

स्वाध्याय

स्वमन्थन

स्वावलम्बन

UTTAR PRADESH RAJARSHI TANDON OPEN UNIVERSITY



Indira Gandhi National Open University



UP Rajarshi Tandon Open University

**UGEN-02
(ENGLISH)
THE STRUCTURE OF MODERN ENGLISH**

FIRST BLOCK : Phonetics and Phonology-1
SECOND BLOCK : Phonetics and Phonology-2
THIRD BLOCK : Morphology-1
FOURTH BLOCK : Morphology-2

Shantipuram (Sector-F), Phaphamau, Allahabad - 211013



UGEN-02, The Structure of Modern English

Block

1

PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY - 1

Introduction to the Course	3
Introduction to the Block	4
UNIT 1	
An Introduction to Phonetics	5
UNIT 2	
English Vowels-1	13
UNIT 3	
English Vowels-2	23
UNIT 4	
English Consonants-1	28
UNIT 5	
English Consonants-2	39

INTRODUCTION TO THE BLOCK

In this block we shall introduce you to phonetics and phonology (Unit 1) and then give a description of the sound system of modern English.

We shall take up the vowel sounds in Units 2-3 and the consonants in Units 4-5.

There will be audio cassettes to accompany this block. These will be used to give you the necessary ear training and practice in the production of the correct sounds and their use in words and sentences.

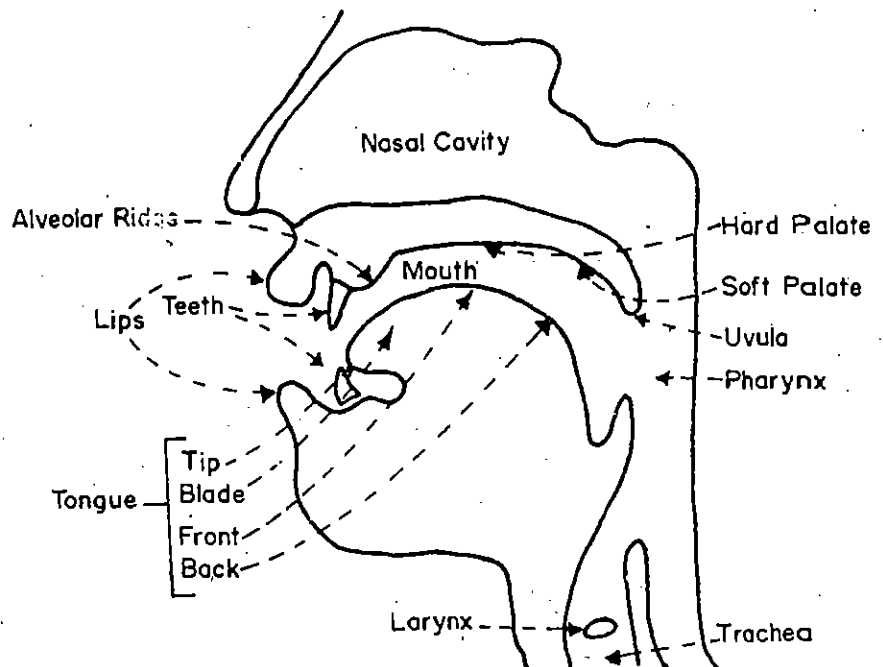


Fig. 1 The Organs of Speech

For the production of speech we need a source of energy; for the sounds of English and most Indian languages, the air-stream coming out of the lungs provides this energy.

Figure 1 shows the various organs of speech. The wind-pipe carrying the air-stream from the lungs is known as the **trachea**. At the top of the trachea is the **larynx**, which contains the **vocal cords**. The vocal cords can be brought together to close the air passage completely. This is what we do when we cough, for example; the air from the lungs is first held up and then suddenly released by separating the vocal cords. When we breathe out, the vocal cords are wide apart, the opening between them being called the **glottis**. If the vocal cords are held close together rather loosely, they vibrate when the air from the lungs passes between them. This vibration, that is, the closing and opening of the glottis at a fast rate, produces a musical note called **voice**. Speech sounds can be either **voiced** or **voiceless**. You can feel the difference by touching the neck near the larynx, while saying /s/ and /z/ alternately /sssszzzzssss/. (We shall use phonetic symbols to represent sounds and place them between oblique bars.)

The shape of the mouth cavity depends on the positions of the **tongue** and the **lips**.

The roof of the mouth is divided into three parts: the **teeth ridge** just behind the upper teeth, the **hard palate**, and the **soft palate**.

The soft palate can be lowered so that the air from the lungs can come out through the nose.

The lips can assume various positions.

The **tongue** can be said to have three sections—the part opposite the teeth ridge is called the **blade** and its end is called the **tip**. The part opposite the hard palate is called the **front** and that opposite the soft palate is called the **back**. Various parts of the tongue can be raised towards the roof of the mouth to produce different sounds.

1.3 A PHONETIC DESCRIPTION OF SPEECH SOUNDS

1.3.1 Vowels and Consonants

We can divide all speech sounds into two broad categories — vowels and consonants. When we produce a vowel sound, the air from the lungs comes out freely through the mouth and the vocal cords vibrate to produce voice. There is no closure of the air passage and no narrowing that would cause audible friction. All other sounds are called consonants.

1.3.2 Description of Vowels

The quality of a vowel depends on the shape of the mouth cavity, and that depends on the positions of the tongue and the lips. Vowels can therefore be described on the basis of tongue positions and lip positions.

- i) For most vowels either the front, or the back, or the centre of the tongue is raised to a certain height. Depending on which part of the tongue is the highest, we can classify vowels as **front vowels**, **back vowels**, and **central vowels**.

Examples

Front vowels: the vowels in the English words *sheep, ship, bed, bad*.

Back vowels: the vowels in the English words *calm, pot, caught, put, boot*.

Central vowels: the vowels in the English words *cut, bird* and *father* (second syllable).

- ii) Depending on the height to which the tongue is raised, we can classify vowels as **close** (that is, as near the roof of the mouth as possible), or **open** (that is, as low as possible), or as belonging to one of the two intermediate categories — **half-close** and **half-open**.

Examples

Close vowels: the vowels in the English words *sheep* and *boot*.

Open vowels: the vowels in the English words *calm* and *pot*.

- iii) The lips can assume various positions for the production of different vowels. They can be **spread** as for the vowel in the English word *keep*, **neutral** as for the vowel in *bed*, **open** as for the vowel in *calm*, **open rounded** as for the vowel in *pot*, or **close rounded** as for the vowel in *boot*.

1.3.3 Description of Consonants

When we describe a consonant, we have to indicate

- i) whether the sound is **voiced** or **voiceless**, that is, whether the vocal cords vibrate or not.
- Examples*
voiced: /b, d, g, v, z, m, n, l/
voiceless: /p, t, k, f, s, h/
- ii) whether the soft palate is raised or lowered, that is, whether the air-stream passes through the mouth only (as for **oral** sounds like /p, b, t, d, k, g, f, v, s, z, l/ or through the nose only (as for **nasal** sounds like /m, n/);
- iii) the place of articulation, that is, where in the mouth the closure or narrowing takes place; and
- iv) the manner of articulation, that is, the kind of closure or narrowing, and the nature of the sound produced.

Place of Articulation

We can classify consonants according to the place of articulation as follows:

Bilabial: the closure or narrowing is between the two lips, as for /p, b, m/.

Labio-dental: the narrowing is between the lower lip and the upper teeth, as for /f, v/.

Dental: the closure or narrowing is between the tip of the tongue and the upper teeth.

as in the English sounds /θ, ð/ at the beginning of the words *thing* and *then*.

Alveolar: the closure or narrowing is between the blade of the tongue and the teeth-ridge, as for /t,d,s,z,n,l/.

Palato-alveolar: the closure or narrowing is between the blade of the tongue and the teeth-ridge, with the front of the tongue also raised towards the hard palate, as for /tʃ,dʒ,ʃ/ at the beginning of the English words *cheer*, *jump* and *short*.

Velar: the closure or narrowing is between the back of the tongue and the soft palate, as for /k,g/.

Glottal: the narrowing is between the vocal cords, as for /h/.

Manner of Articulation

We can also classify consonants according to the manner of articulation as follows:

Plosive: There is a complete closure of the air passage. The air is held up and then released with an explosion, as in /p,b,t,d,k,g/.

Affricate: There is a complete closure of the air-passage and then the air is released slowly with friction, as for /tʃ, dʒ/ at the beginning of the English words *cheer* and *jump*.

Nasal: There is a complete closure of the air-passage in the mouth, but the soft palate is lowered to let the air come out through the nose. Examples: /m,n/.

Lateral: There is a closure in the middle but the air is free to come out along the sides, as for /l/.

Fricative: There is a narrow passage for the air to pass through; so there is audible friction, as for /f,v,s,z,h/.

1.4 THE USE OF PHONETIC SYMBOLS

We shall use the phonetic symbols suggested by the International Phonetic Association to represent the sounds of speech.

Check Your Progress

1 What is phonetics?

.....
.....

2 What is phonology?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

3 Give the names of the important organs of speech.

.....
.....
.....

4 What is the source of energy for most speech sounds?

.....

5 Distinguish between voiced and voiceless sounds, giving examples.

.....
.....

9 How will you describe the consonants in the following English words?

spoken

/s/

/p/

/k/

/n/

aimed

/m/

/d/

belief

/b/

/l/

/f/

10 Give examples from English of

i) a lateral consonant

.....

ii) a nasal consonant

.....

iii) a voiced alveolar plosive consonant

.....

iv) a voiceless velar plosive consonant

.....

v) a voiced labio-dental fricative consonant

.....

1.5 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have introduced you to the terms 'phonetics' and 'phonology', and shown you how we can give a phonetic description of speech sounds — vowels and consonants.

1.6 KEY WORDS

(The mark ' indicates that the following syllable is stressed.)

'affricate: a consonant sound consisting of a plosive followed by a fricative in the same part of the mouth. Example: /tʃ/ in *church*.

'alveolar: a consonant like /t/ and /d/ made by putting the tongue on or near the teeth-ridge.

bi'labial: a consonant produced with both lips. Examples: /p, b/.

'dental: a sound formed with the tip of the tongue against the upper front teeth. Example: /θ/ in *think*.

'fricative: a consonant made by forcing air out through a narrow opening. Examples: /f, v, s, z/.

'glottis: the space between the vocal cords.

'larynx: the hollow, box-like part at the upper end of the windpipe in which 'voice' is produced by the vocal cords.

'nasal: a speech sound made through the nose, e.g. /m/ and /n/.

'palate: the roof of the mouth.

'phoneme: the smallest distinctive unit in a language used to make a word different from another. Example : /p/ in *pet* and /b/ in *bet* represent different phonemes.

pho'netics: the science of speech sounds.

pho'nology: the system of speech sounds in a particular language.

pitch: the degree of highness or lowness of the musical note of the voice.

'plosive: a consonant sound made by stopping the air completely and then letting it out quickly out of the mouth. Example: /b/ in *bat*.

stress: the degree of force put on a part of the word making it seem stronger than other parts. Example: The second syllable has the stress in *phonetics*.

'syllable: a word or part of a word which contains a vowel sound or a consonant acting as a vowel. Example: The word *nasal* has two syllables.

tra'chea: windpipe

'velar: a sound made with the back of the tongue touching or coming near the soft palate. Examples: /k,g/.

voice: the musical note produced by the vibration of the vocal cords.

1.7 SOME USEFUL BOOKS

R.K. Bansal and J.B. Harrison: *Spoken English for India*, Second Edition, Orient Longman.

Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English. —

A.S. Hornby: *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, Third Edition, revised.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress

- 1 Phonetics is the study of the sounds of human speech.
- 2 Phonology is the study of the sound system of a particular language, that is, how the sounds are organized into distinctive units called phonemes, how the phonemes are combined into syllables, and how the features of length, stress and pitch are organized into patterns.
- 3 Lungs, trachea, larynx, vocal cords.
teeth, teeth-ridge, hard palate, soft palate, nasal cavity, tongue, lips.
- 4 The air-stream coming out of the lungs.
- 5 Sounds in the production of which the vocal cords vibrate and produce a musical note are called voiced sounds. Examples: all vowels, the consonants /b,d,g,v,z,m,n,l/.
Sounds in the production of which the vocal cords are held apart are voiceless sounds.

Examples: the consonants /p,t,k,f,s/.

- 6 In the production of vowel sounds the air from the lungs comes out in a continuous stream through the month, and the vocal cords vibrate to produce voice. There is no closure of the air-passage in the mouth, nor any narrowing that would cause audible friction. All other sounds are consonants.

Example: the word *sit* has a vowel sound in the middle, and two consonants, one in the beginning and one at the end.

- 7 i) According to the part of the tongue raised:
front vowels
back vowels
central vowels
- ii) According to the height to which the tongue is raised:
close
half-close

half-open
open

- iii) According to lip positions
lips spread
lips neutral
lips open
lips open rounded
lips close-rounded.

8 Oral sounds are produced with the soft palate raised to shut off the nasal passage.

Examples: /p, b, t, d, k, g, f, v, s, z, l/.

Nasal sounds are produced by closing the air-passage in the mouth and lowering the soft palate to let the air pass through the nose. Examples /m, n/.

- 9 /s/ voiceless, alveolar, fricative
/p/ voiceless, bilabial, plosive
/k/ voiceless, velar, plosive
/n/ voiced, alveolar, nasal
/m/ voiced, bilabial, nasal
/d/ voiced, alveolar, plosive
/b/ voiced, bilabial, plosive
/l/ voiced, alveolar, lateral
/f/ voiced, labio-dental, fricative.

10. i) /l/ in *lamp*, ii) /m/ in *map* iii) /d/ in *day*, iv) /k/ in *cat*, v) /v/ in *very*.

Structure

- 2.0 Objectives
Cassette Recording
- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 The English Vowels
- 2.3 Vowels in British Received Pronunciation
 - 2.3.1 Pure Vowels
 - The Front Vowels
 - The Back Vowels
 - The Central Vowels
 - 2.3.2 Acceptable Indian Variants
- 2.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 2.5 Key Words
- 2.6 Some Useful Books.
Answers

2.0 OBJECTIVES

In this unit we shall begin our study of English phonology and take up the vowel system first. We shall describe the 12 pure vowels of British Received Pronunciation and illustrate their use. After completing this unit you should be able to

- distinguish between the different pure vowel sounds in English, and
- find out from the dictionary which vowel sounds are to be used in particular words.

Cassette Recording

An audio cassette recording based on Units 2-3 is available at the study centres of the university.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 1 we gave you a brief introduction to **phonetics**. We shall now introduce you to **phonology**, by which we mean the sound system of a language. Every language has a number of distinctive sound units called **phonemes**, and it is possible to discover them by finding *minimal pairs*, that is, pairs of words having different meanings and differing in only one sound. We can say that the phonemes are the smallest units in a language that can bring about a difference in meaning. For example, a set of English words like *pen, ten, den, hen, men, wren, when* gives us a list of seven distinctive consonant phonemes /p,t,d,h,m,r,w/.

One or more phonemes form a **syllable**. Every syllable has a nucleus, that is, a sound more prominent than the rest, which is usually a vowel or a consonant used like a vowel. Every language has its own patterns of syllable structure. An English syllable has a vowel or a 'syllabic' consonant as the nucleus, and it may have one or more consonants before and after the nucleus. For example, the word *street* /stri:t/ has the structure CCCVC, where V and C represent vowel and consonant elements. In the word *cotton* /k ɒn/, we have two syllables with the structure CV.CV. (indicates syllable division. V in the second syllable here is represented by the syllabic consonant /n/. The mark / / indicates that the following syllable is stressed.)

Besides phonemes and syllable structure, we also study what are called **prosodic features**, which include **length, stress, and pitch**.

2.2 THE ENGLISH VOWELS

In the matter of vowels there are two slightly different systems used in the English-speaking world. In some varieties of English the consonant sound /r/ is used only before

vowel sounds. (We shall use phonetic symbols to represent sounds and put them within slanting lines / / to indicate that they represent the *sounds* of the language and not the letters of the alphabet.) In this category we have what is called the **Received Pronunciation** of England, that is, the kind of pronunciation that is well received or accepted as the standard in England. It is the form of speech generally used by educated people in the south of England. We shall use the abbreviation R.P. to refer to this kind of pronunciation.

Examples

The sound /r/ does not occur in the pronunciation of the following words in R.P.: *arm, born, force, serve, modern.*

There are other varieties of spoken English in which the sound /r/ occurs in all positions, that is, before vowel sounds, before consonant sounds, and finally. Most varieties of American and Indian English fall in this category. As a result of this pattern of the occurrence of /r/, these varieties can manage with fewer vowel sounds than R.P.

Example

shot and *short* are distinguished by using two different vowel sounds in R.P., because /r/ does not occur in *short*. In /r/-pronouncing varieties the same vowel can be used in both words and the distinction is made by the presence of /r/ in *short*.

2.3 VOWELS IN BRITISH RECEIVED PRONUNCIATION

English, according to British R.P., operates on a system of 20 distinctive units or phonemes. We can divide them into two broad categories — **pure vowels**, that is, vowels which do not change in quality even when they are made long, and **diphthongs**, that is, vowels in the production of which there is a glide from one quality to another within the same syllable.

A list of these 20 vowel phonemes is given below. For each vowel phoneme we shall give a phonetic symbol and place it within oblique bars. Among pure vowels, some are relatively long, and the symbols for them have the mark /:/ to indicate length.

The symbols for diphthongs consist of two letters each, one to indicate the vowel quality at the beginning and the other the vowel quality towards which the glide takes place.

The symbols used for English (R.P.) vowel phonemes vary from one book to another. In this course we shall use the symbols adopted by two famous dictionaries that we have recommended for reference. These are:

- 1 *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*
- 2 A.S. Hornby: *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, 3rd edition (revised).

Pure Vowels

S. No.	Symbol	Key Word	Key Word in Phonetic Transcription
1	/i:/	seat	/si:t/
2	/ɪ/	sit	/sɪt/
3	/e/	set	/seɪ/
4	/æ/	sat	/sæt/
5	/ɑ:/	cart	/kɑ:t/
6	/ɒ/	cot	/kɒt/
7	/ɔ:/	caught, court	/kɔ:t/
8	/ʊ/	full	/fʊl/
9	/u:/	fool	/fu:l/
10	/ʌ/	cup	/kʌp/
11	/ɜ:/	bird	/bɜ:d/
12	/ə/	ago	/ə'gəʊ/
13	/eɪ/	play	/pleɪ/
14	/eʊ/	go	/gəʊ/
15	/aɪ/	buy	/baɪ/
16	/aʊ/	cow	/kaʊ/
17	/ɔɪ/	boy	/bɔɪ/

18	/ɪə /	here	/hɪə/
19	/eə /	care	/keə/
20	/ʊə /	poor	/puə/

2.3.1 Pure Vowels

Let's take up the 'pure' vowels first. We shall divide them into three groups — front vowels, back vowels, and central vowels.

The Front Vowels

The four front vowels in English, according to R.P., are /i:/ as in *seat*, /ɪ/ as in *sit*, /e/ as in *set* and /æ/ as in *sat*.

/i:/ as in *seat*

This vowel can be described as a front, close vowel produced with spread lips. It can occur at the beginning of a word, in the middle, and at the end.

Examples:

eat	/i:t/	}	Word-initial /i:/
each	/i:tʃ/		
seed	/si:d/	}	Word-medial /i:/
seat	/si:t/		
see	/bi:/	}	Word-final /i:/
sea	/ti:/		

This vowel is represented by various spellings in English.

Examples:

complete, green, beat, chief, seize, machine, key, and people.

/ɪ/ as in *sit*

This is a front vowel between close and half-close. It can occur word-initially and medially, but in the final position it can occur only in an unstressed syllable.

Examples

inn	/ɪn/	}	Word-initial /ɪ/
if	/ɪf/		
bid	/bɪd/	}	Word-medial /ɪ/
bit	/bɪt/		
city	/ˈpɪtɪ/	}	Word-final /ɪ/
city	/ˈsɪtɪ/		

In British R.P. it is a very common vowel in unstressed syllables.

Examples

stressed: rich, 'system, 'busy, 'build, be'gin, 'city, 'village, 'parties, unstressed 'minute, 'coffee, 'money, 'carriage, 'captain, 'useless, 'wanted, 'James's 'foreign.

/e/ as in *set*

This is a front vowel between half-close and half-open. It does not occur in the final position.

Examples

egg	/eg/	}	Word-initial /e/
ny	/ˈenɪ/		
men	/men/	}	Word-medial /e/
ten	/ten/		

This vowel can be represented by various spellings:

e.g., set, head, 'any, 'bury, friend, 'leisure, said.

/æ/ as in sat

This is a front vowel between open and half-open. It does not occur in the final position.

Examples

ant	/ænt/	}	Word-initial /æ/
ass	/æs/		
cat	/kæt/	}	Word-medial /æ/
bat	/bæt/		

It is very important to make a distinction, in your speech, between these four vowels. Apart from the differences in quality, notice that /i:/ is relatively long compared to /i/. There are a number of words, in which if we replace /i:/ by /i/ and keep the other sounds the same, the meaning of the word changes completely. Similarly, if we replace /i/ by /e/, or /e/ by /æ/ in certain words, the meaning of the word changes. Some examples are given below.

beat /bi:t/ and bit /bit/	}	The replacement of /i:/ by /i/ changes the meanings of words.
bean /bi:n/ and bin /bɪn/		
deed /di:d/ and did /dɪd/		
ease /i:z/ and is and /ɪz/	}	The replacement of /i/ by /e/ changes the meanings of the words.
bit /bɪt/ and bet /bet/		
bid /bɪd/ and bed /bed/		
did /dɪd/ and dead /ded/	}	The replacement of /e/ by /æ/ changes the meanings of the words.
sit /sɪt/ and set /set/		
bed /bed/ and bad /bæd/		
pen /pen/ and pan /pæn/	}	
ten /ten/ and tan /tæn/		
said /sed/ and sad /sæd/		

In fact there are sets of four words each, which are different only in one vowel sound. Take the word *deed*, for example; if we replace the vowel in this word by the short vowel /i/ and keep the other sounds the same, we get the word *did*. Similarly, if we replace /i/ by /e/ we get the new word *dead*. If we replace /e/ by /æ/ we get yet another new word *dad*. A few such sets of words are given below.

Table 1
Words contrasting the four front vowels
/i:/, /i/, /e/, and /æ/.

S. No.	/i:/	/i/	/e/	/æ/
1	seat /si:t/	sit /sɪt/	set /set/	sat /sæt/
2	bead /bi:d/	bid /bɪd/	bed /bed/	bad /bæd/
3	neat /ni:t/	knit /nɪt/	net /net/	gnat /næt/

The Back Vowels

The back vowels in English (R.P.) are /ɑ:/, /ɒ/, /ɔ:/, /ʊ/, and /u:/.

