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BASIC ENGLISH SYNTAX

WITH EXERCISES

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A Compilation and Revision

For Classroom Teaching Material Only

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1

What is syntax?

The term of syntax is not a strange thing for many people particularly for academic ones. It (syntax) is often found in many kinds of academic subjects such as physics, math, and economics as well as in language. In this book, syntax that will be discussed refers to language that is English.

English is one of language that used by most of people in the words. Everyone always does effort to understand and to communicate English. It is essential not only for students of English department in one of college or university but for all people who want to get advanced knowledge. The reason to the statement because of most of knowledge sources are written in English. They are can be found in the forms of books, journals, articles, newspapers, magazines, and kinds of electronic media. It can be said that English is an instrument to break through the world via media as stated above.

It has been illustrated previously that the major component discuss in this book is one of linguistics sub-discipline namely syntax. However it is necessary to understand the meaning of language before discussing syntax that refers to English. Language is understood in many definitions.

There are many people master language as the instrument of communication. As it can be imagined that this is not always easy and there is a lot of room for differences of opinion. Whatever language might be as a method of communicating, something to aid thought, a form of entertainment or of aesthetic appreciation. Academic people especially who study language define language is first and foremost a system that enable people who speak it to produce and understand linguistic expression (Newson, 2006:1).

In the corridor of syntax, it is understood as a way to know how the language grammars are structured, what kinds of rules they allowed what kinds of primitive relation they exploit and what kinds of elements they involve. Jackson (2007: 19) states syntax is arrange together as literarily meaning. It means that syntax is the study of the central part of grammar, involving the analysis of sentence into their constituents, including clauses, phrases, and words. Syntax considers both the form of sentence elements (noun phrase) and their function (subject of the clause).

In spoken language the definition of word becomes very tricky. The part of linguistics that deals with how words are put together into sentences is called syntax. Generally this works (syntax) in the following way the learners study what the linguistic system produces (grammatical sentences which have certain meaning) and try to guess what it is that must be going on in the speakers' head to enable them to do this.

The term ‘syntax’ is also used to mean the *study* of the syntactic properties of languages. In this sense, it’s used in the same way as we use ‘stylistics’ to mean the study of literary style. We’re going to be studying how languages organize their syntax, so the scope of our study includes the classification of words, the order of words in phrases and sentences, the structure of phrases and sentences, and the different sentence constructions that languages use. We’ll be looking at examples of sentence structure from many different languages in this book, some related to English and others not. All languages have syntax, although that syntax may look radically different from that of English.

> The term ‘syntax’ is from the Ancient Greek syntaxis, a verbal noun which literally means ‘arrangement’ or ‘setting out together’. Traditionally, it refers to the branch of grammar dealing with the ways in which words, with or without appropriate inflections, are arranged to show connections of meaning within the sentence (Valin, 2004: 1).

The aim of this book is to help students who study English as the major subject to understand the way syntax works in languages, and to introduce the most important syntactic concepts and technical terms which you will need in order to see how syntax works. The discussion in this book encounter many grammatical terms, including ‘noun’, ‘verb’, ‘preposition’, ‘relative clause’, ‘subject’, ‘nominative’, ‘agreement’ and ‘passive’. ‘Syntax’ means ‘sentence construction’. It studies how words group together to make phrases and sentences

grammatically. In another words state that in spoken language the definition of word becomes very tricky. The part of linguistics that deals with how words are put together into grammatical sentences is called syntax.

The issues of syntax deals with the principal words order. In English we cannot string words into a sentence randomly. For example, we can have (1), but not (2) or (3):

(1) The President ate a doughnut.
(2) *The President a doughnut ate.
(3) *doughnut President the ate a.

The contrast between (1) and (2) shows that in English the word that denotes the activity of eating (*ate*) must precede the word (or string of words) that refers to the entity that was being eaten (*a doughnut*). Furthermore, if we compare (2) and (3) we see that not only must *ate* precede *a doughnut*, but we must also ensure that the two elements *the* and *a* precede *President* and *doughnut*, respectively. It seems that *the* and *President* together form a unit, in the same way that *a* and *doughnut* do. Our syntactic framework will have to be able to explain why it is that words group themselves together.

First and foremost, syntax deals with how sentences are constructed. However not all languages have the same words order. In English the subject comes before the verb and the object follows the verb. Toba Batak (an Austronesian language of Indonesia; Scacther 1984b written in Valin, 2004:2) subject and object both precede the verb. It can be seen in this following

example:

a. The teacher is reading a book. (English)

b. Manjaha buku guru i. (Toba Batak)

read book teacher the

The Toba Batak sentences also mean 'the teacher is reading the book'. It has been mention previously that words order in English sentence starting from *subject-verb-object*, whereas the basic word order in Toba Batak example the *subject* comes last in the sentence, with the object following the verb and preceding the subject (*verb-object-subject*). Giving these examples purpose to help the students (readers) to understand what English syntax is. It does not discuss the difference syntax among of languages because the limitation object in this book is English syntax.

Exercises

After studying this sub unit of this book the student are expected to understand of these following questions. Answer these questions based on information from those explanations previously and use description by giving example. Do by using of your own words!

1. What is syntax?

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2. How does syntax work in a language?

3. What is the function of syntax?

4. To get wider comprehension of syntax, please compare English into another language in the point of sentence constructed grammatically!

5. Find out 5 sentences that produced by English learners and analyzed them syntactically. Then write down what syntax problem are found in those sentences!

2

Words classes

In this section it is taken a closer look at the smallest building block of syntax, namely words. The following is the explanation how they can be grouped into words classes. The explanation will be useful to readers who have little previous experience of word classes, or 'parts of speech'. They are consisted of verbs, nouns, adjectives and adverbs class.

Each section discusses the distribution, function and morphosyntactic properties of the word class. All the major word classes are associated with a typical set of grammatical categories. This point concentrates on the most common categories found cross-linguistically which belong to words class that have mention above. So in another syntax term it is called as word categories.

2.1 Words belong to different classes

It is easy to demonstrate that words in a language fall into different classes. For example, only certain single words can fill the gap in (1) to complete the sentence:

(1)Yolanda wanted to ____ .
The gap can be filled as in (2), but not as in (3):
(2)Yolanda wanted to leave/browse/relax/sleep.

(3) a. *Yolanda wanted to departure/browser/relaxation.
b. *Yolanda wanted to underneath/overhead.
c.*Yolanda wanted to energetic/thoughtful/green/sad.

The sentence 1 will be called grammatical if it does not let incomplete. The words to complete the sentence do not every word randomly. The words that can fill the gap are all verbs, of course. Verbs appear in a variety of other positions too, but if finding one word to complete (1), it must be a verb. The verb is in the single form. It means that there is no addition the verbs. In another words it can say that the verbs which are fit to complete the sentence are the verbs without any addition of grammar properties, like inflectional. Consider the sentence 3. They are similar into sentence so the words that are impossible in (3) are not verbs. Note that to try this test you don't need a definition of 'verb', because you're simply applying your knowledge of English: you know without being told that only certain words fit in (1). From now on, you can use this test as follows: any single word which can fill the gap in (1) must be a verb.

Consider the exercise below in order to know more the words classes. No. 4 consists of the list of words that possible to complete the empty part of sentence 5. Now pick out which words from the list in (4) fit into the empty slots in (5):

(4) Squeamish, happiness, wolves, expect, below, suddenly, writes, Cornish

(5) ___ became extinct in the eighteenth century.
___ seemed to be unpopular.
I wonder whether ___ will ever return.
___ Extinct! I don't believe it.
That ___ could ever return seems unlikely.
For ___ to be reintroduced to Britain might be a good idea.

From the list of the words in 4, it is of course that only three words fit to fill the slot in sentence 5, they are: *happiness, wolves* and *Cornish* (a language). As you probably expected, these words all belong to the same word class (they're all nouns) while words like *below* and *suddenly* and all the other words in (4) don't belong in this class. Gap tests work in all languages: there will always be positions in a sentence which can only be filled by a specific class of word. From now on, you can use the sentences in (5), adjusted as necessary in order to make sense, to test for the word class noun.

Very often, a word can belong to more than one word class. For example, the verb *escape* can fit into the gap in (1), but there's also a noun *escape* as in "*The escape went badly"*. There is a noun *official*, as in *some officials are corrupt*, but there is also an adjective *official*, as in *our (un)official policy*. This case makes the English learners confused possibility. The question that will appear in this case is "How to determine the word class in these cases?" syntax comprehension will simplify this problem. The first is finding gaps that can only be filled by members of one particular word class.

The second looking at the form the word takes in different contexts. For example, the verb *escape* can take the same *-(e)d* ending for the past tense which is found on other verbs such as *wandered, relaxed* and so on: *I escaped*. Now considering the following example "**The escaped went badly"*. *The escaped* does not take word class as noun. In modern linguistics, word classes are distinguished largely by using evidence from distribution and form.

Concentrating on morphological criteria (MC) and syntactic criteria (SC) is one of formal method to identify word classes.

Morphology is the study of word form (Yule, 2006; 64 and Booij, 2007:112-115). Recurring patterns in the form of words, particularly in the affixes that they take, indicate that a group of words belong to the same class, for instance, that only verbs take all three endings *-ed*, *-s* and *-ing*. This kind of evidence is based on the morphosyntactic of verbs: the morphology that they take in specific syntactic contexts.

Syntactic criteria show that each word class has a unique pattern of distribution. It means that, first; there are certain slots in a sentence that can only be filled by members of one word class. The following is the use of word class based on distribution:
Some tests for adjective status in English:

a. Kim looked really/too/very/quite ___ .
   Kim seems ___ .
   Kim is as ___ as Chris.
   Kim is so/less __ .

b. *Kim looked really/too/very/quite engine.
   *Kim seems engine.
   *Kim's as engine as Chris.
   *Kim is so/less engine.

2.2 Verbs

a. Intransitive Verbs

Verb is one of words class that has essential role in sentence. It is also understood as predicate or predication. The essential of the word class can be seen from its function. The major function of verbs is to express what is known as 'predication'. A predicate expresses an 'event' in the sentence, which may be quite literally an event (such as *collapse* or *explode*) but also includes actions, processes, situations, states and so on. The role of predicate is typically fulfilled by a verb. The following sentences show the role of verb in sentence.

1. Yolanda sneezed.
2. The volcano erupted.

Each of these verbs requires a single participant, the entity involved in the event or action which the verbs express. The participants (it is also known as argument, Newson, 2006:15) in these examples are *Lee* and *the volcano*. In linguistic terminology the participant is the argument of the verb. ('Argument' is a technical term, and doesn't mean that the verb and the participant are quarrelling!) Verbs with only one participant or argument are called intransitive verbs (Tallerman, 2011: 36). Note that it may well be the case that this single argument is an entire phrase, maybe even referring to many people: *Lee and Kim sneezed*; *All the students sneezed*. But nonetheless, the verb *sneeze* has just the one argument.

The following is the list of intransitive verbs that replace the role of *sneeze and interrupted listened*, *died*, *overate*, *cried* and *swore*.

1. Before continuing into discussion of the next verbs class, please find and write down the list of intransitive verbs to add the list written above!

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2. Build 10 sentences by using verbs that require single participant or argument and underline the word that take place as the participant!

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b. Transitive Verbs

The next set of verbs is the verb that requires two arguments. The arguments are the words that have function as noun (Newson, 2006: 15). It is called as transitive verbs.

In these examples the two arguments are in bold.

1. Wanjul read my electronic message.
2. Dumaris receives electric bill monthly.
3. Yolanda avoids the man who shouts at her

So transitive verbs have two participants, such as ‘reader and thing read’, ‘receiver and thing received’, ‘avoider and thing avoided’ in sentence 1, 2, 3.

1. Before continuing into discussion of the next verbs class, please find and write down the list of transitive verbs to add the list written above!

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2. Build 10 sentences by using verbs that require two participants or arguments and underline the word that take place as the participant!

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c. Ditransitive Verbs

The third sub-class of verbs has three arguments. The arguments are in bold the following sentences. They are presented to help the readers understand easily. They are:

1. **Susan** sent **a letter to his beloved mother.**
2. **Jane** bought **a dictionary for her son.**
3. **Cane** handed **the letter to the boss.**

The verbs in 1, 2, and 3 are ditransitive: their pattern is *X verb Y to/for Z*, as in *Kim gave a present to his grandmother (Tallerman, 2011: 40)*. Typically, the participants will be someone performing the action (doing the handing over); an item being acted upon (the item handed over); and a recipient (her son). Many of these verbs can be either ditransitive or just transitive: for instance *buy* and *send*, as in *Jane bought a dictionary*. However, not all can: **Lee handed the letter*. In the sign of "*…" means that the example is ungrammatical.

1. Before continuing into discussion of verbs grammatical; tense and aspect, please find and write down the list of ditransitive verbs to add the list written above!

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2. Build 10 sentences by using verbs that require tree participants or arguments and underline the word that take place as the participant!

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2.2.1 *Tense and aspect*

Tense and aspect is grammatical categories associated with verbs. Talking about tense, it is not strange thing for the students of English as the major subject at school or university. It is of course has been studied in one of English subject. At school whether it is tertiary and secondary school, tense and aspect are known as tenses. They are not studied separately. In university in term of structure and grammar subject, they are also studied as tenses. Tenses in English are studied consist of sixteen. Meanwhile in the subject of syntax, grammatical categories that belong to verbs are known in term of tense and aspect (Tallerman, 2011: 41).

Tense and aspect of verbs grammatical categories are refer to most common of morphosyntactic categories. The appearance of

this term intends to give a wider knowledge of syntax. It has been mention in the first chapter that syntax is a study of sentence structured. Unquestionably that sentence is a string of words. It means that the words form have essential function in constructing grammatical sentence. This process is known as morphosyntactic categories. In this case it associated with verbs. This discussion provides only a brief sketch of these extensive categories. English verbs have only two tenses, namely present and past. They are illustrated in these following sentences:

a. Yoyo helps Olan every day.
b. Yoyo helped Olan every day

The investigation of tense and aspect at sentence in (a) and (b)is perform that present tense of the verb in (a) is marked by the *-s* inflection (ending), although this only occurs on the third person singular form: so in *I help(*s) Lee*, the verb has no actual suffix. This tense is sometimes referred to as 'non-past', a more accurate label, because most 'present' tense verbs do not refer to something that is happening right now. So (a), for example, refers to a habitual event. The past tense in (b) is marked with the *-ed* suffix, and this does not change for person and number. These *-s* and *-ed* endings are the only pieces of regular verbal morphology that represent tense in English, although *-s* actually has a dual role, as can be seen later.

There will be appeared questions for English learners who have understood that English has sixteen tenses. The question may be as "What about the future tense?" English certainly has ways of referring to future time: one is to use the present tense of an

auxiliary element *will* "*She will help Lee tomorrow"*. But the main verb, *help*, doesn't inflect here. There is no 'future' verbal morphology equivalent to the *-s* present tense or *-ed* past tense endings. The present tense of a verb can also refer to future time – as in *She leaves the country tomorrow* – or we can say "*She is leaving the country tomorrow"*, using another auxiliary, *is*. Note that the *-ing* suffix here isn't a tense marking: it can occur with any time reference, as in "*She was leaving", "She will be leaving"*.

The explanations above states that tense occur when the verb has addition. It is called as suffixation. Tense is grammatical expression location and distribution of an action, event in time (Comrie, 1985:9 and Jackson, 2007:55). A category closely related to tense is that of aspect. Aspect marks such properties as whether an action is ongoing or completed. For example, in *Kim was eating his dinner*, the verb "*was"* is past tense but we understand that the eating event wasn't over. This sentence has the progressive aspect, marked in English partly by the *–ing* suffix on the main verb, *eat*, but also by the addition of an auxiliary, a form of *be*. In *Kim has eaten her dinner* we have perfect aspect, referring to a completed action. Again, this is marked partly by changes in the verb form itself (*eaten*) and partly by adding another auxiliary, this time a form of *have*.

1. Before continuing into discussion of verbs grammatical; mood, please find and write down the list of verbs modified by suffixation to add the list written above!

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2. Build 10 sentences by using verbs indicate tense and aspects each of them consists five sentences.

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2.2.2 *Mood*

Mood is a grammatical category which marks properties such as possibility, probability and certainty. Languages tend to distinguish between actual events, as in (a), and hypothetical events, as in (b):

a. Yolanda goes to French tomorrow.
b. Yolanda would go to French tomorrow if she were wealthy enough.

The mood used for actual events, as in (a), is termed indicative. The mood in "*Kim went to Greece yesterday"* is also indicative: mood is an entirely separate property from tense. The hypothetical event in *Kim would go to Greece tomorrow* is expressed in English by a separate auxiliary element, *would*, rather than by a change in the form of the main verb go itself. Such auxiliaries (*would, could, should, might* and so on) are termed modal (i.e. 'mood') auxiliaries.

English has specific verbal morphology which is used for hypothetical events, termed the subjunctive mood. It has the remnants of such a system, although not all speakers use it. Please look at the verbs in bold type and work out what distinguishes these examples from ordinary indicative sentences:

a. … if she **were** wealthy enough.
b. I demand that this man leave/be removed at once!

When a past tense is used indicative form of the verb *be* it will be said become "*She was wealthy enough"*, not (in standard English at least) **she were*. But the past tense subjunctive form *were* is used for all persons and numbers, including first person singular: *If I were you* (speakers who do not use the English subjunctive have instead *If she was wealthy enough, If I was you*). The present tense subjunctive, in (b), uses just the bare uninflected form of the verb: *leave, be*. This contrasts with the third person singular of the indicative verb forms, *He leaves/is removed*: the subjunctive forms lack verbal agreement, such as the *-s* ending.

In some grammar books, Linguists discuss mood refer to the declarative, imperative, and interrogative moods as major mood categories. It related to the usage of modality. Mood is the

grammatical categories of verbs associated with modality (Kroeger, 2005:39).

1. Before continuing into discussion of verbs grammatical; vallency-changing process, please find and write down the list of modality to add the list written above!

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2. Build 10 sentences by using verbs and modality indicate types of mood as mention in the explanation above. Each of them consist five sentences.

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2.2.3 *Valency-changing processes*

A valency-changing process is the process of tense and aspect in a sentence, whereas the sentence has only a subject, and

no object. The verbs in all kinds of these sentences become intransitive verb. This process is known s changing of grammatical relation (Tallerman, 2011: 211). The sentence construction by this process is known as passive construction. These alter the 'argument structure' of the verb, changing its basic syntactic requirements for certain arguments. It means that a transitive verb can become intransitive. If you've studied chemistry, you'll recognize the term 'valency', which linguistics has borrowed from the study of the properties of atoms. These are the valency-changing process:

1. a. Yolanda took some great photos with new digital camera.
   b. Some great photos were taken (by Yolanda) with that new digital camera.
2. a. We stole that book yesterday.
   b. That book was stolen (by us) yesterday.
3. a. Three cups of water have revived the traveler.
   c. The traveler has been revived (by three cups of water).

1. Before continuing into discussion of verbs grammatical; agreement, please find and write down the valency-changing process to add the list written above!

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2. Build 10 sentences by using verbs indicate valency-changing process.

2.2.4 *Agreement*

Agreement is clearly present in verbs and noun form in syntax (Boeckx, 2008:2). In this case it is limited discussion on verb form. It intends to construct grammatical sentences. The agreement occurs between verbs with subject of the sentence. Verbs in many languages 'agree with' one or more of their arguments. This means that various properties of the noun phrase arguments are also marked on the verb, the most common properties being person and number, and then gender or noun class.

The situation most familiar to speakers of European languages is that of subject/verb agreement. English has very little verb agreement – only the third person singular in the present tense is overtly marked. In can be seen in this examples"*I play* versus *He plays"*. This is the dual role of the *-s* suffix mentioned earlier: it represents both third singular person and present tense.

1. Before continuing into the next discussion, please find and write down the list of verbs that involving agreement relate into the subject of the sentence to add the list written above!

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2. Build 10 sentences by using verbs indicate agreement!

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2.3 Nouns

Noun is one of syntax categories that has essential role in building grammatical sentences. It is commonly follows verb. In English noun take place as subject and object of the sentences.

2.3.1 ***Types of Noun***

Nouns are **common** or **proper**. Proper nouns are the names of specific people, places, or occasions, and they usually begin with a capital letter: *Shakespeare*,
Chicago, *January*, *Christmas*, *Ramadan*. Names may consist of more than one word: *The Hague*, *The New York Times*, *Heathrow Airport*, *Captain Andrews*, *Mount Everest*. Proper nouns are sometimes converted into common nouns: *the Thompsons I know*; the proper noun *Thompson* cannot ordinarily be made plural, but here *the Thompsons* means 'the people in the family with the name Thompson'.

