are more difficult [than we expect].

x) [As she was dull], she could not understand it.

Subject Matter II

Direct and Indirect subordination: When we study the hierarchy of grammatical units of language, we assume that phrases are made of words, clauses are made of phrases and sentences are made of clauses. It means the lower unit is a part of the upper unit. But it need not always be so. Sometimes a unit can be an element of another unit of the same rank.

- A word can be a part of the word. In compound words one word is a part of another word. For example: tea-pot, black-board, dining-table etc.
- A phrase can be the part of another phrase. For example,

NP (the book_{PP} (on philosophy_{PP} (of life)))

Here prepositional phrase is the part of a prepositional phrase and together they are part of a noun phrase.

- A clause can be the part of another clause. A subordinate clause can be Subject, Complement, Object or Adverbial of the main clause. For example,

^S
MCI [NCI [That the earth moves round the sun] is true]. = Subject

^C
MCI [The truth is NCI [that the earth moves round the sun]]. = Complement

^O
MCI [Everybody knows_{NCI} [that the earth moves round the sun]]. = Object

^A
MCI [_{ACI} [Wherever he goes], he finds corruption]. = Adverbial

We also find that a higher unit is a part of a lower unit. A phrase can be a part of a word. For example, in a word ‘father in-law’ a prepositional phrase ‘in-law’ is the part of a word ‘father (in-law)’.

A clause can be a part of a phrase. A relative clause is always a part of a noun phrase or a prepositional phrase. A comparative clause is also part of an adjective phrase, a noun phrase or an adverb phrase. For example:

MCI^S[NP (A girl^M_{RCI} [who is dancing in the party]) is a dancer]. = A relative clause in NP

MCI^O[In this country, we eat^M_{NP} (more food^M_{CCI} [than we can grow])]. = A comparative clause in NP

If a unit is an element of another unit of the same rank it is called a **Direct Subordination**.

If a unit comes as an element of another unit of a lower rank, it is called **Indirect Subordination**.

It can be seen that Relative Clause and Comparative Clause are the examples of indirect subordination because they always occur in phrases as modifiers.

MCI^C[This is^M_{NP} (the house_{RCI} [that my father built])]. = RCI occurs as Modifier in NP

MCI^C[He is_{AjP} (more talented^M_{CCI} [than any other boys])]. = CCI occurs as Modifier in AjP

When a Noun Clause occurs in other clauses as Subject, Object or Complement, it is an example of Direct Subordination.

MCI^S[NCl [Who murdered a girl] is a mystery]. = NCl is Subject

MCI^O[I don't know_{NCl} [Who robbed the bank]]. = NCl is Object

MCI^C[The question is_{NCl} [Who attacked Taiwan]]. = NCl is a Complement

When a Noun Clause occurs in a phrase as a modifier it is an example of Indirect Subordination.

MCI^S[NP (The news_{NCl} [that her brother cracked exam]) is true]. = NCl is Modifier in NP

Prepositional clause normally occurs as an adverbial in the main clause so mostly it is direct subordination.

MCI [The mother was surprised^A_{PCI} [at what she saw]]. = PCI is Adverbial

MCI [We have^O_{NP} (little evidence^M_{PCI} [of who committed suicide])]. = PCI is Modifier in NP

The Adverbial clause is always an instance of direct subordination because it never occurs in a phrase. It always functions as an adverbial in a main clause.

MCI [^A_{ACI} [While I was teaching], the students were gossiping].

Coordination: Like subordination, coordination is a way of making a sentence complex. Coordination can bring together words, phrases or clauses in a sentence. Mostly they are combined with the coordinating conjunctions like 'and', 'but' or 'or'. While analyzing <>(angle brackets) are put around the coordinated elements.

[She is^{C H}_{AJP} (<^{Aj} clever_{ej} and ^{Aj} beautiful >)]. = Two words are brought together.

[I had^O <_{NP} (a cup of coffee)_{ej} and _{NP} (a cake)> for my breakfast]. = Two phrases are brought together.

<_{MCI} [I like cricket]_{ej} but _{MCI} [I do not like football]>. (Two clauses are brought together)

In coordination, two units of equal rank are brought together. Coordination of two words can take place in a phrase. For example,

She painted^{O M M}_{NP} (d a <^{Aj} large_{ej} and ^{Aj} beautiful >_N portrait^H).

Coordination can take place at the level of subordinate clauses. For example,

MCI [<_{NCI} [What I say]_{ej} and _{NCI} [What I do]> are two different things].^S

Omitting conjunctions:

There can be more than two words, phrases and clauses in single coordination.

[I like_{NP} (^O _N cricket_{cj} and_N football_{cj} and_N tennis_{cj} and_N volleyball_{cj})].

[The primary colors are_{AjP} (^C _{Aj} red_{cj} and_{Aj} green_{cj} and_{Aj} blue_{cj})].

In such cases except the last one, other coordinators are omitted and comma (,) is used for each conjunction. For example,

[I like_{NP} (^O _N cricket_{,N} football_{,N} tennis_{cj} and_N volleyball_{cj})].

Linked coordination: Sometimes conjunctions are omitted altogether. This is called linked coordination. For example,

You are not a man, you are a rat.

Check Your Progress II

A) Answer the following questions in one word/phrase/sentence each:

- i) What is indirect subordination?
- ii) What is linked coordination?
- iii) What is direct subordination?
- iv) What is coordination?
- v) Give one example of a clause in a phrase.
- vi) Give an example of indirect subordination.
- vii) Give an example of coordination of subordinate clauses.
- viii) Which clauses always occur in indirect subordination?
- ix) Give an example of coordination?
- x) Give one example of omitting conjunction.

7.3 Summary:

In complex sentences, clauses are linked together by subordination and coordination. In subordination one or more than one subordinate clauses are brought together in a main clause. Noun clause, Adverbial clause, Relative Clause, Comparative clause and Prepositional clause are the types of the

subordinate clauses. They have been divided into tensed and tenseless clauses. Subordination can be direct and indirect. When a unit is an element of another unit of the same rank and higher rank it is called a direct subordination. When a unit is an element of another unit of the lower rank it is called an indirect subordination. Coordination can bring together words, phrases or clauses of equal rank in a sentence. Mostly they are combined with the coordinating conjunctions like ‘and’, ‘but’ or ‘or’.

7.4 Terms to Remember:

Auxiliary – helping, supplementary or additional

Embedded- to become fixed or deep part of something.

Infinitive- a verb in its basic form. It is often used with ‘to’ in front of it.