/ɑ:/ as in cart

This is a long back vowel produced with the mouth wide open.

Examples

ask /ɑ:sk/	}	Word-initial /ɑ:/
aunt /ɑ:nt/		
past /pɑ:st/	}	Word-medial /ɑ:/
fast /fɑ:st/		
car /kɑ:/	}	Word-final /ɑ:/
bar /bɑ:/		

(In R.P. /ɪ/ does not occur in the final position except when a word beginning with a vowel follows immediately.)

This vowel can be represented by various spellings, e.g., *hard, ask, catm, laugh, clerk, heart.*

/ɒ/ as in *cot*

This back vowel is almost open and is produced with the lips slightly rounded. It does not occur in the final position.

Examples

<i>odd</i> /ɒ d/	}	Word-initial /ɒ/
<i>on</i> /ɒ n/		
<i>not</i> /n ɒ t/	}	Word-medial /ɒ/
<i>cot</i> /k ɒ t/		

This vowel can be represented by various spellings, e.g. *dog, want, cough, 'knowledge.*

/ɔ / as in *caught, horse, court*

This is a back half-open vowel and the lips are rounded.

Examples:

<i>ought</i> /ɔ:t/	}	Word-initial /ɔ:/
<i>order</i> /ɔ:də/		
<i>caught</i> /kɔ:t/	}	Word-medial /ɔ:/
<i>taught</i> /tɔ:t/		
<i>saw</i> /sɔ:/	}	Word-final /ɔ:/
<i>law</i> /lɔ:/		

This vowel can be represented by various spellings, e.g., *all, horse, court, more, bought, door, law, cause, talk, warm, board, caught, broad.*

/ʊ/ as in *full*

This back vowel is between half-close and close, and is produced with the lips rounded. It does not occur in the initial position. In the final position it occurs only in the weak form of *to*.

Examples

<i>put</i> /pʊt/	}	Word-medial /ʊ/
<i>book</i> /bʊk/		

This vowel can be represented by various spellings, e.g., *good, woman, bush.*

/u:/ as in *fool*

This is a long back, close vowel and is produced with the lips rounded.

Examples:

<i>ooze</i> /u:z/	:	Word-initial /u:/
<i>boon</i> /bu:n/	}	Word-medial /u:/
<i>moon</i> /mu:n/		
<i>two</i> /tu:/	}	Word-final /u:/
<i>shoe</i> /ʃu:/		

This vowel can be represented by various spellings e.g., *rude, food, move, group, fruit, shoe, two.*

Look at the following tables in which words contrasting the vowels /ɑ:/ /ɒ/, /ɔ:/, and the vowels /ʊ/ and /u:/ are given.

Table 2
Words contrasting the back vowels
/ɑ:/, /ɒ/, and /ɔ:/

S. No.	/ɑ:/	/ɒ/	/ɔ:/
1	cart /kɑ:t/	cot /kɒt/	court/caught /kɔ:t/
2	card /kɑ:d/	cod /kɒd/	cord /kɔ:d/
3	part /pɑ:t/	pot /pɒt/	port /pɔ:t/

Table 3
Words contrasting the back vowels
/u/ and /u:/

S. No.	/u/	/u:/
1	pull /pu/	pool /pu:l/
2	full /fu/	fool /fu:l/
3	hood /hud/	who'd /hu:d/

The Central Vowels

The central vowels in English (R.P.) are /ʌ/, /ɜ:/, and /ə/.

/ʌ/ as in *cup*

This is a central vowel, between open and half-open. It does not occur in the final position.

Examples

up /ʌp/	} Word-initial /ʌ/
uncle /ʌŋkl/	
cut /kʌt/	} Word-medial /ʌ/
cup /kʌp/	

This vowel can be represented by various spellings, e.g., *cup, come, country, blood, does.*

/ɜ:/ as in *bird*

This is a central vowel between half-close and half-open and occurs only in stressed syllables.

Examples

earn /ɜ:ln/	} Word-initial /ɜ: /
early /ɜ:n/	
learn /lɜ:n/	} Word-medial /ɜ: /
bird /bɜ:d/	
fur /fɜ:/	} Word-final /ɜ: /
cur /kɜ:/	

This vowel can be represented by various spellings, e.g., *serve, bird, burn, word, 'early, 'journey.*

/ə/ as in the first syllable of the word *a'go*

This is a central vowel between half-close and half-open. In R.P. it *never* occurs in a

stressed syllable, but is the most frequently occurring vowel in unstressed syllables. A few examples of words in which /ə/ occurs are given below:

ago	/ə'gəʊ/	} Word-initial /ə/
above	/ə'bi:ʌv/	
purpose	/'pɜ:psəs/	} Word-medial /ə/
command	/'kə'mɑ:nd/	
father	/'fɑ:ðə/	} Word-final /ə/
clever	/'kleɪvə/	

This vowel can be represented by various spellings, e.g., 'human, 'backward, 'problem, 'liberty, 'terrible, con'dition, 'effort, 'famous, suc'ceed, sur'prise, 'drama, 'father, 'actor, 'colour, 'thorough, 'nature, 'centre.

Check Your Progress 1

1 Write down the phonetic symbol for the vowel sound represented by the underlined letter(s) in each of the following words (according to British R.P.). Use your dictionary, if you like.

For example:
re'late - /ɪ/

Check your answers with those given by us at the end of the unit. Then say each word correctly. You can also listen to these words on the cassette.

- i) took
- ii) fool
- iii) com'pare
- iv) po'lice
- v) re'member
- vi) goose
- vii) 'cucumber
- viii) 'colour
- ix) 'comrade
- x) ,recog'nition
- xi) 'common
- xii) bought
- xiii) taught
- xiv) ,oppo'rtunity
- xv) 'orange
- xvi) ,perpen'dicular
- xvii) 'music
- xviii) com'pete
- xix) 'rather
- xx) 'party

2 The following pairs of words are distinguished by the vowel sounds in them. Write down the symbols for the vowels that bring about the distinction. Check your answers

with those given by us at the end of the unit. After you have checked your answers, say each pair of words, making a clear distinction between the vowel sounds. You can also listen to the words on the cassette.

- i) (a) heal (b) hill
- ii) (a) lift (b) left
- iii) (a) said (b) sad
- iv) (a) cap (b) cup
- v) (a) cut (b) cart
- vi) (a) bus (b) boss
- vii) (a) heart (b) hot
- viii) (a) pot (b) port

2.3.2 Acceptable Indian Variants

1 The vowels /ɔ:/ and /ɜ:/ do not exist in most varieties of Indian English. Nor are /ʌ/ and /ə/ kept distinct. As a result:

i) The distinction between words like *cot* /kɒt/ and *caught* /kɔ:t/ is not maintained, the same vowel /ɒ/ being used in both. It is suggested that, in words like *caught*, a longer variety of /ɒ/ may be used to distinguish them from words like *cot*.

	R.P.	Suggested Indian Variants
<i>cot</i>	/kɒt/	/kɒt/
<i>caught</i>	/kɔ:t/	/kɒ:t/

ii) The distinction between words like *shot* /ʃɒt/ and *short* /ʃɔ:t/, is made not by using two different vowels, but by using /ɒ/ in both and retaining the /r/ sound in words like *short*.

	R.P.	Acceptable Indian Variants
<i>shot</i>	/ʃɒt/	/ʃɒt/
<i>short</i>	/ʃɔ:t/	/ʃɒrt/

This is a quite acceptable so long as /r/ is retained in words like *short*.

iii) In words like *court* and *force*, where R.P. has /ɔ:/, most Indian speakers use the vowel /ɔ/ (the one they use in words like *coat*) with /r/ after it. This is quite acceptable.

	R.P.	Acceptable Indian Variants
<i>court</i>	/kɔ:t/	/kɔ:rt/
<i>force</i>	/fɔ:s/	/fɔ:rs/

iv) The same vowel is used for both /ʌ/ and /ə/. This does not matter so long as the correct stress pattern is maintained.

v) The distinction between words like *shut* /ʃʌt/ and *shirt* /ʃɜ:t/ is made not by using two different vowels but by using /ə/ in both and retaining the /r/ sound in words like *shirt*.

	R.P.	Acceptable Indian Variant
<i>shut</i>	/ʃʌt/	/ʃət/
<i>shirt</i>	/ʃɜ:t/	/ʃərt/

This is quite acceptable so long as /r/ is retained in words like *shirt*.

Check Your Progress 2

1 Listen to the following sentences on the cassette and then say them with the correct vowel sounds. The stressed syllables have been marked for you.

- 1 He 'couldn't prove it.
- 2 He 'acted very 'well.
- 3 'Are you the 'captain?
- 4 It's 'not 'worth the 'trouble.
- 5 His 'honesty has been re'warded.
- 6 'What 'courses are you 'studying?
- 7 Can you 'come at 'half past 'seven?

- 8 It's been a 'busy 'week for me.
 9 Did she 'marry the 'man she 'loved?
 10 I'm 'sorry I 'can't ac'cept your sug'gestions.
- 2 Listen to the following dialogue on the cassette and then read it aloud with the correct vowel sounds. The stressed syllables have been marked and some sentences have been divided into groups.

A: Can I 'speak to Mister 'Gopu, 'please?

B: I 'think he 'isn't 'in. I'll 'check.

'Hang on a 'minute, 'please

(After a few seconds)

B: He's 'gone 'out/and will be 'back at 'four in the after'noon.

A: Can you 'take a 'message, 'please?

B: 'Certainly. 'What a 'second/till I 'get some 'paper and 'pencil. 'Yes. 'Who's 'calling / and 'what's the 'message?

A: My 'name's Ra'mesh, Ra'mesh 'Chandran, from 'K.G.'F.

B: 'Yes?

A: 'Actually he 'asked me to 'call him this after'noon. In con'nection with an 'interview.

B: 'Oh! 'Why didn't you 'tell me be'fore? 'I have a 'message for 'you.

A: What 'is it?

B: The 'interview's at 'half past 'four to'day. And 'please bring 'all your cer'tificates with you.

A: 'Thank you.

B: You're 'most 'welcome.

2.4 LET US SUM UP

Phonology is a study of the sound system of a language. It includes a study of (i) the distinctive sound units called phonemes, (ii) the way phonemes combine in syllables, and (iii) prosodic features like length, stress, and pitch.

English, according to British Received Pronunciation, has 20 vowel phonemes — 12 pure vowels and 8 diphthongs. There are acceptable Indian variants for the pure vowels, /ɔ:, ʌ, ɜ:/.

2.5 KEY WORDS

'back vowel: a vowel produced by raising the back of the tongue; e.g., the vowel in *too*.

'diphthong: a vowel sound in which there is a glide from one vowel quality to another within the same syllable; e.g., the vowel in *my*.

'front 'vowel: a vowel produced by raising the front of the tongue; e.g. the vowel in *see*.

Re'ceived Pronunciation: the generally accepted standard of pronunciation.

'vowel: a speech sound in which (i) the air from the lungs comes out without any stoppage, (ii) there is no narrowing of the air-passage to cause audible friction. and (iii) the vocal cords vibrate to produce voice.

2.6 SOME USEFUL BOOKS

Balasubramanian, T. (1981, 1987). *A Textbook of English Phonetics for Indian Students*, Macmillan India Limited.

Bansal, R.K. and J.B. Harrison (1983). *Spoken English for India*, Orient Longman (Second Edition).

CIEFL. *Exercises in Spoken English: Part 3: Vowels*, Oxford University Press, 1981.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

- 1
- i) /ʊ/
 - ii) /u:/
 - iii) /ə/
 - iv) /ə/, /i:/
 - v) /ɪ/, /e/, /ə/
 - vi) /u:/
 - vii) /u:/, /ʌ/, /ə/
 - viii) /ʌ/, /ə/
 - ix) /ɒ/
 - x) /e/, /ə/, /ɪ/
 - xi) /ɒ/, /ə/
 - xii) /ɔ:/
 - xiii) /ɔ:/
 - xiv) /ɒ/, /ə/, /u:/, /ɪ//ɪ/
 - xv) /ɒ/, /ɪ/
 - xvi) /ɜ:/, /ə/, /ɪ/, /ʊ/, /ə/
 - xvii) /u:/, /ɪ/
 - xviii) /ə/, /i:/
 - xix) /ɑ:/, /ə/
 - xx) /ɑ:/, /ɪ/

- 2
- i) a) /i:/ b) /ɪ/
 - ii) a) /ɪ/ b) /e/
 - iii) a) /e/ b) /æ/
 - iv) a) /æ/ b) /ʌ/
 - v) a) /ʌ/ b) /ɑ:/
 - vi) a) /ʌ/ b) /ɒ/
 - vii) a) /ɑ:/ b) /ɒ/
 - viii) a) /ɒ/ b) /ɔ:/

UNIT 3 ENGLISH VOWELS -2

Structure

- 3.0 Objectives
Cassette Recording
- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 The English Diphthongs
 - 3.2.1 Closing Diphthongs
 - 3.2.2 Centring Diphthongs
- 3.3 Let Us Sum Up
- 3.4 Some Useful Books
- Answers

3.0 OBJECTIVES

In this unit we shall give you some information about the diphthongs that occur in English (Received Pronunciation). Once you go through this unit carefully, you should be able to

- distinguish between the different diphthongs, and
- find out from the dictionary which diphthongs are used in particular words.

Cassette Recording

An audio cassette recording based on Units 2-3 is available at the Study Centres of the University.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

As already pointed out in Unit 2, diphthongs are vowel glides within the same syllable. British Received Pronunciation has 8 distinct diphthongs, but most varieties of Indian English have not more than 6.

3.2 THE ENGLISH DIPHTHONGS

The 8 diphthongs in British R.P. are:

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

Of these the first five are called **closing** diphthongs because the glide is towards a closer vowel. The last three are called **centring** diphthongs, because the glide in them is towards a central vowel.

3.2.1 Closing Diphthongs

/eɪ/ as in *play*

Examples

<i>aim</i>	/eɪm/	}	Word-initial /eɪ/
<i>eight</i>	/eɪt/		
<i>played</i>	/pleɪd/	}	Word-medial /eɪ/
<i>plate</i>	/pleɪt/		
<i>say</i>	/seɪ/	}	Word-final /eɪ/
<i>way</i>	/weɪ/		

This diphthong can be represented by various spellings : e.g., *age, day, pain, they, break*. Most people in India use a pure vowel ɛ instead of the diphthong /eɪ/. This is quite acceptable so long as ɛ is made long enough and is clearly distinguished from /e/ as in *get*.

/e/ as in get and /eɪ/ (or long ɛ) as in gate

Examples

/e/	/eɪ/
bell	bail, bale
cell, sell	sale
debt	date
fell	fail
men	main

/əʊ / as in go

Examples

<i>oats</i>	/əʊts /	}	Word-initial / əʊ /
<i>own</i>	/əʊn /		
<i>boat</i>	/bəʊt /	}	Word-medial / əʊ /
<i>foam</i>	/fəʊm /		
<i>go</i>	/gəʊ /	}	Word-final / əʊ /
<i>so</i>	/səʊ /		

This diphthong can be represented by various spellings; e.g. *home, blow, boat, though.*

Most speakers in India use a long pure vowel /o:/ instead of the diphthong /əʊ /. This is quite acceptable.

/aɪ/ as in buy

Examples

<i>ice</i>	/aɪs/	}	Word-initial /aɪ/
<i>eyes</i>	/aɪz/		
<i>bite</i>	/baɪt/	}	Word-medial /aɪ/
<i>side</i>	/saɪd/		
<i>buy</i>	/baɪ/	}	Word-final /aɪ/
<i>cry</i>	/kraɪ/		

This diphthong can be represented by various spellings; e.g., *bite, type, die, high, height, eye, buy.*

/aʊ/ as in cow

Examples

<i>owl</i>	/aʊl/	}	Word-initial /aʊ/
<i>out</i>	/aʊt/		
<i>crowd</i>	/kraʊd/	}	Word-medial /aʊ/
<i>noun</i>	/naʊn/		
<i>cow</i>	/kaʊ/	}	Word-final /aʊ/
<i>now</i>	/naʊ/		

This diphthong can be represented by the spellings *ou* (as in *house*) and *ow* (as in *cow*).

/ɔɪ / as in boy

Examples

<i>oil</i>	/ɔɪl/	}	Word-initial / ɔɪ /
<i>ointment</i>	/ɔɪntmənt/		
<i>boil</i>	/bɔɪl/	}	Word-medial / ɔɪ /
<i>soil</i>	/sɔɪl/		
<i>boy</i>	/bɔɪ/	}	Word-final / ɔɪ /
<i>joy</i>	/dʒɔɪ/		

The usual spellings for this diphthong are *oi* (as in *boil*) and *oy* (as in *boy*).

3.2.2 Centring Diphthongs

/ɪə/ as in *here*

Examples

<i>ear</i>	/ɪə/	} Word-initial /ɪə/
<i>erie</i>	/'ɪəri/	
(causing fear because strange)		
<i>fierce</i>	/fɪəs/	} Word-medial /ɪə/
<i>merely</i>	/'mɪəli/	
<i>dear/deer</i>	/dɪə/	} Word-final /ɪə/
<i>near</i>	/nɪə/	

This diphthong can be represented by various spellings; e.g. *deer*, *dear*, *here*, *fierce*. In words like *period*, *serious*, *zero*, R.P. has /ɪə/ in the first syllable, but most Indian speakers use /i:/ instead. This is quite acceptable.

/eə/ as in *care*

Examples

<i>aerial</i>	/'eəriəl/	} Word-initial /eə/
<i>air</i>	/eə/	
<i>careful</i>	/'keəfəl/	} Word-medial /eə/
<i>daring</i>	/'deəriŋ/	
<i>care</i>	/keə/	} Word-final /eə/
<i>dare</i>	/deə/	

This diphthong can be represented by various spellings; e.g., *air*, *care*, *bear*, *their*.

In words like *'aerial*, *'area*, *'parents*, *'various*, R.P. has the diphthong /eə/ in the first syllable, but most Indian speakers use their *ɜ* instead. This is quite acceptable.

/ʊə/ as in *poor*

Examples

<i>during</i>	/'dʒuəriŋ/	} Word-medial /ʊə/
<i>tourist</i>	/'tuəri:st/	
<i>poor</i>	/puə/	} Word-final /ʊə/
<i>tour</i>	/tuə/	

The diphthong /ʊə/ does *not* occur in the word-initial position. It can be represented by various spellings; e.g., *poor*, *sure*, *tour*.

In words like *during* and *tour* R.P. has the diphthong /ʊə/, but most Indian speakers use the pure vowel /u:/. This is quite acceptable so long as /r/ is pronounced after it.

Check Your Progress

1 Write down the phonetic symbol for the diphthong represented by the italicized letter(s) in the following words according to British R.P. You may, if you wish, consult your dictionary.

Example

re'*l*ate /eɪ/

Check your answers with those given by us at the end of this unit, *after* you have completed the exercise on your own. They say each word correctly: Check your pronunciation with the recorded cassette.

- 1) em'*p*loy
- 2) *f*ierce
- 3) a'*l*go
- 4) '*a*ncient
- 5) *b*eard
- 6) '*d*aring
- 7) '*c*alculate

- 8) 'elongate
- 9) 'furious
- 10) 'serious
- 11) 'tour
- 12) 'fight
- 13) en'joy
- 14) ci'tation
- 15) 'noble
- 16) 'mobile
- 17) 'fowl
- 18) 'foal
- 19) pre'pare
- 20) 'real

2 Listen to the following sentences on the audio cassette and then say each one of them with the correct vowel sounds. The stressed syllables have been marked for you. Some of the sentences have been divided into groups.

- 1) He 'plays a 'game of 'tennis every 'day.
- 2) She's in a 'sorry 'plight, I'm afraid.
- 3) The 'seven 'tourists from 'Yemen/have 'just ar'rived.
- 4) 'Mary's 'always 'late.
- 5) An 'apple a 'day/'keeps the 'doctor a'way.
- 6) I en'joy 'all types of 'music.
- 7) Is 'father at 'home?
- 8) 'No,/he's gone 'out, I'm afraid.
- 9) The 'lion is a 'very 'fierce 'animal.
- 10) 'Everywhere that 'Mary 'went,/the 'lamb was 'sure to 'go.

3 Listen to the following dialogue on the audio cassette and then say the dialogue with the correct vowel sounds. As in the case of the sentences given above, the stressed syllables have been marked.

- Daddy : Can you 'come here a 'minute, Mary?
 Mary : 'Yes, 'dad.
 Daddy : I 'want you to 'go to the 'post-office.
 Mary : 'Straighta'way, 'dad. But 'what do you 'want me to 'do there?
 Daddy : 'Post a 'letter
 Mary : 'Certainly, 'dad.
 Daddy : 'Not so 'fast, my 'dear 'girl. 'Listen 'carefully.
 Mary : 'Quickly, 'dad. I've 'lots of 'home-work to 'do.
 Daddy : There's 'plenty of 'time I'm 'sure. 'Get a 'sixty paise 'stamp, 'affix it to this 'envelope and 'post it. Run a'long now.
 Mary : But you 'haven't given me any 'money. 'Nor the 'envelope.
 Daddy : 'Here they 'are. 'Hurry, for the 'next 'clearance is in 'five 'minutes from 'now.
 (After a few minutes)
 Mary : 'Daddy,/the 'postman was 'just 'clearing the 'mail. I 'gave your 'letter to 'him.
 Daddy : 'There's a 'clever 'girl.

3.3 LET US SUM UP

There are eight diphthongs in English (R.P.). Five of them are closing diphthongs and the other three are centring diphthongs.

3.4 SOME USEFUL BOOKS

- 1 Balasubramanian, T (1981, 1987). *A Textbook of English Phonetics for Indian Students*, Macmillan India Limited.
- 2 Bansal, R.K. and J.B. Harrison (1983). *Spoken English for India*. Orient Longman (Second edition)
- 3 CIEFL: *Exercises in Spoken English: Part 3 : Vowels*. Oxford University Press, 1981.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress

- 1 / ɔɪ /
- 2 / iə /
- 3 / əʊ /
- 4 /eɪ/
- 5 / iə /
- 6 / eə /
- 7 /eɪ/
- 8 /eɪ/
- 9 / ʊə /, / iə /
- 10 / iə /, / iə /
- 11 / ʊə /
- 12 /aɪ/
- 13 / ɔɪ /
- 14 /aɪ/, /eɪ/
- 15 / əʊ /
- 16 / əʊ /, /aɪ/
- 17 /aʊ/
- 18 / əʊ /
- 19 /eə/
- 20 /iə/

UNIT 4 ENGLISH CONSONANTS -1

Structure

- 4.0 Objectives
 - Cassette Recording
- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 The English Consonants
 - 4.2.1 The Plosives
 - 4.2.2 The Affricates
 - 4.2.3 The Fricatives
- 4.3 Some Important Contrasts
- 4.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 4.5 Key Words
- 4.6 Some Useful Books
- Answers

4.0 OBJECTIVES

In this unit and the next we shall give you some information about the consonants that occur in English and the phonetic symbols used to represent these consonants in dictionaries. When you have gone through this unit carefully, you should be able to

- distinguish between the different consonants discussed in this unit, and
- use a dictionary to find out which consonants are used in particular words.