Common nouns are nouns that are not names, such as *capital* in: The *capital* of the Netherlands is The Hague.
Common nouns can be sub-classified in two ways:

1. type of referent: concrete or abstract
2. grammatical form: count or non-count

Concrete nouns refer to people, places, or things: *girl*, *kitchen*, *car*. **Abstract** nouns refer to qualities, states, or actions: *humour*, *belief*, *honesty*. Some nouns may be either concrete or abstract, depending on their meaning: **concrete** Thomas can kick a *football* 50 yards. **abstract** Thomas often plays *football* on Saturdays.
Count nouns refer to entities that are viewed as countable. Count nouns therefore have both a singular and a plural form and they can be accompanied by determiners that refer to distinctions in number: *a* 5 *ten* 5 *one* 6 student *many* 6 students *every* 7 *those* 7
Non-count nouns refer to entities that are viewed as an indivisible mass that cannot be counted; for example, *information*, *furniture*, *software*. Non-count nouns are treated as singular and can be

accompanied only by determiners that do not refer to distinctions in number: *much* 5 *your* 6 information *that* 7

There is a general tendency for abstract nouns to be non-count.

Determiners such as *the* and *your* can go with both count and non-count nouns.

Others can go only with singular count nouns (*a*) or only with plural count nouns (*those*).

Some nouns may be either count or non-count, depending on their meaning:

There is not enough *light* in here. (non-count)
We need another couple of *lights*. (count)
Sandra does not have much *difficulty* with science.(non- count)
Benjamin is having great *difficulties* with arithmetic. (count)

Nouns that are ordinarily non-count can be converted into count nouns with two types of special use:

1. When the count noun refers to different kinds:

   The shop has a large selection of *cheeses*.

2. When the count noun refers to units that are obvious in the situation.

   I will have two *coffees*, please. ('two cups of coffee')

1. Find and write down the list of noun based on its types!. Each type consist five words to add the list above.

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2. Build sentences by using of the words list that refer to each noun types!.

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a. Noun Suffixes

Morphosyntacticaly, noun is modified by addition into any verbs or adjectives. It is called as suffixation (Schselewsky, 2009:41). All nouns cannot be identified merely by their form, but certain suffixes can be added to verbs or adjectives to make nouns. Here are a few typical noun suffixes with words that exemplify them:

-*tion* (and variants) *education, relation, invasion, revision*

-*er, -or camper, speaker, actor, supervisor*

-*ism optimism, socialism, terrorism*

-*ity mentality, normality, reality, sanity*

-ment environment, equipment, government

-ness happiness, compactness, darkness

Some suffixes were part of the words when they were borrowed from other languages: *doctor*, *eternity*, *courage*, and etc.

1. Find and write down the list of noun by suffixation to add the list above!.

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2. Build sentences by using of the words list that refer to noun of suffixes!.

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b. Number

Count nouns make a distinction between singular and plural. The regular plural ends in *-s*. This inflection (grammatical suffix), however, is pronounced in one of three ways, depending on the sound immediately before it. Contrast these three sets:

1. *buses, bushes, churches, pages, diseases, garages*
2. *sums, machines, days, toes*
3. *tanks, patients, shocks, notes*

The plural inflection is pronounced as a separate syllable – spelled *-es* – when it follows any of the sounds that appear in the singulars of the words listed in (1); in the case of *diseases* and *garages*, a final *-e* is already present in the singular, so only an *-s* needs to be added in the plural. When *-s* is added to form the plurals *toes* in (2) and *notes* in (3), the *-es* is not pronounced as a separate syllable. There are also some other exceptions to the usual -s spelling. There are a few irregular plurals that reflect older English forms:

man – men mouse – mice
woman – women louse – lice
foot – feet brother – brethren (in special senses)
goose – geese child – children
tooth – teeth ox – oxen

There are a large number of classes of other irregular plurals, many of them having foreign plurals (e.g. *stimulus – stimuli*; *curriculum – curricula*; *crisis – crises*).

1. Find and write down the list of noun in the form of number to add the list above!.

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2. Build sentences by using of the words list that refer to noun in the form of number!.

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c. Gender

Relatively few nouns are distinguished in **gender**, but there are some male nouns and female nouns; for example:

father – mother widower – widow
boy – girl bridegroom – bride
host – hostess bull – cow
hero – heroine lion – lioness

Important distinctions in gender, however, apply to the third-person singular pronouns *he*, *she*, and *it*..

When *he* or *she* refers to a noun, the sex of the specific person or animal is made manifest "*The student* was absent today because *she* attended an interview for a job".

1. Find and write down the list of noun in the form of gender to add the list above!.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

2. Build sentences by using of the words list that refer to noun in the form of gender!.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

2.4 Adjectives

Adjectives indicate physical properties of nouns, including their size, shape, color and so on. They also indicate qualities, such as ‘good’ or ‘bad’.

a. Positions and functions of adjectives

There are two basic functions which adjectives and adjective phrases (APs) fulfill, known as the attributive and the predicative functions. Attributive adjectives directly modify a noun, and normally have a fixed position. In English the adjective precedes the noun (the adjective is in bold):

1. The **red** car
2. The **beautiful** woman

Predicative function of Adjective means that the adjective takes function as predicate in a sentence. It can be seen in these examples by fitting into slots such as those in sentences below:

1. He felt__. She is/seemed__.
   (very sad, quite hungry, amused, amusing)
2. I find it__to think she’s an acrobat.
   (fairly hard, impossible, most distressing)

As with predicate nominals, in some languages there is no copula linking the subject. It can be found in Indonesia language:(here, *Ali*) to the predicate adjective (here, *marah*):

Ali marah. (Malay and Indonesia)

Ali angry

‘Ali is angry.’

Before reading further, please look at the examples in (3). Most adjectives can occur in either the attributive or the predicative

positions, but not all can. Using the appropriate terminology, describe the distribution of *awake* and of *utter*:

3. The man was awake / *the awake man

*The failure seems utter / an utter failure

Awake can only be used as a predicative adjective, not an attributive one. We can confidently classify it as an adjective, because like other adjectives it can be modified by words like *quite/more/most*, as in *quite/more/most awake. Utter* can only be an attributive adjective, and not a predicative one. Again, it takes at least some of the typical adjectival modifiers, as in *I felt the most utter fool*. These examples show that like all the major word classes, adjectives fall into different sub-classes.

b. Adjectives and intensifiers

Just as nouns are paired with a class of functional elements – determiners – within the noun phrase, so adjectives also pair with a special set of functional words. This explanation illustrates (in bold) some of these intensifiers (also known as degree modifiers) in German adjective phrases and their English equivalents:

(1) sehr schwer; zu voll; ganz sicher (German) very heavy; too full; quite certain

Other English examples of intensifiers include *rather, somewhat* and *enough*, although *enough*, unlike the other intensifiers, is placed after the adjective it modifies: *full enough*. Intensifiers specify the extent or degree to which something is said, *full or heavy*. Intensifiers may precede the adjective they modify.

Although the ability to occur with the intensifier *very* is probably the best test for adjective status in English, *very* can only modify adjectives which are gradable, such as *heavy, cantankerous, supportive* – someone can be supportive, for instance, to a greater or lesser extent. So *very* is unlikely to occur with non-gradable adjectives such as *definitive, residual, syntactic*.

c. Adjectives and their grammatical categories

It is common, though certainly not universal, for languages to have the morphosyntactic category known as comparison. In English, we represent the comparison of adjectives in two different ways. The first is morphological, via changes in the form of the adjective itself; for instance, in *straight, straighter, straightest*, the base form of the adjective *straight* takes a comparative suffix *–er* or a superlative suffix *-est*. The second method is via the addition of a functional element, *more/most: more honest, most honest*; for an indication of when each strategy is used. English simply uses the base form of the adjective.

The other morphosyntactic category for adjectives which is widespread is agreement. Adjectives are often marked to agree with the nouns they modify. Inherent features of the noun such as gender or number are often cross-referenced on a modifying adjective. ‘the white wine’ ‘the white door’

The noun ‘wine’, is masculine, so the attributive adjective, ‘*white’* appears in its masculine form too. The noun ‘door’, is feminine, so it is found the feminine form of the adjective, *white* in feminine too.

1. Find and write down the list of adjectives to add the list above!

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

2. Are adjectives essential? How essential are the adjectives? Explain by your own words and give the example in the sentences!

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

3. Explain the position of adjectives by construction them in sentences! (as many as possible refers to the position of adjective in a sentence)

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

4. What are the functions of adjectives?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

5. What is meant by adjectives as intensifiers? Give the examples!

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

6. What are the grammatical categories of adjectives? Give the examples!

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

2.5 Adverbs

In English, central members of the traditional word class of adverbs are words like *suddenly, slowly* and *gradually*. These central adverbs are formed from the related adjectives by an affix *-ly*, which turns adjectives like *sudden* into *suddenly*, and so on.

Numerous adjectives in English don't take the *-ly* affix at all: *big, small, ill, young* and many more. Some irregular

English adverbs have the same form as the adjective: *She works fast/hard* but not **She works fastly/hardly*. Just to confuse matters, there's an entirely different adverb which does have the form *hardly*, as in *She hardly works*, but which has just the opposite meaning! Conversely, some *-ly* words are definitely adjectives, not adverbs: examples are *ungodly, kindly, ungainly, lonely*. We can tell that these are adjectives because they modify nouns but not verbs: *this ungodly hour*, but not **He speaks ungodly*. One of the

chief functions of adverbs is to modify verbs, as in *Kim stopped suddenly*.

Traditionally, English adjectives are distinguished from adverbs because they don't generally occur in the same syntactic environment. Adjectives modify nouns, such as *song*, as in (strange song); and adverbs modify adjectives, such as *sad*, (strangely sad song), other adverbs, such as *lucidly*, (1), and verbs, such as *spoke*, (2).

1. She spoke [AdvP strangely lucidly].
2. She [VP spoke strangely].

This set pattern of distribution is the only one possible in standard of English: compare **a strangely song*, **She spoke strange lucidly*. In fact, in standard of English adjectives and adverbs cannot occur in identical positions, but instead occur in what is called complementary distribution: where one occurs, the other doesn't, but together they cover all the available positions. So, adjectives modify nouns, but adverbs modify the other lexical word classes; together, they modify all the available word classes, and their environments don't overlap. It can be predicted which will occur in any given syntactic environment. Because adjectives and adverbs complement each other in this way, some linguists consider them to be sub-classes of the same word class. We can regard this to be the adjective class, since this is more basic in form.

a. Regular and Irregular Adverbs

To qualify as sub-classes of a single word class, there must also be grammatical properties common to both groups. Adverbs and adjectives fulfill this requirement too. First, they share modifiers: they take the same intensifiers, as in *very/quite/ most unusual(ly)*. Second, they can both occur in the *as* _____ *as* comparative construction: *as miserable as Kim, as miserably as Kim.*

Third, the comparative suffixes *-er, -est* occur on a few adverbs, such as *soon* (*sooner, soonest*) as well as on adjectives such as *red* (*redder, reddest*). There are some distinctions: (3) shows that, for example, the adjective *uncertain* can take a following *whether* … sentence, whereas the related adverb can't. (3) He seems uncertain whether she's left or not. *He spoke uncertainly whether she'd left or not. But on balance, the evidence for treating the central class of *-ly* adverbs in English as a sub-class of adjectives seems convincing.

Finally, let's consider words like *still* (as in *I'm still waiting*), *yet, always, already* and *sometimes*. These aren't related to any adjective, and can't take any of the typical adjective/adverb modifiers: **very already, *more sometimes*. However, since they modify verbs (*Kim always ate fruit, She still reads that newspaper*) they are indeed considered to be a sub-class of adverbs.

1. What are regular adverbs? Then Write down the examples of regular adverbs to complete the explanation.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

2. Construct sentences by using regular adverbs! (ten (10) sentences)

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

3. What are irregular adverbs? Then Write down the examples of regular adverbs to complete the explanation.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

4. Construct sentences by using irregular adverbs! (ten (10) sentences)

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

b. Adverbs as the adjunct function

As a word class, 'adverb' has traditionally been rather problematic, since it's been used as a ragbag for any words that don't neatly fit into the categories of nouns, verbs or adjectives. For instance, in traditional grammar, words like *today, tomorrow, yesterday* and *tonight*, as well as phrases such as *this week, next week*, would be termed 'adverbs'. Here, we'll see that they are actually nouns or noun phrases (NP).

They can occur in all the typical NP positions, with typical NP functions: as subjects,

(a); direct objects, (b); and as the objects of prepositions, (c):

a. Tomorrow/today/tonight/this week seems fine.

b. I planned tomorrow/yesterday very carefully.

c. I'll finish it by tonight/tomorrow/next week.

And they can also take the -*'s* possessive ending, like other NPs: *today's bike ride, tomorrow's lectures, next week's wedding*. But unlike adverbs, they can't be modified

by the intensifiers *very, quite* and so on: **very tonight*, **quite tomorrow*. So we can conclude that *today, tomorrow* etc. are not adverbs at all, and in this respect, the traditional view is incorrect.

Why, then, have these NPs traditionally been termed 'adverbs'? The reason is that– like adverbs – they often occur not as subjects, objects and so on, but rather as optional modifying phrases. Preposition phrases (PP) can also occur in this same context. For instance:

d. We're leaving next week/today/tomorrow (NP).
e. We're leaving in a week (PP).
f. We're leaving rather hurriedly (AdvP).

What these elements (in bold) modifying *leaving* all have in common is not their word class, but rather, their syntactic function. All of them fulfil what is known as the adjunct function in (d, e, and f) – they are optional modifying phrases. Confusingly, this function is also referred to as the adverbial function; no doubt because it is adverbs that often fulfill this function

1. Find and write down the list of adverbs to add the list above!

2. What is adverb?

3. What are the functions of adverbs?

4. Explain the position of adverbs in a sentence and give the examples based on the position!

5. What are the different between adjectives and adverbs?

2.6 Prepositions

In English, but not in all languages, we find phrases like *under the floor*, *towards that conclusion*, *outside my house*, where a preposition (the word shown in bold) has combined with a noun phrase to form a preposition phrase (PP). Perhaps the most typical

role of prepositions is to mark locative and temporal information in a language – that is, information concerning location and time. In English, prepositions such as *under, over, into, on (top of), beside, towards, in (front of*) mark location, while prepositions such as *before, during, after, while, until* and *since* mark temporal information: *before the meeting, during the war, until four o'clock*. Many prepositions express either kind of meaning: *after the game, after the traffic lights; over the bridge, over the summer*. Prepositions also express the manner in which an event is carried out: *with a knife, by means of poison, in a loud voice*, and so on.
In terms of function, many PPs are optional modifiers of verbs, as in *We left* [*before the meeting*], *She sang* [*in a loud voice*] – the PPs are in brackets. In this grammatical function, a PP is an adjunct, as it can be seen in Section 2.5b: an optional, modifying phrase.

Now let's start to identify the preposition class in English. Just like nouns, adjectives and adverbs in English, prepositions pair up with their own special set of modifiers: these are *straight, right, well* and *just*, and we can also add the more restricted modifier *bang*.

All of these (underlined) immediately precede the prepositions (in bold) in the following examples:

a. The weight is well/just inside the limit.
b. We were bang on target/on time.
c. She pushed the box well/right/straight/just under the bed.
d. Go straight/right to the top of the stairs!

e. The library is just/right by/beside the town hall.

Although the ability to take these modifiers is a good test for preposition status in English, it does need to be used with caution, because some of the modifiers can occur with word classes other than prepositions (e.g. *just fine*, where *fine* is an adjective). Also, not all prepositions work with all of these modifiers, most often because their meanings are not compatible. A final note of caution is that the purely grammatical preposition *of*, as in *the top of the stairs*, cannot take a modifier either.

The modifiers do, however, enable us to identify various other words as prepositions when we might otherwise not have been sure of their word class. First, let's consider words like *afterwards* and *nearby*. As we will see, these can be classified as intransitive prepositions. So far, the prepositions we've seen were used transitively: they take an object NP. Examples are *inside the limit, on time, under the bed*, where the prepositional objects are underlined. Though most prepositions are transitive, a number can be used either transitively or intransitively, i.e. without an object; examples are *inside, over, before*, as in "*That student was here before (the others)"*, and *underneath*, as in *Put your case underneath (the bed)*. The prepositions *afterwards* and *nearby* differ only in that they are always intransitive:

f. I'll see you right/straight/just afterwards.
g. She lives right/just nearby.

The co-occurrence with the modifiers *right, straight* and *just* identify *afterwards* and *nearby* as true prepositions.

Second, consider words like *upstairs, overhead* and *online*. Traditionally, these would be termed 'adverbs', but using the modifiers *just* and *right* as a test for preposition status, they are shown to be prepositions:

h. She lives right/just upstairs/downstairs
i. The plane flew just/right overhead.

Third, we can re-evaluate what are traditionally termed 'verbal particles'. The term refers to the small words that go together with verbs in 'phrasal verb' expressions like *run down, put back, take over* etc. Not only do they look identical to prepositions, these 'particles' are also classified as prepositions by the *right* test. The prepositions are again in bold:

j. Lee ran his apartment right down.
k. Put those chocolates right back!

Prepositions are used widely in English, and although not all members of the word class behave in a standard way, they do share properties in common.

1. Find and write down the list of propositions to add the list above!

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

2. What is preposition?

3. What are the functions of preposition?

4. Explain the position of preposition in a sentence or phrase and give the examples based on the position!

5. What are the different between adverb and preposition?

3

Phrase-structure Rules

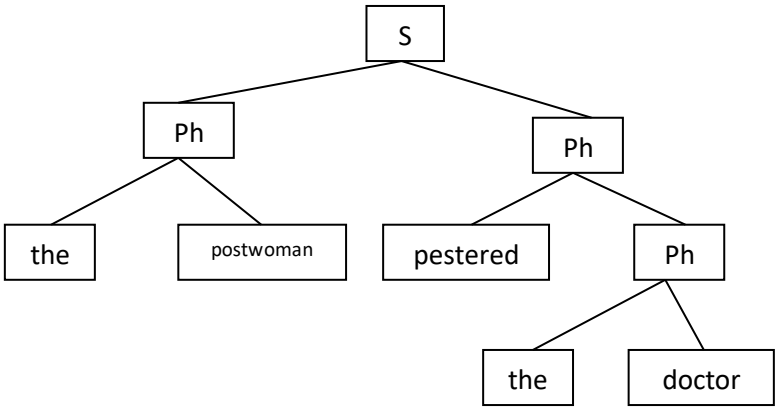
3.1 Phrase

In previous chapter (chapter 2) the topic which has been discussed is words class. It is the basic element of sentence or utterance whether it is spoken or written. Syntactically word is the small element of sentence studied into a class. Then word stand together with another word to form meaning. It is called as phrase. In a single element word has class however in group word also has class. In this study it is known as phrase class or phrase types. Commonly it is called as types of phrase. Whatever the usage of the terms, it has the same meaning. It means discussing of the type or class of phrase.

Phrase is understood as the group of words that go together to make up a unit in a sentence. They have contribution in a sentence. They have function equivalent into: determiners, nouns, verbs, adverbs, preposition and other words classes (Newson, 2006: 59-61). In another words a phrase is a group of words which does not express a complete event or situation and does not have its own subject and predicate but have meaning (Verspoor, 2000: 44).