7.5 Answers to Check Your Progress:

I

A. Answer the following questions in one word/phrase/sentence:

- i) Who, whom, that, whose
- ii) Two
- iii) If, as, because, so,
- iv) Cli, Cling, Clen
- v) When, Where, why,
- vi) When, Where, Why, How
- vii) So...as, morethan, as...as
- viii) No
- ix) Simple and Complex

B. Identify the Tensed subordination clauses in the following sentences and give them form and function labels.

- i. $\overset{S}{MCI} [NP (The\ candidate\ \overset{M}{RCI} [who\ delivered\ the\ best\ speech])] is\ rewarded].$

- ii. MCl [He doesn't know^O_{NCI} [who robbed the diamond]].
- iii. MCl [The question is^C_{NCI} [who will inform the police]].
- iv. MCl [^A_{ACI} [If you take efforts], you will achieve your goal].
- v. MCl [He reached late,^A_{ACI} [so he missed the interview]].
- vi. MCl [Raj doesn't remember^O_{NP} (the day^M_{RCI} [when he proposed her])].
- vii. [Atish could not answer^O_{NP} (the questions^M_{RCI} [that interviewers asked])].
- viii. MCl [^S_{NCI} [That you reached at the peak] is unbelievable].
- ix. MCl [I forgot^O_{NP} (the key^M_{RCI} [which you gave me yesterday])].
- x. MCl [Vikram doesn't look^C_{AjP} (as handsome^M_{CCI} [as he said])].

C. Identify the tenseless subordinate clauses bracketed in the following sentences as Cli, Cling, Clen and give them function labels such as S, O, A and M.

- i. MCl [^A_{ACling} [Living in slum], she brought up her children].
- ii. MCl [Abhi regrets^O_{NCling} [speaking to teacher so impolitely]].
- iii. MCl [I have^O_{NP} (the news^M_{RCli} [to discuss with you])].
- iv. MCl [I saw^O_{NP} (robbers^M_{RClen} [caught by police]) last Sunday].
- v. MCl [I want^O_{NCli} [you to go]].

- vi. M_{Cl} [$A_{Cl_{len}}$ [Always involved in criminal activities], he committed suicide].
- vii. M_{Cl} [I am very sorry A_{Cl_i} [to have caused you offence]].
- viii. M_{Cl} [$S_{N_{Cl_i}}$ [For Vrushali to pay her debt in time] is really difficult].
- ix. M_{Cl} [I asked her $Od_{N_{Cl_i}}$ [to sing]].
- x. M_{Cl} [S_{NP} (The books $M_{R_{Cl_{len}}}$ [written by American writers]) are very difficult].

D. Identify the tenseless subordinate clauses in the following sentences and give them form and function labels.

- i) M_{Cl} [Kavya does not know $O_{N_{Cl_i}}$ [how to pray]].
- ii) M_{Cl} [$A_{Cl_{len}}$ [Tired], she walked out of the office].
- iii) M_{Cl} [$S_{N_{Cl_{ing}}}$ [Giving poor people justice] is a mission of my life].
- iv) M_{Cl} [$A_{Cl_{len}}$ [The blood donation camp completed] the doctors left].
- v) M_{Cl} [S_{NP} (The man $M_{R_{Cl_{ing}}}$ [wearing white shirt]) is my brother].
- vi) M_{Cl} [Anushree knows $O_{N_{Cl_i}}$ [how to solve the problem]].
- vii) M_{Cl} [$S_{N_{Cl_i}}$ [To prepare for battle] is very difficult task].
- viii) M_{Cl} [S_{NP} (The question $M_{R_{Cl_i}}$ [how to do]) should not be asked].
- ix) M_{Cl} [The program is A_{Cl_i} [about to start soon]].

x) $\overset{S}{MCI} [_{NP} (\text{The best book } \overset{M}{RCli} [\text{for you to buy}]) \text{ is Gatanjali}].$

E. Give the form and function labels to the finite and non-finite subordinate clauses bracketed in the following sentences.

i) $\overset{O}{MCI} [I \text{ like } \overset{M}{NP} (\text{the songs } \overset{M}{Rclen} [\text{sung by Udit Narayan}])].$

ii) $\overset{A}{MCI} [_{ACI} [\text{Unless you know the fact}], \text{ you should not react}].$

iii) $[Ujwala \text{ told Vishwajit } \overset{O}{NCl} [\text{to leave the company}]].$

iv) $\overset{S}{MCI} [_{NP} (\text{The workers } \overset{M}{RCI} [\text{who work in MIDC}], \text{ get less payment}].$

v) $\overset{S}{MCI} [_{NCling} [\text{Speaking on the unknown topic}] \text{ is very dangerous}].$

vi) $\overset{A}{MCI} [_{AClen} [\text{Heavily disguised}], \text{ the king escaped from the prison}].$

vii) $\overset{S}{MCI} [_{NP} (\text{The tower } \overset{M}{RCI} [\text{which was at the corner of lane}]) \text{ collapsed yesterday}].$

viii) $\overset{S}{MCI} [_{NCl} [\text{Why he committed suicide}] \text{ is still a mystery}].$

ix) $\overset{C}{MCI} [\text{The philosophical books are } \overset{M}{AjP} (\text{more difficult } \overset{M}{CCI} [\text{than we expect}])].$

x) $\overset{A}{MCI} [_{ACI} [\text{As she was dull}], \text{ she could not understand it}].$

II. A) Answer the following questions in one word/phrase/sentence each:

- i) When a unit becomes an element of a unit of lower rank, it is called indirect subordination.
- ii) When conjunctions are omitted altogether it is known as linked

coordination.

- iii) When a unit occurs as an element of another unit of the same rank it is called direct subordination.
- iv) Coordination is a way of making a sentence complex. It brings together two or more units of the equal rank and of the same class with the help of coordinating conjunctions like 'and', 'but' or 'or'.
- v) $\begin{matrix} S \\ \text{MCI} \end{matrix} \left[\begin{matrix} \text{NP} \\ \text{The workers} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} M \\ \text{RCI} \end{matrix} \left[\begin{matrix} \text{who work in MIDC} \end{matrix} \right], \text{ get less payment} \right]$.
- vi) $\begin{matrix} S \\ \text{MCI} \end{matrix} \left[\begin{matrix} \text{NP} \\ \text{The question} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} M \\ \text{RCI} \end{matrix} \left[\begin{matrix} \text{how to do} \end{matrix} \right] \right] \text{ should not be asked}.$
- vii) $\left[\begin{matrix} \text{The people know} \\ \text{O} \end{matrix} \left\langle \begin{matrix} \text{NCI} \end{matrix} \left[\begin{matrix} \text{what we get} \end{matrix} \right] \text{ and } \begin{matrix} \text{NCI} \end{matrix} \left[\begin{matrix} \text{how we get that} \end{matrix} \right] \right\rangle \right]$.
- viii) Relative and comparative clause
- ix) I like kho-kho and cricket.
- x) I speak English, Marathi, Kannada and Hindi.