Cassette Recording

An audio cassette recording accompanies this unit and is available at the Study Centres of the University.

4.1 INTRODUCTION

We have already said that consonants differ from vowels

- i) **phonetically**; in the production of consonants there is either a closure of the air-passage or a narrowing that would cause audible friction. (Section 1.3.1)
- ii) **phonologically**; the consonants take the marginal positions in syllable structure. (Section 2.1)

4.2 THE ENGLISH CONSONANTS

English, according to British Received Pronunciation, has a system of 24 consonant phonemes. These are:

Phonetic Symbol	Key Word
1 /p/	pen
2 /b/	back
3 /t/	tea
4 /d/	day
5 /k/	key
6 /g/	gate
7 /tʃ/	chair
8 /dʒ/	jump
9 /f/	fat
10 /v/	van
11 /θ/	think
12 /ð/	there
13 /s/	sit

14	/z/	'zero
15	/ʃ/	'ship
16	/ʒ/	'measure
17	/h/	'hot
18	/m/	'map
19	/n/	'neat
20	/ŋ/	'sing
21	/l/	'let
22	/r/	'red
23	/j/	'yes
24	/w/	'wet

We can divide these consonants into phonetic categories on the basis of

- i) **voiceless/voiced distinction**
 - Voiceless : /p,t,k,tʃ,f,θ,sʃ,h/ - 9
 - Voiced : /b,d,g,dʒ,v,ð,z,ʒ,m,n,ŋ,l,r,j,w/ - 15
- ii) **place of articulation**
 - Bilabial : /p,b,m,w/ - 4
 - Labio-dental : /f,v/ - 2
 - Dental : /θ,ð/ - 2
 - Alveolar : /t,d,s,z,n,l/ - 6
 - Post-alveolar : /r/ - 1
 - Palato-alveolar : /tʃ,dʒ,ʃ,ʒ/ - 4
 - Palatal : /j/ - 1
 - Velar : /k,g,ŋ/ - 3
 - Glottal : /h/ - 1
- iii) **manner of articulation**
 - Plosive : /p,b,t,d,k,g/ - 6
 - Affricate : /tʃ,dʒ/ - 2
 - Fricative : /f,v,θ,ð,s,z,ʃ,ʒ,h/ - 9
 - Nasal : /m,n,ŋ/ - 3
 - Lateral : /l/ - 1
 - Frictionless continuant : /r/ - 1
 - Semi-Vowel : /j,w/ - 2

A chart showing the phonetic classification of English consonants is given below:

Table 1
Classification of English Consonants

Place →	Bilabial		Labio-dental		Dental		Alveolar		Post-alveolar	Palato-alveolar		Palatal	Velar		Glottal	
	Voiceless	Voiced	v.l.	vd	v.l.	vd	v.l.	vd	vd	v.l.	vd	vd	v.l.	vd	v.l.	
Plosive	p	b					t	d						k	g	
Affricate										tʃ	dʒ					
Fricative			f	v	θ	ð	s	z		ʃ	ʒ					h
Nasal		m						n						ŋ		
Lateral							l									
Frictionless Continuant									r							
Semi-Vowel		w										j		(w)		

/w/ can be described as labio-velar (that is, bilabial + velar)

4.2.1 The Plosives

The consonants /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/ and /g/ are called plosives, because during their articulation the nasal passage is closed and the oral passage is also closed by either the two lips touching each other firmly or by some part of the tongue touching some part of the roof of the mouth firmly. When the oral blockage is removed suddenly, the lung-air escapes through the mouth with a slight explosive noise.

The six plosives form three pairs on the basis of place of articulation. /p,b/ are bilabial, /t,d/ are alveolar, and /k,g/ are velar. Within each pair, the first consonant is voiceless and the second is voiced.

Bilabial Plosives /p,b/

'p/ as in *pen*

Examples

<i>pin</i>	/pɪn/	}	Word-initial /p/
<i>pretend</i>	/prɪ'tend/		
<i>positive</i>	/'pɒzɪtɪv/		
<i>spoon</i>	/spu:n/	}	Word-medial /p/
<i>repair</i>	/rɪ'peə/		
<i>upper</i>	/'ʌpə/		
<i>cup</i>	/kʌp/	}	Word-final /p/
<i>map</i>	/mæp/		
<i>soap</i>	/səʊp/		

The usual spelling for /p/ is *p*. In words like *cupboard* /'kʌbəd/ and *receipt* /rɪ'sɪ:t/ *p* is silent.

At the beginning of stressed syllables /p/ is pronounced with extra breath force and sounds like [ph]. (A symbol that represents a particular variety of a phoneme is put between square brackets.)

Examples: *pen*, *ap'pear*.

This feature is called **aspiration**.

Most Indian speakers do not aspirate /p/ even at the beginning of stressed syllables. The result is that it sounds like /b/ to native speakers of English, that is, those for whom it is the first language, as in U.K., U.S.A., Canada and Australia. If you wish to aim at an international standard, it is necessary to use an aspirated /p/ at the beginning of stressed syllables so that a clear distinction is made between words like *pack* and *back*, *path* and *bath*, *pride* and *bride*.

An aspirated /p/ (that is, [ph]) should, however, be distinguished from /f/, so that words like *pale* and *fail*, *pair* and *fair*, *pull* and *full* can be distinguished.

/b/ as in *back*

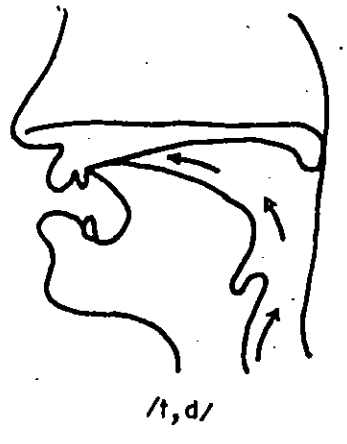
Examples

<i>bad</i>	/bæd/	}	Word-initial /b/
<i>become</i>	/bɪ'kʌm/		
<i>beast</i>	/bi:st/		
<i>submit</i>	/səb'mɪt/	}	Word-medial /b/
<i>remember</i>	/rɪ'membə/		
<i>rubber</i>	/'rʌbə/		
<i>rub</i>	/rʌb/	}	Word-final /b/
<i>sob</i>	/sɒb/		

The spelling for /b/ is the letter *b*. In words like *comb*, *limb* and *debt*, *b* is silent.

Alveolar Plosives /t,d/

For English /t,d/, the tip of the tongue makes a contact with the teeth-ridge. Most Indian speakers tend to use a retracted variety, the tongue tip making a contact at the back of the teeth-ridge, or even farther back. This gives to their speech a peculiar Indian quality.



/t/ as in tea

Examples

<i>tin</i>	/tɪn/	}	Word-initial /t/
<i>ten</i>	/ten/		
<i>tender</i>	/tendə/		
<i>stamp</i>	/stæmp/	}	Word-medial /t/
<i>pretend</i>	/prɪ'tend/		
<i>canteen</i>	/kæ'n'ti:n/	}	Word-final /t/
<i>cut</i>	/kʌt/		
<i>act</i>	/ækt/		
<i>relate</i>	/rɪ'leɪt/		

The usual spellings for /t/ are:

t; *tt* as in *battle*, *ed* in the past and past participle forms of verbs ending in voiceless consonants other than /t/ as in *talked* /tɔ:kɪd/, *laughed* /lɑ:ft/, *passed* /pa:st/.

In words like *castle*, *t* is silent.

/t/ is aspirated at the beginning of stressed syllables, that is, it sounds like [tʰ].

Examples:

take, *ar'tain*.

Most Indian speakers do not aspirate /t/ even in this position. The result is that it sounds like /d/ to native speakers of English. For an international standard, /t/ should be aspirated at the beginning of stressed syllables so that a clear distinction is made

between words like *tear* (v.) and *dare*, *train* and *drain*.

/d/ as in day

Examples

<i>dinner</i>	/'dɪnə/	}	Word-initial /d/
<i>debate</i>	/dɪ'beɪt/		
<i>under</i>	/'ʌndə/		
<i>wonder</i>	/'wʌndə/	}	Word-medial /d/
<i>sudden</i>	/'sʌdn/		
<i>cod</i>	/kɒd/	}	Word-final /d/
<i>nod</i>	/nɒd/		
<i>sad</i>	/sæd/		

Velar Plosives /k, g/**/k/ as in key****Examples**

<i>king</i>	/kɪŋ/	}	Word-initial /k/
<i>canteen</i>	/kæn'ti:n/		
<i>contain</i>	/kən'teɪn/		
<i>skin</i>	/skɪn/	}	Word-medial /k/
<i>uncle</i>	/'ʌŋkl/		
<i>account</i>	/ə'kaʊnt/		
<i>ask</i>	/ɑ:sk/	}	Word-final /k/
<i>pick</i>	/pɪk/		
<i>back</i>	/bæk/		

/k/ can be represented by various spellings; e.g. *king*, *call*, *oc'cur*, *back*, *cheque*, *stomach*. *k* is silent in words like *know*.

/k/ is aspirated at the beginning of stressed syllables, that is, it sounds like [kʰ].

Examples: *cat*, *oc'cur*

Most Indian speakers do not aspirate /k/ even in this position.

The result is that it sounds like /g/ to native speakers of English. For an international standard /k/ should be aspirated at the beginning of stressed syllables, so that a clear distinction is made between words like *cot* and *got*, *cold* and *gold*.

/g/ as in gate**Examples**

<i>gun</i>	/gʌn/	}	Word-initial /g/
<i>govern</i>	/'gʌvən/		
<i>game</i>	/geɪm/		
<i>ago</i>	/ə'gəʊ/	}	Word-medial /g/
<i>begin</i>	/bɪ'gɪn/		
<i>beggar</i>	/'begə/		
<i>big</i>	/bɪg/	}	Word-final /g/
<i>beg</i>	/beg/		
<i>log</i>	/lɒg/		

/g/ is usually represented by the letter g.

4.2.2 The Affricates

The English consonants /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ are called affricates. During their articulation the oral and nasal passages are closed completely and then the air is released slowly with friction. Notice that the symbol for an affricate has two letters, the first to represent the stop element and the second to represent the fricative. So /tʃ/ can be thought of as a single sound consisting of /t/ + /ʃ/. The two English affricates are palato-alveolar.

/tʃ/ as in chair**Examples**

<i>chain</i>	/tʃeɪn/	}	Word-initial /tʃ/
<i>check</i>	/tʃek/		
<i>chalk</i>	/tʃɔ:k/		
<i>butcher</i>	/'bʊtʃə/	}	Word-medial /tʃ/
<i>treachery</i>	/trɪtʃəri/		
<i>archer</i>	/'ɑ:tʃə/		
<i>catch</i>	/kætʃ/	}	Word-final /tʃ/
<i>each</i>	/i:tʃ/		
<i>patch</i>	/pætʃ/		

/tʃ/ can be represented by various spellings; e.g., *chair*, *catch*, *nature*, *question*.

/d/ as in jump

<i>jam</i>	/dʒæ m/	}	Word-initial /dʒ /
<i>jail</i>	/dʒeɪl/		
<i>jar</i>	/dʒɑː /		
<i>budget</i>	/bʌdʒɪt/	}	Word-medial /dʒ /
<i>energy</i>	/ˈenədʒɪ/		
<i>engine</i>	/ˈendʒɪn/		
<i>budge</i>	/bʌdʒ/	}	Word-final /dʒ /
<i>cage</i>	/keɪdʒ/		
<i>edge</i>	/edʒ /		

/dʒ / can be represented by various spellings; e.g., *join*, 'gentle, *bridge*, *sug*'gest, 'soldier.

4.2.3 The Fricatives

The English consonants /f/, /v/, /θ/, /ð/, /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/ and /h/ are called **fricatives**. During the articulation of fricatives, the passage is so narrow that the air passes through it with audible friction.

The fricatives form pairs on the basis of the place of articulation. /f, v/ are labiodental, /θ, ð/ are dental, /s, z/ are alveolar, /ʃ, ʒ/ are palato-alveolar. In each pair the first consonant is voiceless and the second is voiced.

Labio-dental Fricatives /f, v/

For /f, v/ the lower lip is brought very close to the edge of the upper teeth and the air comes out with friction.

/f/ as in fat**Examples**

<i>fine</i>	/faɪn/	}	Word-initial /f/
<i>fill</i>	/fɪl/		
<i>first</i>	/fɜːst/		
<i>lift</i>	/lɪft/	}	Word-medial /f/
<i>coffee</i>	/kɒfi/		
<i>offer</i>	/ˈɒfə/		
<i>life</i>	/laɪf/	}	Word-final /f/
<i>calf</i>	/kɑːf/		
<i>tough</i>	/tʌf/		

/f/ can be represented by various spellings; e.g., *face*, *staff*, 'photograph', *cough*.

/f/ should be clearly distinguished from aspirated /p/ (that is, [ph] फ), to avoid confusion between words like *fair* and *pair*, *full* and *pool*.

/v/ as in van**Examples**

<i>vice</i>	/vaɪs/	}	Word-initial /v/
<i>vine</i>	/vaɪn/		
<i>van</i>	/væn/		
<i>ever</i>	/ˈevə/	}	Word-medial /v/
<i>never</i>	/ˈnevə/		
<i>over</i>	/ˈəʊvə/		
<i>live</i>	/lɪv/	}	Word-final /v/
<i>love</i>	/lʌv/		
<i>move</i>	/muːv/		

Most Indian speakers replace /v/ by a soft frictionless sound व, which is hardly audible to native speakers of English. For international standards the fricative /v/ should be learnt. It can be produced by adding voice to /f/.

Dental Fricatives /θ, ð/

For /θ/, the tip of the tongue is brought very near the edge of the upper teeth and the air comes out with friction. The spelling for these sounds is *th*.

/θ/ as in *think*

Examples

<i>think</i>	/θɪŋk/	}	Word-initial /θ/
<i>thank</i>	/θæŋk/		
<i>thick</i>	/θɪk/		
<i>author</i>	/'ɔ:θə/	}	Word-medial /θ/
<i>pathos</i>	/'pæθɪəʊs/		
<i>path</i>	/pɑ:θ/		
<i>tooth</i>	/tu:θ/	}	Word-final /θ/
<i>both</i>	/bəʊθ/		

Most Indian speakers replace /θ/ by an aspirated voiceless dental plosive θ̱, which to a native English speaker sounds like /t/. For international standards, the fricative /θ/ should be acquired to avoid confusion between words like

thank and *tank*
thought and *taught*
three and *tree*
fourth and *fort*

/ð/ as in *there*

<i>this</i>	/ðɪs/	}	Word-initial /ð/
<i>then</i>	/ðen/		
<i>though</i>	/ðəʊ/		
<i>either</i>	/'aɪðə/	}	Word-medial /ð/
<i>neither</i>	/'neɪðə/		
<i>without</i>	/wɪ'ðaʊt/		
<i>loathe</i>	/ləʊð/	}	Word-final /ð/
<i>bathe</i>	/beɪð/		
<i>with</i>	/wɪð/		

Most Indian speakers replace /ð/ by the voiced dental plosive ð̱, which to a native English speaker sounds like /d/. For international standards, the fricative /ð/ should be acquired to avoid the confusion between words like

they and *day*
there and *dare*
breathe and *breed*

Alveolar Plosives /s, z/

/s/ as in *sip*

Examples

<i>sin</i>	/sɪn/	}	Word-initial /s/
<i>soap</i>	/səʊp/		
<i>slate</i>	/slæt/		
<i>ask</i>	/ɑ:sk/	}	Word-medial /s/
<i>fast</i>	/fɑ:sk/		
<i>past</i>	/pɑ:st/		
<i>ass</i>	/æs/	}	Word-final /s/
<i>pass</i>	/pɑ:s/		
<i>loss</i>	/lɒs/		

/s/ can be represented by various spellings; e.g., *save*, *pass*, *face*, *scene*, *box*.

/z/ as in zero**Examples**

zoo	/zu:/	}	Word-initial /z/
zinc	/zɪŋk/		
zero	/'ziərəʊ/		
razor	/'reɪzə/	}	Word-medial /z/
easy	/'i:zi/		
lazy	/'leɪzi/		
buzz	/bʌz/	}	Word-final /z/
nose	/nəʊz/		
rose	/'rəʊz/		

/z/ can be represented by various spellings; 'easy, 'scissors, zoo, 'puzzle, ex'act. The inflectional suffix -s, -es for the plural and possessive forms of nouns and the simple present third person singular forms of verbs is pronounced /z/ after vowels and voiced consonants other than /dʒ, z, ʒ/ e.g. eyes /aɪz/, shows /ʃəʊz/, /bags /bægz/. It is pronounced /ɪz/ after /tʃ, dʒ, s, z, ʃ, ʒ, ʒ/, e.g., in 'catches, 'passes, 'washes.

/z/ should be clearly distinguished from /dʒ/ to avoid confusion between words like ways and wage, chains and change 'zealous and 'jealous, 'reason and 'region.

Palato-alveolar Fricatives /ʃ, ʒ/**/ʃ/ as in ship****Examples**

ship	/'ʃɪp/	}	Word-initial /ʃ/
shoe	/'ʃu:/		
sheep	/'ʃi:p/		
cashier	/'kæʃɪə/	}	Word-medial /ʃ/
pressure	/'preʃə/		
ocean	/'əʊʃən/		
cash	/'kæʃ/	}	Word-final /ʃ/
rush	/'rʌʃ/		
fish	/'fɪʃ/		

/ʃ/ can be represented by various spellings; e.g., shade, ma'chine, 'sugar, 'nation, conscience, 'special, 'ocean.

/ʃ/ should be clearly distinguished from /s/ to avoid confusion between words like 'have and save, 'he and see, 'hine and sign.

/ʒ/ as in 'measure

leisure	/'leɪʒə/	}	Word-medial /ʒ/
pleasure	/'pleɪʒə/		
occasion	/'əʊkeɪʒən/		
barrage	/'bærɑ:ʒ/	}	Word-final /ʒ/
prestige	/'pre'sti:ʒ/		

/ʒ/ does not begin an English word.

/ʒ/ can be represented by various spellings; e.g., de'cision, 'measure, 'barrage. /ʒ/ should be clearly distinguished from /dʒ/ and /z/.

Glottal Fricative**/h/ as in hot****Examples**

hit	/hɪt/	}	Word-initial /h/
hut	/hʌt/		
hunt	/hʌnt/		

<i>behind</i>	/bɪ'haɪnd/	} Word-medial /h/
<i>behave</i>	/bɪ'heɪv/	
<i>ahead</i>	/ə'hed/	

/h/ does not end an English word.

4.3 SOME IMPORTANT CONTRASTS

It is very important to make the distinctions listed below:

i) /f/ and aspirated /p/ [ph]

Examples

/f/	[ph]
fade	paid
fail	pale
farm	palm
fair	pair
feign	pain
fig	pig
'fierce	'pierce
fine	pine
flight	plight
foot	put

ii) /θ / and /t/

Examples

/θ /	/t/
thank	tank
therm	term
thin	tin
thorn	torn
three	tree
path	part

iii) /ð / and /d/

Examples

/ð /	/d/
there	dare
they	day
breathe	breed

iv) /z/ and /dʒ /

Examples

/z/	/dʒ /
'zealous	'jealous
sees	siege
zest	jest
'reason	'region

v) /ʃ / and /s/

Examples

/ʃ /	/s/
shine	sign
she	see
shame	same
shelf	self
shell	sell
shield	sealed
ship	ship
short	sort
show	so
shun	sun

Check Your Progress

Write the phonetic symbols for the consonant sounds represented by the italicized letters in the following words. After you have checked your answers, say each word correctly. You can also listen to the words on the cassette.

- 1) *di's*play
- 2) *best*
- 3) *built*
- 4) *good*
- 5) *'benefit*
- 6) *'Christmas*
- 7) *'champion*
- 8) *ge'ometry*
- 9) *fixed*
- 10) *'victory*
- 11) *theft*
- 12) *there*
- 13) *stand*
- 14) *pos'sess*
- 15) *'shepherd*
- 16) *'pleasure*
- 17) *heart*
- 18) *pro'cedure*
- 19) *'precious*
- 20) *vote*

2 Listen to the following sentences on the cassette and then say them with the correct vowel and consonant sounds. Be careful about the aspiration of /p,t,k/ and the articulation of /dʒ ,f,v, θ , ð ,z,f, ʒ / . The stressed syllables have been marked for you.

- 1) A *'kilo* of *po'tatoes* and a *'tin* of *'peas*, *'please*.
- 2) Can you *'take* a *'message*, *'please*?
- 3) *'Twinkle*, *'twinkle* *'little* *'star*,
'How I *'wonder* *'what* you *'are*.
- 4) *'Shakespeare* is the *'greatest* *'dramatist* the *'world* has *'ever* *pro'duced*.
- 5) I *'bought* a *'new* *'stamp*-album for my *'son's* *'birthday*.
- 6) I've *'lived* in *'Delhi* for *'eight* *'years*.
- 7) *'Pandey* is an *'excellent* *'teacher*.
- 8) *Pre'sent* your *'case*, said the *'judge*.
- 9) I *'ate* a *'couple* of *'jam* *'sandwiches* for *'breakfast*.
- 10) *'Lions* and *'tigers* *'live* in *'jungles*.

3 Listen to the following dialogue on the cassette and then read it aloud yourself. The stressed syllables have been marked for you.

Enquiry Check (at New Delhi Station)

- Man : *'Good* *'morning*, sir. Can I *'help* you?
- E.C. : *'Good* *'morning*. Can you *'tell* me about *Kar'nataka* *Ex'press*? *'Is* it *'running* on *'time*?
- Man : I'm afraid we have *'no* *infor'mation* *'yet*.
- E.C. : *'What* time does it *'usually* *ar'rive*?

- E.C. : The 'scheduled 'time of ar'rival is '16-'30. 'Wait a 'minute. That's the 'telephone 'ringing.
(After a minute)
- : 'Good 'news, sir. It's ar'riving on 'time.
- Man : 'Thank you 'very 'much.
- E.C. : You're 'welcome.

4.4 LET US SUM UP

English, according to British R.P., has twenty-four distinct consonant sounds or phonemes. These can be divided into various categories depending upon how they are articulated.