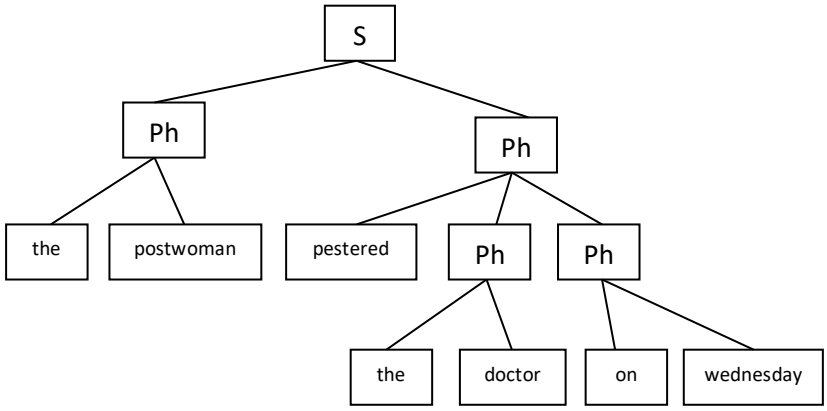
The following is the form of phrase in a sentence. It is hopefully help the reader to understand what phrase mean is.

a. The postwoman pestered the doctor



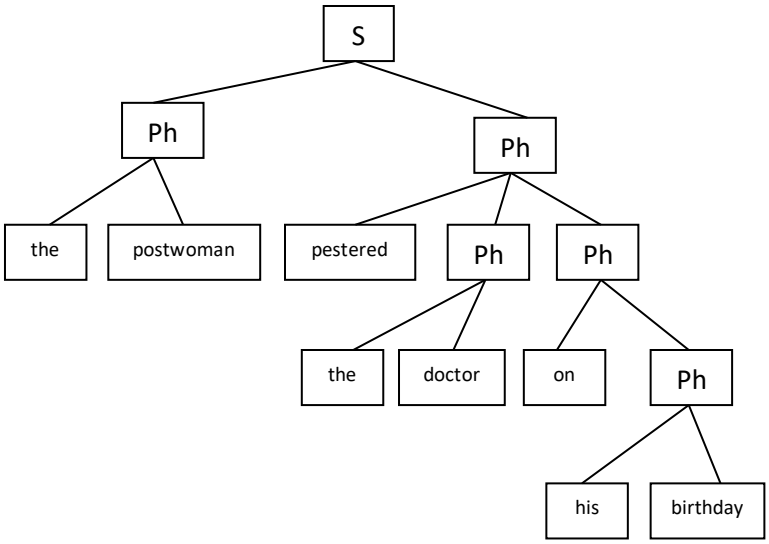
The analyzing of the sentence in the form of phrase above is modified from Newson (2006: 61). It explain that a sentence obviously contain of phrases (see tree diagram above). Unquestionably, of course a sentence may contain more than two phrases and even as many as phrases. The phrases could be as demonstrative phrase (DP), noun phrase (NP), verb phrase (VP), adjective phrase (Adj.P), adverb phrase (Adv.P), preposition phrase (PP) and so on.

b. The postwoman pestered the doctor on Wednesday



As it has been mentioned previously, the position of the phrase in a sentence may takes place as the types of phrases. In the sentence (b) the phrase consists of DP, VP.

c. The postwoman pestered the doctor on Wednesday



1. Identify the types of phrase in sentence (c)!

2. Construct six (6) sentences then identify the types of phrases involved!

_____

_____

_____

_____

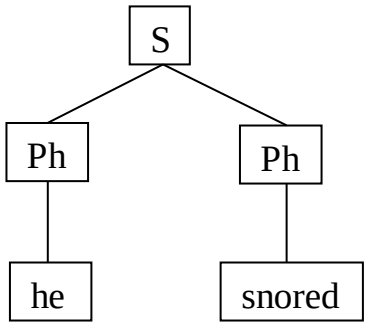
_____

_____

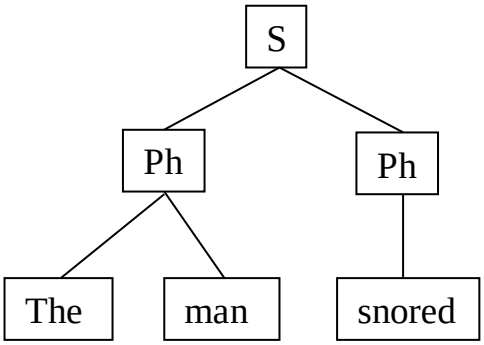
3.2 Phrase Structural Position

The notion of structure helps the readers to define grammatical positions more easily. As it can be seen previously grammatical positions cannot be defined in terms of linear order. The verb, for example, might be the second, the third or indeed the n^{th} element in a sentence, and yet there is still a definite position for the verb which no other element can occupy. Once it has been introduced the notion of structure, however, it can be seen that the verb occupies the same structural position no matter what else is present in the clause. Consider the following structures:

a. He snored

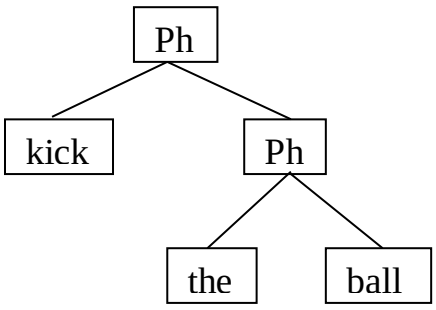


b. The man snored

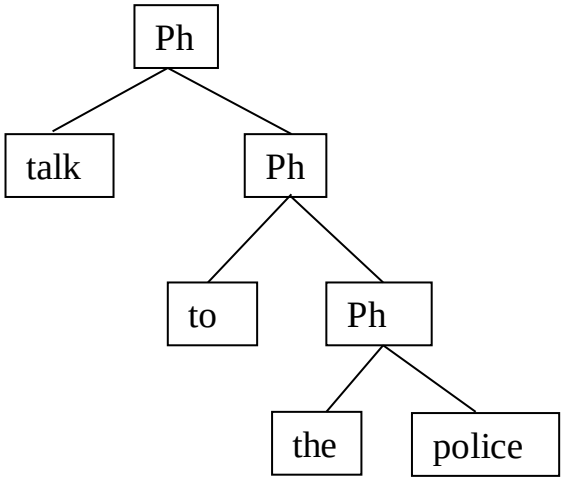


Notice that in all these structures the verb occupies the same position inside the second phase of the sentence. It would not matter how many words or other phrases the first phrase contained, the verb would still be in the same position with respect to its own phrase, and hence grammatical position defined in terms of structure is much more satisfactory than in terms of linear order. Moreover, if it considers the structure of the phrase that the verb appears in, it can be identified its position within this phrase more easily than by counting its position in a linear string:

c. Kick the ball



d. Talk to the police



3.3 Types of Phrase

It will be started with the Determiner Phrase as it is one which appears in many of the other phrases we shall investigate. Also there are a number of recurrent themes which will crop up from time to time throughout this book and the DP is a good place to introduce these.

a. Noun Phrase (NP)

The main word in a noun phrase is a noun or a pronoun. There are a number of subclasses of nouns and pronouns. The structure of the typical noun phrase may be represented schematically in the following way, where the parentheses indicate elements of the structure that may be absent:

(determiners) (pre-modifiers) noun (post-modifiers)

Determiners (words like *the*, *a*, *those*, *some*) introduce noun phrases. Modifiers are units that are dependent on the main word and can be omitted. Modifiers that come before the noun are pre-modifiers, and those that come after the noun are post-modifiers. Here are examples of possible structures of noun phrases: noun *books*

Determiner + noun	*those books*
Pre-modifier + noun	*new books*
Determiner + pre-modifier + noun	*some long books*
Noun + post-modifier	*books on astronomy*
Determiner + noun + post-modifier	*some books on astronomy*
Pre-modifier + noun + post-modifier	*popular books on astronomy*
Determiner + pre-modifier + noun +post-modifier	*some popular books on astronomy*

1. Write down the example of NP to add the list above!

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

2. Construct sentences based on the NP you have written in no 1.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

b. Verb Phrase

A ***verb phrase (VP)*** is the main verb and one or more helping verbs. Helping verbs are the words that accompany verb in constructing the grammatical sentence and giving the meaning. Common helping verbs include these words in the box.

am	are	be	been	being
can	could			
do	does	did	doing	
has	have	had	having	
is	was	were		
may	might	must		
shall	should			
will	would			

The verb phrases are underlined in these sentences. These examples will help the reader or students to understand the usage of VP:

1. Many doctors have been concerned about the new flu.
2. Some of the new stamps were purchased by the collector.
3. The collector had purchased the new stamps.
4. We had never witnessed such a hysterical scene. (*Never* is an adverb modifying the main verb, *witnessed,* and is not part of the verb phrase.)
5. Will you remember my address and phone number? (*You* is the pronoun subject of the sentence and is not part of the verb phrase.)

6. Is Yolanda practicing her piano now? (*Yolanda* is the sentence's subject and is not part of the verb phrase.)
7. The runner had not been passed by any of the other contestants. (*Not* is an adverb and is not part of the verb phrase.)1

1. Write down the example of VP to add the list above!

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

2. Construct sentences based on the VP you have written in no 1

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

c. Prepositional Phrase (PP)

A ***prepositional phrase*** begins with a preposition and usually ends with a noun or a pronoun. Practically it can be understood PP by analyzing the PP in the sentences below.

The PP is underlined in each sentence.

1. The elderly man went <u>to the doctor's office</u> today.
2. <u>In the morning</u>, the elementary school students perform their exercises.
3. These magicians performed many tricks <u>for the children</u>.
4. Tomas walked <u>into the dark house</u>.

The word that ends the PP is the *object of the preposition*. In each of these sentences, the prepositional phrases are underlined, and the objects of the preposition are italicized.

5. All <u>of the *trees*</u> had been pruned <u>by the *workers*.</u>
6. Someone <u>in this *office*</u> has borrowed the stapler <u>from *Yolanda*</u>.
7. Will you show your necklace <u>to your *grandparents*</u>?

1. Write down the example of PP to add the list above!

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

2. Construct sentences based on the VP you have written in no

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

3. Underline the prepositional phrases and circle the object of the preposition in each of these ten sentences. There may be more than one prepositional phrase in the sentence.

1 She was lonesome without him.

2 They were jogging throughout the neighborhood.

3 Beyond the river is a beautiful park.

4 All of the sailors climbed aboard the ship.

5 In the meantime, please watch my backpack.

6 Therese had never seen such a sight in her backyard.

7 There was very little talk during the movie.

8 These men with their equipment are experts.

9 Some of the boats were moving along the river.

10 All of the women except Denise will be at the meeting.

d. Adjective Phrase (Adj.P)

An ***adjective phrase*** is a prepositional phrase that modifies a noun or a pronoun. This phrase answers the question *Which one?* The adjective phrase follows right after the noun or pronoun that it modifies or describes.

Generally, if you *cannot* logically move the prepositional phrase within the sentence, it is most often an adjective phrase. Remember that an adjective phrase contains no verb.

The adjective phrases are underlined in these sentences.

1. Some programs at our local library were requested last year. (Which programs? *the ones in our local library*)
2. These women in this photograph are my aunts. (Which women? *the ones in the photograph*)
3. The programs on her favorite television station are often repeated. (Which programs? *the ones on her favorite television station*)

1. Write down the example of Adj.P to add the list above!

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

2. Construct sentences based on the Adj.P you have written in no

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

e. Adverb Phrase (Adv.P)

A prepositional phrase that answers any of these questions *When? Where? How? Why? Under what conditions?* or *To what degree?*—is an ***adverb phrase.*** If you *can* logically move the prepositional phrase within the sentence, it is probably an adverb phrase. Remember that an adverb phrase contains no verb.

The adverb phrases in these sentences are underlined.

1. We walked after dinner. (When?)
2. The little boys and girls ran into the hallway. (Where?)
3. Yolanda, one of the chaperones, certainly handled herself with class yesterday. (How?)
4. John built the wooden shed with much assistance. (Under what conditions?)
5. The underdog candidate won the state election by a landslide. (To what degree?)

1. Write down the example of Adv.P to add the list above!

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

2. Construct sentences based on the Adv.P you have written in no 1.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

3. In each of these sentences, insert an adverb phrase that answers the question in the parentheses found after the sentence. Do not include any verbs within these adverb phrases!
   a. The hilarious cartoon aired_____ . (*When?*)
   b. Wendy followed the older child_____ . *Where?*)
   c. None of these young children could lift the heavy packages . (*How?*) _____
   d. The championship boxing match was canceled _____ (*Why?*)
   e. _____ we like to jog with our friends. (*When?*)

4

Phrase: Immediate Constituents Analysis (ICs A.)

This case studies of the sequences of words which form the structure of sentences. This is the study of syntax. Although there are many ways to approach this study, we will take a primarily "generative" approach. This approach to syntax came into being over fifty years ago, and has been the dominant approach ever since. This chapter makes use of some of the core notions of generative grammar which are most useful for empirical and pedagogical purposes without concerning itself with the now strongly theoretical and quite abstract aspects of this approach.

A fundamental tenet of generative grammar is that not only do words occur in a linear order (or "string") but they also enter into hierarchical relationships with one another within coherent units known as "constituents". Constituents are the proper subparts of sentences, as they will see below. Generative grammar inherited the notion of constituents from the approach to grammar which preceded it called "American Structural Linguistics". The form of sentence analysis used by the American structuralisms was known as "immediate constituent analysis". (An even older form of sentence analysis which recognizes the existence of hierarchical structures in sentences is the "sentence diagramming" of traditional grammar.

In that time, generative grammar (originally known as "Transformational-Generative (T-G) has undergone many changes, including versions known as "Standard Theory", "Extended Standard Theory", "Government and Binding Theory", "Principles and Parameters", and "Minimalism" As is also to be expected, alternative approaches have also arisen, including "Lexical Functional Grammar (LFG)", "Systemic Grammar", "Optimality Theory", and so on. All the syntax terms do not discuss in this chapter detailed. It will focus on the constituent of phrase or subpart of the sentence.

4.1 Constituents

As observed above, constituents are the proper subparts of sentences. The study of syntax is the analysis of the constituent parts of a sentence: their form (the types of elements, the internal arrangement of — elements, and the relation among elements within the constituent),

— their (external) positioning in respect to other constituents, and

— their function.

Constituents may themselves be complex, containing other constituents. The structure of a sentence is hence hierarchical.

Note that the same sequences of words may not always function as a constituent. It is the context which determines whether a particular sequence forms a constituent or not. In the following three sentences:

Suzie took in the winter scene.

They won't survive in the winter.

He is happy in the winter.

"in the winter" is a constituent in the second and third sentences, but not in the first. In the first sentence "in" forms a constituent with "took". The sequence of words "beautiful flowers" is a constituent in *I received beautiful flowers for my birthday* but not in *Though they are beautiful, flowers cause me to sneeze*. The sequence "the house on the hill" is a constituent in one reading of the ambiguous sentence *I bought the house on the hill*, namely, in the sense 'I bought the house which is on the hill', but not in the sense 'I bought the house while standing on the hill'.

How can it be determined what a constituent is in a particular sentence? Constituents can be identified by a number of different "constituency tests". Constituency tests are based on the principle that only entire constituents may be manipulated by syntactic operations.

They can be replaced (by pronominal forms), they can be moved, they can be conjoined, or they can stand alone. For example, the constituent "beautiful flowers" in the first sentence above can be replaced by:

pro-forms	*I received them for my birthday.* *What did you receive for your birthday?*
Moved	*It was beautiful flowers that I received for my birthday.* *What I received for my birthday was beautiful flowers.* *Did you receive beautiful flowers for your birthday?*
Conjoined	*I received beautiful flowers and chocolates for my birthday.*

Interrogated *(What did you receive for your birthday?)*
Beautiful flowers

1. To show your understanding of constituent please write down five (5) sentences!

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2. Analyze constituent of the phrase in those sentences (No.1)!

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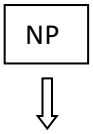
4.2 Noun phrase

The next explanation refers to the immediate constituents analysis of phrase classes. They are Noun Phrase (NP), Verb Phrase (VP), Adjective Phrase (Adj.P), Adverb Phrase (Adv.P), Prepositional Phrase (PP). It will be start with NP. However it is essential to express phrase definition in order to avoid misunderstanding of it. It is possible to understand the notion of phrase by group of words without having subject and predicate but having meaning for English learners. It is commonly taken from English grammar subject. In this point phrase is not limited in area of words group meanwhile it is also presented by single words. It can be seen in the following quotation.

> NOTE ON TERMINOLOGY: In traditional grammar, "phrases" are groups of words (without subject and predicate) forming a coherent group. In generative grammar, phrases are defined as sequences of words – or a single word – having syntactic significance: that is, they form a constituent. Since tree diagrams indicate the phrases functioning as constituents, they are also called phrase markers (Brinton, 2010:193).

The noun phrase (NP) can be expanded in many different ways (see the list below) it is the expansions of NP



N	*dogs*
Det N	*the dogs*
Det A N	*the large dogs*
Det AP N	*the loudly barking dogs*
Det N PP	*the dog in the yard*
Det A N PP	*the ferocious dog behind the fence*
Det AP N PP	*the wildly yapping dog on the sofa*
Pro	*He*
PN	*Goldy*

The noun (N) is the only obligatory element in the first seven expansions of NP below and serves as head; the other elements are all optional. The adjective (A) or adjective phrase (AP) precedes the N and the prepositional phrase (PP) follows the N; both serve as modifiers of the noun (modifier of N), expressing a quality of the noun, answering the question "which dogs?". "Det" here stands for determiners, a set of grammatical words that are somewhat like modifiers, but actually serve the function of specifier of N (a one-way dependency), making more precise or definite the phrase that follows. Det includes quite a diverse set of grammatical words: demonstratives (Dem), articles (Art), *wh*-words (*Wh*-), possessives (Poss), and quantifiers (Q). We can write a rule for Det as follows:

Det → {Dem, Art, *Wh*-, Poss, Q}

Dem → {*this, that, these, those*}

Art → {*a, an, the*}

Wh- → {*which, what, whose*}

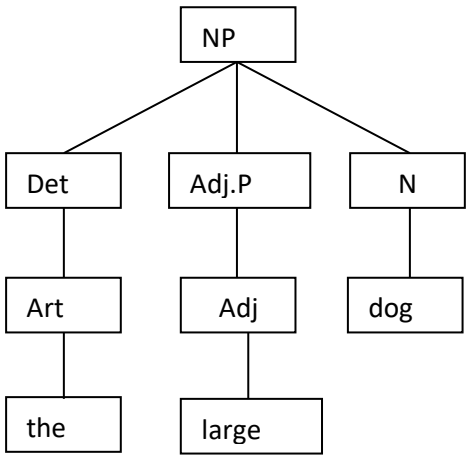
Poss → {*my, our, their, John's, the man's …*}

Q → {*some, any, every, each, neither, more …*}

The ellipses (…) indicate that these are not complete listings of the members of the sets Poss and Q. Note that Poss includes both possessive adjectives such as *my* and possessive nouns such as *John's* or *Sally's.* (It may even include an entire noun phrase, as in *that angry man's (dog)*, where the -*'s* inflection is being attached to the end of the noun phrase *that angry man*.) it can account for this phenomenon by the following rule:

Poss → { NP -*'s* }

The rule for NP, therefore, must indicate the optionality of Det, AP, and PP and the mutual exclusiveness of Pro and PN with the other elements. A preliminary structure for the NP *the large dogs* might be the following:*my, our, their …*



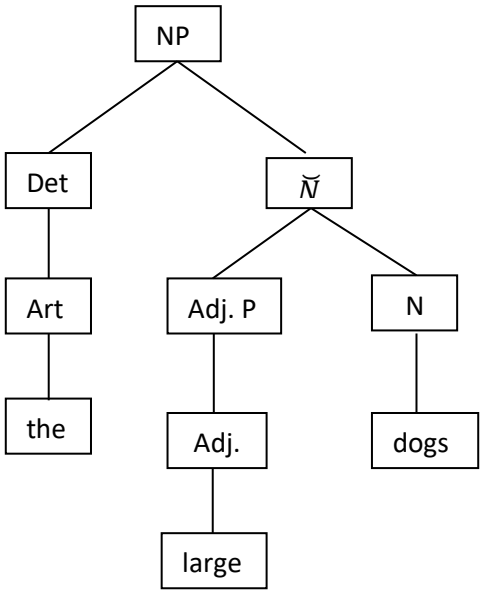
Here, Det is shown as sister of both AP and N. In fact, the determiner really relates to the rest of the noun phrase as a whole, not the AP and N separately. For this reason, it will introduce the intermediate category of N-bar $\left(\tilde{N}\right)$

$\left(\tilde{N}\right)\rightarrow$ (AP) N (PP) N

N-bar consists of N and it modifiers. The rule for NP is then the following:

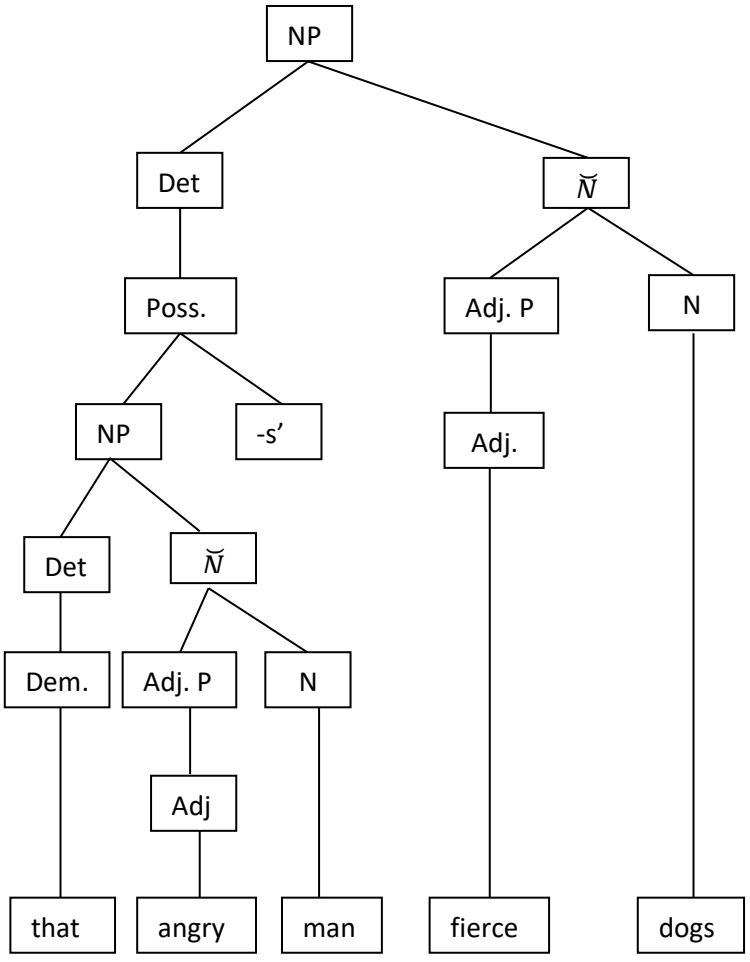
NP $\rightarrow$ $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{(Det) } \left(\tilde{N}\right) \\ \text{PN} \\ \text{Pro}\end{array}\right\}$

And the revised structure for *the large dogs* would be the following:



The analyzing of phrase by using tree diagram above is still stand on the simple phrase. Phrase as the subpart of sentence possibly consist of complex that function to construct complex sentence. By the rule for NP, a more complex phrase, *that angry man's fierce dog*, would have the following phrase marker:

Phrase: *that angry man's fierce dog*,



In this analysis, it is ignoring the presence in the NP of what are called predeterminers (*all*, *both*, *half*) and postdeterminers, such as some quantifiers (*many, few*), as in the following:

[all] the [many] very happy people

Numerals, too, present a similar problem. In one respect, they would appear to be determiners (e.g. *two trees, two large trees*), but they also seem to fill the position predeterminers (e.g. *the two large trees*). It will not be accounting for numerals here.