7.6 Exercise:

- A) Fill in the blanks with the best suitable alternative given below each.
 - i) clauses are always optional element of the main clauses.
 - a) Noun
 - b) Adverbial
 - c) Relative
 - d) Comparative
 - ii) If you use clauses beginning with when, where as modifiers in noun clauses, they are called
 - a) Adverbs
 - b) Pronouns
 - c) Relative pronouns
 - d) Relative Adverbs
- iii) Relative pronoun is related to the head of

- a) An Adverb phrase b) A Noun phrase
 c) An Adjective phrase d) A Genitive phrase
- iv) In prepositional clause there is always a after the preposition.
 a) THAT noun clause b) WH noun clause
 c) Zero noun clause d) Relative
- v) Only clause can function as S, O and C.
 a) An Adverbial b) A relative
 c) A Noun d) A Comparative
- vi) clause can occur as a post modifier in noun, adjective and adverb phrase.
 a) A noun b) A relative
 c) A Comparative d) An Adverbial
- vii) The function of a comparative clause is always
 a) Head of phrase b) Modifier of a phrase
 c) Subject of the clause d) Complement of the clause
- viii) clause can never function as adverbial of the main clause.
 a) A Noun b) An Adverbial
 c) Prepositional d) None of the above
- ix) The verb of the tenseless clause never indicates the
 a) Voice b) Tense
 c) Aspect d) Mood
- x) is one of the ways of embedding in a complex sentence.
 a) Subordination b) Preposition
 c) Conjunction d) Interjection

B. Identify the tensed subordinate clause in the following sentence and give them and form and function labels.

- i) When I asked Naziya she sang a modern Bollywood movie song.
- ii) I have remembered who offered us this gift.
- iii) Although, Sunil is inactive, I love him very much.
- iv) Why Satish bought that knife is still a mystery.
- v) The dress he bought yesterday was very costly.
- vi) Some people know that honeybees can communicate.
- vii) This is the college he wanted to join.
- viii) His joy knew no bounds, when he received the gold medal.
- ix) Dr. Prakash Amate, I know, is a great social reformer.
- x) These are my staff members who like classical music.

C) Identify the tenseless subordinate clauses in the following sentences and give them form and function labels.

- i) I saw England beaten by India yesterday.
- ii) To become a successful person is my ambition.
- iii) He opened the cupboard by breaking the glass.
- iv) The PM Kisan Scheme launched by the government is working well.
- v) He is better at writing than speaking English.
- vi) She has kept the secret of what she did in the company.

Write short notes of about 50 to 60 words each on the following:

- i) Tenseless clause
- ii) Prepositional clause
- iii) Subordination
- iv) Comparative Clause
- v) Tenseless Relative Clause

- vi) Noun clause
- vii) Coordination

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Module VIII

Basic and Derived Structures

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8.0 Objectives : This module aims to:

- generate awareness amongst the learners about a CONSTITUENT STRUCTURE three-dimensional model of grammar
- acquaint the learners the exceptional orders of English word order.
- introduce the learners the basic and derived structures
- accustom the learners with range of grammatical patterns especially variations of order and stylistic transformations

After studying this unit learners will be able to:

- apply a CONSTITUENT STRUCTURE three-dimensional model of grammar.
- provide complete syntactic analysis for complex sentences of English.
- use various experimental methods of syntactic structure- the basic and derived structures
- design and run their own experiments for spoken and written modes.

8.1 Introduction :

In previous modules, we have studied phonology, morphology, and syntax (phrase, clause and sentence structures) of English language. A description of English so far has been aimed at the analysis of various structures that make up the language, paying attention to notions like ‘form’ and ‘function’ i.e. **CONSTITUENT STRUCTURE** model of grammar. However, this approach sometimes fails to account for certain structures. In this module, we review the notions of:

- **BASIC STRUCTURE** which does not show application of transformation rules,
- **DERIVED STRUCTURE** which results after rules have been applied to basic structures, and,
- **TRANSFORMATIONS** which can be considered as rules that allow a clause to change its structure to a different one.

Parts of speech, or word categories, indicate what words usually do, or may be expected to do. Some of these categories - such as nouns and pronouns - make sense when we consider words in isolation. Others - such as conjunctions or prepositions - only make sense within a longer structure, a phrase, clause or sentence.

These three terms are traditional, and do not easily describe how strings of language work. The internal grammar of phrases, clauses and sentences refers to the principles (sometimes mistakenly called “rules”) of structure and organization.

In the syntax of English there are the two most important structures: clauses and sentences. You may know that:

- the sentence as we know it, is not found in all languages
- the sentence is not a necessary structure in natural language
- many written texts and most spoken data are not organized into regular sentence forms

The sentence, especially, is much more characteristic of written than of spoken English, and of formal rather than informal usage. Alternatively, we may say that spoken English contains sentence types not usually found in writing. It means that in English there is fixed word order but exceptional orders are also allowed. The normal declarative clause has a neutral, basic order of clause elements - S, P, O, C, A . The other clause types - e.g. questions, relative clauses - can be explained as systematic deviations from this expected order. For example:

1. A. [(I) (like) (Ice-cream)]. --BASIC ORDER (SPO)
B. [(Ice-cream) (I) (like)].-- DERIVED ORDER (OSP)
2. A. [(He) (fell)(down)]. --BASIC ORDER (SPA)
B. [(Down) (he) (fell)].-- DERIVED ORDER (ASP)

In the above examples, there are the variations of order. These rules are considered as transformations as they change one clause structure into another. The transformation allows us to keep the idea of a ‘basic’ or ‘neutral’ ordering. Transformations are either ‘optional’ (as either order is grammatical) or ‘obligatory’ (as only derived order is possible)

8.2 Presentation of the Subject Matter

The word-order of the clause creates a number of sentence structures that allow us to communicate a given core meaning in different ways depending on how we want to present. This is also referred as ‘package’ the information / transformations.

For example,

Krishna broke the buttermilk pot,

The buttermilk pot was broken by Krishna,

The buttermilk pot Krishna broke,

It was Krishna who broke the buttermilk pot,

What Krishna broke was the buttermilk pot

All have the same core meaning. But the first of them, Krishna broke the buttermilk pot, is syntactically most basic, while the others are derived **constructions**. Let us see other examples:

	Name	Derived	Basic counterpart
1	Fronting/ Preposing	Gossiping I hate.	I hate gossiping.
2	Postponing	I have lent to Archiet the only copy that has been rectified.	I have lent the only copy that has been rectified to Archiet.
3	Inversion	In the suitcase was a diamond necklace.	A diamond necklace was in the suitcase.
4	Passive	Bananas are adored by monkeys.	Monkeys adore bananas.
5	Existential	There was nobody around.	Nobody was around.
6	Extra position	It is well known that coffee grows in Brazil.	That coffee grows in Brazil is well known to all.
7	Cleft	It was Chinmay who ate the cake.	Chinmay ate the cake.
8	Pseudo-cleft	What you need is a good sleep	You need a good sleep.
9	Dislocation	It is delicious, this food	This food is delicious.

In the first three we are concerned simply with the order of elements, while the others involve more radical changes.

- The basic position for the Object, *Gossiping* in [1] is after the verb, but in it is preposed, placed at the front of the clause.