English has six plosive consonants; they are /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/ and /g/.

English has two affricate consonants; these are /tʃ/ and /dʒ/.

English has nine fricative consonants; they are /f/, /v/, /θ/, /ð/, /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/ and /h/.

4.5 KEY WORDS

affricate: a consonant sound which is a kind of combination of a plosive and a fricative at the same place of articulation. /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ are the two affricate consonants in English.

fricative: a consonant produced by forcing air out through a narrow opening. English has nine fricative consonants: /f, v, θ, ð, s, z, ʃ, ʒ, h/.

plosive: a consonant sound made by stopping the air completely and then releasing it suddenly out of the mouth. *Example:* /b/ in *butter*.

4.6 SOME USEFUL BOOKS

- 1 Balasubramanian, T. (1981-1987) *A Textbook of English Phonetics for Indian Students*, Macmillan India Limited.
- 2 Bansal, R.K. and J.B. Harrison (1983) *Spoken English for India*. Orient Longman (2nd edition).
- 3 CIEFL, *Exercises in Spoken English: Part 2 : Consonants*. Oxford University Press.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------------|
| 1) /d/, /s/, /p/ | 11) /θ/, /f/, /t/ |
| 2) /b/, /s/, /t/ | 12) /ð/ |
| 3) /b/, /t/ | 13) /s/, /t/, /d/ |
| 4) /g/, /d/ | 14) /p/, /z/, /s/ |
| 5) /b/, /f/, /t/ | 15) /ʃ/, /p/, /d/ |
| 6) /k/, /s/, /s/ | 16) /p/, /ʒ/ |
| 7) /tʃ/, /p/ | 17) /h/, /t/ |
| 8) /dʒ/, /t/ | 18) /p/, /s/, /dʒ/ |
| 9) /f/, /ks/, /t/ | 19) /p/, /ʃ/, /s/ |
| 10) /v/, /k/, /t/ | 20) /v/, /t/ |

UNIT 5 ENGLISH CONSONANTS - 2

Structure

- 5.0 Objectives
Cassette Recording
- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 The Nasals
 - 5.2.1 Bilabial Nasal
 - 5.2.2 Alveolar Nasal
 - 5.2.3 Velar Nasal
- 5.3 The Lateral Consonant
- 5.4 /r/
- 5.5 The Semi-vowels
 - 5.5.1 Palatal Semi-vowel
 - 5.5.2 Labio-velar Semi-vowel
- 5.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 5.7 Key Words
- 5.8 Some Useful Books
- Answers

5.0 OBJECTIVES

In the previous unit (Unit 4) we discussed three types of English consonants — the plosives, the affricates and the fricatives. In this unit we shall give you some information regarding the remaining English consonants and the phonetic symbols used to represent them in dictionaries. When you have read this unit carefully, you should be able to

- distinguish between the different consonants discussed in this unit, and
- use a dictionary to find out which consonants are used in particular words.

Cassette Recording

An audio cassette recording accompanies this unit and is available at the various Study Centres of the University.

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 4 we discussed three types of English consonants — plosives, affricates and fricatives, all of which involved some kind of closure or narrowing of the air-passage.

We shall now take up the other English consonants. These do not involve a complete closure of the air-passage, nor any narrowing that would cause friction.

5.2 THE NASALS

The English consonants /m/, /n/ and /ŋ/, are called **nasals** because during their articulation *the oral passage of air is blocked completely* by either the two lips making a firm contact with each other (as in the case of /m/) or some part of the tongue making a firm contact with some part of the roof of the mouth (as in the case of /n/ and /ŋ/). But the soft palate and the uvula are brought down from the back wall of the throat and so the nasal passage of air is open. The air from the lungs comes out through the nasal passage and the nostrils.

5.2.1 Bilabial Nasal

Examples

/m/ as in **map**

mate	/meɪt/	} Word-initial /m/
might	/maɪt/	
manag:	/'mænɪdʒ/	

<i>small</i>	/smɔ:l/	}	Word-medial /m/
<i>remain</i>	/rɪ'meɪn/		
<i>summer</i>	/'sʌmə/	}	Word-final /m/
<i>come</i>	/kʌm/		
<i>palm</i>	/'pɑ:m/		
<i>same</i>	/'seɪm/		

/m/ can be represented by *m* (as in *mad*) and *mm* (as in 'summer). In words like *thumb*, *b* is silent; in words like *autumn*, *n* is silent.

5.2.2 Alveolar Nasal

/n/ as in *night*

<i>Examples</i>			
<i>night</i>	/naɪt/	}	Word-initial /n/
<i>name</i>	/neɪm/		
<i>nasty</i>	/'nɑ:stɪ/		
<i>snake</i>	/'sneɪk/	}	Word-medial /n/
<i>under</i>	/'ʌndə /		
<i>running</i>	/'rʌnɪŋ/		
<i>ban</i>	/'bæn/	}	Word-final /n/
<i>man</i>	/'mæn/		
<i>remain</i>	/rɪ'meɪn/		

/n/ can be represented by *n* (as in *no*) or *nn* (as in 'manner). In words like *know* /k is silent. In words like *sign*, /g/ is silent.

/n/ can be syllabic, that is, it can be the nucleus of the syllable; e.g. in *cotton* /kɑtn/ the second syllable has a syllabic /n/; it represents the V (vowel) element in syllable structure. Some Indian speakers insert a short vowel /ə/ before /n/ in such words and do not use a syllabic /n/.

5.2.3 Velar Nasal

/ŋ/ as in *king*

<i>Examples</i>			
<i>finger</i>	/'fɪŋgə/	}	Word-medial /ŋ/
<i>singer</i>	/'sɪŋgə/		
<i>uncle</i>	/'ʌŋkl/		
<i>king</i>	/'kɪŋ/	}	Word-final /ŋ/
<i>ring</i>	/'rɪŋ/		
<i>young</i>	/'jʌŋ/		

/ŋ/ does *not* occur in the word-initial position in English.

/ŋ/ is represented by *n* followed by /k/ or /g/, as in *think*, *finger*. It is also represented by *ng* in words like *sing*, 'singer, where Indian speakers generally use /ŋ g/.

5.3 THE LATERAL CONSONANT

The English consonant /l/ is called an **alveolar lateral**. During its articulation, the tip or blade of the tongue firmly touches the teeth ridge and so the central oral passage of air is blocked completely. The sides of the tongue are lowered, so the lung-air comes out along the sides of the tongue freely.

/l/ as in *live*

<i>Examples</i>			
<i>live</i>	/lɪv/	}	Word-initial /l/
<i>love</i>	lʌv/		
<i>less</i>	/'les/		
<i>please</i>	/'pli:z/	}	Word-medial /l/
<i>bless</i>	/'bles/		
<i>pulley</i>	/'pʊli/		

<i>call</i>	/kɔ:l/	}	Word-final /l/
<i>bell</i>	/beɪl/		
<i>sell</i>	/seɪl/		

/l/ can be represented by *l* as in *laugh*, or *ll* as in *kill*

l is silent in words like *walk*, *should*, *half*, *calm*.

/l/ can be syllabic; e.g. in words like *cattle* /'kætɪl/ where the second syllable has a syllabic /l/. Some Indian speakers insert a vowel before /l/ and do not use a syllabic /l/.

5.4 /r/

/r/ in British R.P. is pronounced in a number of ways, the commonest being a post-alveolar frictionless continuant used in words like *red*.

<i>Examples</i>		}	Word-initial /r/
<i>right</i>	/raɪt/		
<i>rest</i>	/rest/		
<i>wrong</i>	/rɒŋ/	}	Word-medial /r/
<i>pray</i>	/preɪ/		
<i>try</i>	/traɪ/		
<i>crowd</i>	/kraʊd/		
<i>shrine</i>	/ʃraɪn/		
<i>three</i>	/θri:/		
<i>very</i>	/'veri/		

In British R.P. /r/ occurs only before vowels. It does not occur before consonants. Nor does it occur finally in word, except when a word beginning with a vowel follows immediately.

Examples

<i>far</i>	/fɑ:/	<i>far away</i> /'fɑ:rə'weɪ/
<i>the letter</i>	/ðə'letə/	<i>the letter on the desk</i> /ðə'letə rɒn ðə'desk/
<i>fear</i>	/fiə/	<i>fear of ghosts</i> /'fiərəv 'gəvsts/
<i>more</i>	/mɔ:/	<i>more and more</i> /'mɔ:r ən 'mɔ:/
<i>murder</i>	/'mɜ:də/	<i>Murder in the Cathedral</i> /'mɜ:dərɪnðə'ke'θi:drəl/

Most Indian speakers use /r/ in all positions. This is quite acceptable.

5.5 THE SEMI-VOWELS

There are two semi-vowels in English; /j/ as in *yes* and /w/ as in *west*. A semi-vowel is a vowel-glide to a more prominent sound in the same syllable.

5.5.1 Palatal Semi-vowel

/j/ as in *yes*

/j/ is palatal; it is a glide from /i:/ to the next vowel, which is syllabic.

Examples

<i>yes</i>	/jes/	}	Word-initial /j/
<i>yet</i>	/jet/		
<i>yard</i>	/jɑ:d/		
<i>beyond</i>	/bɪ'jɒnd/	}	Word-medial /j/
<i>beauty</i>	/'bju:tɪ/		
<i>duty</i>	/'dju:tɪ/		

/j/ cannot occur at the end of a word.

/j/ can be represented by *y* as in *yes*.

It occurs with the vowel /u:/ in words like *union*, *beauty*, *due*, *new*, *view*.

5.5.2 Labio-velar Semi-vowel

/w/ as in west

/w/ is a glide from /u/ to the next vowel, which is syllabic.

Examples

wet	/wet/	}	Word-initial /w/
wheat	/wi:t/		
wear	/weə /		
sweet	/swi:t/	}	Word-medial /w/
swear	/swəə /		
between	/bɪ'twi:n/		

/w/ does not occur at the end of a word in English. It is represented by *w* as in *way*, *wh* as in *when* and *u* in words like *quick*, and *language*, Indian speakers often replace /w/ by a soft sound ϖ , which they also use for /v/.

For an international standard it is necessary to make a distinction between /w/ and /v/ so that there is no confusion between words like *west* and *vest*.

/w/ can be acquired easily by preparing to say /u:/ and moving quickly to the next vowel.

Check Your Progress

1 Write a phonetic transcription of the following words according to British R.P., using the symbols given by us. After you have checked your answers, say the words correctly according to the transcription.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| i) English | ii) consonants |
| iii) objectives | iv) cassette |
| v) introduction | vi) nasals |
| vii) vowels | viii) useful |
| ix) previous | x) unit |
| xi) discussed | xii) three |
| xiii) information | xiv) phonetic |
| xv) symbols | xvi) represent |
| xvii) distinguish | xviii) particular |
| xix) accompanies | xx) available |

2 Listen to the following sentences on the cassette. The stressed syllables have been marked for you. After listening to the cassette, say each sentence aloud, making sure that you articulate the various vowels and consonants correctly.

- 1) 'Three and 'four make 'seven.
- 2) 'Mary 'had a 'little 'lamb, /
Its 'fleece wās 'white as 'snow.
- 3) I 'bought 'three 'bottles of tom'ato 'sauce.
- 4) 'What a mag'nificent 'building!
- 5) The 'Taj Ma'hal wās 'built by 'Emperor 'Shah Je'han.
- 6) The 'heart of 'India is in her 'villages.
- 7) There are 'millions of il'literate 'people in the 'world.
- 8) Our 'leaders are 'striving 'hard for 'national inte'gration.
- 9) Di'wali is a 'festive oc'casion 'all over 'India.
- 10) It's 'always a 'pleasure to 'meet old 'friends.
- 11) My 'uncle's a 'doctor, /and his 'wife an engi'neer.
- 12) 'Honesty is the 'best 'policy.

3 Listen to the following dialogue on the cassette and then repeat it. Make sure that you pronounce the various vowels and consonants correctly. The stressed syllables have been marked for you.

- A: Hel'lo, 'Ram. 'Nice to 'see you again.
B: Hel'lo!

- A: 'With 'milk and 'sugar?
 B: 'Yes, 'please. 'Just a 'drop of 'milk/and 'two 'spoons of 'sugar.
 A: 'Lakshmi,/Ram's 'here. Can you 'bring him some 'coffee?
 B: It's 'ages sinc'e we 'met 'last' 'isnt it?
 A: 'Yes. 'Eight 'years. I 'heard you were a'broad.
 B: 'That's 'right. I was in 'Aden for 'eight 'years.
 A: 'Aden? 'Where 'is it?
 B: It's the 'capital of a 'country called 'North 'Yemen. 'Actually /the 'country's 'called "The 'People's Demo'cratic Re'public of 'Yemen."
 A: 'What were you 'doing 'there?
 B: 'Teaching. 'Teaching 'English.
 A: Did you en'joy your 'stay there?
 B: Im'mensely.
 A: 'Here 'comes 'Lakshmi with the 'coffee.

5.6 LET US SUM UP

English has three nasal consonants — /m/, /n/ and /ŋ/. /n/ can be syllabic, as in 'button.

English has one lateral sound /l/. It can also be syllabic as in 'bottle.

/r/ in British R.P. occurs only before a vowel. It does not occur before consonants. Nor does it occur finally, except when a word beginning with a vowel follows immediately.

/j/ is a glide from /i:/, and /w/ a glide from /u:/ to the next vowel in the word, which is syllabic.

Indian speakers often use a soft /v/ or /w/ in place of both /v/ and /w/. For international standards, it is necessary to distinguish between words like *vest* and *west*.

5.7 KEY WORDS

Nasal: a sound for which the air comes out through the nose only; e.g. /m/, n, ŋ /.

Lateral: a sound during the articulation of which the air escapes only along the sides of the tongue because there is a total blockage of the central oral passage. Example: /l/

Semi-vowel: A semi-vowel is a vowel-glide to a more prominent sound in the same syllable. Examples : /w, j/.

5.8 SOME USEFUL BOOKS

- 1 Balasubramanian, T. (1981-1987). *A Textbook of English Phonetics for Indian Students*, Macmillan India Limited.
- 2 Bansal, R.K. and J.B. Harrison (1983). *Spoken English for India*, Orient Longman, 2nd Edition.
- 3 CIEFL: *Exercises in Spoken English: Part . : Consonants*.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress

- i) 'ɪŋɡlɪʃ
- ii) 'kɒnsənənts
- iii) əb'dʒektɪvz
- iv) 'neɪzəlz
- v) 'vauəlz
- vi) 'neɪzəlz
- vii) 'vauəlz
- viii) 'ju:ʃl
- ix) 'pri:vɪəs

- x) 'ju:nIt
- xi) dI'skɑst
- xii) Øri:
- xiii) ,Infə'meIfrn
- xiv) fe'netIk
- xv) 'sImbəlz
- xvi) ,reprI'zent
- xvii) dI'stɪŋgwɪʃ
- xviii) pe'tɪkjulə
- xix) ə'kɒmpənɪz
- xx) ə'veIləbl



UTTAR PRADESH
RAJARSHI TANDON OPEN UNIVERSITY

UGEN-02 The Structure of Modern English

Block

2

PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY -2

Introduction to the Block

UNIT 6

Word Stress

5

UNIT 7

Stress and Rhythm in Connected Speech

20

UNIT 8

Intonation-1

27

UNIT 9

Intonation -2

31

UNIT 10

Intonation 1

36

INTRODUCTION TO THE BLOCK

In Block 1 we introduced you to phonetics and phonology and then discussed the vowel and consonant sounds of English.

In this block we shall take up prosodic features like stress, rhythm, and intonation, which are an important aspect of English phonology.

In Unit 6 we shall take up word stress, primary and secondary, and show you how we are going to mark it. We shall present various stress patterns and illustrate how word stress is affected by the addition of suffixes and the grammatical function of words. We shall also give some important rules about word stress.

In Unit 7 we shall discuss stress and rhythm in connected speech and distinguish between content words, which are normally stressed, and grammatical words, which are usually not stressed, when we speak English. The rhythm of English will be described on the basis of stressed syllables occurring at regular intervals of time. As a result of this pattern of rhythm, some of the unstressed words tend to get weakened.

In Unit 8 we shall begin our discussion on intonation, that is, patterns of pitch variation, by showing how longer sentences are divided into groups, called breath groups, sense groups, or 'tone groups'.

In Unit 9 we shall discuss the choice of stressed syllables in an utterance and the choice of the 'nucleus' in each group, that is, the syllable on which an important pitch movement is initiated.

In Unit 10 we shall present the two basic 'tones' of English, that is, patterns of pitch movement beginning on the nucleus—the falling tone and the rising tone. We shall also point out some of the important functions of intonation in English.

	Word	Number of Syllables	Syllable Division
1	word	1	—
2	structure	2	/strʌk.tʃə/
3	objective	—	_____
4	cassette	—	_____
5	recording	—	_____
6	introduction	—	_____
7	primary	—	_____
8	secondary	—	_____
9	characteristic	—	_____
10	English	—	_____

6.2 WORD STRESS

An English word consisting of more than one syllable is said in such a way that one of its syllables **STANDS OUT FROM**, or is **MORE PROMINENT THAN** the other syllable or syllables in the same word. For example, in the word *father* (which has two syllables /fɑ:/ and /ðə/) the first syllable /fɑ:/ is more prominent than the second syllable /ðə/. Similarly, when we pronounce the word *gigantic* (which has three syllables /dʒaɪ/, /gəntɪk/) the second syllable /gəntɪk/ is more prominent than the first and the third syllables. To give one more example, in the word *agriculture* (which has four syllables /ægrɪkʌltʃə/) the first syllable /ægrɪk/ is more prominent than the other three syllables. The syllable which stands out or is more prominent than the others in the same word is called the **STRESSED SYLLABLE** or the **ACCENTED SYLLABLE**.

The speaker spends more energy while producing the stressed syllable than he does while producing the other syllables in the same word. The listener hears the stressed syllable as being louder than the other syllables in the same word.

The syllables which are NOT stressed in a word are called **UNSTRESSED** or **WEAK** syllables.

6.3 PRIMARY STRESS AND SECONDARY STRESS

In some words of more than three syllables, there may be **TWO** syllables which stand out from the rest. For example, in the word *cigarette* (which has three syllables /sɪ/, /gə/ and /ret/) the first syllable /sɪ/ and the third syllable /ret/ are more prominent than the second syllable /gə/. Similarly, in the word *examination* (which has five syllables /ɪg/, /zæmɪneɪʃən/) the second syllable /zæmɪ/ and the fourth syllable /neɪ/ are more prominent than the other syllables. In such words one of the two syllables which are stressed has what we call 'main' or 'primary' stress and the other has 'secondary' stress.

6.4 HOW TO MARK STRESS

Most modern dictionaries adopt the following method to mark stress. The stressed syllable is marked with a **VERTICAL BAR** (the mark ' | ') **ABOVE** and **BEFORE** the syllable that is stressed. For example, the word *approve* (which has two syllables /ə/ and /pru:v/) is stressed on the **SECOND** syllable and it is marked thus:

/ə 'pru : v /

Given below are some more examples of words with the stressed syllables marked.

balloon / bə'lu : n / (two syllables; second syllable stressed)

camel / 'kæməl / (two syllables; first syllable stressed)

decent / 'di : sɒnt / (two syllables; first syllable stressed)

enormous / i'nɔ : məs / (three syllables; second syllable stressed)

fearlessly / 'fiə əs lɪ / (three syllables; first syllable stressed)

government / 'gʌvənmənt / (three syllables; first syllable stressed)

monotonous / mə'nɒtənəs / (four syllables; second syllable stressed)

opinion / ə'pɪnjən / (three syllables; second syllable stressed)

If two syllables stand out from the rest in a word, one receiving PRIMARY STRESS and the other SECONDARY STRESS, the syllable receiving secondary stress is marked with the vertical bar BELOW AND BEFORE the syllable and the syllable receiving primary stress is marked in the way indicated above. Some examples are given below:

advantageous / ,dvʌn'teɪdʒəs / (four syllables; the first syllable has secondary stress and the third syllable has primary stress)

bifurcation / ,beɪfə'keɪʃən / (four syllables; the first syllable has secondary stress and the third syllable has primary stress)

chimpanzee / tʃɪmpə'nzi : / (three syllables; the first syllable has secondary stress and the third syllable has primary stress)

democratic / ,demə'kræʃɪk / (four syllables; the first syllable has secondary stress and the third syllable has primary stress)

6.5 VARIOUS STRESS PATTERNS

In English, word stress is NOT FIXED to a particular syllable. It is FREE in the sense that there are words in which the FIRST syllable is stressed, others in which the SECOND syllable is stressed, yet others in which the THIRD or the fourth syllable has the primary stress.

Some examples of various stress patterns in English are given below. Try to say them with the stress on the correct syllable. You can listen to them on the cassette.