1. Write down five phrases refer to NP

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2. Analyze the constituents of NP in those sentences (No.1)!

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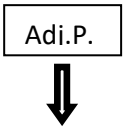
4.3 Adjective phrase

The adjective phrase (AP) can be expanded in several different ways (see Table below).



A	*Happy*
Deg A	*Very happy*
Adv A	*Blissfully happy*
Deg Adv A	*Very blissfully happy*
A PP	*Dear to me, tired of him, glad about that*

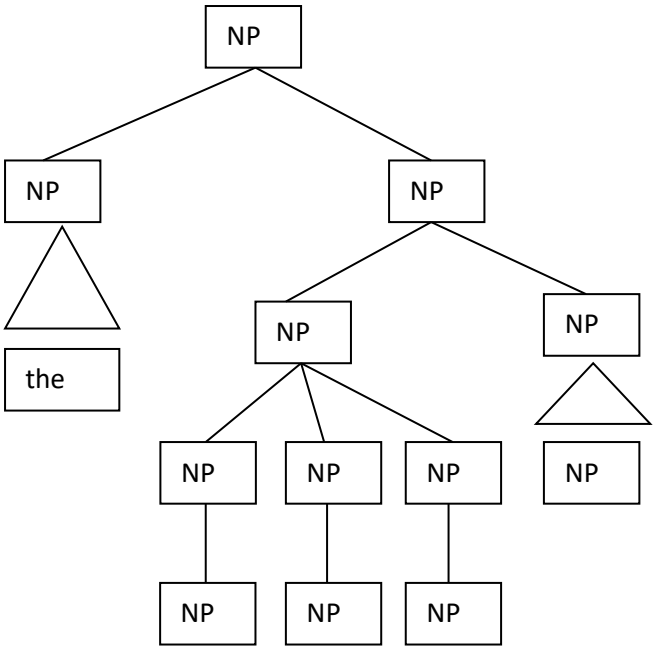
The category of degree adverbs (Deg) includes words which are traditionally defined as adverbs, since they modify both adjectives and adverbs:

Deg → {*more*, *most*, *less*, *least*, *very*, *quite*, *rather*, *least*, *exceedingly*, *awfully*, *absolutely*, *pretty* … }

However, they occupy a special syntactic position; unlike other adverbs – "general adverbs" – degree words cannot be modified by other adverbs. Degree words express a quality, intensity, or degree of the following adjective or adverb; in other words, they function, like determiners, as specifiers of the head.

It could be understoot that in all cases above, Adj. is the obligatory element and head of the phrase; all of the other elements are optional. The elements preceding the Adj. are modifiers or specifiers, but the PP following bears a different relationship to the Adj. it serves as complement (complement of A).

Although it will indicate it as optional in our rules, it is not optional if a complement-taking adverbial structure such as *aware of, afraid of, curious about, obvious to,* or *angry at* is selected. Note that the PP does not express a quality or degree of the A but rather "completes" it; the A serves as governor of the PP. let's see the tree diagram below to analyze the Adj. P.



1. Write down five phrases refer to Adj.P !

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2. Analyze the constituents of Adj.P in those sentences (No.1)!

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5

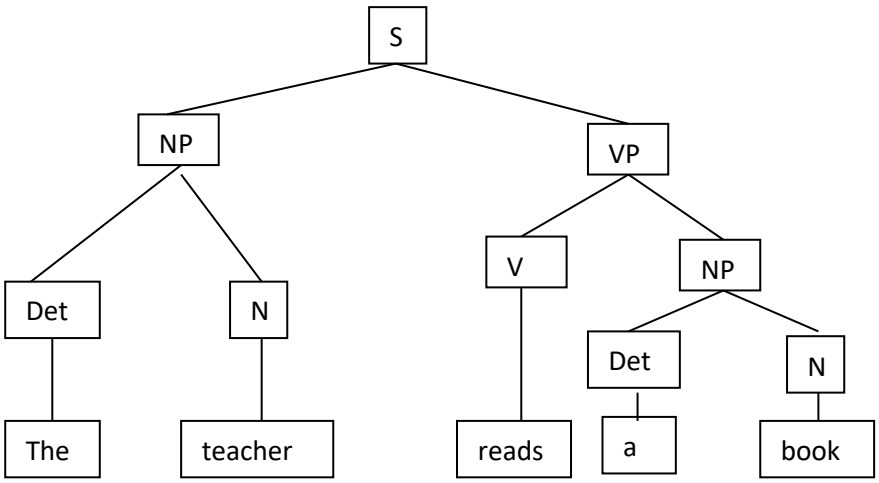
Sentence: Immediate Constituents Analysis (ICs.A)

The previous chapter were devoted Immediate Constituent Analysis (ICs. A) in point of phrase. Then in this chapter the development of ICs.A is on sentence. The constituent structure of a sentence is concern with the units into which the words in a sentence are grouped, which are the constituent, and their hierarchial organization. Constituent structure of sentence will be discussed in this chapter. It is sometime referred to phrase structure which discuss before in previous chapter. Constituent structure or constituent analysis on the sentence can be understood by parsing of each category. The provisional constituent structure was given for this sentence below:

The teacher reads a book

[S [NP The [N teacher]] [VP [V reads] [NP a [N book]]

To make the sentence easily parsing based on constituent structure will be introduced, namely tree diagram. It necessary to break sentences down into their various constituent and establish the form classes found them and also develop rules which will specify the constituent structure of sentence.



5.1 Sentence Types

Sentence can be classified on the basis of their syntactic properties. It is distinguished into declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamative sentences.

5.1.1 Declarative sentences

Declarative sentences are the most straightforward sentence type. They are syntactic configurations which usually display an unmarked (i.e. expected) order of the functional categories Subject, Predicator, Direct Object, etc. This means that the Subject comes first in the sentence, followed by the Predicator, which in turn is followed by an Indirect Object (if there is one) and a Direct Object (again, if present). Non-declarative sentences, by contrast, display marked (i.e. in some way out-of-the-ordinary) configurations.

Here are two examples of declarative sentences:

a) My aunt likes books.
b) You haven't closed the door.

You would normally understand these sentences to be making a statement. However, it is important to realize that declarative sentences are not always used to make statements. Notice that the context in which (a) and (b) might be uttered affects their interpretation. For example, if I uttered (a) with a rising intonation pattern it would become a question: My aunt likes books? Similarly, (b), while ostensibly a statement about the addressee not has closed the door, could, in a suitable context, be taken to be a directive (i.e. an order) to close the door. For example, if the speaker looks sternly from the addressee to the door, and then utters (b), the addressee is likely to interpret this as an order to close the door. Here too tone of voice makes all the difference.

5.1.2 Interrogative sentences

Interrogative sentences are normally used to ask question. Let see the following sentences:

a. Can you see this?
b. Do you agree?
c. Will you dance with me?
d. What did you eat?
e. Why did you leave?
f. How did you open the door?
g. Do you want lasagna or spaghetti?
h. Is it red or is it blue?
i. Should I turn left or right?

We will refer to the interrogatives in (a)–(c) as yes/no interrogatives because they elicit either ‘yes’ or ‘no’ as answers, and to the interrogatives in (d)–(f) as open interrogatives or Wh-interrogatives because they can potentially elicit an infinite range of answers. Thus, in answer to (a), (b) and (c) we could say ‘yes’ or ‘no’ (but not, say, ‘Christmas Day’), and in answer to (d) we could say ‘bacon and eggs’, ‘corn flakes’, ‘toast and jam’, etc. (but not ‘yes’ or ‘no’). In answer to (e) I could give a variety of reasons why I left the party (‘because I was tired’, ‘because I can’t stand Tristram’,

etc.), andin (f) I could give various explanations of how I opened the door. The yes/no interrogatives are syntactically different from the open interrogatives in that they display inversion of the Subject with an auxiliary verb. The open interrogatives are characterized by the initial question words starting with the letters wh. These are called Wh-words. Notice that how is also considered a Wh-word. In (g), (h) and (i) we have what are called alternative interrogatives: the possible answers to such interrogatives are given in the way the question is asked. So, the possible answers to (g) are ‘lasagna’ and ‘spaghetti’, to (h) they are ‘red’and ‘blue’, and I can answer ‘left’ or ‘right’ to (i).

As with the declaratives, there is no watertight one-to-one relationship between syntactic form and the use this form might be put to. Thus, although the interrogatives in (26)–(34) are di?cult to interpret other than as questions, there are situations in which interrogative sentences are not used to ask questions at all. The sentence in (j) is an example of a rhetorical question:

j how many time do I have to tell you not to lick your plate!

A parent shouting this at a child would not expect to get the answer ‘sixteen times’ (and if the child does give that answer it had better cover its ears). Sentence (j) is clearly an enjoiner not to lick plates. Similarly, if someone utters (k), you do not take it to be a question enquiring about your ability to be quiet.

k can you be quite?

Instead, you take (k) to be a request (or order) to be quiet. Syntactically, (j) and (k) are interrogative (by virtue of the Subject–auxiliary inversion), but they have the import of directives. (Notice that in (k) we can add please, which is common in requests.)

5.1.3 Imperative sentences

Imperative sentences are sentences that are normally interpreted as directives, i.e someone is telling someone else to (not) do something:

a. Go home.
b. Mind your own business.
c. Shut up.
d. Don’t eat that sandwich.

Notice that what syntactically characterizes imperative sentences is the fact that they do not normally contain Subjects (an example of an exception is Don’t you start whingeing as well!), and that their verb is in the base form. As with the declarative and interrogative sentence types, sometimes imperatives do not receive the default directive interpretation. Consider the sentence below:

e. Take care of yourself.

If someone says this to you, you're hardly likely to interpret it as an order to look after yourself, but rather as a wish of some sort.

5.1.4 Exclamative sentences

Exclamatives, like the open interrogatives, are formed with an initial Wh-word:

a. What a load of nonsense he talks!

b. How absolutely disgraceful he looks!

Recall that how is standardly also regarded as a Wh-word. Exclamatives differ from interrogatives in that in the former the Wh-word usually functions as a modifying element inside a phrase (NP and AP respectively in the sentences above), where as in the latter the Wh-word is usually an NP, as, for example, (d) shows.

There are cases where the Wh-element is a Modifier in interrogative sentences too, but this modifying element then occupies a slightly different syntactic position. Compare (c) and (d):

c. What book did he buy? Interrogative (not *What a book did he buy?)

d. What a book he bought! Exclamative (not *What book he bought!)

In (c) there is only one modifying element (what), whereas in (d) there are two, namely what and the determiner a.

Exclamative sentences are used almost exclusively as exclamations. They can, however, also be questions, as B's response in (46) shows:

(e) A What an extraordinary lecturer Kate is!

B What an extraordinary lecturer who is?

Additionally, we could take A's exclamation to be making a statement.

It is important to realize that the terms declarative, interrogative, imperativeand exclamative are syntactic labels that refer to sentence types that have certain syntactic characteristics (e.g. Subject–auxiliary inversion in the case of interrogatives, no Subject in the case of imperatives, etc.). The notions statement, question, directive and exclamation, by contrast, are pragmatic notions. Pragmatics is the study of the meaning of linguistic expressions in context. In other words, pragmatics is concerned with language use. With regard to each of the sentence types discussed above we have observed that they all have a typical use.

1. Write down five (5) Declarative sentences!

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2. Write down five (5) Interrogative sentences!

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3. Write down five (5) Imperative sentences!

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4. Write down five (5) Exclamative sentences!

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5. Write down the difference among of the types of sentences!

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6

Transformations: Deep Structures and Surface Structure

Understanding deep structures and surface structures of language is necessary for students who study language, English in order to improve syntax knowledge. Both of the terms could be understood through the analysis of these sentences below. The sentences are as follows:

1. The witnesses refused to report the criminality because they were afraid to.
2. The witnesses refused to report the criminality because they were afraid to report the criminality.

Let's understand the utterances by answering these questions. The first question is "do you understand the meaning of each sentence?" then "do the two sentences have same meaning?" further question is "how do you know that the meaning of the first sentence is exactly the same as the meaning of the second sentence?". Each of the sentences above has different shape. Syntactically it is understood that both of the sentences have different surfaces structures. It is important to know that even though both sentences have different surface structure but they have same deep structures. These statements give conclusion that all sentences of human languages have both a deep structure and a surface structure.

Understanding deep and surface structures can readily be understood by imagination of a situation in which a person who speaks English listens to someone else speaking in English. Suppose he/she is listening to a news broadcast on the radio. What is the respond if a question: what did you hear coming out of the radio? There are several possible answers, they are:

a. The news
b. English sentences
c. Dumaris (if Dumaris is the newscaster)
d. And other answers of this sort

These answers are in some sense true; of course but what if the question is put to a person does not understand English? He would be able to say that some human being was speaking. In case he would not be able to identify the speech anything but a continuous of acoustic signals or noise. Possibility in a very real and important sense, what comes out of the radio is nothing but noise. The question to be answered is: what does the hearer need to do in order to understand the message carried by the noise? If the noise that he heard a newscast he must somehow connect the continuous stream of noise with a meaning. In another words he must somehow connect the sound to its meaning.

The fact that human beings perform this feat all the time when they communicate with one another suggests that they are equipped with some sort of neural interpreter which processes the noise impinging on the ears, converting these sensations into a coherent meaning. Thus the general problem of understanding a

language is finding a meaning in sound. This is exactly what an English-speaking person does when he hears English sentence spoken. This fact is crucial to the notions of deep and surface sentence structure. More specifically, the meaning of a sentence is conveyed by its deep structure while the form of sentence is given by its surface structure (Jacobs, 1972:17).

Understanding more about deep and surface structure could be gain by identification both of them through several examples stated below. They are as follows:

1. A new idea is often valuable.
2. Stepping in puddles is what little girls try to do.
3. Not being able to sleep worried Lady Gaga
4. Watching television late is fun for Yolan.

A new idea is a phrase or in another words it is known as relative clause that take place as subject in sentence 1. What is the meaning contain in the phrase? Unquestionably it is the idea which is new. In some fashion the phrase “a new idea” contains the sentence “the idea is new”. In deep structure “a new idea” there exists the sentence “The idea is new”. Such construction will investigated in more detail later. For now, it is important simply to recognize that deep structure of a sentence provides an explicit account of meaning of the sentence. The meaning meant here is a meaning which is often not contained in any explicit way in the surface structure. We know that “The idea is new” when we hear

“a new idea”, but the surface structure does not explicitly contain the sentence:”The idea is new”.

Consider now into sentence 2, 3, and 4. Generally the meaning of those sentences could be known than is actually contained in their words. For instance, if someone is asked the questions: who is doing stepping? Who is not able to sleep who does the watching? The respect answers will be invariably be: “little girl” for the first question which is refers to sentence no 2. “Lady Gaga” is the answer for the second question that refers to sentence 3. The last is “Yolan” as the answer for the last question that refers to sentence 4. This is because you unconsciously plugged the following sentences into those given above:

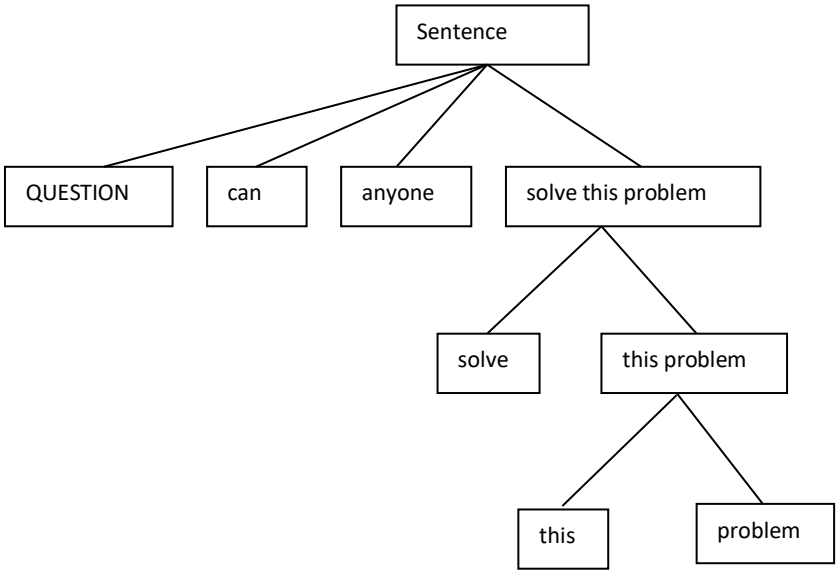
Little girls step in puddles
Lady Gaga is not able to sleep
Yolan watches television late

The explanations above tell us that the deep structure of a sentence gives its meaning because the deep structure contains all of the information required to determine the meaning of a sentence. Syntactically the students do not understand the deep structure of a sentence enough but to know how is the deep structure of a sentence related to its surface structure is important. It is because in this sub point not only deep structure discussed but also surface structures as both of them are part of syntax. To get the clear answer to the process of deep structure into surface structure can be obtain from the investigation these sentences below:

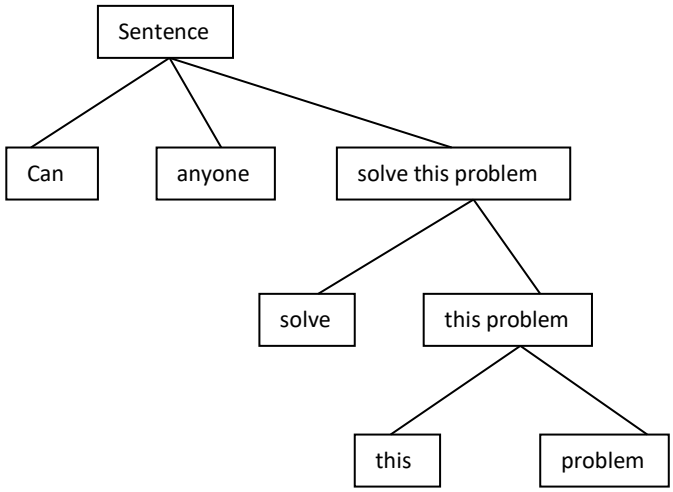
Anyone can solve this problem

Can anyone solve this problem?