- In [2] the basic position for the Object, *the only copy that has been rectified*, is just after the verb but long or complex elements like this can be postponed, placed at the end.
- In [3] the positions of the Subject and Complement of the basic version [b] are reversed in the inversion construction [a]. (More precisely, this is Subject-Dependent inversion, in contrast to the Subject-auxiliary inversion construction. The Dependent is usually a Complement but can also be an Adjunct, as in *Ten hours later came news of his mother's death due to Corona virus.*)
- In [4] (the only one where the basic version has a distinct name, 'active') the Object becomes Subject, the Subject becomes Complement of *by* and the auxiliary *be* is added.
- The existential construction applies mainly with the verb *be*: the basic Subject is displaced to follow the verb and the semantically empty pronoun *there* (a dummy subject) takes over the Subject function.
- In [6] the Subject is a subordinate clause (That coffee grows in Brazil); in [a] this is extraposed, and the pronoun *it* functions as a Subject.
- In [7] the cleft clause is formed by the basic version: Chinmay is highlighted by making it Complement of a clause with *it* as Subject.
- The pseudo-cleft construction is similar, but this time the subordinated part is put in a fused relative (*what you need*) functioning as Subject of *be*.
- Dislocation belongs to fairly informal style. It differs from the basic version in having an extra noun phrase, set apart intentionally and related to a pronoun in the main Subject-Predicate part of the clause. In the **left dislocation** variant the pronoun occurs to the left of the noun phrase; in **right dislocation** it is the other way round, as in *His father, she can't stand him.*

8.2.1 SECTION I: INVERSION, FRONTING AND NEGATION:

Now let us see in detail English structures containing inversion of a clausal operator/ auxiliary, the Fronting (preposing, left dislocation) of a phrasal constituent and Negation.

8.2.1.1 Inversion: [A + S + P → A + P + S]

e.g. There stood the Commander in chief

Here come the police cars

Most often inversion is defined as “a reversal of position, order, form or relationship: such as a change in the canonical SVO word order; especially: the placement of a verb before its subject” (Merriam Webster Dictionary)

Another definition states: “Inversion happens when we reverse (invert) the normal word order of a structure most commonly the subject-verb word order. For example, a statement has the subject (S) before the verb (V), but to make question word order, we invert the subject and the verb, with an auxiliary (AUX) or modal verb (M) before the subject (S). Sometimes inversion in questions is explained as “a change of the places” of the auxiliary verb and the subject or as “a switch” of the subject with the auxiliary.

Negative Inversion (NI) is a non-canonical syntax phenomenon in which a negative constituent appears in a non-canonical position in the left periphery of the sentence triggering subject-auxiliary inversion. For example:

- I have never seen such a big lion. → Never have I seen such a big lion.
- When will you go? → When you will go?
- Muffins, I will eat tomorrow → Muffins, will I eat tomorrow
- None of them he found useful. → None of them did he find useful
- Nothing I have seen that could rival the pyramids. → [There is] nothing I have seen that could rival the pyramids

Check your progress: I

Transform the following structures into inversion

1. I implore your forgiveness.
2. I was shocked
3. The decision will come tomorrow.
4. She made there an excellent decision
5. I think I know whose woods these are.

8.2.1.2 Fronting: S + P + O/C/A → O/C/A + S + P

- I like mangos → Mangos I like
- He has a great surprise →What a great surprise he has
- [*I can't read he is writing what]→I can't read what he is writing

Fronting refers to the initial placement of core elements which are normally found in post-verbal position. There are patterns which differ in stylistic effect and in register distribution. Fronting has different functions such as organizing information flow to achieve cohesion, expressing contrast, enabling particular elements to gain emphasis.

Fronting with subject-operator inversion : In some instances, fronting a negative adverbial constituent or an adverbial constituent expressing extent, degree, or comparison gives a more emphatic or exclamatory reading to the sentence as a whole; in such cases, subject-operator inversion accompanies the constituent fronting (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999).

Present participle fronting:

- Our missing uncle was sitting at the kitchen table. →Sitting at the kitchen table was our missing uncle.

Past participle fronting:

- Several barrels of wine were hidden in the cellar. →Hidden in the cellar were several barrels of wine.

Comparative fronting:

- What he said was more important than what he did. → More important than what he did was what he said.

Fronting with or without subject-verb inversion:

Adverbial fronting: There are many types of adverbial fronting that occur in English. Some of them are:

Adverbials of time: He jogs in the morning. → In the morning he jogs.

Adverbials of manner:

- Ammu proceeded to carve the roast skillfully. → Skillfully, Ammu proceeded to carve the roast.

Adverbials of reason:

- I made some unfortunate remarks at the meeting because I was annoyed. → Because I was annoyed, I made some unfortunate remarks at the meeting.
- Jimmy ran into the house. → Into the house Jimmy ran.

Check your progress: II

Q. Replace the word order in the following sentences by using Fronting Transformation structures.

1. A large white cat sat in the middle of the bed.
2. The robbers ran out of the bank.
3. They rushed into the street.
4. An old man sat quietly in the corner.
5. There's a small store room next to the kitchen.
6. I've never seen such careless work.
7. I've rarely eaten such a delicious meal.
8. We don't know when he left.
9. I can't understand why she didn't tell us.
10. We have no idea where she has gone.

8. 2.1.3 Negation:

Negation, (Merriam Webster refers to) as “the action or logical operation of negating or making negative”. In English grammar, there are some different ways for negating. First of all, the grammatical tense of the verb needs to be considered and not merely ‘not’. Sometimes an auxiliary verb is additionally required. In most cases, ‘**not**’ is inserted in the clause and attached to the auxiliary in its **short form** ‘**n’t**’. If the context is formal or if the negation needs to be **emphasized** then, ‘not’ can also appear as a separate word after the verb. In any

case, the type of sentence does not matter and it can therefore be interrogative, declarative or imperative. Compare the possibilities:

1. The auxiliary verb '**to do**' is only required in negations in simple tenses –present and past.

For example:

- I eat a mango. → I don't eat a mango.
 - She eats a mango → She doesn't eat a mango.
 - He ate a mango. → He didn't eat a mango.
2. Verb tenses that already have an auxiliary in their positive statements simply need to be complemented with '**not**'. It occurs in the **continuous** forms (ing-forms), constructions with **passive voice** and all **perfect** tenses. In a similar way, **modal verbs** solely need 'not' for their **negation** as they also belong to the group of auxiliary verbs.

For example:

- Meerai is talking with Krishna. → Meera **isn't** talking with Krishna.
- Sachin has been playing cricket since his childhood → Sachin **hasn't** been playing cricket since his childhood
- Harish can read English Newspaper → Harish cannot read English Newspaper

The verb '**to be**' is an exception here. Even as a full verb, it is negated with '**not**' :

- Samira is at home. → Samira is not at home.
3. Sometimes, clauses can also be negated by using other words. Such words already bear a negative meaning and hence do not require 'not' in the sentence. Here are some examples of words that carry **negative meaning**:
- The adverb of frequency '**never**':
 - They never go to bed after 11 o'clock.
 - (They don't go to bed after 11 o'clock.)

- **neither:**
- **Neither** of us passed the exam.
- (We both didn't pass the exam.)
- **Prefixes that express the negative opposite:**
- What you're doing is illegal.
- (What you're doing is not legal.)
- **Indefinite pronouns, such as 'nobody' or 'none':**
- Nobody could help me yesterday.
- (Not anybody could help me yesterday.)