Disyllabic words stressed on the FIRST syllable :

- | | |
|-------------|---------------|
| 1) 'action | 2) 'apple |
| 3) 'artist | 4) 'atom |
| 5) 'barber | 6) 'better |
| 7) 'bottle | 8) 'butter |
| 9) 'careful | 10) 'centre |
| 11) 'copper | 12) 'cotton |
| 13) 'donkey | 14) 'dreadful |
| 15) 'empty | 16) 'envy |
| 17) 'father | 18) 'freedom |
| 19) 'govern | 20) 'grateful |

Disyllabic words stressed on the SECOND syllable

- | | |
|--------------|--------------|
| 21) a'bout | 22) a'bove |
| 23) a'go | 24) at'tend |
| 25) be'fore | 26) be'gin |
| 27) be'hind | 28) be'tween |
| 29) can'teen | 30) con'tain |
| 31) de'gree | 32) de'lay |
| 33) e'vade | 34) for'get |

- | | |
|--------------|--------------|
| 35) for'give | 36) fore'sec |
| 37) ðea | 38) im'part |
| 39) la'ment | 40) ma'chine |

Trisyllabic words stressed on the FIRST syllable :

- | | |
|-----------------|----------------|
| 41) 'adjective | 42) 'advocate |
| 43) 'afterwards | 44) 'algebra |
| 45) 'analyse | 46) 'appetite |
| 47) 'bachelor | 48) 'botany |
| 49) 'calculate | 50) 'calendar |
| 51) 'capital | 52) 'chemistry |
| 53) 'cinema | 54) 'civilize |

Trisyllabic words stressed on the SECOND syllable :

- | | |
|----------------|-------------------|
| 55) a'bundance | 56) ac'countant |
| 57) a'coustic | 58) ad'jacent |
| 59) ad'vantage | 60) af'fection |
| 61) ag'reement | 62) a'partment |
| 63) bar'baric | 64) be'ginning |
| 65) con'tainer | 66) col'l ector |
| 67) com'mander | 68) com'mencement |
| 69) dic'tator | 70) di'rection |
| 71) di'rector | 72) dis'graceful |
| 73) e'normous | 74) ex'ception |
| 75) fan'tastic | 76) for'mation |
| 77) il'legal | 78) in'ducement |
| 79) mis'taken | 80) mo'mentous |

Trisyllabic words taking the primary stress on the THIRD syllable :

- | | |
|------------------|-----------------|
| 81) ,adres'sec | 82) ,after'noon |
| 83) ,appre'hend | 84) ,ciga'rette |
| 85) ,over'take | 86) ,refu'gee |
| 87) ,under'stand | |

Words of more than three syllables— various stress patterns

- | | |
|----------------------|---------------------|
| 88) ,acci'dental | 89) ac'celerate |
| 90) ,accu'sation | 91) 'adequacy |
| 92) 'advan'tageous | 93) ,agi'tation |
| 94) al'ternative | 94) au,thori'tarian |
| 96) au'thority | 97) ,calcu'lation |
| 98) ,combi'nation | 99) com'parative |
| 100) com'petitive | 101) ,confi'dential |
| 102) ,conver'sation | 103) ,curi'osity |
| 104) ,demon'stration | 105) ,disa'greement |
| 106) 'dynamism | 107) e'lectrocute |
| 108) e'lectrify | 109) ,ele'vation |
| 110) en,thusi'astic | 111) ex,ami'nation |
| 112) ex'emplary | 113) ,ex'penditure |
| 114) ex'tempore | 115) ,fasci'nation |
| 116) im'practicable | 117) ,inde'pendent |

- | | |
|---------------------|-----------------------|
| 118) instan'taneous | 119) ,insti'tution |
| 120) in'tensity | 121) ,libe'rality |
| 122) man'nerism | 123) 'mo'nopoly |
| 124) mo'notonous | 125) ,oppo'runity |
| 126) prepa'ration | 127) re,sponsi'bility |
| 128) sug'gestible | 129) ,terri'torial |
| 130) verifi'cation | |

Check Your Progress 2

A number of English words are given below. Say them yourself and ascertain which is the stressed syllable in each word. Then mark the stressed syllables by using the appropriate mark (' for primary stress and , for secondary stress) BEFORE the syllables that are stressed. After you have marked all the words, check your answers with those provided at the end of this unit and then say the words with the correct stress patterns. You can also listen to these words on the cassette.

- | | |
|-----------------|--------------------|
| 1) abide | 2) across |
| 3) address | 4) ancient |
| 5) arrive | 6) artery |
| 7) affection | 8) atmosphere |
| 9) attempt | 10) behave |
| 11) behaviour | 12) broadcast |
| 13) bubble | 14) bucket |
| 15) chimpanzee | 16) burglar |
| 17) carbon | 18) chapter |
| 19) consolation | 20) contain |
| 21) cradle | 22) dictator |
| 23) engineer | 24) family |
| 26) familiar | 26) fraternal |
| 27) gamble | 28) gentle |
| 29) hasty | 30) hatred |
| 31) honour | 32) hono'urable |
| 33) humour | 34) humo'rous |
| 35) jackal | 36) king'dom |
| 37) knowledge | 38) know'ledgeable |
| 39) lethargy | 40) letharic |
| 41) moment | 42) momentary |
| 43) mon'otony | 14) natural |
| 45) notorious | 46) original |
| 47) oppo'runity | 48) prepare |
| 49) preparation | 50) relate |
| 51) relation | 52) relative |
| 53) restaurant | 54) ,robust |
| 55) satisfy | 56) satisfaction |
| 57) select | 58) sele'ction |
| 59) table | 60) translate |

6.6 WORD STRESS AFFECTED BY SUFFIXES

The addition of some derivational suffixes affects the stress pattern but this is not the case with all suffixes.

- (1) Examples of suffixes which do not affect the stress pattern
- 1) -able (verb → adjective)

ad'vise	ad'visable
re'ly	re'liable
 - able (noun → adjective)

'comfort	'comfortable
'honour	'honourable
'knowledge	'knowledgeable
 - ii) -age (noun → noun)

'orphan	'orphanage
---------	------------
 - age (verb → noun)

'cover	coverage
--------	----------
 - iii) -ance, (verb → noun)

ap'pear	ap'pearance
dis'turb	dis'turbance
per'form	par'formance
 - iv) -er (verb → noun)

com'mand	com'mander
re'ceive	re'ceiver
 - er (noun → noun)

'London	'Londoner
---------	-----------
 - v) -ess (noun → noun)

'actor	'actress
'waiter	'waitress
 - vii) -ful (noun → adjective)

e'vent	e'ventful
--------	-----------
 - ful (noun → noun)

pocket	'pocketfu
--------	-----------
 - vii) -fy (noun → verb)

'terror	'terrify
---------	----------
 - viii) -ize (noun → verb)

'crystal	'crystallize
'public	'publicize
 - ize (adjective → verb)

'final	'finalize
'modern	'modernize
 - ix) -ly (noun → adjective)

'mother	'motherly
'order	'orderly
 - ly (adjective → adverb)

'clever	'cleverly
'even	'evenly
'musical	'musically
 - x) -plent (verb → noun)

appoint	appointment
commence	commencement
enter'tain	enter'tainment
govern	'government
 - xi) address (adjective → noun)

letter	letterness
--------	------------
 - xii) -ust (verb → noun)

enquer	enquirer
direct	director
invent	inventor
 - xiii) -hum (noun → adjective)

built	building
melt	melting

ex'pose ex'posure
 xv) -y (noun → adjective)
 'winter 'wintry

(2) Examples of suffixes which affect the stress pattern

i) -ate

In words of more than two syllables ending in the suffix *-ate*, the primary stress is placed two syllables before the suffix, that is, on the third syllable from the end, e.g.

'activate
 'cultivate
 'educate
 'fortunate
 'separate

ii) -eer This suffix always has the main stress. e.g.

e'lection e'lectio'neer
 'profit 'profi'teer

iii) -esque This suffix always has the main stress. e.g.

'picture pictu'resque
 'statue statu'esque

iv) -ial In words ending in the suffix *-ial*, the main stress is on the syllable immediately preceding the suffix. e.g.

'confidence confi'dential
 'essence es'sential
 'industry in'dustrial
 'office offi'cial
 'president presi'dential

v) -ian In words ending in the suffix *-ian*, the main stress is on the syllable immediately preceding the suffix. e.g.

'library li'brarian
 'music mu'sician
 pho'netics pho'netician

vi) -ic, -ical In words ending in the suffix *-ic*, or *-ical*, the main stress is on the syllable preceding the suffix. e.g.

a'cademy aca'demic
 'grammar gram'matical
 'patriot patri'otic
 'sympathy sympa'thetic

vii) -ion In words ending in the suffix *-ion*, the main stress is on the syllable immediately preceding the suffix. e.g.

ap'ply appli'cation
 'civilize civili'zation
 'decorate deco'ration
 ex'amine exami'nation
 i'magine imagi'nation
 op'pose oppo'sition
 pre'pare prepa'ration

viii) -itis This suffix always has the main stress on its first syllable. e.g.

'tonsil tonsi'litis

ix) -ity In words ending in the suffix *-ity*, the main stress is on the syllable immediately preceding the suffix. e.g.

'able a'bility
 'curious curi'osity
 'equal e'quality

'generous ,gene'rosity
 'moral mo'rality
 o'riginal o,rigi'nality
 'possible ,possi'bility
 'stupid stu'pidity

Check Your Progress 3

1 Mark the stressed syllables in the following words. After you have checked your answers, say each word with the correct stress pattern. You can also listen to these words on the cassette.

- 1) editorial
- 2) profession
- 3) learner
- 4) edition
- 5) clarify
- 6) usefulness
- 7) teacher
- 8) presentation
- 9) unrealistic
- 10) intelligibility
- 11) situation
- 12) educational
- 13) development
- 14) activity
- 15) practicality
- 16) available
- 17) authentic
- 18) incorporate
- 19) unfortunately
- 20) section

Given below are a few words and a few other words which are derived from them. Mark the stressed syllables in all these words. After you have checked your answers say each word with the correct stress pattern. You can also listen to these words on the cassette.

- | | | | |
|--------------|---|--------------|-----------------|
| 1) abdomen | — | abdominal | |
| 2) accept | — | acceptance | — acceptability |
| 3) accident | — | accidental | — accidentally |
| 4) advance | — | advancement | |
| 5) advantage | — | advantageous | |
| 6) beauty | — | beautiful | — beautifully |
| 7) baptize | — | baptism | |
| 8) bounty | — | bountiful | |
| 9) behave | — | behaviour | |
| 10) capable | — | capability | |
| 11) capital | — | capitalize | |
| 12) confess | — | confession | |
| 13) connect | — | connection | |
| 14) crucify | — | crucifixion | |
| 15) depart | — | departure | |

16) discipline	—	disciplinarian	
17) disclose	—	disclosure	
18) establish	—	establishment	
19) forgive	—	forgiveness	
20) honour	—	honourable	— honourably
21) human	—	humanity	
22) liable	—	liability	
23) monotony	—	monotonous	
24) nation	—	national	— nationality

6.7. STRESS SHIFT ACCORDING TO THE FUNCTION OF WORDS

There are a number of words in English which can be used as nouns or adjectives and also as verbs. We are specially concerned with a few **DISYLLABIC** words of this sort. In the case of some of these disyllabic words, the stress is **ON THE SAME SYLLABLE** whether the word is used as a noun, adjective or verb. On the other hand, there are a few disyllabic words which take the **STRESS** on the **FIRST SYLLABLE** if the words are used as **NOUNS** or **ADJECTIVES** and on the **SECOND** syllable if they are used as **VERBS**. Some examples are given of both categories of such words.

1 *Disyllabic words which take the stress on the SAME syllable whether used as nouns/adjectives or verbs.*

- 1) ad'vance (noun and verb)
- 2) a'lert (adjective and verb)
- 3) 'anger (noun and verb)
- 4) a'ward (noun and verb)
- 5) bal'loon (noun and verb)
- 6) 'capture (noun and verb)
- 7) com'plete (adjective and verb)
- 8) 'credit (noun and verb)
- 9) 'damage (noun and verb)
- 10) de'bate (noun and verb)
- 11) dis'grace (noun and verb)
- 12) 'honour (noun and verb)
- 13) 'empty (adjective and verb)
- 14) mis'take (noun and verb)
- 15) 'order (noun and verb)

2 *Disyllabic words which take the stress on the FIRST syllable if used as nouns/adjectives and on the SECOND syllable if used as verbs.*

	Noun/adjective	Verb
1)	'absent (adjective)	ab sent (verb)
2)	'contract (noun)	con'tract (verb)
3)	con'vert (noun)	con'vert (verb)
4)	'convict (noun)	con'vict (verb)
5)	'export (noun)	ex'port (verb)
6)	'import (noun)	im'port (verb)
7)	'present (noun and adjective)	pre'sent (verb)
8)	'record (noun)	re'cord (verb)

Check Your Progress 4

Mark the stressed syllables in the **italicized** words in the following sentences. After you have checked your answers say the sentences with the correct stress patterns. You

can also listen to these sentences on the cassette.

- 1) How many students are *absent* today?
- 2) He *absented* himself from the meeting.
- 3) They *bartered* farm products for machinery.
- 4) Try to *channel* your abilities to something useful.
- 5) Two parties have *combined* to form a government.
- 6) The general *commanded* his men to attack the city.
- 7) He seems *content* just to sit in front of the television all night.
- 8) He *contented* himself with light snacks even though he could have had a full meal.
- 9) I like the style of this book but I don't like the *content*.
- 10) Everything in her story is correct to the smallest *detail*.
- 11) The *export* of gold is forbidden.
- 12) I can *forecast* that it is going to rain this evening.
- 13) You've made too many *mistakes*.
- 14) I cannot *permit* such cruelty.
- 15) He's the best writer that country has *produced*.
- 16) This case is marked '*Produce* of India.'
- 17) You must *record* the minutes of the meeting.
- 18) Keep a *record* of how much you spend.
- 19) Don't *address* me as 'officer'.
- 20) I can't read the *address* on this letter.

6.8 SOME IMPORTANT RULES CONCERNING WORD STRESS

Even though what we have said so far in this unit may give you the impression that word stress in English is something unpredictable and confusing, there are a few important rules regarding word stress. These rules are given below with a few examples for each rule.

Rule 1

Words with weak prefixes have the stress on the ROOT and NOT on the prefix. For example :

- | | |
|--------------|--------------|
| 1) a'bed | 2) a'far |
| 3) a'loud | 4) be'little |
| 5) be'friend | |

Rule 2

The inflectional suffixes *-ed* (the one we use to make the past and past participle forms of verbs), *-s*, or *-es* (the one we use to make the plural forms of most nouns and the simple present third person singular forms of most verbs) and *-ing* (the suffix we use to form the present participle of a verb) do NOT affect the stress. That is, words to which these suffixes are added have the stress on the SAME SYLLABLE after the suffixes are added as the ones on which the root word has the stress. A few examples are given for each of the three suffixes.

<i>-ed</i>	ab'duct	ab'ducted
	con'duct	con'ducted
	de'duct	de'ducted
	effect	effected.

-es	'forfeit 'bandage 'damage di'sease 'garage 'manage	'forfeited 'bandages 'damages di'seases 'garages 'manages
-ing	'answer 'audit be'lieve con'tain de'mand af'fect for'bid	'answering 'auditing be'lieving con'taining de'manding af'fecting for'bitting

Rule 3

The derivational suffixes *-age, -ance, -en, -er, -ess, -ful, -hood, -ish, -ive, -less, -ly, -ment, -ness, -or, and -ship* do NOT change the stress pattern. The root words and the new words formed by adding these suffixes have the stress on the SAME syllable. For example :

-age	'cover 'marry	'coverage 'marriage
-ance	an'noy at'tend	an'noyance at'tendance
-en	bright	'brighten
-er	be'gin	be'ginner
-ess	'waiter	'waitress
-ful	'beauty 'colour	'beautiful 'colourful
-hood	'widow 'mother	'widowhood 'motherhood
-ish	'woman 'yellow	'womanish 'yellowish
-ive	a'buse of'fend	a'busive of'fensive
-less	'colour	'colourless
-ly	'certain 'beautiful	'certainly 'beautifully
-ment	a'chieve 'better	a'chievement 'betterment
-ness	'useless 'lovely	'uselessness 'loveliness
-or	col'lect pos'sess	col'lector pos'sessor
-ship	'author 'scholar	'authorship 'scholarship

Rule 4

Words ending in the suffix *-ion* have the primary stress on the syllable immediately preceding the suffix, that is, the penultimate syllable (the last syllable but one) in the word. For example,

am'bition
col'lection
di'rection
'motion
'nation

Rule 5

Words ending in the suffixes *-ic, -ical, and -ically* have the primary stress on the syllable immediately preceding the suffix. For example,

a'polo'getic
e'lectric

fan'tastic
pa'thetic
,bio'logical
,cate'gorical
e'lectrical
,psycho'logical
,eco'nomically
,psycho'logically

Rule 6

Words ending in the suffix *-ial* have the primary stress on the syllable immediately preceding the suffix. For example :

com'mercial
confi'dential

Rule 7

Words ending in the suffix *-ity* have the primary stress on the syllable immediately preceding the suffix, that is, the **THIRD** syllable from the end of the word. For example,

a'bility
bar'barity
ca'pacity
,gene'rosity

Check Your Progress 5

State the rule to determine the location of the primary stress in each of the following words :

1 introduction

.....
.....
.....

2 accompany

.....
.....
.....

3 university

.....
.....
.....

4 artistic

.....
.....
.....

5 government

.....
.....
.....

6.9 LET US SUM UP

An English word may have one or more SYLLABLES. A word consisting of only one syllable is called a **MONOSYLLABIC** word. Words of two syllables are called **DISYLLABIC** words, words of three syllables are called **TRISYLLABIC** words, and words of more than three syllables are called **POLYSYLLABIC** words.

An English word of more than one syllable is said in such a way that one of its syllables stands out from the rest; that is, it is more prominent than the other syllables in the word. The syllable which stands out and is more prominent than the rest is called the STRESSED syllable or the ACCENTED syllable.

Sometimes, in words consisting of three or more syllables, TWO syllables stand out from the rest. One of them has what we call 'main' or 'primary' stress and the other has secondary stress.

In English, word stress is not fixed to a particular syllable. There are words which are stressed on the first syllable, others which are stressed on the second syllable and yet others which have the main stress on the third syllable or the fourth syllable.

When we add a suffix to a word and thus form a new word, some such derived words take the stress on the same syllable as the root word, while in the case of other derived words, the stress is on a different syllable.

There are many disyllabic words in English which can be used as nouns or adjectives and as verbs. In the case of some such words, the stress is on the same syllable whether the word is used as a noun or adjective or a verb. There are, however, other disyllabic words which are stressed on the first syllable if they are used as nouns or adjectives and on the second syllable if they are used as verbs.

There are some important rules regarding word stress in English which are listed in this unit.

6.10 KEY WORDS

'Syllable : a word or part of a word which contains a vowel sound or a consonant acting as a vowel. e.g. *button* / 'bʌtn / has two syllables.

'monosyllable : a word which has only one syllable.

'polysyllable : a word which has three or more syllables.

'stress : the degree of force put on a part of a word, making it seem stronger than other parts.

'primary 'stress (also called 'primary accent') : the strongest force given in speech to part of a compound or long word (shown in this unit by the mark ').

'secondary 'stress (also called secondary accent) : the next to the strongest force given in speech to part of a compound or long word (shown in this unit by the mark ,).

'suffix : an affix that is placed at the end of a word.

6.11 SOME USEFUL BOOKS

Balasubramanian. T (1981, 1987) *A Textbook of English Phonetics for Indian Students*, Macmillan India Ltd.

Bansal, R.K. and J.B. Harrison (1983) *Spoken English for India*, Orient Longman, 2nd edition.

CIEFL (1974), *Exercises in Spoken English, Part 1: Accent, Rhythm and Intonation*.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

- iii) 3 ; /ə b.dʒek.tɪv /
 iv) 2 ; / kə set /
 v) 3 ; / rɪ,kə:d.i.j /
 vi) 4 ; / ɪntrə.dʌkʃən /
 vii) 3 ; / praɪ.məri /
 viii) 4 ; / se.kən.dəri /
 ix) 5 ; / kɔːrɪk:təri.tɪk /
 x) 2 ; / ɪz.gɪf /

Check Your Progress 2

- | | |
|--------------------|-------------------|
| 1) a'bidə | 2) a'krɒs |
| 3) ad'dres | 4) 'aɪnʃənt |
| 5) ar'raɪv | 6) 'ɑːtəri |
| 7) af'fekʃən | 8) 'atmə'sfɪə |
| 9) at'tempt | 10) be'hæv |
| 11) be'hævɪə | 12) 'brɒdkɑːst |
| 13) 'bʌbl | 14) 'bʌkɪt |
| 15) ,çɪmpən'ziː | 16) 'bɜːglər |
| 17) 'kɑːbən | 18) 'tʃæptər |
| 19) ,kɒnsə'leɪʃən | 20) kɒn'teɪn |
| 21) 'krædl | 22) dɪk'teɪtər |
| 23) ,endʒɪ'niə | 24) 'fæmɪli |
| 25) fə'mɪliər | 26) frə'tɜːnl |
| 27) 'gæmbl | 28) 'dʒentl |
| 29) 'hæsti | 30) 'hætrɪd |
| 31) 'hɒnər | 32) 'hɒnərəbəl |
| 33) 'hʊmə | 34) 'hʊmərəs |
| 35) 'dʒækəl | 36) 'kɪŋdəm |
| 37) 'nɒlɪdʒ | 38) 'nɒlɪdʒəbəl |
| 39) 'leθərʒi | 40) le'thɜːdʒɪk |
| 41) 'mɒmənt | 42) 'mɒməntəri |
| 43) mɒ'nɒtəni | 44) 'nætʃrəl |
| 45) nɒ'tɔːriəs | 46) ɒ'rɪdʒɪnəl |
| 47) ,ɒpə'tʊnəti | 48) pre'pəreɪ |
| 49) ,pre'pə'reɪʃən | 50) re'leɪt |
| 51) re'leɪʃən | 52) 'relatɪv |
| 53) 'restərɒnt | 54) rɒ'bʌst |
| 55) 'sætɪsfaɪ | 56) ,sætɪs'fækʃən |
| 57) se'lekt | 58) se'lekʃən |
| 59) 'teɪbəl | 60) træn'sleɪt |

Check Your Progress 3

- | | |
|--------------------|-----------------------|
| 1) ,edɪ'tɔːriəl | 2) prə'feɪʃən |
| 3) 'lɜːnər | 4) e'dɪʃən |
| 5) 'klærɪfaɪ | 6) 'juːfʊlnəs |
| 7) 'tiːtʃər | 8) ,prezən'teɪʃən |
| 9) ,ʌnrɪə'lɪstɪk | 10) ɪn'telɪdʒɪ'bɪləti |
| 11) ,sɪtʊ'eɪʃən | 12) ,edʊ'keɪʃən |
| 13) de'veləp'ment | 14) æk'tɪvəti |
| 15) ,præktɪ'kæləti | 16) ə'veɪləbəl |
| 17) ɔː'thɛntɪk | 18) ɪn'kɔːpəreɪt |
| 19) ʌn'fɔːtʊnətli | 20) 'seɪʃən |

- | | | |
|----------------|------------------|-----------------|
| 2) 1) 'æbdəmən | ab'dɒmɪnəl | |
| 2) æk'sept | æk'septəns | æk'septə'bɪləti |
| 3) 'æksɪdənt | æk'sɪdəntəl | æk'sɪdəntli |
| 4) æd'vɑːns | æd'vɑːnsmənt | |
| 5) æd'vɑːntɪdʒ | æd'vɑːntɪdʒəs | |
| 6) 'bjuːtɪ | 'bjuːtɪfʊl | |
| 7) bæptɪz | 'bæptɪzəm | |
| 8) 'baʊntɪ | 'baʊntɪfʊl | |
| 9) be'hæv | be'hævɪə | |
| 10) 'kæpəbəl | kæpə'bɪləti | |
| 11) 'kæpɪtəl | kæpɪtəlaɪz | |
| 12) kɒn'fes | kɒn'feɪʃən | |
| 13) kɒn'nekt | kɒn'nekʃən | |
| 14) 'krʊçɪfaɪ | krʊçɪ'fɪʃən | |
| 15) de'pɑːt | de'pɑːtʃər | |
| 16) 'dɪsɪplɪn | ˌdɪsɪplɪ'nɜːriən | |
| 17) dɪs'kləʊs | dɪs'kləʊʃər | |
| 18) e'stæblɪʃ | e'stæblɪʃmənt | |
| 19) fɔː'gɪv | fɔː'gɪvənəs | |
| 20) 'hɒnər | 'hɒnərəbəl | 'hɒnərəbli |

- | | | | |
|-----|-----------|-------------|---------------|
| 21) | 'human | hu'manity | |
| 22) | 'liable | ,lia'bility | |
| 23) | mo'notony | mo'notonous | |
| 24) | 'nation | 'national | ,natio'nality |

Check Your Progress 4

- | | | | | |
|---|-----|-----------|-----|------------|
| 1 | 1) | 'absent | 2) | ab'sented |
| | 3) | 'bartered | 4) | 'channel |
| | 5) | com'bined | 6) | com'manded |
| | 7) | con'tent | 8) | con'tented |
| | 9) | 'content | 10) | 'detail |
| | 11) | 'export | 12) | 'forecast |
| | 13) | mis'takes | 14) | per'mit |
| | 15) | pro'duced | 16) | 'produce |
| | 17) | re'cord | 18) | 'record |
| | 19) | ad'dress | 20) | ad'dress |

Check Your Progress 5

- 1 Rule 4 : Words ending in the suffix *-ion* have the primary stress on the syllable immediately preceding the suffix. (intro'duction)
- 2 Rule 1 : Words with weak prefixes have the stress on the root and not on the prefix. (ac'company)
- 3 Rule 7 : Words ending in the suffix *-ity* have the primary stress on the syllable immediately preceding the suffix. (uni'versity)
- 4 Rule 5 : Words ending in the suffix *-ic* have the primary stress on the syllable immediately preceding the suffix. (ar'tistic)
- 5 Rule 3 : The suffix *-ment* does not change the stress pattern of the root. (government).