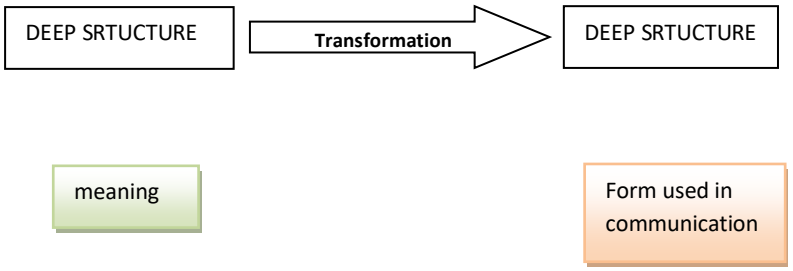
Syntactically these sentences are very similar but they are different. The first is different from the second only in respect to the change in position of their first two words. This kind of this rearrangement illustrates a process of transformation. This particular instance is interrogative transformation: declarative – interrogative sentence. Despite their similarity, however, these two sentences do not have the same deep structure. Why both of the sentences do not have the same deep structure? The answer is they have different meaning? Now it focuses at the second sentence as the result of transformation. The deep structure of the second sentence is oversimplified form is:



It is important to know that deep structure contains a hypothetical constituent QUESTION, which does two things. First, it specifies that the sentence is a question semantically. Second, it provides a structure upon which the interrogative transformation is defined and can apply. By requiring that the interrogative transformation apply only if the QUESTION constituent is present, the grammar prevents the application of the transformation to deep structures which are not semantically interpreted as questions. The interrogative transformation is the process which changes the word order of the deep structure, given above, so as to generate the surface structure diagrammed below.



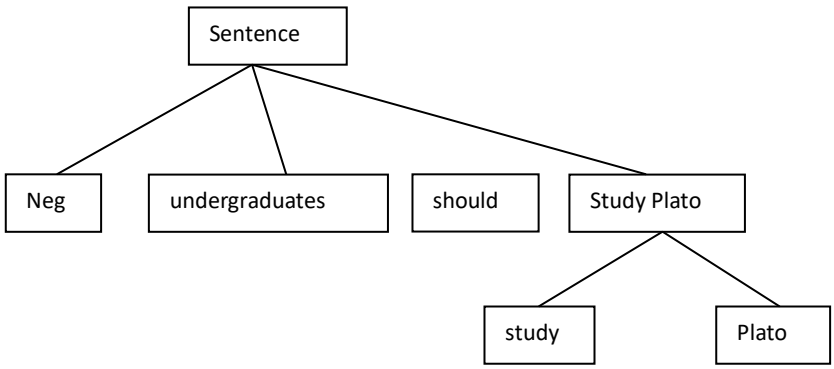
The explanation above describe that the deep structure of a sentence gives its meaning because the deep structure contains all of the information required to determine the meaning of a sentence. The deep structure relates to surface structure by a process that is called transformation syntactically.



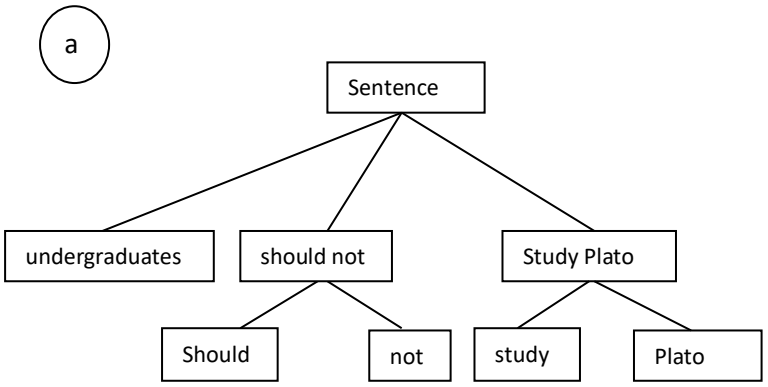
The transformation of negative sentence can be understood by the analyzing of a sentence based on its constituent. Considering these sentences as following:

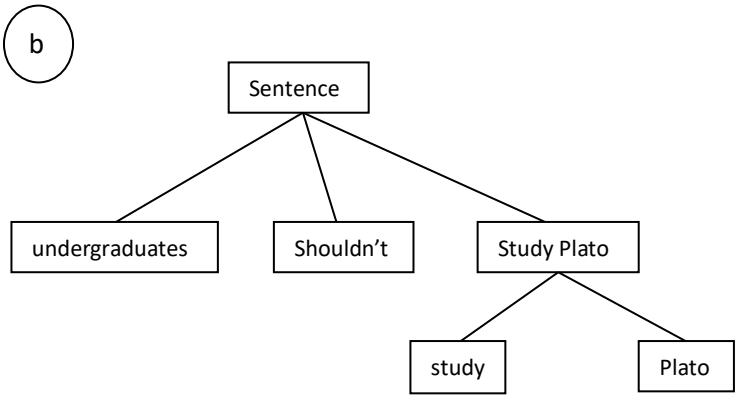
Undergraduates should study Plato
Undergraduates should not study Plato

These two sentences are identical except that the second is negation of the first. Since these sentences are not synonymous, they have different deep structures. One way to represent is with the hypothetical constituent NEGATIVE (NEG), as in the following tree diagram:



The addition of NEG represents the information that, although the remainder of the structure is identical to that of the first sentence, this sentence has a negative interpretation. The negation transformation converts the NEG constituent into ”not” and introduces this word to the right of “should”, generating the surface structure through tree diagram as follows:





Exercises:

After studying this sub unit of this book the student are expected to understand of these following questions. Answer these questions based on information from those explanations previously and use description by giving example. Do by using of your own words!

1. What is deep structure of a sentence?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

2. What is surface structure of a sentence?

_____
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3. What is the function of the deep structure of a sentence?

4. What is the function of surface structure of a sentence?

5. What is transformation of sentences?

6. How does transformation affect the meaning of sentences?

_____

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7

Functional Grammar: Type of Sentences

This chapter concentrates on the lexicogrammatical component and in particular on syntax, which in linguistics is traditionally defined as the grammar above the word or the grammar of sentence structure. Formal syntax deals with how words can combine to create larger units of form and eventually sentences. One can perhaps visualize this as an orientation towards unit building, with a progression upwards from the word to the sentence.

7.1 Formal types of sentence

The formal classification of sentences is traditionally in grammatical studies undertaken according to the number and class (main or subordinate) of clauses they contain. Where a sentence consists of a main clause only, it is known as a simple sentence.

Simple sentence:

- I'm off to town now.
- Did you get a newspaper?
- Do tell me the story of the red monk.
- What a price these glasses are!

Where the sentence contains two or more main clauses, it is known as a compound sentence.

Compound sentence:

- She's playing hockey \\ and then she's going to the theatre.
- I've tried all day \ \ but I still can't get through.
- Would you like chicken \\ or do you prefer beef?

A sentence which comprises a main clause and at least one subordinate clause is called a complex sentence.

Complex sentence:

- When we've washed up \\ we'll have a game of dominoes.
- If you don't like the heat \\ get out of the kitchen.
- She bought three bars \ \ because she adores the taste.
- We went via Birmingham \ \ in order to save time.
- What he thinks \\ is not important.
- That is \ \ what was announced.
- Has Jill said \ \ whether she 'II be available?
- This is the draft \ \ which I wrote yesterday.
- The line is to be closed \ \ which doesn’t surprise me.

Lastly, where a sentence consists of at least two main clauses and at least one subordinate clause, it may be termed a compound-complex sentence.

Compound-complex sentence:

- If you need a hand \ \ give me a call \ \ and I'll pop round.
- Our plans are now complete \ \ and an order will be placed \ \ as soon as we have received the quotations.

It has to be said, however, that this formal classification of sentences is rather arbitrary and as such not particularly helpful. Thus, for example, the compound class includes sentences with any number of main clauses, provided it is more than one. The complex label does not place any constraint on the number of subordinate clauses which may

be present, nor does it provide a way of recording dependency relationships which may exist between two or more subordinate clauses in a sentence. Analysis of a text based solely on a classification of this sort would therefore give only a partial indication of the degree of the complexity of its sentence structure.

7.2The sentence as clause complex

Grammatically, as indicated above, a sentence consists of one or more clauses which are interrelated on a coordinate or subordinate basis. Given that, in terms of meaning, each clause expresses an idea or proposition, then what the sentence does is to express one or more ideas or propositions, interwoven to present a coherent whole. (Arguments used to abound regarding the notion of completeness of the ideas. But irrespective of how this concept might best be defined, we take the view that it is not a productive line to pursue and that it is not necessary to think either of each idea or of the totality of ideas as being 'complete'. There is surely always another relevant detail which could have been added.)

In these terms the sentence can be seen as a unit of textual structure which combines and interacts with other sentences to form larger coherent units of text, such as paragraph and chapter. By 'coherent' is meant the logical sequencing and interrelatedness of ideas. Of course, in order to help ensure that the coherence of the message content reads smoothly, a writer would normally employ the various grammatical devices of cohesion.

Some linguists indeed choose to reserve the label 'sentence' for the unit of textual study. In such circumstances, the preferred term when discussing units of grammatical form would be clause complex.This relates to the logical grouping of clause units around at least one main clause and in any configuration. The scope of the textual

sentence (bounded by an initial capital letter and a final full stop) and the grammatical clause complex might normally be expected to be the same. They could easily be coordinated into the single sentence and a single (now compound) clause

Thus, whilst the sequence Ruth has passed her violin exam, which should please her parents is one sentence containing one clause complex, it could for effect be written as two sentences Ruth has passed her violin exam. Which should please her parents. But the two sentences would still involve only the one clause complex, because the second sentence – a sentential relative - remains a subordinate clause. I adopt a middle way. Although I accept that the sentence is primarily a textual unit, I also see it as one which by tradition in linguistic description serves as a unit of grammatical form for the purpose of analysing grammatical structure. In this capacity and within the standard orthographical boundaries, the sentence is a cohesive grouping of one or more clauses, i.e. a clause complex.

Note: Labelling the sentence

#S# = Sentence

Line marking

III = sentence boundary.

7.3 Formal syntactic analysis

Systemic grammar was not originally developed for formal syntactic analysis. The grammar is orientated rather towards functional syntax, where reference to formal units and classes is made in order to mark how a functional element is realized. In a functional syntactic analysis the

roles of the elements of structure are shown, and each structural element is set out on an equal basis.

The framework thus does not need to use a hierarchical tree patterning for marking dependency; instead it employs a rank-based mode of analysis which leads to an essentially flat tree patterning. If, as now, this patterning is applied to the analysis of formal units alone, it will not register, for example, the different relationship which can obtain between NPs and a VP. Thus, if one takes a sentence such as John gave his friend the map, a formal analysis of the clause will record merely 'NP + VP + NP + NP', showing that its structure (and the meaning) involves elements realized by these four classes of phrase. It does not, at this formal stage, mark any particular relationship between them. Nevertheless, in order to illustrate the impact of an analysis in terms of units and classes, we will, subject to the two (temporary) modifications within word class, apply the framework which has been built up to a range of example sentences.

The description will mark off sentence units and analyze sentences in terms of their clause constituents, specifying the dependency class of each clause. It will then analyze clauses in terms of their phrase constituents, stating the class of phrase. Finally, it will analyze phrases in terms of their word constituents, indicating the class of word. Not infrequently, of course, a clause has to be analyzed as operating within the structure of a clause, or a clause or phrase within the structure of a phrase.

Line marking

||| = sentence boundary

|| = clause boundary which is not also a sentence boundary

I = phrase boundary which is not also a clause boundary

Labelling

Sentence #S#

Clause main clause = main clause; sub.clause = subordinate clause.

Phrase NP = nominal phrase; VP = verbal phrase;

AdjP = adjectival phrase; AdvP = adverbial phrase;

PrepP = prepositional phrase; SubP = subordinator phrase;

GenP = genitive phrase.

Word noun = noun; pron = pronoun; art = article;

verb = verb; adj = adjective; adv = adverb;

prep = preposition;

sub = subordinating conjunction / subordinator;

conj = coordinating conjunction / coordinator;

interj = interjection; gen = genitive.

Pronominal subclasses

pers = personal; int = interrogative; rel = relative;

poss = possessive; dem = demonstrative;

refl = reflexive; rec = reciprocal;

indef = indefinite; emph = emphatic; subst = substitute;

typ = typic; excl = exclamative;

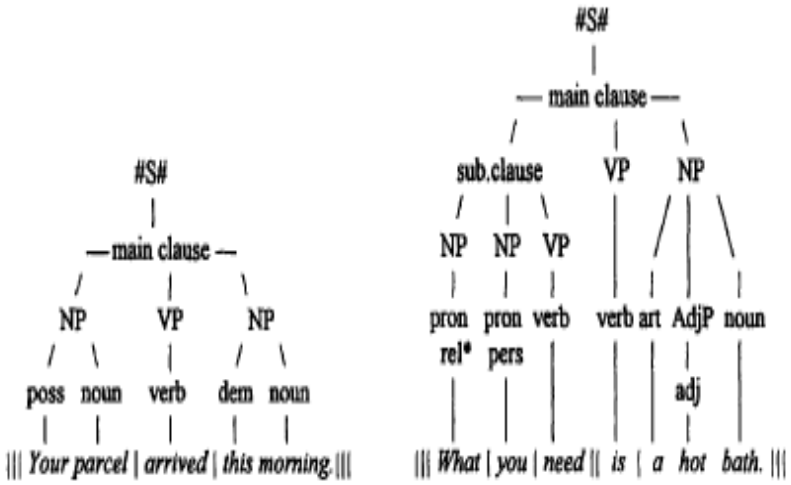
num - numeral; quant = quantifier; ord = ordinative.

For the purposes of formal analysis, two temporary sets of changes are made with regard to the labelling of verbs and adverbs:

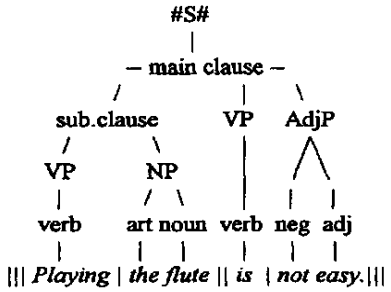
Verb aux = auxiliary verb; verb = main verb;

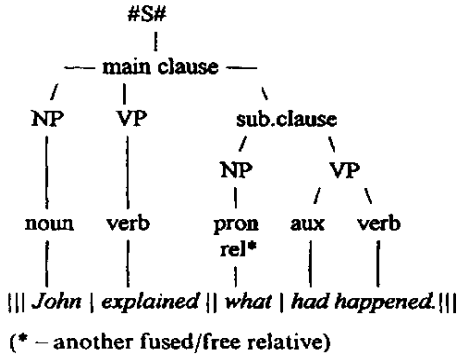
Adverb adv = adverb / adverbial particle, except that inf = infinitive and neg = negative.

These modifications will not apply within the later functional syntactic analysis, where 'aux', 'inf and 'neg' will be handled not as word subclasses but as functional elements of phrase structure.

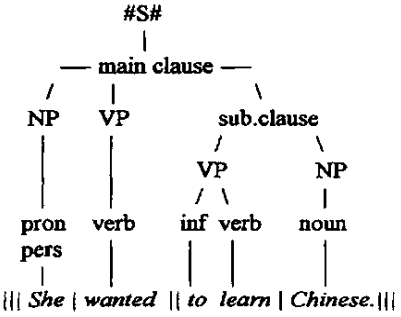


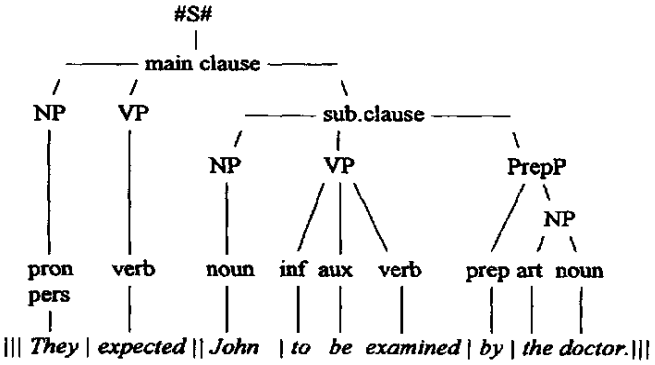
The relative pronoun what here would be described as a 'fused' or 'free' relative pronoun, where the antecedent entity to which it refers is fused within the relative word and where the single word what can in consequence be paraphrased as that which.

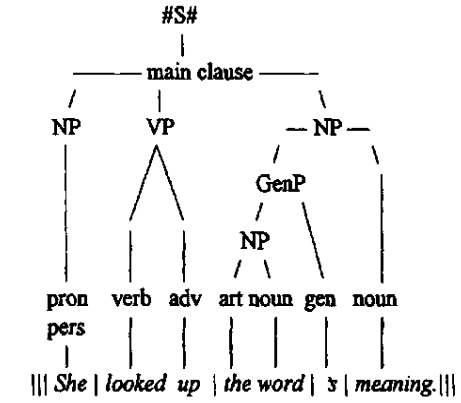


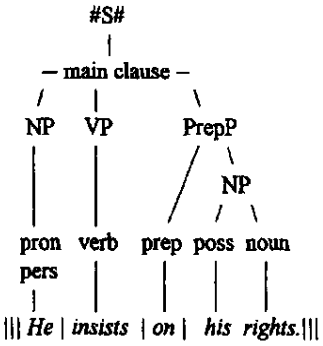


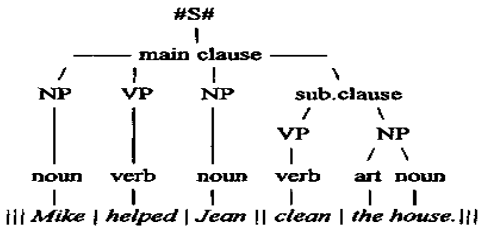
(* – another fused/free relative)

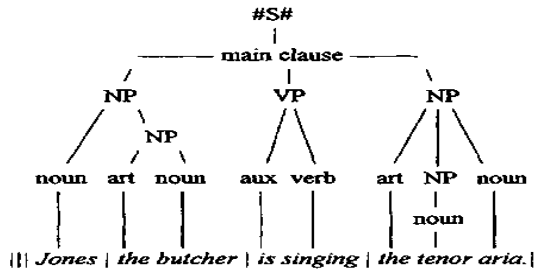




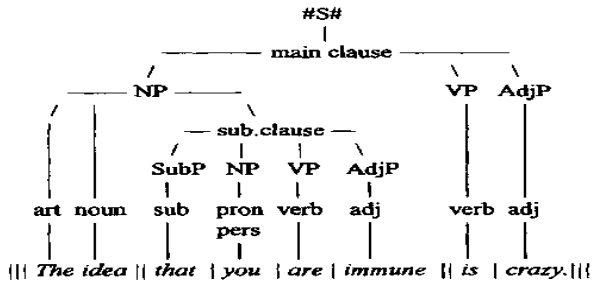


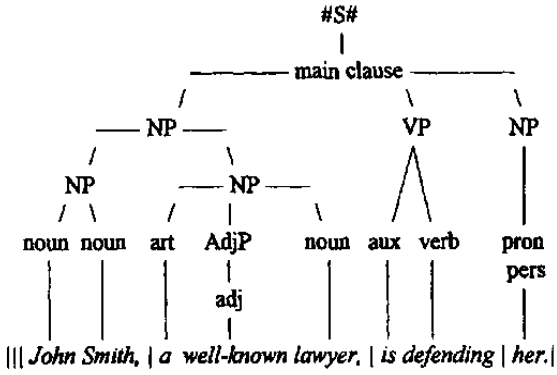




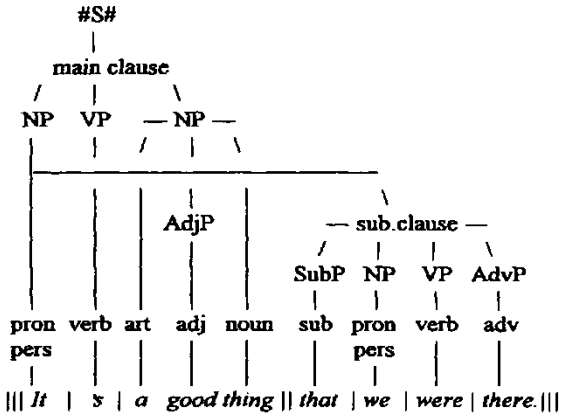


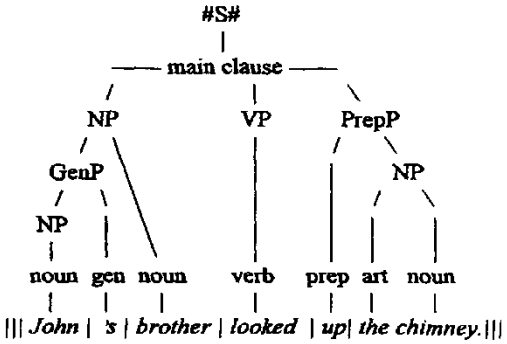
(*the butcher* here operates in a defining capacity to *Jones*)