Check your progress: III

Q. Change the sentences into negative:

1. A brave man alone can do this.
2. I need a book only.
3. You have to drink clean water.
4. He ate eggs and vegetables.
5. Everybody dislikes a liar.

8.2.2 SECTION II: INTERROGATION, EXCLAMATION AND OMISSION:

8.2.2.1 Interrogation:

Interrogative transformation provides questions that will produce more than a *yes/no* answer. It may be used with any of the sentence patterns. To create the transformation,

- an interrogative word is placed at the beginning of the sentence,
- positions of the subject and verb are reversed, and
- *do/does/did* if needed are added (action or linking verb without auxiliary verb).

Interrogative words: *how when where why what which who whom*

For example:

- Ritu is happy → Why is Ritu happy?
- The dog is eating the bone. → Where is the dog eating the bone?
- The grass has grown tall. → How has the grass grown tall?
- The dog eats the bone. → How does the dog eat the bone?
- The grass grew tall. → When did the grass grow tall?

Sentences using *which* or *whose* to create the interrogative may not require adding *do/does/did* or transposing the positions of the subject and verb.

- That dog eats the bone → Which dog eats the bone?
- That dog is eating the bone → Which dog is eating the bone?
- The grass has grown tall. → Which grass has grown tall?

Transformation of **interrogative with yes-no answer** may be used with any of the sentence patterns. To transform sentences into the interrogative with *yes-no* answer,

A. with a **verb of being** as the main verb: the position of the subject and the verb is transposed.

e.g. Moti is my dog. → Is Moti my dog?

B. with an action or linking verb that **has an auxiliary verb** (*have* or *be*): The position of the subject and the auxiliary verb is transposed.

e.g. The dog is eating the bone → Is the dog eating the bone?

C. with an action or linking verb that **does not have an auxiliary verb**: The appropriate number and tense of *do is added*.

e.g. The dog eats the bone → Does the dog eat the bone?

Check your progress: IV

Q. Transform the following statements into interrogations:

1. He said nothing about the matter.
2. There is no use of this book.
3. Smoking is a bad habit.

4. All hate a liar.
5. Anyone can do it.

8.2.2.2 Exclamation:

Transformation of exclamatory creates a surprise statement. It may be used with all sentence patterns. To make the exclamatory transformation,

- *what* or *how* is placed at the beginning of the sentence
- words in the sentence are rearranged as needed
- an exclamation point is placed at the end of the sentence

Examples:

- The dog eats the bone → What a bone the dog eats!
- I consider Shakti intelligent → How intelligent I consider Shakti!
- The grass grows tall. → How tall the grass grows!
- Archiet is happy → How happy Archiet is!

Check your progress: V

Q. Transform the following statements into exclamations:

1. It is a great river.
2. The night is very beautiful.
3. It is a very wonderful scene.
4. I wish I had the wings of a bird.
5. You draw very well.

8.2.2.3 Omission:

In spoken and written English, omission is used as linguistic mechanism which helps specific linguistic structures to be expressed more economically, at the same time maintaining their clarity and comprehensiveness. This mechanism include mainly those linguistic structures that enable the avoidance of repetition, either by choosing alternative (usually shorter) words, phrases, or by complete omission of words, phrases or clauses.

Omission or Ellipsis is a way to improve your writing style by avoiding the repetition of words previously used in a sentence. Ellipsis is distinguished by the structure having some missing elements. These elements are obvious from the context hence need not be raised. Ellipsis is the omission of “elements in a sentence”, but what is left out is understood from the immediate environment (Thornbury 2006, p.73).

8.2.2.3.1 Relative Pronouns:

Relative pronouns introduce relative clauses. A relative clause is a type of adjective clause used to modify a word or phrase in the main clause. The word or phrase thus modified by the relative clause is called its antecedent.

- The purse **that Jennie bought** was expensive.

Here the relative clause *that Jennie bought* modifies the noun *purse*. Therefore the word, *purse* is the antecedent of the relative clause. We can omit relative pronouns when they are not the subject of the clause (without affecting the structure or meaning of the sentence). For example: *This is the dress (that) I bought yesterday*. Since *that* doesn't change the meaning or structure of the sentence, we can omit relative pronoun, *that*.

Note that Relative Pronoun can be omitted if it is an object, but not if it is a Subject.

The relative pronoun may be omitted when it acts as the object of the relative clause.

- I know the person **whom you are talking about**. (More formal)
- I know the person **who** you are talking about. (Less formal)
- I know the person you are talking about. (Informal)
- The bookstore did not have the book **that** I wanted. (Formal)
- The bookstore did not have the book I wanted. (Informal)
- This is the house **in which** I lived when I was younger. (Formal)
- This is the house **where** I lived when I was younger. (Formal)

The word *whom* is not used very often. It is almost always omitted while speaking. In a less formal style, people sometimes use **who** instead of **whom**.

Whom cannot be omitted when it is preceded by a preposition because in this case **whom** acts as the object of the preposition.

- At last, the officer **for whom** we were desperately waiting arrived. (Formal)
- This is the woman **that we** were talking about. OR This is the woman **we** were talking about.

If we have a defining Relative Clause, using the verb ‘be’, it can be dropped. The end result may be a Relative Clause or an Adjective Phrase or a Participle Phrase modifying the Noun. For Example:

- The man, who was walking ahead, was an undercover agent.
- The man, walking ahead, was an undercover agent.

Check your progress: VI

Q. Omit the Relative pronouns in the following sentences:

1. The dog that Mary is petting is very fluffy.
2. The water that I drank was very cold.
3. The cat that Mary is petting can be dangerous.
4. That’s the circus in which I work.
5. That’s the girl whom I would marry.
6. The elephant, who was interested in the bananas, was rather genial.

8.2.2.3.2 Comparative Clauses:

Comparative deletion is different from many of the other optional ellipsis mechanisms. Usually, the omission in a comparative clause is obligatory. More women arrived than we expected (women would arrive).

- Ritu ordered more beer than we could drink (beer).
- Raju looks more satisfied than Ritu (looks satisfied).
- Kapil has friends in more countries than you have friends in (countries).
- She is right more often than the others (are right).

However, words must be omitted to a point where the sentence does not become ambiguous. Let's see ambiguous sentences:

- John loves money more than his wife.

The comparison in this sentence is ambiguous as it may have two meanings.

Meaning 1, where the intended comparison is between “**money**” and “**his wife**”, then the sentence must be written this way:

- John has more love for money than **for** his wife.

Meaning 2, where the intended comparison is between “**John**” and “**his wife**”, then the sentence must be written this way:

- John has more love for money than **has** his wife.

Check your progress : VII

Q. Find out the omitted elements in the following structures:

1. Sweta was working more quickly than he was.
2. Revati and Priti are a bit shorter than I.
3. This apple is tastier than the other one.
4. Minu runs faster than his sister.
5. Charu liked the movie more than we.

8.2.2.3.3 Omission in Coordinate Constructions:

The conjunction links units within sentences, the conjunct can link clauses within sentences and make links between sentences. Thus conjuncts play an important role in establishing cohesion within texts. Conjunctions are words which join clauses or smaller units of a sentence together. We have seen that coordination of words and phrases often implies ellipsis. Let's see how the sentences being derived by ellipsis work.