UNIT 7 STRESS AND RHYTHM IN CONNECTED SPEECH

Structure

- 7.0 Objectives
 - 7.1 Introduction
 - 7.2 Connected Speech
 - 7.3 Words to be Stressed in Connected Speech
 - 7.4 Content Words and Grammatical Words
 - 7.5 Rhythm
 - 7.6 Weak Forms
 - 7.7 Let Us Sum Up
 - 7.8 Key Words
 - 7.9 Some Useful Books
 - Answers
-

7.0 OBJECTIVES

In this unit we shall discuss stress and rhythm in connected speech. After completing this unit you should be able to read (or say) sentences with the stress on the right words.

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 6 we discussed word stress and pointed out that in words having more than one syllable, one of the syllables (sometimes two) had to be stressed. You have to know which syllable (or syllables) should be stressed in a word. In this unit we shall study the patterns of stress and rhythm in connected speech.

Cassette Recording

An audio-cassette recording accompanies this unit and is available at the Study Centres of the University.

7.2 CONNECTED SPEECH

In CONNECTED SPEECH we put words together to form phrases and sentences. For example, 'rice and curds' is a phrase and 'I am a student' is a sentence. When we put words together to form phrases and sentences in English, how do we say them? Do we give equal importance to all the words that form a phrase or a sentence? In other words, do we STRESS all the words in a phrase or sentence? No, we don't. In a phrase or sentence (or in a longer piece of connected speech) we give importance to (or stress) some of the words and leave the others unstressed. For example, in the phrase 'rice and curds' we stress the words 'rice' and 'curds' and leave the word 'and' unstressed. In the sentence 'I am a student' we stress only the word 'student' and leave the other words unstressed. The phrase and the sentence given above are reproduced below, this time with the stressed words marked with the vertical bar.

Rice and curds.

I am a student.

7.3 WORDS TO BE STRESSED IN CONNECTED SPEECH

In the two examples given in 7.2 above we stressed certain words and left others unstressed. Are there any rules regarding which words we should stress in a piece of connected speech? Yes, there are. In fact, the meaning of the phrase or the sentence decides this. We stress those words in a phrase or sentence that are important for the meaning of the phrase or sentence.

7.4 CONTENT WORDS AND GRAMMATICAL WORDS

We said in 7.3 above that we stress those words that are important for the meaning. Let us illustrate this. In the sentence 'I love you' if the speaker wants to tell the person that he loves only the person referred to as 'you' and no one else, he will stress the word 'you'. If, on the other hand, the speaker wants to state that he (and no one else) loves that person, he will stress the word 'I'. Look at the same sentence repeated twice below.

I 'love 'you. (The speaker loves that person referred to as 'you' and none else)

'I love you. (The speaker, and none else, loves the person referred to as 'you'.

What if the meaning doesn't require any particular words in an utterance to be stressed? Then the speaker will stress the content words in an utterance and leave the grammatical words unstressed. e.g. I 'love you. Now what are content and grammatical words?

Nouns, main verbs, adjectives, adverbs, question words and demonstratives are content words, that is, they are important for meaning, and articles, pronouns, prepositions, auxiliary verbs, and conjunctions are grammatical words, that is, their main function is to put the sentences in the correct grammatical structures. A few examples are given below, in which only the content words are stressed and the grammatical words are left unstressed. The stressed words are marked with the vertical bar'.

1. I 'gave him 'ten 'books.
2. I 'love my 'friends.
3. I 'love to 'live in 'Delhi.
4. There are 'ten 'boys and 'five 'girls in our 'class.
5. My 'son is a 'good 'driver.
6. I 'ate some 'rice and 'curds.
7. We have a 'grey' cat in our 'house.
8. 'Give me 'six' eggs, 'please.

In the examples given above most of the content words are monosyllabic. What happens when a content word has more than one syllable? If a content word that has more than one syllable occurs in a piece of connected speech, we stress only that syllable in it which we stress when we say the word by itself. A few examples are given below in which the content words have more than one syllable each.

9. The 'coffee was 'excellent.
10. It was an 'excellent a'chievement.
11. I've made a mis'take.
12. They have the charged a'holyday to'day
13. They require any as'sistance.
14. They never forget you.
15. We visited London last Sunday.
16. Where is the religion of finding.
17. I have an important examination tomorrow.

7.5 RHYTHM

Rhythm refers to the quality of something happening at regular periods of time. The rhythm of English speech depends on the stressed syllables occurring at regular intervals of time.

This is easy in a sentence like

'Go and post this 'card.

because in this sentence there is one stressed syllable, then one unstressed syllable, and then one stressed syllable, and so on. Let us take another sentence.

The 'boy you 'met on 'Monday 'came to'see you.

Once again, in this sentence, stressed syllables occur regularly, one after every weak syllable, but there is a slight pause after 'Monday'. In the sentence that we use in our everyday speech, the stressed syllables may not occur so regularly.

Take the sentence.

He is a Pro'fessor of Mathe'matics at the 'University of 'Delhi.

There are four stressed syllables (which have been marked). There are four unstressed syllables before the first stressed syllable, four unstressed syllables between the first and the second stressed syllables, five unstressed syllables between the second and the third stressed syllables, and three unstressed syllables between the last two stressed syllables. Given below is another example.

John's 'friend 'Ram / 'visited him on the occasion of his birthday.

In the sentence given above, four stressed syllables occur together without any unstressed syllable between them but there is a slight pause after 'Ram'. Between the fourth and the fifth stressed syllables, there are six unstressed syllables, and between the fifth and the sixth stressed syllables, there are three unstressed syllables.

How can we make the stressed syllables occur at regular intervals of time, if they don't occur regularly in an utterance as the two sentences given above illustrate?

When there are too many unstressed syllables between two stressed syllables, we have to say them quickly and use the reduced or weak forms of some of the words. In weak syllables the vowels generally used are /ə /, /ɪ / and /ʊ /. Sometimes we also leave out certain sounds—don't pronounce them at all.

7.6 WEAK FORMS

Given below is a list of the weak forms of some common English words. The strong form is used when the word is said in isolation or is stressed. In the case of verbs and prepositions, the strong form is also used when the word comes at the end of the sentence. You can listen to all the examples of weak forms on the cassette.

Word-class	Word	Strong form	Weak form	Examples of a phrase or a sentence with the weak form
Articles	a	/eɪ/	/ə/	It's a book. /ɪts ə 'bʊk/
	an	/æn/	/ən/	He ate an apple. /hi : 'et ən 'æpl/
	the	/ði:/	/ðɪ/ before vowels /ðə/ before consonants	The eight of June. /ði 'eɪt əv 'dzu:ən/ The book's here. /ðə 'bʊks 'hi:ə/
Auxiliary or helping verbs (and linking or connecting verbs)	am	/æm/	/m/	I'm going to Delhi. /aɪm 'gəʊɪŋ tə deli/ I'm a teacher. /aɪm ə 'ti:tʃə/
			/əm/	Am I getting the prize? /əm aɪ 'getɪŋ ðə 'praɪz?/
	are	/ɑ:/	/ə/	They're going. /ðeɪn 'gəʊɪŋ/
	be	/bi:/	/bi/	That'd be nice. /ðætəd bi 'naɪs/
	been	/bi:n/	/bɪn/	I've been here for nine months. /aɪv bi:n 'hɜ:əfə 'naɪn 'mʌnθs/
	can	/kæn/	/kən/	Can I go now? /kən aɪ 'gəʊ 'naʊ/
	could	/kʊd/	/kəd/	Could I borrow your book? /kəd aɪ 'bɒrɒv jɜ: 'bʊk/
Auxiliary or helping verbs (or linking or connecting verbs)	do	/du:/	/du/	How do I know? /haʊ du aɪ 'nəʊ/
			/dɪ/	Do they know? /dɔ feɪ 'nəʊ/
			/d/	D'you smoke? /dju 'sməʊk/

Word-class	Word	Strong form	Weak form	Examples of a phrase or a sentence with the weak form
	does	/d^z/	/dez/	Does he know it? /day/ it neu it/
	had	/haed/	/had / / y d /	Had I known it... / had a 'houn it..../ John had come. / 'dzhnad 'k^m/
	has	/hɒz /	/ed / / hax / / az / / z / / s /	He'd done it. / hi ;d^a n it/ Has he come? / has ^l : 'k^m/ The bus has gone. / d e 'br az' gan/ John's come. / 'dzoŋz k'm/
	have	/h'xv/	/hav/ / z /	He does arrived / h hr'ksa ard/ He arrived / h ^ vrvt d / john's gone / jhns / ant/ do/
Auxiliary or helping verbs (or linking or connecting verbs)	is	/iz/	/ z / / is /	She come / sh'e c^ome / He went / h'e we'^t /
	must	/m Ast /	/ mest /	I must gonow. / m.nou 'era'aau/
	shall	/fael/	/fat/ / /	build well. / rfe'd'fill'^ed / either or whether/ done/
	should/	/fud /	/fun/	You donot keep her. / rfe'fed' help mi/
	was	/whz /	/ waz /	Was he there? / was ither /
	were	/w3: /	/ we /	Were they here? / wasin hra/
	will	/wil /	/ /	I'll do ittoday / aul 'dJ it tobe/
	would	/wud /	'ad / /e/	That's he came / yxi, de be nas/ I'd habisc done in for you. / and ev 'dnot if foju/
Preposition	at	/ x t /	/ s t /	I met im at the post office / as met unotx 'paust bfis/
	for	/ fo : /	/ fa /	I did not for anymother / audid it f mau m ^ /
	from	/fro:m /	/ from /	The letter/s from mymother /me letza fram maim^ja/
Prepositions (condt.)	of	/ av /	/ a v /	It's made of silver. / its 'mad a v 'salva/
Word-	Word	Strong form	Weak form	Examples of a phrase or a

Word-class	Word	Strong form	Weak form	Examples of a phrase or a sentence with the weak form		
Conjunctions	to	/tu/	/tə/ (before vowels) /tə/ (before component)	A-pint f milk / a 'pant a 'milk/ He want in Arther's room /to went tu abaz ruim / He is gone to home / he gpn to raum /		
	and	/x and/	/Xzin/ / an /	over and above / favour and a'bove/ butter and jam. / 'b etreen dzzm /		
	as	/x l/	/ a z/	As soon as I can. / az suin az a 'kacn /		
	but	/b^t/	/ bat /	Nothing but the truth / 'nifthon bat fe tru:0/		
	then	/fxn/	/fan/	Better later than never. / 'bet a 'lettsen 'neva/		
	that	/txt/	/ Sat/	She said that she d come. //fised Jn fiid l ^am/		
	Pronoun	he	/h e/	/ ha / / is /	He told me /hi t auld mi / is he here / / is it heave /	
		her	/har/	/ hare/	Her sister come / he sataz k mi./	
		Pronouns	me	/ m a/	/ t / (object form) / nu /	Please look her /Plase habks / Give me a pen / g'v m'e pene/
			she	/ Sh /	/ shi/	She should held me / fir the sempl me/
others	us	/ mas /	/ a s /	In this place / in ^vith thie /		
	we	/ wt /	/ wm /	He made a mistake / ar med ames tcki/		
	you	/ juc /	/ ju /	You told me a lie. / ju'taught me the lawi/		
	Sir	/ s3:/	/ s /	Yes sir. / yes sa/		
	Some	/s&^m/	/sam/	Give ma some money / givo me same image /		

A very important point to remember is that the weak forms of prepositions and auxiliary and linking verbs are NOT used when they occur at the end of a sentence.

The sentence

Where are you from ?

cannot end with the weak form /from/. It has to end with the strong form /frɒm/. Similarly, 'who's coming' /hrzkk min//lam'/ alixm/ (Note the strong form of 'ain_0. Check YOUR progress:

Mark the stressed syllables in the following sentences. In some cases you may have to divide the sentence into groups. Check your answers with those given at the end of this unit. After you have checked your answers, say the sentences with the correct, stress patterns. You can also listen to these sentences on the cassette.

- 1 He's a good painter.
- 2 She's a nice girl.
- 3 Jack and Jill went to get some water.
- 4 It's a very beautiful building.
- 5 The Prime Minister of India is quite young.
- 6 Can I see you at ten?
- 7 I'm afraid I'm very late today
- 8 My father is a retired engineer.
- 9 The plane to London is delayed by two hours.
- 10 Can you get me a cup of tea?
- 11 He's extremely honest.
- 12 Honesty is the best policy.
- 13 He's a Professor of Physics.
- 14 Can a cobra swim?
- 15 My neighbour has an imported car.
- 16 Have you ever travelled by train?
- 17 I worked in the States for two years
- 18 Jackals are very cunning animals.
- 19 I have a working knowledge of Arabic.
- 20 It's impossible to please everybody
- 21 What an enormous man!
- 22 She has a very pleasant personality.
- 23 Uncle Robert visited us yesterday.
- 24 Please bring me a chair.
- 25 Would you like anything to drink?

7.7 LET US SUM UP

In connected speech we put words together to form phrases and sentences, but we do not stress all the words. We stress some words in each sentence and leave the others unstressed.

We stress those words in a sentence *that are important for the meaning of the sentence*.

If the meaning of a sentence does not require any words to be specially stressed, then we stress the **content words** and leave the **grammatical words**.

Content words are nouns, main verbs, adjectives, adverbs, question words, and demonstrative pronouns. **Structure words** or **grammatical words** are articles, prepositions, pronouns, auxiliary verbs, and conjunctions.

If a content word has more than one syllable, we stress only one of its syllables, and it is the syllable which has the stress when the word is said by itself.

The rhythm of English speech depends on *stressed syllables* occurring at regular intervals of time, whatever be the number of unstressed syllables between two stressed syllables.

In order to make this happen, we use *short* or *contracted* forms of a number of structure words, and these are called their **weak forms**.

It is important to use the weak forms in English speech in order to maintain the rhythm of English.

7.8 KEY WORDS

content words : those words in a sentence which carry the meaning. These words are: nouns, main verbs, adjectives, adverbs, demonstrative pronouns. These words are generally stressed in a sentence.

structure words : These words are also called **grammatical words**. These words are normally not stressed in connected speech, unless the meaning of the sentence in which they occur requires it. The structure words are: articles, pronouns, prepositions, auxiliary verbs, and conjunctions.

weak form : a form of a word used in unstressed positions and having a weak vowel, e.g. *would* written as 'd and pronounced / d / in *I'd like to go now*.

7.9 SOME USEFUL BOOKS

Balasubramanian, T. (1981, 1987) *A Textbook of English Phonetics for Indian Students*, Macmillan India Limited.

Bansal, R.K. and J.B. Harrison / (1983) *Spoken English for India*. Orient Longman, Second Edition.

CIEFL (1974) : *Exercises in Spoken English : Part 1 : Accent, Rhythm and Intonation*.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress

- 1 He's a 'good 'painter.
- 2 She's a 'nice 'girl.
- 3 'Jack and Jill / 'went to 'get some 'water. (division into groups shown by
- 4 It's a 'very 'beautiful 'building.
- 5 The 'Prime 'Minister of 'India / is 'quite 'young.
- 6 Can I 'see you at 'ten?
- 7 I'm afraid I'm 'very 'late to 'day.
- 8 My 'father is a re'tired engi'neer.
- 9 The 'plane to 'London / is de'layed by 'two 'hours.
- 10 Can you 'get me a 'cup of 'tea?
- 11 He is ex'tremely 'honest.
- 12 'Honesty is the 'best 'policy.
- 13 He is a pro'fessor of 'Physics.
- 14 Can a 'cobra 'swim?
- 15 My 'neighbour has an im'ported 'car.
- 16 Have you 'ever 'travelled by 'train?
- 17 I 'worked in the 'States for 'two 'years.
- 18 'Jackals are 'very 'cunning 'animals.
- 19 I have a 'working 'knowledge of 'Arabic.
- 20 It's im'possible to 'please 'everybody.
- 21 'What an e'normous 'man!
- 22 She has a 'very 'pleasantperso'nality.
- 23 'Uncle 'Robert 'visited us 'yesterday.
- 24 'Please 'bring me a 'chair.
- 25 Would you 'like 'anything to 'drink?

UNIT 8 INTONATION-1

Structure

- 8.0 Objectives
 - 8.1 Introduction
 - 8.2 Saying Short Sentences
 - 8.3 Saying Longer Sentences
 - 8.4 Breath Groups/Sense Groups
 - 8.5 Tone Groups
 - 8.6 Let Us Sum Up
-

8.0 OBJECTIVES

In this unit we shall discuss another aspect of spoken English—how to divide long utterances into groups. After reading this unit, you should be able to

- a) read or say sentences with the pauses in the appropriate places;
 - b) decide, before reading a text, where to pause.
-

8.1 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 7 we discussed sentence stress, rhythm, and the weakening of certain words in connected speech. In this unit we shall discuss the division of longer sentences into groups.

Cassette Recording

An audio cassette recording accompanies this unit and is available at the Study Centres of the University.

8.2 SAYING SHORT SENTENCES

Very often the sentences we say are quite short. Let's look at a couple of short sentences.

- 1 I'm a student.
- 2 My father is a doctor.

Read the two sentences given above several times. You will immediately realise that you don't pause anywhere in the middle of these two sentences, but run through the whole of each sentence in one breath. Given below are some more sentences, each of which can be said without a pause anywhere in the middle. Read them aloud so that you can see for yourself that there is no need to pause in the middle of such short utterances.

- 3 Bangalore is a beautiful city.
- 4 Delhi is hot in summer.
- 5 It's very cold here.
- 6 I want to meet the Director of this Institute.
- 7 Father's gone to Madras.
- 8 It's raining again.
- 9 I want to buy a colour television set.
- 10 I have an important appointment at ten.
- 11 What's your name?
- 12 Where do you live?
- 13 When does the train from Hyderabad arrive?
- 14 What do you do for a living?
- 15 How are you this morning?
- 16 D'you think I can borrow your bicycle?
- 17 Is father at home?
- 18 Can you lend me five rupees?
- 19 Have you seen the Taj Mahal?
- 20 Isn't there a bus to Bangalore now?
- 21 Go away.
- 22 Shut that door.

- 23 Please allow me to go out.
- 24 Work hard throughout the year.
- 25 Close the window, please.
- 26 Stand at ease.
- 27 What a tall building!
- 28 How remarkable!
- 29 What a disappointment for you!
- 30 How wonderful!

8.3 SAYING LONGER SENTENCES

Now let's look at some longer sentences. Two sentences are given below :

- 31 If you work hard, you will pass the examination.
- 32 Whenever it rains, there is power failure.

Read the two sentences given above (Sentences 31 and 32) aloud, several times if necessary. You will realise that while reading them aloud, you pause in the middle of each sentence. The pause can be indicated by the mark /. The same two sentences are given below once again. This time, the pause is indicated by the mark /

- 31a If you work hard / you will pass the examination.
- 32a Whenever it rains / there is power failure.

Let us look at some more sentences, each of which has one or more than one pause in the middle, indicated by /.

- 31 As soon as you reach Bombay / try to see your uncle.
- 32 I went to the market this morning / and bought two kilos of potatoes.
- 33 On your way to school, Mary / post this letter / and order a loaf of bread.
- 34 When I was in Mysore recently / I met my old professor of Physics / who invited me to have lunch with him.
- 35 Some people are born great / while others achieve greatness / and yet others have greatness thrust on them.
- 36 A: Count from one to six, Mary.
Mary : One / two / three / four / five / six.
- 37 Can you please let me have a copy of the Advanced Learner's Dictionary / two exercise books / a bottle of fountain pen ink / and a hundred sheets of writing paper?
- 38 Wherever you go / you should try to be honest.
- 39 Whenever I get time / I turn the pages of the dictionary / and it has stood me in good stead in my academic life.
- 40 Though I worked very hard throughout the year / I could not get even the minimum required for a pass / and this has depressed me quite a lot.

Check your progress

Given below are a few sentences. Read each one of them aloud and decide whether it is necessary to have a pause anywhere. If you think you should pause somewhere in the middle of the sentence, indicate it with the mark /. You need not mark the pause at the end of the sentence, because the end of the sentence always has a pause and it is indicated by the appropriate mark of punctuation.

Check your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

- 1 D'you think I can see your father for a minute?
- 2 I'm afraid father's gone out.
- 3 How much is five and three?
- 4 As I'm going to Bombay, I shan't attend office for a week.
- 5 Lakshmi is very clever, but thoroughly undependable.
- 6 Go and post this letter at once.
- 7 Honesty is the best policy.
- 8 My uncle went to Madras last week, where he met his old professor who had taught him Physics in 1924.