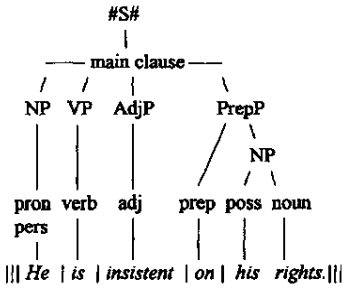


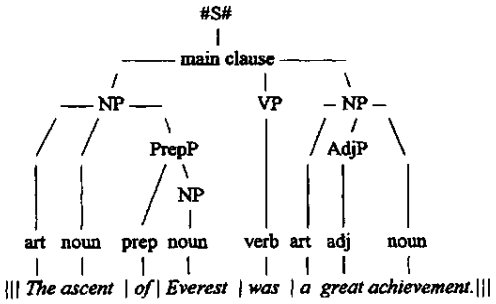


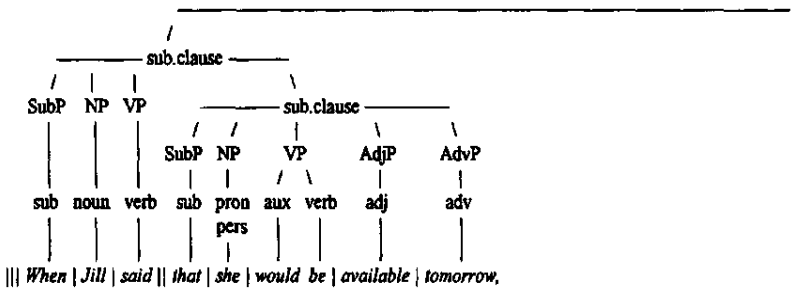
(*a well-known lawyer* operates in a supplementary capacity to *John Smith*)

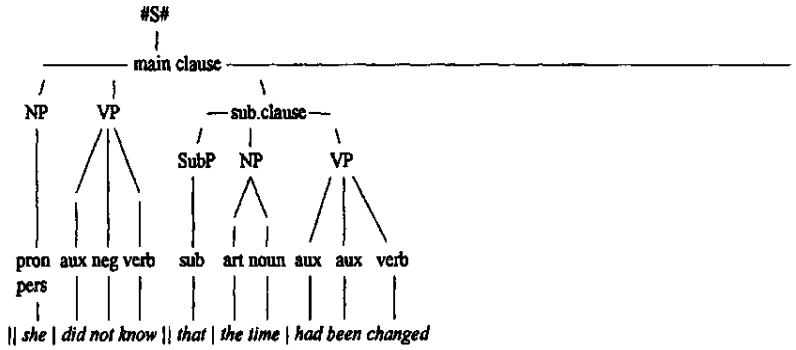

#S#
main clause
NP VP NP
AdjP
sub.clause
SubP NP VP AdvP
pron verb art adj noun sub pron verb adv
pers pers
||| It | 's | a good thing || that | we | were | there. |||

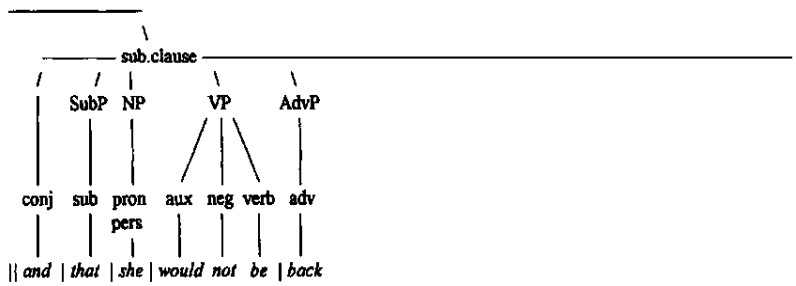

#S#
main clause
NP VP PrepP
GenP NP
NP
noun gen noun verb prep art noun
||| John | 's | brother | looked | up| the chimney. |||

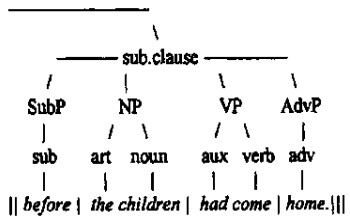

#S#
main clause
NP VP AdjP PrepP
NP
pron verb adj prep poss noun
pers
||| He | is | insistent | on | his rights. |||

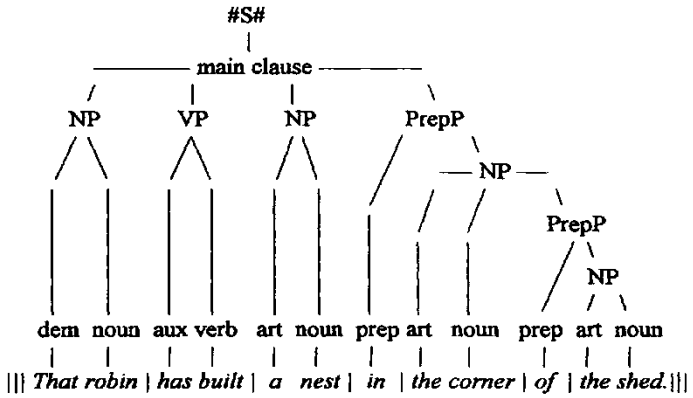

#S#
main clause
NP VP NP
PrepP AdjP
NP
art noun prep noun verb art adj noun
||| The ascent | of | Everest | was | a great achievement. |||

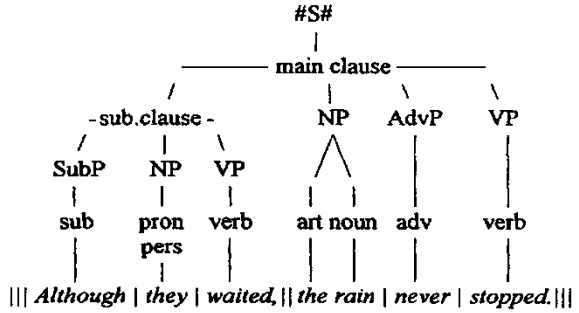

sub.clause
SubP NP VP
sub.clause
SubP NP VP AdjP AdvP
sub noun verb sub pron aux verb adj adv
pers
||| When | Jill | said || that | she | would be | available | tomorrow,


#S#
main clause
NP VP sub.clause
SubP NP VP
pron aux neg verb sub art noun aux aux verb
pers
|| she | did not know || that | the time | had been changed


sub.clause
SubP NP VP AdvP
conj sub pron aux neg verb adv
pers
|| and | that | she | would not be | back


sub.clause
SubP NP VP AdvP
sub art noun aux verb adv
|| before | the children | had come | home.|||





1. To show your understanding of functional grammar please write down five (5) sentences grammatically!

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2. Write down five (5) sentences in type of simple sentence!

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3. Write down five (5) sentences in type of compound sentence!

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4. Write down five (5) sentences in type of complex sentence!

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5. Write down five (5) sentences in type of compound complex sentence!

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6. Analyze those sentences by using tree diagram based on functional grammar!

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8

Movement

This chapter will look at four different ways in which elements, or strings of elements, can be *moved* in a sentence. I will first discuss verb movement and NP-movement, then movement in interrogative sentences and finally Wh-movement. I will finish the chapter with a section on the structure of sentences containing sequences of auxiliaries.

8.1Verb Movement: Aspectual Auxiliaries

In the previous chapter we argued that modal auxiliaries are not positioned in VP, but in 'I', and we used the sentences in (1) and (2) to demonstrate this.

(1) My brother will *not* bake a cake.
(2) My brother will *perhaps* not bake a cake.

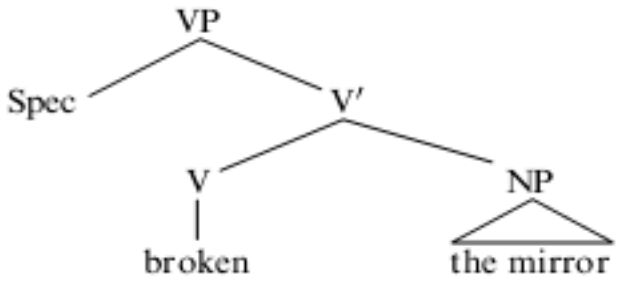
In (1) the modal auxiliary *will* is positioned before the negative element *not*, which we argued to be in the Specifier position of VP. As there are no further slots to the left of the Specifier in VP, we concluded that the modal must be outside VP.
In (2) the sentence adverb *perhaps* is positioned between the modal *will* and *not*. On the assumption that sentence adverbs are directly

dominated by S, the conclusion must again be that the modal cannot be inside VP. Furthermore, we observed that modals are always finite, and that the 'I'-node is therefore a natural location for them, given the fact that it contains the tense feature.
But what about the aspectual auxiliaries *have* and *be* in sentences like (3) and (4)? Where are these positioned?

(3) He *has* broken the mirror.
(4) I *am* dreaming.

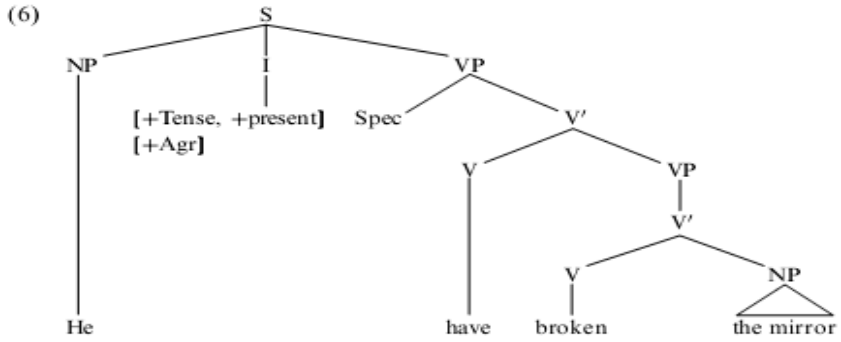
Let's look at these sentences more closely. In (3) the last two constituents are the verb *broken* (the nonfinite past participle form of the main verb *break*) and the Noun Phrase *the mirror*, which functions as a Direct Object. Now, we know that a main verb + DO form a V-bar (V'), and that this V' is a sister of a Specifier. We also know that the Specifier node and V' are dominated by VP, so we assign the structure in (5) to the sequence *broken the mirror*:

(5)



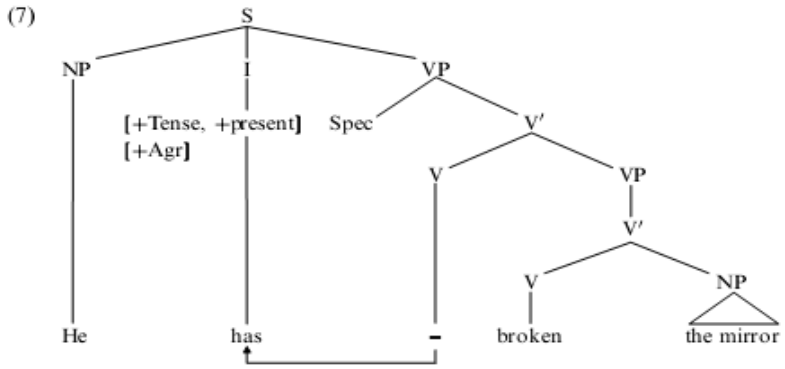
We still need to account for the finite aspectual auxiliary *has*. We will assume that this verb takes the VP *broken the mirror* as its Complement. In a tree diagram this VP should therefore be represented as the sister of *have*, as in (6), the full representation of (3) (the Specifier position of the lower VP has been left out to make the tree visually easier to interpret):

(6)



Notice that in this tree the aspectual auxiliary *have* is inserted in its base form, which raises the question how it ends up in its finite form *has*. The answer is that the aspectual auxiliary acquires its inflectional present tense ending by *moving* from the VP that immediately dominates it into the I-node, as indicated below:

(7)



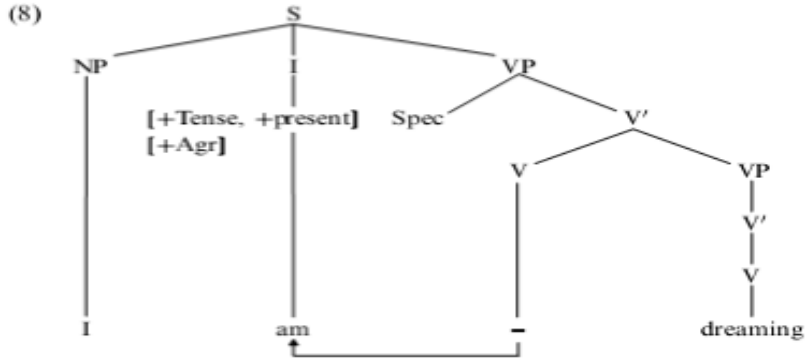
1. What would be the structure of sentence (4)?

2. Assuming that the aspectual auxiliary moves from VP into ‘I’, draw the tree diagram for (4)

3. Indicate the movement with an arrow, as above. You may omit irrelevant nodes, such as the Specifier position of the lowest VP.

The tree diagram for (4) is as in (8):

(8)



Here, too, the aspectual moves from the position in VP marked '–' to 'I' in order for the verb to acquire its present tense form. Notice that as the verb *dream* is an intransitive verb, there are no further Complements present in the lowest VP You may well be wondering why we are positing movement of aspectual auxiliaries into 'I'. Why don't we simply assume that the inflectional features are lowered from 'I' into the VP, exactly in the same way as was suggested in Chapter 8 for main verbs in simple sentences like (9)?

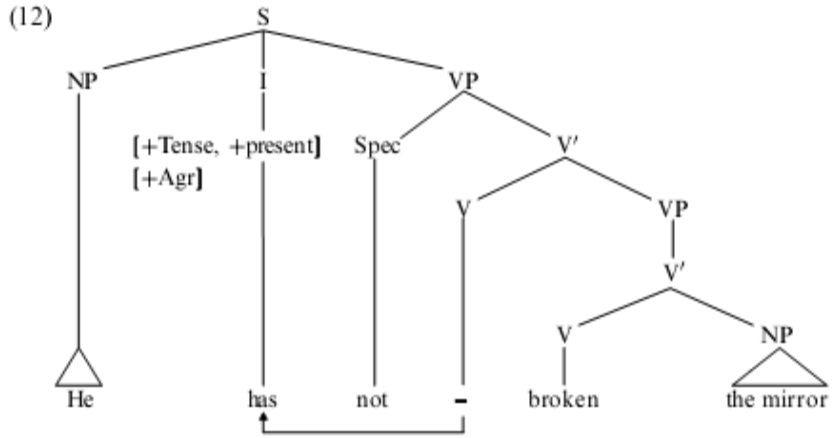
(9) Ted opened the window.

Well, there is evidence that we need to posit movement for the aspectuals, and this evidence concerns sentences involving negative elements, sentence adverbs or modals, or a combination of these. Consider the following examples:

(10) He has not broken the mirror.
(11) I am not dreaming.

Notice that both sentences contain not. As we have seen, this element is positioned in the Specifier of VP. This being so, and there being no further slots inside VP to the left of the Specifier, the most obvious position for the aspectuals is inside 'I'. But if have and be are inside VP in trees like (6), but in 'I' in (10) and (11), then we need to account for this difference in posi- tion. One way of doing so is by positing movement of the aspectuals from VP to 'I'. This would then also explain how they end up in their finite forms (cf.

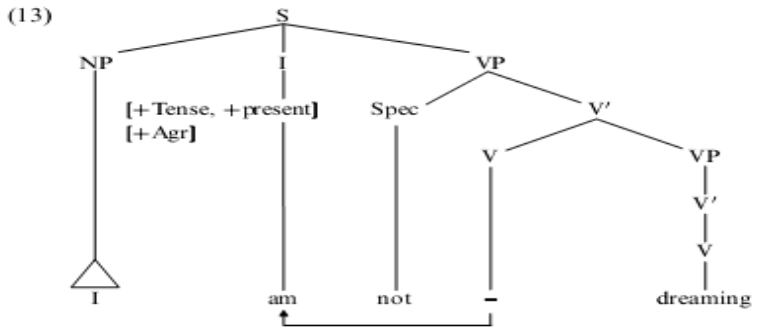
*He have not broken the mirror/*I be not dreaming). Here is the tree for (10):



1. Now draw the tree for (11). Use an arrow to show the movement of the aspectual auxiliary. As before, you may leave out irrelevant nodes such as the Specifier position of the lowest VP.

You should have drawn your tree like this:

(13)



Further evidence that finite aspectual auxiliaries are in 'I' comes from the following pair of sentences, which contain the sentence adverb *probably*:

(5) He has probably broken the mirror.
(6) I am probably dreaming.

The reasoning here is as follows: because the sentence adverb *probably* is immediately dominated by S (cf. (11) of the previous chapter), and the aspectual auxiliaries *has* and *am* occur to the left of this adverb, we can- not assume that they are inside VP. As they are in their finite forms (cf. **He have probably broken the window/*I be probably dreaming*), it is

reasonable to assume that they are in 'I'. But if they are, we will need to say that they moved from inside the Verb Phrase, because we have been assuming that aspectuals 'start out' in VP. We can use the sentences in (16) and (17), which contain *both* sentence adverbs *and* negative elements, to make the same point.

(7) He has probably not broken the mirror.
(8) I am probably not dreaming.

(Note: other adverbs can occur in the position occupied by *probably* in (14)–(17), e.g. *intentionally* or *unwittingly*, but these can be shown to be posi- tioned inside VP. See the exercise section at the end of the chapter.)

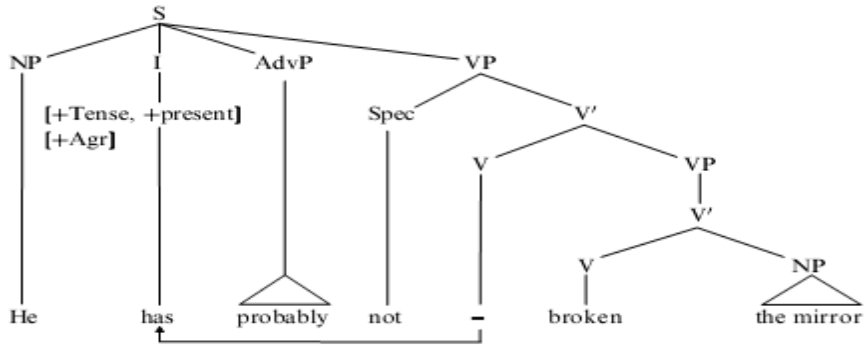
Indicate the movement with an arrow, as above. You may omit irrelevant nodes, such as the Specifier position of the lowest VP.