Ellipsis in coordinated clauses

- Ellipsis of subject
- Ellipsis of auxiliary only
- Ellipsis of predicate/predication

- Ellipsis of Od /Cs only
- Ellipsis of A
- Ellipsis of Head-noun/C prep

1. **Ellipsis of Subject (& auxiliary) in subsequent clauses.** + Identical subjects of coordinated clause are ellipped.

E.g.: John played piano and (John/he) sang a song.

Peter ate a sandwich and (Peter/he) drank a cup of tea.

Sometimes, ellipsis of both Subject and auxiliary occurs.

E.g.: Tim was drinking milk and (Tim/he was) watching TV.

She has finished the homework and (she has) washed the clothes.

2. **Ellipsis of auxiliary alone.**

E.g.: Pan should clean the bed and Jack (should) open the door.

He was sleeping and (he was) snoring.

3. **Ellipsis of predicate or predication.**

Ellipsis of first part of predicate/ predication:

VP only or lexical Verb only.

e.g. We are studying Grammar now and (we) will be (studying) next Friday.

I work in a factory and he (works) on a farm.

VP + Subject compliment

e.g. It's cold in December in England, but (it's cold) in July in New Delhi.

Brazil was the winner of USA 94 and France (was the winner) of France 98.

VP/ lexical Verb + direct Object

e.g. I go to school in the morning and my brother (goes to school) in the afternoon.

Ronaldo plays football for Real Madrid and Messi (plays football) for Barcelona.

Ellipsis of whole predication

e.g. They can pay the full fee, but (they) won't (pay the full fee).

4. **Ellipsis of direct Object / Subject compliment**

e.g. Jim opened (the door), but Marry closed, the door.

5. **Ellipsis of head of Noun phrase**

e.g. She wore a black dress, but the blue (dress) suits her better.

He wanted boiled fish, but they gave him fried (fish).

6. **Ellipsis in phrasal coordination**

E.g.: We wanted fried fish, but they gave us boiled (fish).

She wore the black dress, but the blue (dress) suits her better.

Bob is bored with (music), but Peter enjoys music.

Check your progress: VIII

Q. Find out the omitted elements in the following structures:

1. They were tired but happy.
2. She was pleased although slightly disappointed.
3. They have painted the house and the garage.
4. She has cleaned and repaired the door.
5. I have washed the car and painted the door.

8.2.2.3.4 Tag Questions: The most interesting type of elliptical clause is the Tag Question—an interrogative clause which is tagged on to the end of a declarative clause and which acts as a request for confirmation. Basically, the rule applied in Tag Question is that in **positive** sentences a **negative** question tag is needed and in **negative** ones a **positive**. However, there may be **other** combinations depending on meaning and pronunciation. Here are some examples of Tag Questions:

- You can drive, can't you?
- Pass me the salt, would you?
- Don't be late, will you?

- Let's go for movie, shall we?
- There weren't a lot of things left at the sale, were there?
- I'm very lazy, aren't I?

Check your progress: IX

Q. Find out the omitted tag questions in the following structures:

1. Helen is from London.
2. Archiet plays the piano.
3. She isn't very happy about her new job.
4. We are not allowed to leave.
5. Your neighbors never use their car.

8.2.3 SECTION III: PASSIVISATION, SUBJECT RAISING AND STYLE TRANSFORMATION:

8.2.3.1 Passive transformation:

Passive sentences are derived from their active counterparts by a rule of transformation which moves their object NPs to the subject position, in addition to making other modifications. The sentence may be any of the following patterns:

NP1 + V-tr + NP2	The dog ate the bone.
NP1 + V-tr + NP2 + NP3	Rita gave Mita a ring.
NP1 + V-tr + NP2 + Adj	We consider Rita intelligent.
NP1 + V-tr + NP2 + NP2	The people made Sam king.

The **passive** is used, essentially, in three situations:

- To put more **emphasis** on the word that would be the object of an active sentence.
- To write an **impersonal** sentence.
- To **simplify** the structure of a complex sentence

In many instances, we delete the agent in passive sentences (*Passive Agent Deletion*) For example: The cake was eaten.

When the subject agent is not identified, we use an indefinite pronoun to fill the slot where it would appear in the basic structure. For example:

[Someone] ate the cake. → The cake was eaten [by someone].

We can say, therefore, that this sentence has undergone **two transformations**-passive and passive agent deletion.

Here are some examples of passive transformation:

- Sara cheated Dhara. → Dhara was cheated (by Sara).
- The teacher put the glasses in the drawer. → The glasses were put in the drawer (by the teacher).
- They process sales data in a computer → Sales data is processed in a computer
- Someone stole Kevin's bike yesterday → Kevin's bike was stolen yesterday
- She interviewed the writer at the conference → The writer was interviewed at the conference
- She sings new songs in this CD → New songs are sung in this CD
- John Grisham wrote The Innocent Man → The Innocent Man was written by John Grisham
- They sell hamburgers at MacDonald's Hamburgers → Hamburgers are sold at MacDonald's
- I must clean my room → My room must be cleaned by me
- I can drive a car. → A car can be driven by me.
- You should read this book. → This book should be read by you.

Check your progress: X

Q. Give the passive transformations of the following structures:

1. John drinks a cup of tea.
2. Elsa saw the television.
3. Frank has driven a bus.
4. Kelly had broken a glass.

5. I will win the lottery.

8.2.3.2 Subject Raising:

Subject Raising involves raising the subject from a lower part of a sentence (in other words, a subordinate clause) to become the subject of a higher part of the sentence, usually the main clause. For example:

1. It seems [that **you**'re worried].
2. **You** seem [to be worried].

The subject of sentence 1 is 'it', a dummy subject, in other words, a subject with no meaning. The dummy subject simply fills the role of subject in a sentence, which can't usually be left empty in English. However, *that*-clause in 1 has a real subject, 'you', which certainly has meaning.

Sentence 2 means the same as sentence 1. The only difference is that the subject of the sentence is now 'you'. It's almost as if the subject from *that*-clause has been lifted up to become subject of the whole sentence. In the process of losing its subject, *that*-clause has been reduced to a mere *to*-infinitive. This process is called subject raising and the subject of sentence 2 is called a raised subject. Here are some more examples.

- 3a. It's likely that **they**'re waiting in the office. → b. **They**'re likely to be waiting in the office.
- 4a. It appears that **we** missed them. → b. **We** appear to have missed them.
- 5a. It happened that **I** saw Dave yesterday. → b. **I** happened to see Dave yesterday.

The progressive form in 3a (*they're waiting*) leads to a progressive infinitive in the raised version (*to be waiting*). Similarly, the past form in 4a (*missed*) leads to a perfect infinitive (*to have missed*). But in 5a, the past form (*saw*) doesn't lead to a perfect infinitive – it's just a normal infinitive (*to see*, not ~~*to have seen*~~). The main verb (*happened*) is in the past tense, and that's enough to make it clear that the whole sentence is about the past.