- 9 Mr Albert, our professor of Zoology, will be away for a fortnight.
- 10 Laugh, and the world laughs with you, weep and you weep alone.
- 11 Jack and Jill went up a hill to fetch a pail of water.
- 12 Shakespeare was a famous dramatist who lived in the sixteenth century.
- 13 You must be careful while crossing the road.
- 14 You may think you are very famous, but I don't think so.
- 15 It wasn't very important.
- 16 No one prevents you from working hard.
- 17 Mr. Rajiv Gandhi became the Prime Minister of India after his mother was assassinated.
- 18 Several universities in India offer distance education programmes these days.
- 19 George Bernard Shaw wrote a number of plays.
- 20 There are twenty vowels in English, which can be divided into twelve pure vowels and eight diphthongs.
- 21 Who did you go with to the party?
- 22 Rabindranath Tagore was not only a patriot but also a man of letters, and he was awarded the Nobel Prize in Literature.
- 23 It's pity India didn't win any medals in the 1988 Olympics.
- 24 I don't mind a cup of tea, but I'd prefer some coffee.
- 25 All of us believe firmly in national integration.

8.4 BREATH GROUPS / SENSE GROUPS

The reason why we pause in the middle of long utterances is partly physiological. We use the air that we breathe out to speak English (and several other languages as well). This means that we can go on speaking (or reading) only as long as there is some air left in our lungs. It is necessary, therefore, that we pause frequently during speaking or reading in order to breathe in more air. For this reason, the small units into which we divide long utterances are called **breath groups**.

Surely we can't go on speaking until we become out of breath and then pause in order to breathe in more air? If we do this, our listeners may not be able to make sense out of what we are saying. Also, if you look at sentences 31 to 40 given in 8.3 in this unit, you will realise that there is a very close link between our division of utterances during speech and grammatical units. Because of this reason, the smaller units into which we divide long utterances are also called **sense groups**.

8.5 TONE GROUPS

The smaller units into which we divide utterances are also called **tone groups**. This is because each group is said with a particular intonation pattern. We shall discuss the intonation patterns used in English speech in Units 9 and 10.

8.6 LET US SUM UP

When we speak, if the sentences we use are short, we generally don't pause anywhere in the middle.

On the other hand, if the sentences are long, we pause once or more than once in the middle of each sentence.

The smaller bits into which we divide long utterances are called **breath groups** or **sense groups** or **tone groups**.

ANSWERS

Check your Progress

- 4 As I'm going to Bombay, / I shan't attend office for a week.
- 5 Lakshmi is very clever, / but thoroughly undependable.
- 8 My uncle went to Madras last week, / where he met his old professor / who had taught him Physics in 1924.
- 9 Mr. Albert, / our Professor of Zoology, / will be away for a fortnight.
- 10 Laugh, / and the world laughs with you, / weep / and you weep alone.
- 11 Jack and Jill / went up a hill / to fetch a pail of water.
- 12 Shakespeare was a famous dramatist / who lived in the sixteenth century.
- 14 You may think you are very famous, / but I don't think so.
- 17 Mr. Rajiv Gandhi became the Prime Minister of India / after his mother was assassinated.
- 18 Several universities in India / offer distance education programmes these days.
- 19 George Bernard Shaw / wrote a number of plays.
- 20 There are twenty vowels in English, / which can be divided into twelve pure vowels / and eight diphthongs.
- 22 Rabindranath Tagore was not only a patriot / but also a man of letters / and he was awarded the Nobel Prize in Literature.
- 23 It's a pity India didn't win any medals / in the 1988 Olympics.
- 24 I don't mind a cup of tea, / but I'd prefer some coffee.

UNIT 9 INTONATION-2

Structure

- 9.0 Objectives
- 9.1 Introduction
- 9.2 Choice of Stressed Syllables in an Utterance
- 9.3 Choice of the Nucleus
- 9.4 Let us Sum up.

9.0 OBJECTIVES

In this unit we shall discuss another important aspect of connected speech, that is, the location of the 'nucleus' in each tone group. After reading this unit you should be able to

- a) decide where to place the 'nucleus' in each tone group, and
- b) read or say each group, with the nucleus on the correct syllable.

9.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous three units we discussed (a) word-stress (that is, which syllable in a long word has to be stressed), (b) sentence stress (that is, which words in a sentence have to be stressed), and (c) how to divide long utterances into smaller bits called breath groups, sense groups or tone groups.

In this unit we shall take up the location of the 'nucleus' in each tone group.

Cassette Recording

An Audio cassette recording accompanies this unit and is available at the Study Centres of the University.

9.2 CHOICE OF STRESSED SYLLABLES IN AN UTTERANCE

We mentioned in Unit 7 (see 7.3 and 7.4) that in connected speech we stress those words which are important for the meaning the speaker wants to convey to the listener. We also pointed out that if the meaning does not require any particular word to be stressed specially, the speaker will stress the content word and leave the grammatical words unstressed. We also said in Unit 7 that if a content word has more than one syllable we stress only one of its syllables and that it is the syllable which we stress when we say the word by itself. Let us look at some examples. In the examples given below, stressed syllables are marked with the vertical bar'. The division into tone groups is indicated by the slanting line/.

- 1 'If it 'rains, / I shall 'stay at 'home.
- 2 'Content 'words / are 'stressed in an 'utterance.
- 3 'When we 'speak, / 'ling'sentences are di'vided into 'smaller 'bits.
- 4 'Grammar is a 'branch of Lin'guistics.
- 5 Pho'netics 'deals with 'speech.
- 6 'Speech sounds are divided into 'vowels and 'consonants.
- 7 The Ra'mayana / is 'one of the 'greatest 'epics of the 'world.
- 8 'Once upon a 'time / there was a 'great 'story-teller/who was called Hans 'Christian 'Andersen.
- 9 'Robert 'Browning was a 'great 'poet.
- 10 My 'friend's an 'optimist.
- 11 'Shrimati 'Indira 'Gandhi / was ass'assinated in 'nineteen eighty 'four.
- 12 The 'Indian 'army / is 'one of the 'best in the 'world.
- 13 'Students 'ought to be 'disciplined.
- 14 'The 'Indian 'medium-range 'missile 'Agni/was 'launched in 'May this 'year.
- 15 When'ever the 'traffic lights are red, all 'vehicles should 'stop.
- 16 I 'went to the U'nited 'States of A'merica / when I was nine'teen, / and 'stayed there for 'four 'years.

- 17 I'm a 'student at 'Indira 'Gandhi 'National 'Open Uni'versity.
 18 We've a'chieved a 'number of 'things / in our 'forty 'years of inde'pendence.
 19 Though 'Ravi is 'clever, / he is ex'tremely unde'pendable.
 20 The re'sults of the exami'nation / were an'ounced this 'morning, / and our school has a'chieved a u'nique di'stinction.

9.3 CHOICE OF THE NUCLEUS

In addition to choosing the words to be stressed in an utterance, we have to make another choice. And that is, out of the stressed syllables in each group, which should be the nucleus? In English it is the stressed syllable of either the most important word or the last important word in the tone group that is the nucleus. It is on this syllable that a pitch movement begins. (We shall say more about pitch in Unit 10).

If there is only one stressed syllable in an utterance, it automatically becomes the nucleus of the utterance. Given below are a few such examples. In each of the following short utterances there is only one stressed syllable and it is the nucleus of the utterance. In the following examples, the stressed syllable (which is also the nucleus of the utterance) has been italicized.

- 21 I'm a 'boy.
 22 He's an 'orphan.
 23 It's 'raining.
 24 I'm 'busy.
 25 He's 'honest.
 26 It's a 'pity.
 27 I 'think so.
 28 He's ar'rived.
 29 I 'love you.
 30 They're 'athletes.

Note that in the sentences given above (Numbers 21 to 30) there is only one content word in each. If it is a monosyllabic word (as in sentences 21, 27 and 29) the whole word is the nucleus. If, as in the other sentences, the content word has more than one syllable, only one syllable has been italicized as the nucleus.

What happens when an utterance has more than one stressed syllable? Which of the many stressed syllables in an utterance do we make the nucleus? The answer is simple. In English the nucleus in each tone group is on the stressed syllable of either the most important or the last important word. Let us take an example. The following sentence (Sentence No. 31) has thirteen syllables. Let us assume that the speaker says it as one group and does not want any of the grammatical words to be stressed. He stresses only the content words. The stressed syllables are marked with the vertical bar '.

- 31 I 'want you to 'take the 'dog for a 'walk in the 'park.

Now out of five stressed syllables, which one will be the nucleus? The choice of the nucleus depends upon the meaning the speaker wants to convey to the listener. The same sentence is given below a number of times, each time with a different nucleus. The meaning conveyed by the utterance each time is indicated within brackets after the utterance. The nucleus is italicized each time.

- 31 a) I 'want you to 'take the 'dog for a 'walk in the 'park.
 (The speaker has made the word 'dog' the nucleus. He wants to make it clear to the listener that it is the dog which has to be taken out for a walk and not any other animal. This is done by making the word 'dog' prominent by initiating a pitch movement on it.)
- 31 b) I 'want you to 'take the 'dog for a 'walk in the 'park.
 (The speaker has made the word 'walk' the nucleus. He wants to tell the listener that the dog must be made to walk and not to run.)
- 31 c) I 'want you to 'take the 'dog for a 'walk in the 'park.
 (The speaker has made the word 'park' the nucleus. He wants to make it clear to the listener that the dog must be taken for a walk to the park and nowhere else)

Now look at the table sentence, given twice below. On each of the two occasions, a

grammatical word has been chosen as the nucleus and on each occasion the meaning intended by the speaker is given within brackets at the end of the sentence.

- 31 d) I want 'you to 'take the 'dog for a 'walk in the 'park.
(The speaker has made the word 'you' the nucleus. He wants to make it clear to the listener that the listener, and no one else, should take the dog out for a walk.)
- 31 e) 'I want you to 'take the 'dog for a 'walk in the 'park.
(The speaker has made the word 'I' the nucleus. He wants to make it clear to the listener that it is the speaker, and no one else, who is giving the instruction.)

If a sentence has more than one stressed syllable and none of the words is particularly important for the meaning, the stressed syllable of the last important word will be the nucleus. Look at the following examples. In each of them, the stressed syllables have been marked as usual with the mark ' and the nucleus has been italicized. It is assumed that in each sentence no word is specially important and so the speaker has chosen the stressed syllable of the last important word as the nucleus.

- 32 It's 'raining a 'gain.
33 'Honesty is the 'best 'Policy.
34 'Thank you very 'much.
35 It's a ri'diculous sug'gestion.
36 'What a 'fall 'man!
37 Can I 'see the 'Principal for a 'minute?
38 It's im'possible to 'please 'everybody.
39 'John 'Keats was a 'famous 'poet.
40 'What's your 'father's pro'fession?

If a sentence has more than one tone-group, each tone-group will have a nucleus. Look at the following sentences. Each one of them has more than one tone-group. The places where the sentences are divided into tone-groups are indicated by the mark / . The stressed syllables in each tone-group have been marked ' and the nucleus in each tone-group has been underline

- 41 As 'soon as you 'reach 'London, / please 'send me a 'letter.
42 There've been 'hundreds of 'dramatists in 'England, / but 'Shakespeare was the 'greatest of them 'all.
43 What'ever you 'do, / if you're 'honest in 'what you 'do / you'll 'win the res'pect and admi'ration of 'all.
44 'What an extra' ordinary 'piece of 'luck!
45 'Kalidas and 'Valmiki were 'great' poets in 'Sanskrit.
46 If you 'don't listen to your 'elders, / you'll 'get into 'trouble.
47 I 'love 'sweets, / but my 'mother doesn't al'low me to 'eat them / because I'm al'ready 'fat.
48 I was in 'Agra 'last De'cember / and I 'saw the 'Taj, / which was 'beautiful on a 'moonlit 'night.
49 'India is the 'largest de'mocracy in the 'world.
50 I 'lived in the 'Middle 'East for 'eight 'years / and en'joyed every 'minute of my 'stay there.

Check Your Progress

Given below are a few sentences. Read each one of them aloud and decide whether it is necessary to have a pause anywhere in the middle. Indicate such pauses with the mark / . Indicate the stressed syllables with the mark ' and underline the nucleus in each group. (Where any special meaning is intended, it is indicated within brackets at the end of the sentence.)

Check your answers with those given at the end of this unit.

Please do it after you have completed the task.

- 1 I must go and meet the Dean tomorrow.
- 2 Five and three make eight.
- 3 George is extremely honest in all his dealings, and he is also very clever.
- 4 Indira Gandhi National Open University has a number of Study Centres, which are located in various parts of the country.
- 5 Each Study Centre has a library.
- 6 The Principal told me that I could apply for admission to the College of Engineering.

7. I want to study medicine but my father insists on my becoming an engineer.
8. Students should be free to choose what they like to study.
9. Delhi is extremely hot in summer but it is extremely cold in winter.
10. Bangalore is a beautiful city and there are several lovely gardens in it.
11. The girl standing next to Gopal is my sister (not Gopal's sister)
12. I hate jam with my bread and butter, but my wife loves it.
13. It's impossible for us to catch flight today for we are still ten kilometers from the airport and one of the tyres of our car has a puncture.
14. It was Abraham Lincoln, the famous President of America, who said that Democracy is government of the people, for the people, and by the people.
15. Doctor Sarvepalli Radhakrishnan was the second President of the Republic of India.
16. Doctor Radhakrishnan succeeded Doctor Rajendra Prasad.
17. Shakespeare wrote a number of plays.
18. It's a remarkable achievement.
19. I'm going to buy a new carpet for our sitting-room.
20. I want to buy a new television set, but I have no money.

9.4 LET US SUM UP

Let us sum up what we have said so far.

- In an utterance we stress those syllables that are important for the meaning of the utterance
- If the meaning of an utterance does not require any particular word to be given special prominence, we stress the content words and leave the grammatical words unstressed.
- In each tone group, out of the many stressed syllables, we choose one and make it the nucleus.
- The nucleus is on the stressed syllable of either the most important, or the last important word in a tone group.
- If there is only one stressed syllable in a short utterance, it automatically becomes the nucleus of the utterance.
- If no word is specially important in a tone group, the stressed syllable of the last important word in it will be the nucleus.

ANSWERS

Check your Progress

(The nucleus in each tone group is printed in *italics*)

1. I must go and 'meet the 'Dean tomorrow.
2. 'Five and 'three make' eight.
3. 'George is ex'tremely 'honest in 'all his 'dealings/ and he is also very clever.
4. Indira Gandhi National Open University /has a number of 'Study' Centres./ which are lo'cated in 'various' parts of the 'Country.
5. 'Each Study Centre has a library.
6. The 'Principal told me / that I could apply for ad'mission/to the 'College of Engineering.
7. I want to 'study' medicine, /but my 'father in'sists on my be'coming an engineer.
8. 'Students should be free to choose/what they like to study.
9. 'Delhi is ex'tremely 'hot in 'summer/but is very cold in winter.
10. Bangalore is a 'beautiful' city/and there are 'several lovely' gardens in it.
11. The 'girl standing next to Go'pal/ is my sister.
12. I hate jam with my bread and butter /but my wife loves it.
13. It's impossible for us to 'catch the 'flight to 'day,/for we are still ten 'kilometers from the 'airport/ and one of the types of our car / has a puncture.
14. It was 'Abraham Lincoln/ the famous President of America,/who said / that 'Democracy is 'government 'of the people /for the people / and by the people.

- 15 Doctor 'Sarvepalli 'Radhakrishnan / was the 'second 'President of the Re'public of 'India.
- 16 Doctor 'Radhakrishnan suc'ceeded Doctor Ra'jendra Pra'sad.
- 17 'Shakespeare 'wrote a 'number of 'plays.
- 18 It's a re'markable a'chievement.
- 19 I'm 'going to 'buy a 'new 'carpet for our 'sitting-room.
- 20 I 'want to 'buy a 'new 'television 'set / but I 'have no 'money.

Orders/Commands

- 1 'Shut the 'door.
- 2 'Go a 'way.
- 3 'Go and 'post this 'letter.
- 4 'Send them a 'way.
- 5 'Put these 'dirty 'slippers in the 'bathroom.
- 6 'Open the 'window.
- 7 'Do this at 'once.
- 8 Shut 'up.
- 9 'Use a 'fountain-pen.

10.4 THE RISING TONE

As mentioned in 10.2 above, when we use a rising tone, our pitch starts at a lower level and then goes up to a higher level. In English we begin the tone on the nucleus and normally use the rising tone in

- a) Yes/No questions,
- b) *Wh*-Questions asked warmly,
- c) incomplete utterances,
- d) polite requests.

We shall give a few examples of each of these four types of sentences listed above. In all the examples, stressed syllables that occur before the nucleus are marked with the vertical bar ['] the nucleus since the rising tone is used, is marked [] and the stressed syllables that occur after the nucleus are marked [,].

Yes/No Questions

A *Yes/No* question is one which can be answered in 'Yes' or 'No'.

- 1 Is 'father at home?
- 2 Can I 'see the ,Dean for a ,minute?
- 3 Can you 'buy me an ,ice-cream, ,mummy?
- 4 Will you 'show me your 'new atlas?
- 5 Can I 'borrow your ,record-player?
- 6 Can you ,drive?
- 7 Can you ,cook?
- 8 Would it be 'possible to 'spend the night here?
- 9 Is the 'ahmedabad Ex'press ar'iving on ,time?
- 10 'Is there any re,ording to,day?

***Wh*-questions asked warmly**

- 1 'What is your ,father?
- 2 'Where do you ,live?
- 3 'How is ,mother?
- 4 'Where did you 'leave your ,book?
- 5 'How ,old are you?
- 6 'Which is , yours?
- 7 'When did you ,come?
- 8 'Where are you ,going?
- 9 'Who did you ,talk to?

Incomplete Utterances

All the examples cited below have two tone-groups each. The end of the first tone-group is marked / . See how the first of the two tone-groups in each sentence is said with a rising tone.

- 1 If you 'go to ,Delhi/ 'please 'meet my'aunt.
- 2 I 'went to the 'market this ,morning/ and 'bought a 'lot of 'vegetables.
- 3 As 'soon as you 'reach ,London/ 'give this 'letter to the 'High Com'missioner
- 4 When my 'father ,died,/ I was 'only 'five years 'old.
- 5 'If I ,see him/ I shall 'give him a 'piece of my 'mind.
- 6 The 'moment you are ,ready,/ 'please phone me.
- 7 I 'don't mind 'eating ,anywhere,/ pro'vided the 'place is 'clean.
- 8 If you get 'drenched in the ,rain,/ you re 'likely to 'fall 'ill.
- 9 I was 'terribly ,hurt/ when my 'father 'called me a 'fool.
- 10 If at 'all it's ,possible,/ I shall 'meet you at the station.
- 11 'Indira' Gandhi 'National 'Open Uni,versity/ is the 'first of its 'kind in India.

- 12 You can 'go to the 'Study Centre in your ,region/ and dis'cuss your 'problems with your 'Counsellor there.
- 13 If you 'want to ac'quire a 'good pronunciation, / you should 'listen to our 'audio tapes.
- 14 Mister 'Rajiv ,Gandhi/ will in'augurate the 'new 'buildings.
- 15 Laugh / and the 'world laughs with you.
- 16 'If you are ,naughty, / 'daddy will punish you.
- 17 When'ever you are in ,doubt, / 'please con'sult a 'good 'dictionary.
- 18 As a 'matter of fact, / I for'got to 'phone 'Meena.
- 19 Be'cause of the 'efforts of the police/ the 'thieves were 'caught.
- 20 The 'earlier you ,finish, / the 'earlier you can 'go.

Polite Requests

- 1 'Pass the ,salt.
- 2 'Close that ,window.
- 3 'Lend me a ,rupee.
- 4 'Shut the ,door.
- 5 'Please 'carry my ,bag.
- 6 'Buy me some ,flowers.
- 7 'Bring some ,lunch for me.
- 8 'Give me some ,water.
- 9 'Fetch me an um,brella.
- 10 'Buy me a 'new ,pen, ,daddy.

10.5 THE IMPORTANT FUNCTIONS OF INTONATION

Intonation patterns in English, that is, the tones we use in English speech, have a very important function. Sometimes we use in the same order, both as a statement and as a question. For example, the words Looking for something, can mean a statement like 'I'm looking for something'. That is, these words can be the answer to the question 'What are you doing?' At other times, the same words can be used to mean a question like 'Are you looking for something?' In writing, the difference between a statement and a question is signalled by the punctuation marks we use, as the examples given below suggest.

- a) Looking for something. (Statement)
- b) Looking for something? (Question)

But we can't use marks of punctuation in speech, can we? So when we mean the words 'Looking for something' as a statement, we use a falling tone; and when we use the same words to mean a question, we use a rising tone. These two and a few similar examples are given below. To indicate the question clearly, we generally use a 'high rising' tone, (marked ') that is, the pitch rises from a middle to a high level.

- 1a) 'Looking for, something. (Falling tone; statement)
- 1b) 'Looking for' something? (Rising tone; question)
- 3a) 'Going to Bom'bay. (Statement)
- 3b) 'Going to Bom'bay? (Question)
- 4a) 'Coffee. (Statement)
- 4b) 'Coffee? (Question)
- 5a) 'snake. (Statement)
- 5b) 'snake? (Question; something like 'was it a snake?')
- 6a) 'John is a 'good 'actor. (Statement)
- 6b) 'John is a 'good 'actor? (Question; 'did you say so?')
- 7a) You're at'tending the 'Conference. (Statement)
- 7b) You're at'tending the 'Conference? (Question, 'Are You, really?')
- 8a) 'Shantaram. (Statement)
- 8b) 'Shantaram? (Question; something like 'Did you suggest Shantaram?')

Intonation in English has one more important function. The same utterance can be made to sound friendly, angry, uninterested, bored, etc. by the use of different tones.

Check Your Progress

Given below are a few sentences.

- i) Divide them into tone groups where necessary.

- ii) Mark the stressed syllables before the nucleus with a vertical mark' above,
- iii) Mark the nucleus with the appropriate tone mark, depending upon whether you choose a falling tone or a rising tone,
- iv) Mark the stressed syllables, if any, after the nucleus with a vertical mark below.

All the stress and tone marks have to be placed before the syllables to which they relate. You can also listen to these sentences on the cassette. After you have checked your answers, say each sentence aloud with the stress and intonation pattern marked.

- 1 I live in Delhi.
- 2 When did you arrive from London? (asked warmly)
- 3 What a wonderful piece of luck!
- 4 When my father returned from Washington, he brought me a camera.
- 5 I was late again for class today.
- 6 Ramanujan was a great mathematician.
- 7 D'you think I can borrow your dictionary?
- 8 You must be punctual in whatever you do.
- 9 I hate watching television but the members of my family love it.
- 10 I wasted my time when I was young and I'm paying for it now.
- 11 Dr. Rao is an excellent surgeon.
- 12 If it doesn't rain, I'll take the children to the zoo.
- 13 If you listen to the BBC, your English will improve.
- 14 I met your teacher this morning and he told me that he wasn't satisfied with your progress.
- 15 You can cheat some people for some time, but not everybody all the time.
- 16 Whenever I face a camera I become very nervous.
- 17 Will you please shut that door?
- 18 A: Raju is pulling my hair, mummy.
B: Stop it, Raju.
- 19 Have you read any tales by Tolstoy?
- 20 A: Did you break this glass?
B: I didn't. Ravi did.
- 21 It's not my fault.
- 22 Can you direct me to the bank?
- 23 May I sit down?
- 24 I want to complete my work within a year.
- 25 Are you going to Mysore this summer?
- 26 What if I accepted the new job?
- 27 I'm planning to move to Hyderabad.
- 28 I hate to see crawling insects.
- 29 I wonder how the accident occurred.
- 30 I've taught thousands of students, but never have I seen one like you.