1. Draw the trees for (16) Use arrows to show movement. You may omit irrelevant nodes.

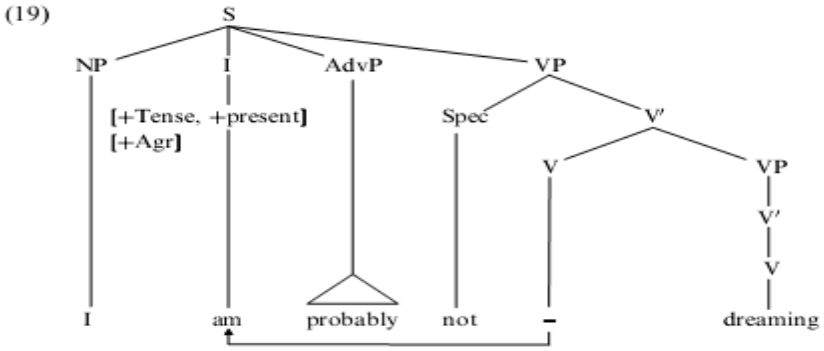
2. Draw the trees for (17). Use arrows to show movement. You may omit irrelevant nodes

Your answers should look like this:

(18)

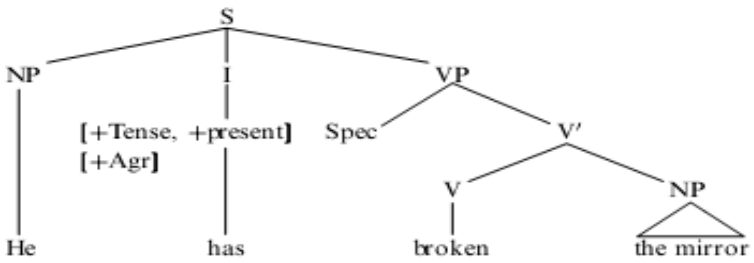


(19)

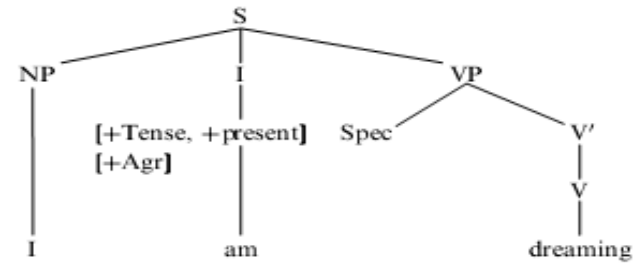


Now, at this point I may have convinced you that aspectual auxiliaries should somehow be related to the I-position, but you may well have noticed that all the evidence that has been put forward so far is also compatible with an analysis in which the aspectuals are always positioned in 'I' and never part of VP. In other words, why not take the structure of (3) and (4) to be as in (20) and in (21), where the aspectual auxiliaries are treated like the modal auxiliaries?

(20)



(21)



Why do we want to insist that aspectual auxiliaries originate inside VP, and that they are different from modal auxiliaries, which I have claimed to be positioned in 'I' without being moved from inside VP?

The structures above would be possible if it wasn't for the fact that in English we can have combinations of modal auxiliaries with aspectual auxiliaries, as in (22):

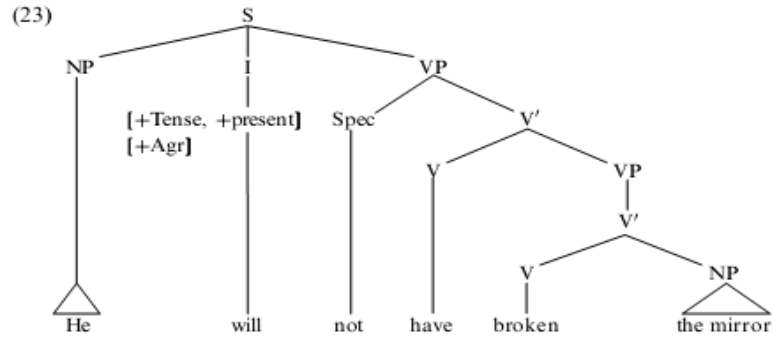
(19) He will not have broken the mirror.

Here, as before, the modal will is positioned in 'I', where it originates, while the aspectual auxiliary turns up to the right of the negative element not. (Cf. also He will probably not have broken the mirror, where there is also a sentence adverb present.) In (22) the aspectual must therefore be inside VP, to the right of the Specifier not.

1. Draw the tree for (22). You may leave out irrelevant nodes, such as the Specifier position of the lowest VP.

The tree for (22) looks like this:

(23)



The situation we're faced with, then, is that we have evidence that aspectuals can be positioned *inside* VP, namely when there is also a modal in the sentence (cf. (23)), but we also have evidence that aspectuals can be positioned *outside* VP, namely when there is a sentence adverb and/or negative element present, but no modal verb (cf. (10)–(17)).

In order to account for this situation we posit movement of the aspectuals from VP to 'I', but *only* if there is not already a modal verb present in 'I' to block it.

8.2 NP-Movement: Passive

Consider the active sentence in (24), and its passive counterpart in (25):

(24) These lorries produce filthy fumes.
(25) Filthy fumes are produced by these lorries.

We saw in Chapter 2 that the active–passive alternation is quite a common one, and that, in contrast with active sentences, passive sentences contain the passive auxiliary *be*, a past participle and an optional PP introduced by by. If we consider (24) and (25) from the point of view of thematic roles, we observe that the NP these *lorries* carries an agentive role both in (24) and (25). The NP *filthy fumes* carries the role of Patient (or Theme if you prefer) in both sentences.

Linguists have suggested that in order to capture the strong thematic affnities between active and passive sentences we might view passive sentences as being the result of movement, in such a way that the Subject of a passive sentence derives from the position immediately following the main verb. We can indicate the position that the Subject of (25) derives from with a '—':

(26) Filthy fumes are produced — by these lorries

Such an account would explain how a phrase with a Patient thematic role ends up in Subject position, while its canonical position is after the main verb. Movement of this type in passive sentences is an instantiation of NP-movement.

We might wonder where the passive auxiliary be should be located in a tree diagram. Before dealing with this problem, it might be a good idea to reiterate two points that I made in Chapter 3 regarding the syntactic behaviour of auxiliary verbs (both modals and aspectuals). The first point is that if there is a sequence of auxiliaries in a sentence, each auxiliary determines the form of a following one.

The second point is that the various types of auxiliaries that English possesses always occur in the same order. I will illustrate these points with a few examples. Consider first (27)–(30):

(27) This student *must write* two essays.
(28) This student *has written* two essays.
(29) This student *is writing* two essays.
(30) Two essays *were written* by this student.

In (27) the main verb is preceded by the modal verb must. In (28) and (29) it is preceded by an aspectual auxiliary (have and be, respectively), while in (the passive version of This student wrote two essays), the main verb is preceded by the plural past tense form of the passive auxiliary be.

Notice that in each case the form of the main verb is determined by the auxiliary that precedes it. Thus, in (27) the modal must is followed by the base form of the verb write. In (28) and (30) the main verb is in the form of the past participle written, while in (29) the verb-form writing is determined by the progressive auxiliary be.

Combinations of auxiliaries are also possible (we have seen some examples of this already):

(30) This student *must have written* two esssays.
modal auxiliary þ perfective auxiliary þ main verb

(31) This student *must be writing* two essays.
modal auxiliary þ progressive auxiliary þ main verb

(32) This student *has been writing* two essays.
perfective auxiliary þ progressive auxiliary þ main verb

(33) Two essays *must have been being written* by this student.
modal auxiliary þ perfective auxiliary þ progressive auxiliary þ passive auxiliary þ main verb

While sentences (31)–(33) are perfectly acceptable in English, (34) is unusual, but nevertheless possible.

1. Other combinations of auxiliaries are possible in English. Try to construct sentences with additional possibilities.

_____

_____

_____

_____

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_____

The auxiliary þ main verb sequence always occurs in the following order:

(34) (modal) (perfective) (progressive) (passive) main verb

The main verb is always obligatory. The auxiliaries are optional. Notice that if we do have a sequence of auxiliaries,

it is possible to 'skip' one of the bracketed auxiliary slots shown in (35), as (32) shows. Here we have a modal auxiliary immediately followed by a progressive auxiliary. There is no perfective auxiliary. In (34), all auxiliary slots given in (35) are filled. We can only select one auxiliary of a particular type, so it is not possible for an English sentence to contain two modal verbs, or two progressive auxiliaries.

You may have noticed that auxiliaries share a property with transitive and ditransitive verbs: like these main verbs they too determine what follows them. As we have seen, a transitive verb requires a following Direct Object, while a ditransitive verb requires an IO and a DO. Using the terminology introduced in Chapter 7, transitive verbs subcategorise for a DO, and ditransitive verbs subcategorise for an IO and a DO. In the same way, auxiliary verbs subcategorise for VPs. To see this, take another look at (27)–(30) above. The modal in (27) subcategorises for a VP headed by a verb in the base form (write two essays), the perfective and passive auxiliaries in

(28) and (30) are followed by a VP headed by an -ed form (written two essays), while the progressive auxiliary in (29) subcategorises for a VP headed by an

-ing form (writing two essays). We will see in a moment how to draw the trees for these sentences.

Let's now return to the question we asked ourselves earlier: where in a tree diagram do we position the passive auxiliary be? We will try to answer this question by reasoning our way through a number of sentences. First, we already know where modal verbs, aspectual auxiliaries and negative elements are located.

The way we will precede is to analyze sentences which contain a combination of these elements, and then see how passive be fits in. So, let's produce a number of test sentences containing different auxiliary verbs and negative elements:

(36) Filthy fumes are not produced by these lorries.
(37) Filthy fumes have not been produced by these lorries.
(38) Filthy fumes are not being produced by these lorries.
(39) Filthy fumes may not have been produced by these lorries.
(40) Filthy fumes may not be being produced by these lorries.
(41) Filthy fumes may not have been being produced by these lorries.

(36) is the negative counterpart of (26): here the passive auxiliary be combines with the negative element not. As we have seen, not is located in the leftmost position in VP, namely Spec-of-VP, and this suggests that the passive auxiliary should be positioned outside VP.

Because it is tensed, a suitable location would be the 'I'-node. We should now use other data to test this hypothesis. In (37) the passive auxiliary (this time in the form of the past participle been) is preceded not only by not, but also by the perfective aspectual auxiliary have. Contrary to our initial hypothesis, this leads us to conclude that the passive auxiliary is inside VP, the reason being that it is preceded by

not, which, as before, is located in the leftmost position of VP.

Let's turn to some further examples and see if we can resolve this con- tradiction. Consider (38). This sentence is structurally similar to (37), except that it contains the progressive auxiliary be, rather than perfective have.

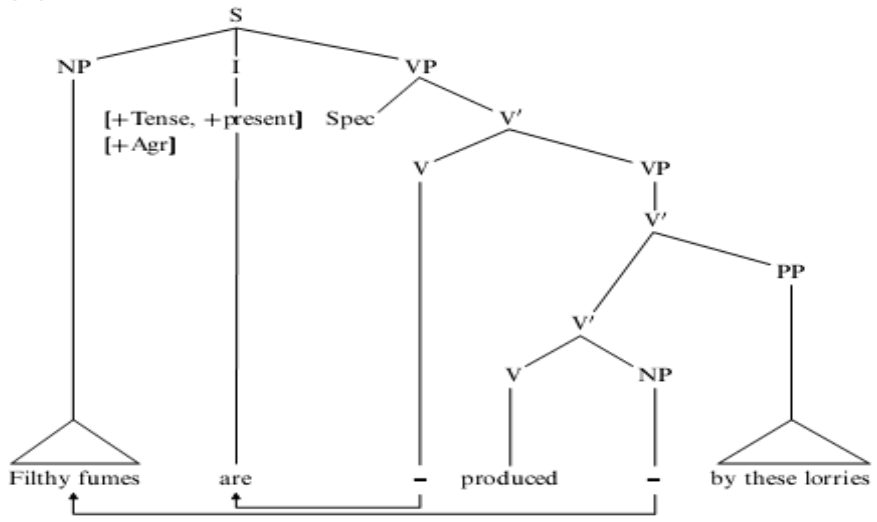
In (39) and (40) in both cases we have a combination of a modal verb (may) with an aspectual auxiliary (have in (39), be in (40)) and the passive auxiliary (in the form of been in (39), being in (40)). These sentences show that this time the modal is outside VP, whereas the aspectual and passive auxiliaries are inside VP. Finally, in (41) we have the modal may, the negative marker not, the perfective auxiliary have, the progressive auxiliary been, and the pas- sive auxiliary being. Only the modal is outside VP, all the elements to the right of not are inside VP.

So what do we make of these, at times conflicting, data? If you look carefully at (36)–(41) again, you will see that in each case the first auxiliary verb in the sequence is finite, and precedes the negative marker not. Now, bearing in mind that modal auxiliaries are positioned in 'I', the picture that emerges is really quite straightforward: if the sentence you are analysing contains a modal verb, then it is positioned in 'I', any other verbs then being located in VP. If there are only non-modal auxiliaries in the sentence, then the first of these is in 'I', the other verbs being positioned in VP. If there is only a main verb, then it is inside VP, functioning as the VP-

Head.

Returning now to our passive sentence in (26), we can conclude that its tree looks like this:

(42)



Notice that we have two movements here: the aspectual auxiliary be has moved to 'I' under verb movement, while the Direct Object has moved from a position following the main verb to the Subject position of the sentence under NP Movement.

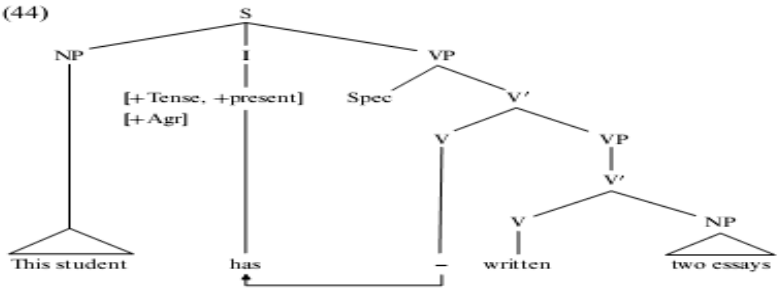
1. Draw the trees for (27). As before, you may use triangles for NPs and leave out the Specifier positions of lower VPs.

2. Draw the trees for (28). As before, you may use triangles for NPs and leave out the Specifier positions of lower VPs.

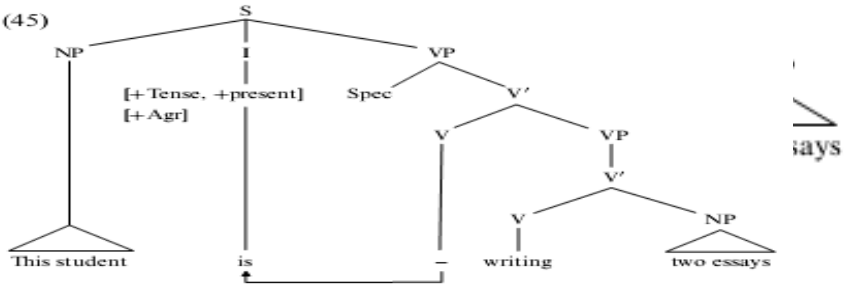
3. Draw the trees for (29). As before, you may use triangles for NPs and leave out the Specifier positions of lower VPs.

4. Draw the trees for (30). As before, you may use triangles for NPs and leave out the Specifier positions of lower VPs.

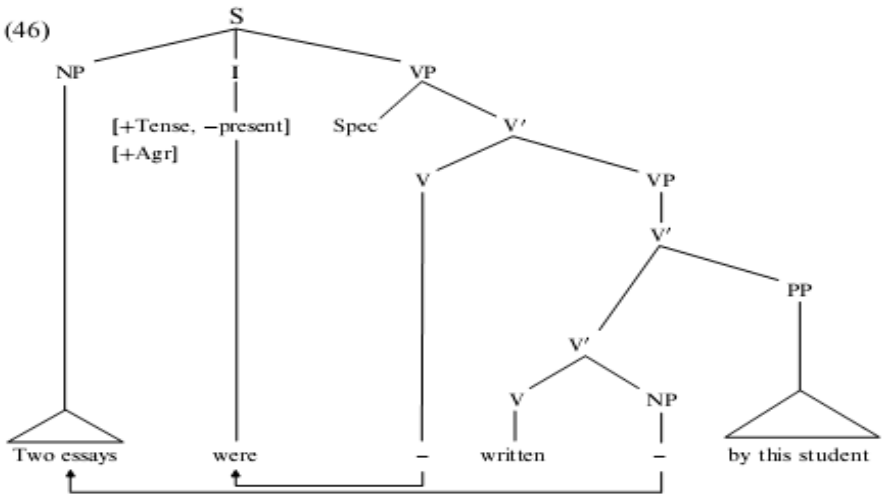
(44)



(45)



(46)



I will return to the analysis of sentences containing sequences of auxiliary verbs in Section 9.6.

8.3 NP-Movement: Subject-to-Subject Raising

There is a further type of NP-movement in English which we will only discuss very briefly. Consider the sentences below:

(47) Danny seems to be working.
(48) Phil appears to besinging.

As we saw in Chapter 3, seem and appear are linking verbs. In (47) and (48) they link the Subjects Danny and Phil to the strings to be working and to be singing, respectively.

If we now think about (47) and (48) from the point of view of meaning, observe that we can paraphrase them as follows:

(49) It seems that Danny is working.
(50) It appears that Phil issinging.

Notice the appearance of the dummy pronoun it in these sentences. We have already seen in Chapter 6 that this pronoun is never assigned a thematic role, and the very fact that it can appear as a Subject immediately before a linking verb suggests that linking verbs do not assign thematic roles to their Subjects. In fact, it would be hard to determine what kind of thematic role verbs like seem and appear would assign to their Subjects in (47) and (48). It is, however, less difficult to think of a thematic role that (to be) working and (to be) singing might assign. This would clearly be an Agent role. Linguists have suggested that sentences like (47) and (48) involve two clauses, and that Danny and Phil receive their thematic role from (to be) working and (to be) singing in a subordinate clause, before being moved to the matrix clause Subject position. We can now represent (47) and (48) as follows:

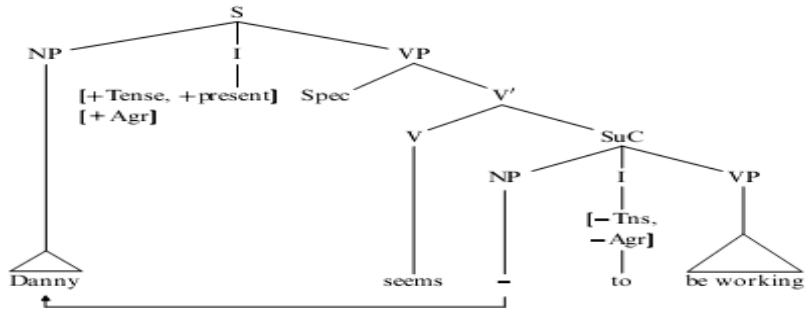
(51) [$_{MC}$ Danny seems [$_{SuC}$ — to be working]]

(52) [$_{MC}$ Phil appears [$_{SuC}$ — to be singing]

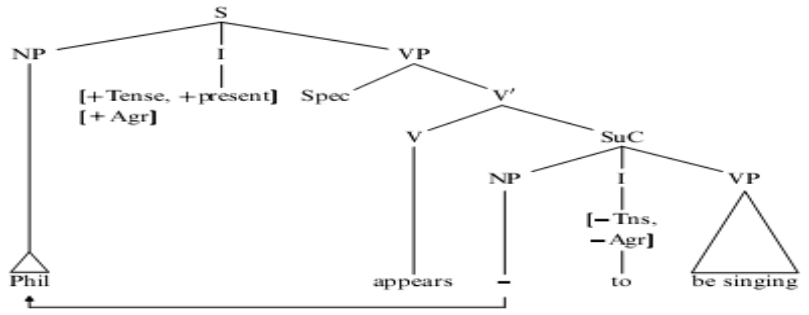
This type of displacement, along with the movement discussed in the pre- vious section, is an instance of NP-movement. It is also sometimes referred to as Subject-to-Subject raising. The reason for this is that the NP Subject moves from the Subject position of the subordinate clause to the Subject position of the matrix clause.

In a tree this movement can be represented as follows:

(53)



(54)



The upshot of all this is that linking verbs are one-place predicates that take clausal arguments. Thus, *seem* takes the clause *Danny to be working* as its argument, while *appears* takes *Phil to be singing* as its argument.

The combined argument structure and thematic structure representations of *seem* and *appear* are as in (55) and (56):

(55) seem (verb)
[1 (Clause,
Proposition)]

(56) appear (verb)
[1 (Clause,
Proposition)]

The way we should read this is as follows: *seem* and *appear* take one argument in the form of a clause, and this clause is assigned a propositional thematic role.

If we compare (47)/(48) with (49)/(50), we see that the clausal arguments specified in (55) and (56) can take the form of a nonfinite *to*-infinitive clause or a finite *that*-clause. However, only in the case of *to*- infinitive clauses does the Subject get displaced under NP-movement. Remember that *it* in (49) and (50) is not an argument of the linking verb and does not get a thematic role. For this reason it does not appear in the frames in (55) and (56).

8.4 Movement in Interrogative Sentences: Subject–Auxiliary Inversion

We saw in Chapter 3 that one of the characteristics of auxiliary verbs (be they modals, aspectuals, passive *be* or dummy *do*) is that they invert with the Subject in interrogative sentences. This process of *Subject–auxiliary inversion* is illustrated by the sentences below:

(57) Saul can play the piano.
(58) Can Saul play the piano?