In all the examples so far, a meaningful subject has replaced a dummy subject, *it*. But this isn't always the case. See the following examples:

- 6a. I'm certain **she**'ll be here soon. → b. **She**'s certain to be here soon.

- 7a. **It's** likely that **it'll** rain tonight. → b. **It's** likely to rain tonight.
- 8a. **It** is said that **there** are hundreds of fans. → b. **There** are said to be hundreds of fans.
- 9a. **I'm** sure **there's** a solution. → b. **There's** sure to be a solution.

In sentence 6, we've got one meaningful subject (*she*) replacing another meaningful subject (*I*). This is much less common, and is mostly restricted to sentences with '*sure*' and '*certain*', where the lost subject, '*I*', is still obvious from context.

In sentence 7, in contrast, we've got a dummy subject (the '*it*' from '*it'll rain*') replacing another dummy '*it*'. The (a) and (b) versions both appear to start with the same word, '*it*', but it's a different '*it*' in each case.

In sentence 8, we've got another dummy subject, in this case the '*there*' from '*there is/are*', moving up to replace the dummy subject '*it*'.

Finally, in sentence 9, we've got a dummy subject '*there*' replacing a meaningful subject, '*I*'.

Study the structures carefully while subject raising:

- verbs of seeming: **appear** and **seem** (e.g. *You seem/appear to be right*). But not *look, sound, feel*, etc.
- adjectives of probability: **sure, certain, likely, unlikely** (e.g. *You're likely/sure to be right*). But not *probable, possible, uncertain, inevitable*, etc.
- passive reporting verbs: **be said, be thought, be known, be believed, be rumoured**, etc. (*He's said/known/thought to be dangerous*).
- passive verbs of expectation: **be expected, be required, be supposed** (e.g. *He's expected/supposed/required to be here soon*)
- verbs of happening: **happen** (e.g. *If you happen to see Jim, ...*) and **turn out** (e.g. *We turned out to be the only guests*). But not *occur*.

Let's conclude the unit. The motivations behind Subject Raising transformation are: First, together with other transformations, it enables us explicitly to characterize a host of synonymous sentences as being derived from the same structure. Secondly,

it enables us to capture certain linguistically significant generalizations in a simple and straightforward way.

Check your progress: XI

Q. Transform the following sentences using a process of subject raising:

1. John seems to be unhappy.
2. The man appears to have witnessed the accident.
3. The Anteaters are likely to lose again.
4. They happen to have been invited to the same party.
5. The answer turns out to be very simple.

8.2.3.3 Style and Transformation:

Many transformations are primarily stylistic in function, e.g. passive,

- The rainstorms have destroyed many houses
- Many houses have been destroyed by the rainstorms
- Many houses have been destroyed

Some other transformations involving transposition of clause elements include:

a) Cleft sentences

The cleft sentence derives its name from the fact that a single clause is cleft into two clause-like parts, even though it is generally analyzed as a single clause with 2 predicates instead of as 2 separate clauses.

Basic structure: John was wearing pink socks last night

Derived structures: (Sj) It was Rahul that was wearing white socks last night

(O) It was white socks that Rahul was wearing last night

(A) It was last night that Rahul was wearing white socks

b) Existential sentences:

They resemble cleft-sentences in that they are introduced by a special particle as Subject followed by TO BE. The prop subject in this case is the so-called EXISTENTIAL particle 'THERE' introducing a proposition of existence.

Rule: [S + BE + X → There + BE + Sj + X],

- Nobody was around → There was nobody around
- A few people are getting promoted → There are a few people getting promoted

c. Extra position:

A construction in which a Nominal Clause, usually one functioning as Subject is postponed to the end of the main clause and is replaced in its basic position by the empty subject 'IT'.

'END-WEIGHT'

Rule: [S + P] → [It + P + S]

- What you say to them doesn't matter → It doesn't matter what you say to them
[S + P + C] → [It + P + C + S]
- That the dispute has been settled is encouraging → It is encouraging that the dispute has been settled
[S + P + IO + DO] → [It + S + P + IO + DO]
- To move the exam causes him considerable pain → It causes him considerable pain to move the exam

D. Fronting of Subordinate Clause Object:

There is the fronting of subordinate clause:

- She is easy to please → It is easy to please her
- Sachin is a pleasure to watch when he bats → It is a pleasure to watch Sachin when he bats.
- It is difficult to play a piano → A piano is difficult to play.
- It is a fun to be with friends → Friends are fun to be with.

There is the occurrence of verb fronting in subordinate clauses in English. One example is the conditional clause:

- We wouldn't be in this mess if I had been in charge → [Had I been in charge] we wouldn't be in this mess.

E. Substitution of PP for Indirect Object:

- The sun gave **the garden** *a pocketful of sunshine*. → The sun gave a pocketful of sunshine to the garden.
- Reetu's mom brought **her** a glassful of seashells. → Reetu's mom brought a glassful of seashells for her.
- Mitu gave **her sister** a sidelong stare. → Mitu gave a sidelong stare to her sister.
- Can we tell **our friends** the story of how we met? → Can we tell the story of how we met to our friends?

F. Postponement of Postmodifier:

- People who work hard succeed in life. → People succeed in life who works hard.
- The road to a mastery of Grammar is very thorny. → The road is very thorny to a mastery of Grammar.
- A meeting of all the members of editorial board was held. → A meeting was held of all the members of editorial board.
- The book on the table is about syntax. → The book about syntax is on the table.
- The book which is on the table is about syntax. → The book which is about syntax is on the table.
- The dress that John likes is in the wardrobe. → John likes the dress that is in the wardrobe.

Check your progress: XII

Q. Substitute the Indirect Objects in the following sentences by PP:

- Sara assembled **Mita** a brand new office chair.
- Archiet's mom offered **him** Mercedes on his 21st birthday.

- During the heavy rainfall, I wrote **my parents** a heartfelt letter.
- Let's bring **Mom and Dad** the manuscript of our first play.
- Ajit finally gave **Amrita** the engagement ring.

Answers to Check Your Progress

I. Inversion:

1. Your forgiveness I implore
2. Shocked, I was.
3. Tomorrow will come the decision.
4. An excellent decision she made there
5. Whose woods these are I think I know

II. Fronting

1. In the middle of the bed sat a large white cat.
2. Out of the bank ran the robbers.
3. Into the street they rushed.
4. In the corner, an old man sat quietly.
5. Next to the kitchen is a small store room.
6. Never have I seen such careless work.
7. Rarely have I eaten such a delicious meal.
8. When he left we don't know.
9. Why she didn't tell us I cannot understand.
10. Where she has gone we have no idea.

III. Negative:

1. None but a brave man can do this.
2. I need nothing but a book.
3. You cannot but drink clean water
4. He ate not only eggs but also vegetables
5. Nobody likes a liar.

IV. Interrogation:

1. Did he say anything about the matter?
2. What is the use of this book?
3. Isn't smoking a bad habit?
4. Who doesn't hate a liar?
5. Who can't do it?