(59) Neil is playing squash.
(60) Is Neil playing squash?

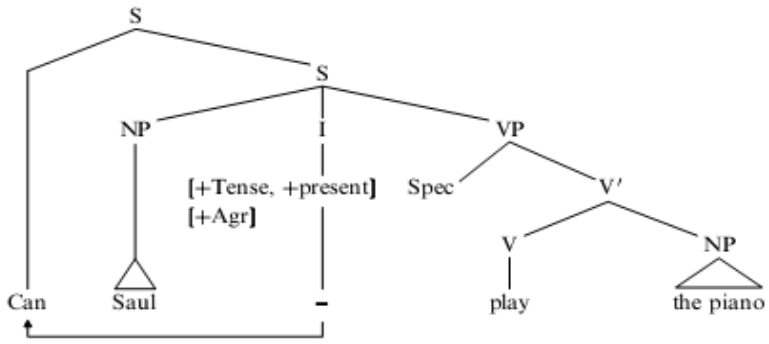
(61) Simon hates game shows.
(62) Does Simon hate game shows?

If a sentence already contains an auxiliary verb, then this verb inverts with the Subject, as in (58) and (60). If the original sentence does not contain an auxiliary, then *do* is added, as in (62), a process we have been calling *do*-support.

Let us now see where auxiliaries end up in a tree diagram after Subject– auxiliary inversion.

We will assume that the moved verb is adjoined to S at the leftmost periphery of the sentence, as is shown below for (58):

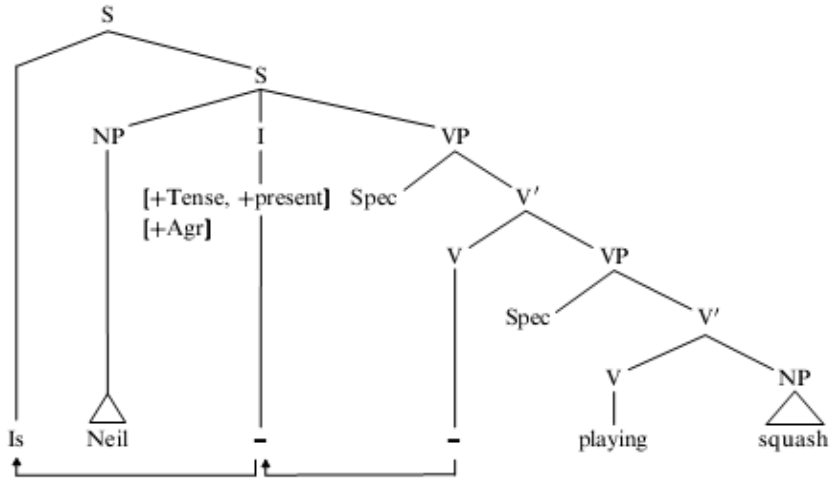
(63)



1. Draw the tree for (60). Indicate movement with arrows, as has been done above. (Remember that the aspectual auxiliary *be* moves twice: once to acquire Tense and Agreement, and a second time under Subject–auxiliary inversion!)

The tree for (60) looks like this:

(64)



We now turn to the dummy auxiliary *do*. As you know, this auxiliary is exceptional in that it is only inserted in a sentence when it is required in negative or interrogative sentences that do not already have an auxiliary (cf. (61)/(62)), or if emphasis is required (e.g. *He DID see it!*). We might wonder whether dummy *do* is also subject to movement. In other words, do we assume that it is moved from the I-node in the same way as modal verbs, as in (63), or that it is first moved from inside VP to 'I', and then on to a sentence-initial position, as in (64)? To put this question differently: as far as its syntactic behaviour is concerned, do we group dummy *do* with the modal verbs (as being always tensed and originating in 'I'), or with the other auxiliaries (originating in VP and moving to 'I' to acquire tense)? The answer to this question is not straightforward. The reason is that in some ways dummy *do* behaves like modal auxiliaries, in other respects it behaves like aspectual auxiliaries.

Recall that modal verbs show three characteristics:

1. They are always finite.
2. They are followed by a verb in the base form of a bare infinitive.
3. They do not take third person endings.

Dummy *do* resembles the modals in that it conforms to two of these characteristics, namely the first two. However, it resembles non-modal auxiliaries in that it can take a third person singular ending (*does*). Furthermore, a difference between the modals and the aspectuals on the one hand, and dummy *do* on the other, is that the former can be followed by other auxiliaries, whereas dummy *do* cannot.

It is a 'lone auxiliary', in that it cannot be preceded or followed by other auxiliaries. Thus, none of the following are possible in English:

(65) *He must do like wine.
(66) *He did have spoken in public.
(67) *He did be walking fast.

From the point of view of meaning, dummy *do* behaves neither like the modals, nor like the aspectuals (nor like the passive auxiliary for that matter). In fact, it is often said to be meaningless, and solely to perform the function of tense-bearer in interrogative, negative and emphatic sentences, hence the name.

Why is (i) below *not* a counter-example to the claim that dummy *do* does not co-occur with other auxiliaries? (i) Leo must do his exercises.

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The reason is that in this sentence the verb *do* is a main verb, not an auxiliary: unlike auxiliary *do*, it can occur on its own (e.g. *He did his homework this morning*).

What comes out of the discussion on dummy *do* is that it is a hybrid auxiliary: it resembles modal auxiliaries in two respects, and the aspectual auxiliaries in another. What we will do here is take criteria 1 and 2 above for modal auxiliaries to be decisive in saying that dummy *do*, when present, is positioned in 'I'.

8.5 Wh-movement

Consider the following sentence:

(68) What will you buy?

This is a simple interrogative structure which displays three notable features: one is that there is a Wh-element placed at the beginning of the sentence, the second is the occurrence of Subject–auxiliary inversion, and thirdly, the verb *buy* appears apparently without a Direct Object.

Let's turn our attention first to the verb *buy*. This is a simple transitive verb whose sub-categorisation frame specifies that a

Direct Object must be present in a sentence in which it occurs. Notice, however, that in (68) *buy* is *not* followed by a DO, but the sentence is grammatical. We would expect ungrammaticality to result if a verb's sub-categorisation requirements are not met (cf. **They bought*). How can we explain that (68) is a good sentence? Well, one way of doing so is to say that despite appearances, there *is* a Direct Object in (68), but that it is not in its normal place.

Which element in (68) would qualify for DO status? Clearly, *what* is the most likely candidate. If this is correct, we need to account for the fact that it is not in its normal position.

We will assume that in (68) the Wh-element is moved from the DO position following the main verb to the beginning of the sentence. This type of movement is called *Wh-movement*, for obvious reasons. We can easily show that *what* in (68) is associated with the DO position by constructing a sentence in which it occurs in that location, e.g. (69):

(69) You will buy WHAT?

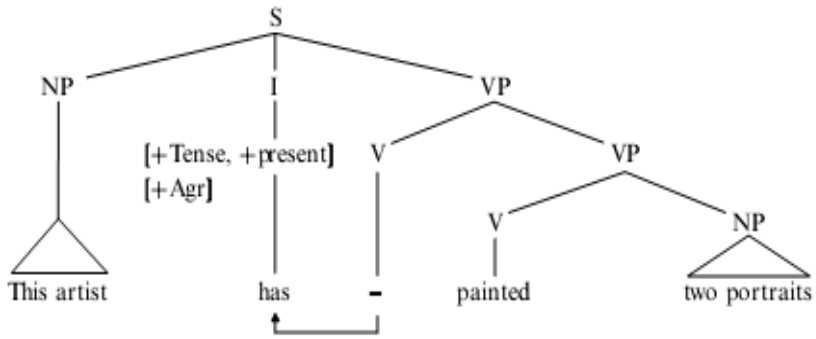
This sentence (which we might imagine ourselves uttering after a friend has just announced that he will buy himself something outlandish) is syntactic- ally declarative, but has the force of a question (see Chapter 4). Notice that the Wh-element is heavily stressed.

The important point about (69) is that the Wh-element occurs *after* the verb. This shows that it functions as DO. It is now natural to say that in relating (69) to (68) we move the Wh-element to the beginning of the sentence. In the process the Subject is inverted with the auxiliary.

An obvious question to ask at this point is where in a tree diagram a fronted Wh-element is positioned. If you look at (68) again, you will see that the moved Wh-element is placed before the inverted auxiliary.

Inverted auxiliaries are adjoined to S, cf. (63) and (64), and we will simply assume that Wh-elements are adjoined to them on their left. The tree for (68) then looks like this:

(80)



We have so far been talking somewhat loosely about Wh-*elements*. This is because in the example we examined above a single word was moved. However, we should really be speaking of Wh-*phrases*. In (68) we moved a Wh-NP, and the same has happened in (71):

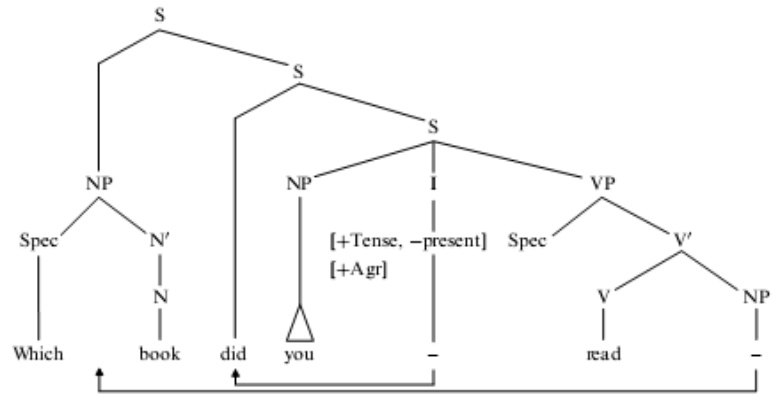
(70) *Which book* did you read — ?

Notice that in this sentence *which* is a determiner (see Section 3.2).

1. Draw the tree for (71).

Your answer should look like this:

(72)



In (73) and (74) a Wh-AP and a Wh-PP, respectively, have been fronted:

(73) How old are you — ?
(74) In which house do you live — ?

Recall from Section 4.3.4 that *how* is also a Wh-word.

We can also express the meaning of (74) by fronting only the Wh-NP *which house*. The resulting sentence is (75):

(75) *Which house* do you live in — ?

Exercise

Draw trees for the following sentences:

a. Who did you see?
b. What did Sally give James?
c. Which film did you like?

8.6 The Structure of Sentences Containing One or More Auxiliaries

In Section 8.2 above we saw that auxiliaries, like all other verbs (except intransitive ones), are sub-categorised to take Complements. More specially, auxiliary verbs take VP-Complements. Furthermore, auxiliaries determine the form of the verb that heads the VP-Complement. Thus, perfective and passive auxiliaries are always followed by a VP headed by an *-ed* form, modal auxiliaries are always followed by a VP headed by a verb in the base form, and progressive auxiliaries are always followed by a VP headed by an *-ing* form. The sentences in (76)–(79) illustrate this:

(76) This artist *has painted two portraits.*
perfective auxiliary + a VP headed by a main verb in *-ed*

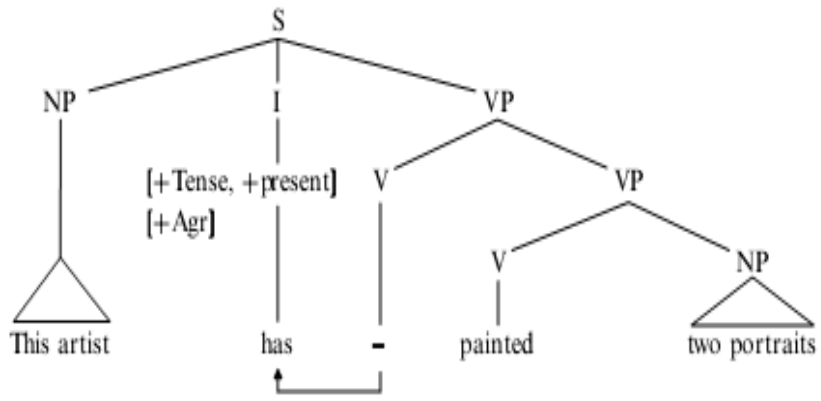
(77) This artist *will have painted two portraits.*
modal auxiliary þ a VP headed by a perfective auxiliary þ a VP headed by a main verb

(78) This artist *will have been painting two portraits.*
modal auxiliary þ a VP headed by a perfective auxiliary þ a VP headed by a passive auxiliary þ a VP headed by a main verb

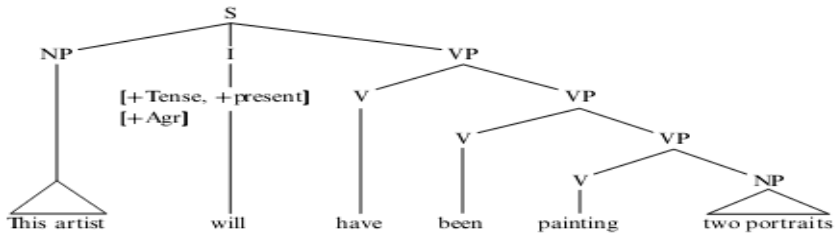
(79) Two portraits *will have been being painted by this artist.*
modal auxiliary þ a VP headed by a perfective auxiliary þ a VP headed by a progressive auxiliary þ a VP headed by a passive auxiliary þ a VP headed by a main verb

Assuming in each case that the first auxiliary is positioned in 'I', and that the following auxiliaries subcategorise for a VP Complement (cf. also (6) above), we derive the following tree structures for (76)–(79). (In order to make the trees more readable the Specifier positions of the VPs have been left out.)

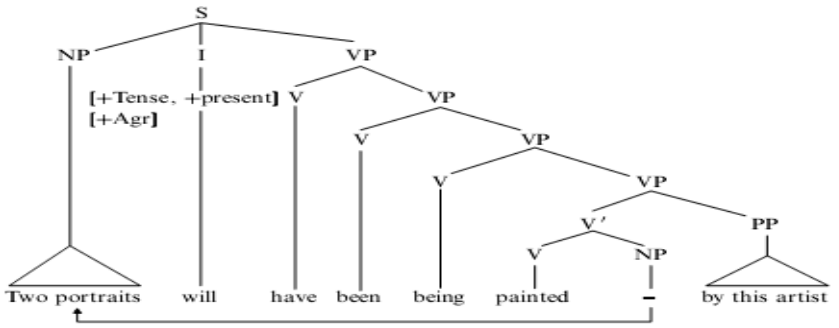
(80)



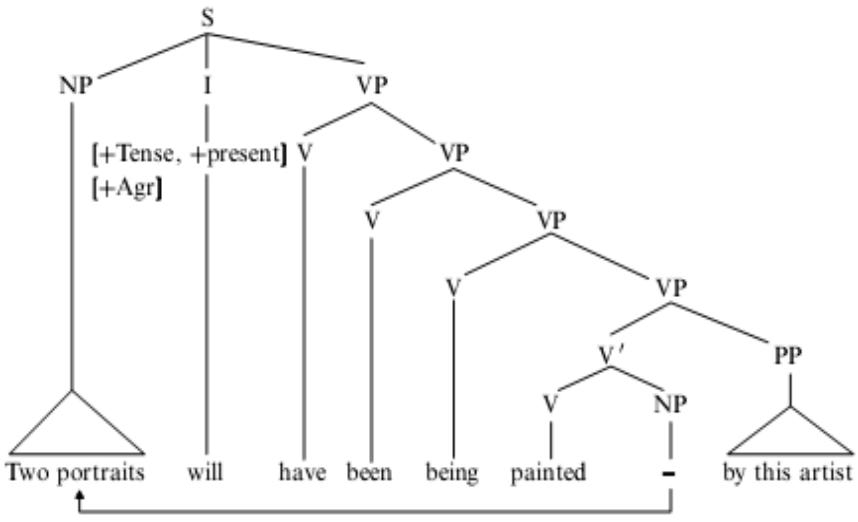
(82)


S
NP
I
VP
[+Tense, +present]
[+Agr]
V
VP
V
VP
V
NP
This artist
will
have
been
painting
two portraits

(83)


S
NP
I
VP
[+Tense, +present]
[+Agr]
V
VP
V
VP
V
VP
V'
PP
V
NP
Two portraits
will
have
been
being
painted
–
by this artist

(83)


S
NP
I
VP
[+Tense, +present]
[+Agr]
V
VP
V
VP
V
VP
V'
PP
V
NP
Two portraits
will
have
been
being
painted
–
by this artist

Key Concepts in this Chapter

verb
movement
NP-
movement
  passive
  Subject-to-Subject
raising Subject–auxiliary
inversion Wh-movement

Exercises

1. Draw the trees for (31)–(34) and (36)–(41) in the text. You may use triangles for categories that are not immediately relevant, such as NPs, and you may leave out the Specifier positions of the lower VPs.

2. True or false? In the sentence *Which file can you completely delete?*

   (i) there are two kinds of movement
   (ii) one of these movements is NP-movement
   (iii) the NP *you* does not move
   (iv) *delete* is an intransitive verb

3. Draw the tree for this sentence.

4. Draw the tree for the sentence in (i) below. Show the movements (if any).

   (i) He probably has not written the report.

5. Take another look at the tree in (83). Are the following statements true or false?

   (i) The VP *painted by this artist* is the Complement of the verb *being.*
   (ii) The PP *by this artist* is an Adjunct in the lowest VP.
   (iii) This tree contains three auxiliary verbs.
   (iv) The verb *been* is the passive auxiliary.

5. Liliane Haegeman in her book *Introduction to Government and Binding Theory* (2nd edn, 1994) positions not only modal auxiliaries, but also aspectuals under 'I'. In view of the data in (i)–(iii) below, why is this a problem?

   (i) They must have been dreaming.
   (ii) He will not have broken the mirror. (¼ (22))
   (iii) She should not be using the phone so late.

*6. Draw the trees for (74) and (75) in the text. Assume that *live* takes a PP Complement.

*7. Consider the following sentences:

   (i) Eric has often broken his arm, but Gary never has.
   (ii) ?Eric has often broken his arm, but Gary has never.

   For most speakers (ii) would be slightly less acceptable than (i), though it would not be ungrammatical. We can assume that the string *broken his arm* has been deleted from the tails of (i) and (ii). How is (i), as contrasted with (ii), problematic for our account of the syntactic behaviour of non-modal auxiliaries?

*8. Use the data below to argue either for or against movement of the main verb *be* from its position as Head of the Verb Phrase to 'I':

   (i) John is not happy.
   (ii) *John not is happy.

   Are the data in (iii) and (iv) also of relevance to decide the issue?

   (iii) John is perhaps happy.
   (iv) John perhaps is happy.

*9. We have seen that if a sentence contains a modal auxiliary verb, as well as an aspectual auxiliary verb, the modal is positioned in 'I' and the aspectual is located in VP. In Section 7.2 we saw that VP-Adjuncts are inside VP (adjoined to V^{0}), and in this chapter we saw that S-Adjuncts are immediately dominated by 'S'. First, how can we use (i) below to show that *intentionally* is a VP-Adjunct which must be positioned in VP?

(i) He will not have intentionally broken the mirror.

Now draw the tree for (i) above and also for (ii)–(iv) below. Use arrows to indicate movement. Remember that *carefully* and *acciden- tally* are VP-Adjuncts, while *probably* is an S-Adjunct.

(ii) Edward will have carefully wrapped the present.
(iii) He may have broken the vase accidentally.
(iv) Chuck will probably not have seen it.

*10. When we discussed Wh-movement in the text, we looked only at Wh- phrases that are arguments. Consider the sentences below where (ii) can be said to be derived from (i). Draw the trees for both sentences.

(i) You can eat pancakes where?
(ii) Where can you eat pancakes — ?

*11. Describe the movement(s) in the following sentence; then draw the tree:

(i) What has he eaten?

Further Reading

Movement is a notion found only in transformational grammar (TG), a theory of language associated with the linguist Noam Chomsky. In this theory (with the exception of the latest version) elements move from a *D(eep)-Structure* level of representation to a *S(urface)-Structure* level.

In TG there is a special position for moved Wh-elements, called COMP, or simply 'C', which normally hosts complementisers. As I already men- tioned at the end of the previous chapter, this position is the Head of a maxi- mal projection called CP. For further discussion of movement processes from a slightly different perspective than the one taken here, see Radford (1988), Haegeman (1994) and Ouhalla (1999).

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