V. Exclamation:

1. What a great river it is!
2. How beautiful the night is!
3. What a wonderful scene it is!
4. Had I the wings of bird!
5. How well you draw!

VI. Omission in Relative Pronouns:

1. The dog Mary is petting is very fluffy.
2. The water I drank was very cold.
3. The cat, Mary is petting can be dangerous.
4. That's the circus I work in.
5. That's the girl I would marry.
6. The elephant interested in the bananas was rather genial.

VII. Omission in Comparative Clauses:

6. Sweta was working more quickly than he was (working)
7. Revati and Priti are a bit shorter than I (am).
8. This apple is tastier than the other one (is).
9. Minu runs faster than his sister (does).
10. Charu liked the movie more than we (liked it).

VIII. Omission in Coordinate Construction:

1. They were tired but (they were) happy.

2. She was pleased although (she was) slightly disappointed.
3. They have painted the house and (they have painted) the garage
4. She has cleaned and (she has) repaired the door
5. I have washed the car and (I have) painted the door

IX. Tag Questions:

1. Helen is from London, **isn't she?**
2. Archiet plays the piano, **doesn't he?**
3. She isn't very happy about her new job, **is she?**
4. We are not allowed to leave, **are we?**
5. Your neighbors never use their car, **do they?**

X. Passive transformations

1. A cup of tea is drunk by John.
2. The television was seen by Elsa.
3. A bus has been driven by Frank.
4. A glass had been broken by Kelly.
5. The lottery will be won by me.

XI. Subject Raising

1. It seems that John is unhappy.
2. It appears that the man has witnessed the accident.
3. It is likely that the Anteaters will lose again.
4. It happens that they have been invited to the same party.
5. It turns out that the answer is very simple.

XII. Style and Transformation:

1. Sara assembled a brand new office chair for Mita.
2. Archiet's mom offered Mercedes to **him** on his 21st birthday.
3. During the heavy rainfall, I wrote a heartfelt letter to **my parents**.

4. Let's bring the manuscript of our first play for **Mom and Dad**.
5. Ajit finally gave the engagement ring to Amrita.

8.3 Summary

In this module, we have seen some complex areas of English Grammar. Although parsing of the derived structures may seem unimportant as a grammar topic, in fact, many of these structures occur frequently enough in spoken and written English. Focus is a discourse-functional notion, related to what speaker/writer wants to draw the listener/reader's attention to in the ongoing discourse or text. As it was pointed out, such attention can be activated through the use of marked word order and special focus constructions.

Clefting occurs widely in conversation and basic function of them is to make certain elements more prominent. It-clefts can be incorporated in regular oral grammar practice and in composition instruction. On the other hand, wh-clefts used to contradict something that has been said are good candidates for oral grammar activities. Main functions of it-clefts are contradicting, arguing a point and establishing a topic whereas the functions of wh-clefts are resuming a topic, presenting the gist and contradicting. Fronting of prepositional phrases, adverbs, and reduced relative clauses is used often in academic and popular writing, as left-dislocation.

The main aim of the use of fronting are emphasizing an element, emphasizing a contrast, introducing the topic of an article and introducing a topic shift. Thus, knowledge of how to use these focus structures effectively could help advanced students to improve their writing skills.

8.4 Terms to Remember

- **Base form:** the (at least apparently) uninflected form of the verb. It can be finite or non-finite.
- **Clause:** a structure containing a (visible or invisible) subject and a predicate.
- **Complement:** an argument which follows the verb, or, more generally, a phrase selected by a head.
- **Constituent:** a linguistic expression that functions as a unit in grammatical structure. A group of words that undergo syntactic processes together.

- **Deep-structure:** the structure before movement takes place, a representation of thematic relations.
- **Ellipsis** is the omission of one or more words in order to avoid repetition.
- **Embedded clause:** a clause that is part of a larger constituent (I know [that you like him], the man [that you like]).
- **Extra-position:** a constituent (PP, CP) moved from the phrase where it belongs to a sentence final position.
- **focus fronting:** focus can be indicated either by stress alone or by movement in which latter case we speak about focus fronting, as the constituent that bears focus stress moves to the front of the clause, as in *Peter I wouldn't trust*
- **Focus:** the stressed element in a sentence that carries new information.
- **Generative grammar:** a grammar containing rules with the help of which we can generate all and only the well-formed expressions of a language (therefore excluding the ungrammatical structures).
- **Immediate constituent:** the immediate constituent of a node is the node that is lower than the given constituent and is connected to it by a single branch. It is the constituent directly below the node it is the immediate constituent of.
- **Interrogative clause:** a structure mainly used to ask for information, either in the form of a yes–no question or a wh-question.
- **Main clause:** a clause that is not embedded in another clause.
- **Negative fronting:** a movement type where a negative element is placed at the beginning of the clause as in *Never have I met such a talented musician!*
- **Passive structure:** a verb with the -en ending often (but not always) preceded by an inflected form of be. Passive verbs do not have a VP-projection similar to VPs in active structures.
- **Passive voice:** the subject of the passive sentence is interpreted as the object of the verb.

- **Subject–auxiliary inversion:** a descriptive cover term for the reverse order of the subject and the auxiliary in questions like Can you dance?, see also I-to-C movement.
- **Substitution** is the replacing of one or more words in order to avoid repetition.
- **syntax:** the study of sentence structure
- **Tree diagram:** a representation of grammatical structure containing nodes connected by branches.

8.6 Exercises

A. Rewrite the sentences to emphasis the words underlined. (By using Cleft or Pseudo cleft)

1. We need food and not blankets.
2. Two beautiful nurses helped him the street.
3. My right leg hurts.
4. I need desperately a new flat in Kolhapur.
5. I ignored his rudeness.
6. Hira failed the final exam.
7. Jitu went to London for some business.
8. I want a cup of coffee.
9. We need actions, not words.
10. You lean a foreign language only by practicing.

B. **Make the following sentences more emphatic by ‘fronting’ part of them. Do not use any additional words.**

(0) I can’t stand hypocrisy. → Hypocrisy I can’t stand!

1. Though he was exhausted, he managed to reach the finishing line.
2. My life’s ambition is to make the pilgrimage to Mecca.
3. The ninth symphony is his most sublime work.
4. I really can’t accept that proposal.

5. An enormous gold Buddha was placed on the altar.
6. An old man was lying in the shop doorway.
7. It proved impossible to get to the bottom of the mystery.
8. The pilot couldn't regain control because the damage was so severe.

C. Which movement types can be spotted in the sentences below? (passivisation, subject–auxiliary inversion, topicalisation, extraposition and preposing) Classify them.

1. What is the meaning and purpose of life?
2. Is there any more coffee?
3. Him, I don't like.
4. In the afternoon, they went fishing.
5. Mary, Peter often meets.
6. Mary is said to be beautiful
7. Yesterday, they paid their electricity bill.

D. Rewrite the following sentences by using the omitted words.

1. Want some more chocolate?
2. Hear that just now?
3. Got some money to lend?
4. Hard to do that.
5. Wow! Awesome!

8.7 Reference for Further Study

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