10.6 LET US SUM UP

The pitch of our voice depends upon the rate at which our vocal cords vibrate.

If the vocal cords vibrate rapidly, our pitch is high.

If the vocal cords vibrate slowly, our pitch is low.

The two basic tones used in English speech are:

- a) The falling tone, and
- b) The rising tone.

When we use the falling tone, our pitch starts at a higher level and comes down to a

lower level.

When we use the rising tone, our pitch starts at a lower level and goes up to a higher level.

We normally use the falling tone in

- a) statements,
- b) *wh*-questions asked in a neutral way,
- c) exclamations, and
- d) commands.

We normally use the rising tone in

- a) *Yes/No* questions,
- b) *Wh*-questions asked in a warm and friendly manner,
- c) incomplete utterances, and
- d) polite requests.

In English, intonation has two functions.

- a) It indicates whether an utterance is a statement or a question whenever we use the same words in the same order.
- b) It indicates the mood of the speaker.

10.7 KEY WORDS

falling tone : If the pitch of our voice starts at a higher level and comes down to a lower level, we are said to use a falling tune.

pitch : the level (that is, highness or lowness) of a musical note or of our speaking voice. This is determined by the rate at which the vocal cords vibrate,

rising tone : If our pitch starts at a lower level and goes up to a higher level, we are said to use a rising tone.

10.8 SOME USEFUL BOOKS

Balasubramanian, T (1981,1987). *A Text Book of English Phonetics for Indian Students*, Macmillan India Ltd.

Bansal, R.K. & J.B. Harrison (1983) *Spoken English For India*, Orient Longman (Second edition)

CIEFL 1974. : *Exercises In Spoken English : Part 1 : Accent, Rhythm, and Intonation*, Oxford University Press,

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress

- 1 I 'live in 'Delhi.
- 2 'When did you arrive from 'London?
- 3 What a 'wonderful 'piece of 'luck!
- 4 When my 'father re'turned from 'Washington, / he 'brought me a 'camera.
- 5 I was 'late a 'gain for 'class to,day.
- 6 'Ramanujan was a 'great mathema 'tician.
- 7 D'you 'think I can 'borrow your 'dictionary?
- 8 You must be 'punctual in 'what'ever you do.
- 9 I 'hate 'watching 'television/ but the 'members of my 'family 'love it.
- 10 I 'wasted my 'time when I was 'young/ and I'm 'paying for it'now.
- 11 Dr. 'Rao is an 'excellent 'surgeon.
- 12 If it 'doesn't 'rain, / I'll 'take the 'children to the 'zoo.
- 13 If you 'listen to the 'BB,C, / your 'English will im'prove.
- 14 I 'met your 'teacher this 'morning/and he,told me/that he'wasn't 'satisfied with your 'progress.
- 15 You can 'cheat'some people for some time, / but 'not 'everybody 'all the time.
- 16 'When'ever I 'face a 'camera, / I be'come very 'nervous.
- 17 'Will you 'please, 'shut that 'door?
- 18 A: 'Raju is 'pulling my hair, 'mummy.

- B: stop it, Raju.
- 19 Have you 'read any 'tales by Tolstoy?
- 20 A: Did you break the 'glass?
B: 'I didn't. 'Ravi did.
- 21 It's 'not my fault.
- 22 Can you di'rect me to the ,bank?
- 23 'May I sit ,down?
- 24 I want to com'plete my 'work within a year.
- 25 Are you 'going to Mysore this ,summer?
- 26 'What if I ac'cepted the 'new job?
27. I'm planning to 'move to 'Hyderabad.
28. I'hate to see 'crawling' insects.
- 29 I 'wonder how the 'accident oc curred.
- 30 I've 'taught 'thousands of ,students/ but 'never have I 'seen one like you.

Notes

Notes



UTTAR PRADESH
RAJARSHI TANDON OPEN UNIVERSITY

UGEN-02 The Structure of Modern English

Block

3

MORPHOLOGY-1

Introduction to the Block

UNIT 11

Morphology : The Basic Concepts -1 5

UNIT 12

Morphology : The Basic Concepts -2 19

UNIT 13

Inflectional Morphology of English -1 33

UNIT 14

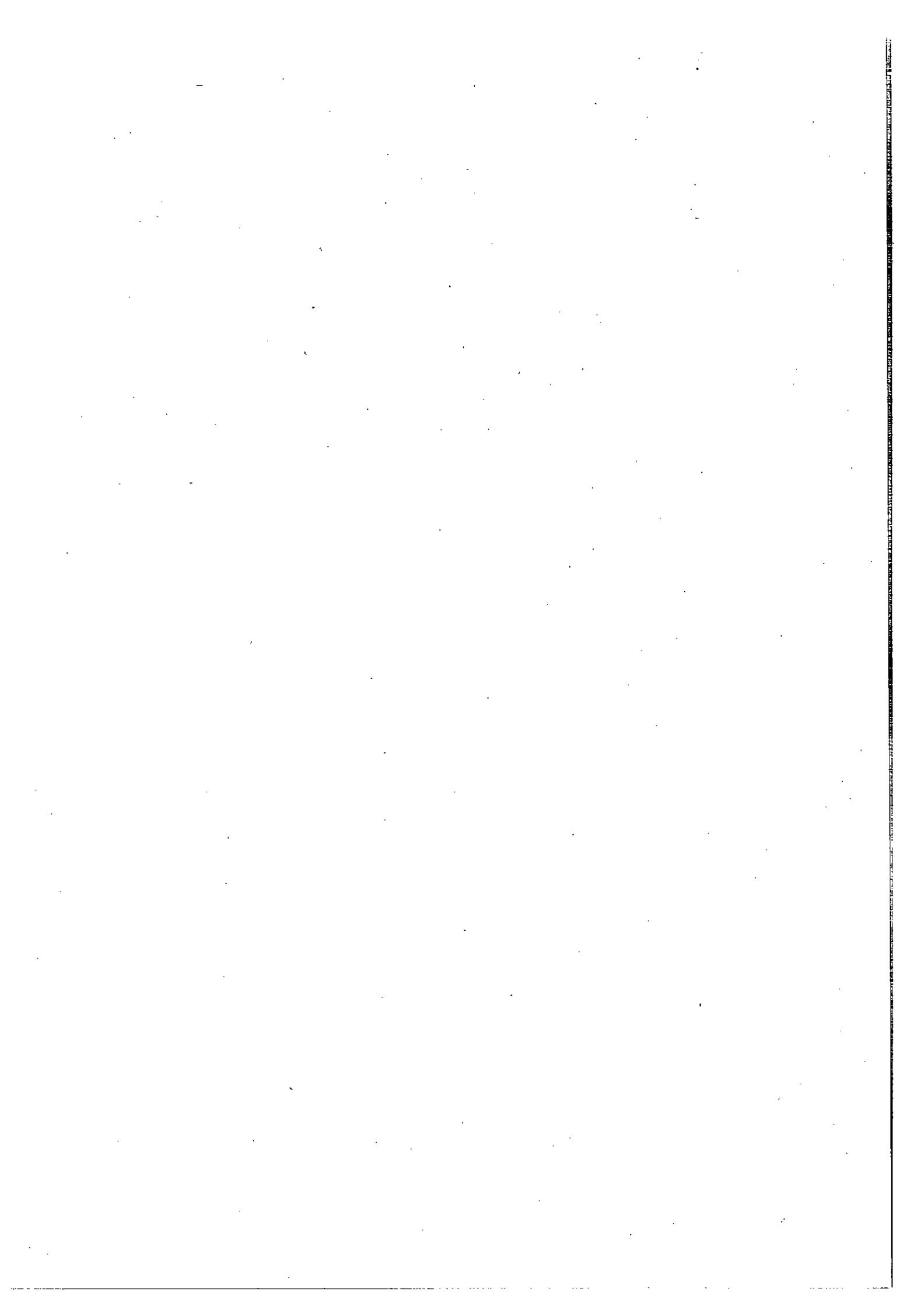
Inflectional Morphology of English -2 49

UNIT 15

Inflectional Morphology of English -3 63

INTRODUCTION TO THE BLOCK

This is the first block of 5 units on *morphology*. In Units 11 and 12 we shall discuss some of the basic concepts of morphology. And in Units 13-15 we shall take up the inflectional morphology of English relating to the different parts of speech — nouns in unit 13, pronouns, adjectives and adverbs in Unit 14, and verbs in Unit 15.



UNIT 11 MORPHOLOGY : THE BASIC CONCEPTS - 1

- 11.0 Objectives
- 11.1 Introduction
- 11.2 Identifying the Parts of a Word
 - 11.2.1 The Criteria
 - 11.2.2 Morphemes
 - 11.2.3 Free Morphemes and Bound Morphemes
 - 11.2.4 Affixes, Stems and Roots
- 11.3 How are Morphemes Combined into Words?
- 11.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 11.5 Key Words
- 11.6 Some Useful Books
- Answers

11.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to

- identify morphemes,
- analyse the structure of complex and compound words,
- identify prefixes, suffixes, roots and stems, and
- formulate rules for the combination of morphemes into words on the basis of some given examples of complex words.

11.1 INTRODUCTION

Morphology is the study of the internal structure of words.

It should not come as a surprise to you that words too, like sentences and clauses, have structure. We say that something has structure when we can divide it into parts and show the relationship between the parts. The parts of the sentence are called **clauses**, the parts of a clause are **phrases**, and **words** are the parts that make up phrases.

Take, for example, the following sentence:

Whenever she has time, Suman helps her younger brothers with their homework.

This sentence is made up of two clauses, a subordinate clause and a main clause. Each clause is made up of phrases, e.g., noun phrase and verb phrase. The main clause here has two noun phrases (*Suman* and *her younger brothers*) functioning as the subject and the object of the verb respectively, a verb phrase, and a prepositional phrase (*with their homework*). Sometimes a phrase is made up of a single word (e.g. *Suman*, *helps*), but sometimes it has more than one word (e.g. *her younger brothers*). The elements of a phrase are words which perform definite functions within the phrase, e.g., in the noun phrase *her younger brother*, *brother* performs the functions of the head of the noun phrase, while *her* and *younger* are modifiers of the head.

Like sentences, clauses and phrases, words are also made up of smaller elements. Words are not, as is sometime mistakenly thought, the smallest units of grammar. We can identify the parts that make up a word. It is true that sometimes a word is made up of a single element and cannot be divided into parts, but this is also true of some phrases. In fact, it may also be true of sentences and clauses. For example the sentence

Go!

is made up of a single clause, which is made up of a single phrase, which is made up of a single word. Hence if some words cannot be divided into parts, we should not take it to mean that no words can be divided into parts. In fact, in our sentence above, there are many words which can be easily divided into parts:

whenever = when + ever
 helps = help + s
 younger = young + er
 brothers = brother + s
 homework = home + work

Since words can be divided into parts, we must accept that words have structure. As with sentences, clauses and phrases, this structure can be sometimes very simple, at other times quite complex. In the words given above, the structure is quite simple, since each word is made up of only two parts. But some words can have a bigger number of parts. For example, the following word consists of five parts:

gentlemanliness : un+gentle+man+li+ness.

How do we decide how many parts a word has? This is one of the important questions of morphology. Another important question is: How do the parts combine with each other? Can they combine in any order, or are there some rules for their combination? These are the two questions that we shall discuss in the next two sections.

11.2 IDENTIFYING THE PARTS OF A WORD

11.2.1 The Criteria

We have said above that *whenever*, *helps*, *younger*, etc. have two parts each, whereas *ungentlemanliness* has five parts. How did we decide this? In other words, what are the criteria for dividing a word into parts?

In dividing *whenever* into two parts, we are guided by the fact that both *when* and *ever* occur independently as words. The same also applies to *homework* : *home* and *work* both occur independently as words. We can, therefore, set this up as the first criterion: whenever a word is made up of two or more parts which also occur independently as words, we can divide the word into parts which are identical with the independently occurring words. Thus *nevertheless* and *newspaperman* are both made up of three parts, or elements, each.

But what about words like *helps*, *younger* and *brothers*? They are not made up of two independently occurring words, so what is our criterion for dividing them into two parts?

It seems fairly clear that our criterion for dividing them into two parts is that, though they do not consist of two independently occurring words, they do consist of two parts which also occur elsewhere. One part occurs as an independent word (namely, *help-*, *young-*, and *brother-* respectively), while the other part occurs in similar words in a fairly regular way. For example, the *-s* of *helps* occurs in words like *works*, *sleeps*, *hits*, *kicks*, etc.; the *-er* of *younger* occurs in words like *older*, *taller*, *sweeter*, *longer*, and so on; the *-s* of *brothers* occurs in *sisters*, *fathers*, *mothers*, *lovers* and thousands of other words.

At this point, you may quite reasonably ask: How do you know that the *-s* of *helps* is the same as the *-s* of *works*, *sleeps*, etc. and not the same as that of *brothers* and *sisters*? Similarly, how do we know that the *-er* of *younger* is the same as that of *older* and *taller* and not the same as the *-er* of *brother*? These are very good questions and must be answered.

What these questions show is that we cannot identify a portion of a word as being a structural part of it simply on the basis of its physical similarity with a similar portion of another word. For example, the portion *-er* of *brother* cannot be said to be an element (i.e. a structural part) of *brother* simply because *-er* also occurs in other words like *sister*, *father* or *younger* and *taller*. Some other considerations are also relevant.

The first consideration is that when we divide a word into parts, the parts must be such that they also occur elsewhere. In isolating one part of the word, we should not be left with another part which occurs nowhere except in that word. For example, if we isolate the part *-er* in *brother*, *sister*, *father*, *mother* etc., we are left with the portions *broth-*, *sist-*, *fath-* and *moth-* which do not occur anywhere else (i.e. in any other words). (It should be noted here that when we speak of words and their parts we are speaking of their spoken forms only, and that we should not be misguided by their written forms: *moth-*, for

example should not be considered to be the same as *moth*, the insect. The two are pronounced quite differently.) On the other hand, if we isolate the *-er* of *younger*, *taller*, *older*, etc. as a separate element, we are left with the elements *young*, *tall* and *old*, which occur not only as independent words but also as parts of other words like *youngest*, *tallest* and *oldest*. This naturally also means that we can identify *-est* as another element occurring in words.

The second consideration is that of meaning. In isolating the element *-er* in *younger*, *taller* and *older*, we are guided as much by the fact that these words share a common element of meaning as by the fact mentioned in the previous paragraph. We can describe this common element of meaning as the 'comparative' element, the element which is also expressed with some words by 'more' (as in *more beautiful*). A similar consideration guides us in dividing the word *brothers* into the parts *brother-* and *-s*. The element *-s* carries the meaning 'plural' or 'more than one', and is to be found in the plural forms of almost all common nouns. This is the reason why we consider the *-s* of *brothers* to be the same as the *-s* occurring in *sisters*, *fathers*, *mothers*, *boys*, etc. but different from the *-s* occurring in *helps*, *robs*, *occurs*, etc. As we shall see later, how this element is pronounced or written (as, *-s*, or *-es*, or something else) is not very relevant to its identification as an element.

The third consideration is that of grammatical function. It is not always possible to distinguish grammatical function from meaning. For example, the plural number is a grammatical function, but it can also be identified as the meaning 'more than one'. Some words, however, contain elements which are easier to describe in grammatical terms than in terms of meaning. For example, the element *-s* that occurs in *helps* in our sentence is easier to describe as the third person singular number inflection of the verb in the present tense. This *-s*, therefore, performs a grammatical function of agreement with the subject which is in the third person and singular number. The meaning of this element is more difficult to describe since, depending on context, it is used in various senses like the habitual present, the historic present, with reference to the future, etc. Describing this element in grammatical terms (as the third person singular number present tense inflection of the verb) enables us to isolate the *-s* as a separate element in all verbs of this kind. Similarly, we can separate *-ed* as a separate element in all past tense verbs, performing the grammatical function of past tense formation, the element *-en/-ed* can be separated as the element which helps form the perfect tenses; the element *-ing* as the element which helps form the continuous tenses, and so on. All verbs containing these elements can, therefore, be divided into at least two parts, one of which performs the grammatical function indicated.

Let us now summarize the criteria we have described for identifying the parts that form the structure of a word. They are as follows:

- i) If a word is wholly made up of two or more smaller words, each smaller word constitutes a part (i.e. a structural element) of the word, e.g., *when-* and *-ever* in *whenever*, *home-* and *-work* in *homework*.
- ii) A word can be divided into two or more parts if the parts are such that they also occur in other words, e.g., *young-* and *-er* in *younger*, *help-* and *-s* in *helps*.
- iii) A portion of a word can be recognized as constituting a part (or a structural element) of the word if it carries a clearly recognizable element of meaning, and if it occurs in a number of words with the same meaning, e.g., *brother-* and *-s* in *brothers*, *young-* and *-er* in *younger*.
- iv) A portion of a word can also be recognized as constituting a part of the word if its meaning is not clearly recognizable but it performs a particular grammatical function every time it occurs in a word, e.g., *-s* in *helps*, *-ing* in *working*.

We can capture all these criteria in a single statement if we define a 'structural part' of a word as follows:

A portion of a word is called a 'structural part' of the word if it also occurs independently as a word, or if it occurs in a number of words with the same meaning, and/or performs the same grammatical function in every word in which it occurs.

11.2.2 Morphemes

We have so far been using the terms 'part', 'structural part', 'element', etc. to refer to the constituents of a word. The technical term for a 'structural part' of a word is 'morpheme'. A morpheme is defined as 'the smallest meaningful element of a language', or as 'the smallest unit which is grammatically relevant'. Both these definitions are contained in our definition of 'a structural part' of a word. The additional point to note is that the morpheme is the *smallest* part into which a word can be divided. In other words, a morpheme has no parts.

There is another sense in which morpheme differs from 'a part of a word' as we have defined it. We have often referred to 'a part of a word' as being 'a portion of a word' with certain characteristics. A morpheme does not always refer to a portion of a word, though in most cases it is clearly identifiable as a portion. For example, we can say, without any hesitation, that *brothers* consists of two morphemes *brother-* and *-s*. As a grammatical unit, or as a unit of meaning, however, *-s* is not actually a morpheme, though it 'represents' a morpheme. The morpheme it represents is the grammatical-unit 'plural number'. This distinction (between a morpheme and its representation) is necessary at least for two reasons.

- i) We mentioned above that in speaking of words and their parts in the study of morphology we refer generally to their spoken forms. The spelling does not always represent the spoken forms accurately. For example, the plural element *-s* in *brothers* is pronounced /z/ (as in *zoo*), but in *cats* it is pronounced /s/ (as in *sit*) and in *horses* it is pronounced /ɪz/ (as in *is*). Which one of these (/z/, /s/ or /ɪz/) shall we say is the plural morpheme? If we identify a morpheme with a portion of the word everywhere, we have a problem here. If, however, we regard *plural number* as an abstract morpheme and the three forms /z/, /s/ and /ɪz/ as its representations, the problem disappears.
- ii) Though in a large number of words a morpheme is represented by a clearly recognizable portion of the word, this is not *always* so. For example, the 'plural number' morpheme is not always represented by *-s* or *-es* in spelling, or /ɪz/, /z/ or /s/ in pronunciation. Some nouns form their plurals in other ways, e.g., *man* has the plural *men*, *woman* /'wʊmən/ has the plural *women* /'wɪmɪn/, *mouse* has the plural *mice*, and so on. In these plural forms, there is no clearly recognizable portion of the word which can be said to 'be' the plural morpheme. Yet we know that *men* is to *man* what *boys* is to *boy* i.e. both *men* and *boys* contain the grammatical element 'plural number'. This grammatical element, or morpheme, is represented by a change in the vowel sound of the word from /æ/ to /e/: /mæn/ > /men/. Similarly, in *woman* > *women* both the vowels undergo a change: /ʊ/ to /ɪ/ and /ə/ to /ɪ/; in *mouse* /maʊs/ > *mice* /maɪs/, /aʊ/ changes to /aɪ/, and so on. By regarding the morpheme to be an abstract grammatical unit and by not identifying it with a portion of the word, we are able to say that just as *boys* is made up of the two morphemes *boy* + 'plural number', similarly *men* is also made up of *man* + plural number. We can extend the same treatment to nouns which do not change their form at all in the plural, e.g., *she* (sing.) > *sheep* (pl.). We can say that *sheep* (pl.) is made up of the two morphemes *sheep* + 'plural number', where the morpheme 'plural number' has a zero representation.

For these reasons, we shall henceforth regard the structural parts of a word (or morphemes) as abstract, and shall not identify them with portions of a word, even if in most cases they actually happen to be identical (e.g., the morpheme *boy* and the portion *boy-* of *boys*). We shall regard the portions to be representations of the morphemes and not the morphemes themselves. To avoid difficulties in exposition, however, we shall highlight this distinction (between morphemes and their representations) only in those cases where the two are not identical. In other case, we shall still proceed as if the portions were the morphemes.

11.2.3 Free Morphemes and Bound Morphemes

In the examples of words that we cited above, we came across two types of morphemes: first, those which can occur by themselves as words, e.g., *when-* and *-ever* in *whenever*, *brother-* in *brothers*, *help-* in *helps*, *young-* in *younger*, and so on; second, those which cannot occur independently as words, e.g. *-s* in *helps*, *-er* in *younger*, *-s* in *brothers*, etc. Morphemes of the first type, which can occur by themselves as words are called **free**

morphemes; those of the second type, which cannot occur by themselves as words but must be bound with a free morpheme, are called **bound morphemes**.

Words are made up of either a single free morpheme, or a free morpheme and one or more bound morphemes, or two or more free morphemes (with or without some bound morphemes), or in some rare cases, of two bound morphemes. A word made up of a single morpheme (e.g. *time, brother, table, with, etc.*) is called a **simple word**; a word made up of one free morpheme and one or more bound morphemes is called a **complex word**, and a word made up of two or more free morphemes is called a **compound word**.

Here are some examples of complex and compound words:

Complex words	:	disallow, impossible, unwise, desirable, kindness, shorten, unacceptable, works
Compound words	:	bathroom, homework, red-hot, widespread

11.2.4 Affixes, Stems and Roots

Let us analyze some of the complex words cited above into their constituent free and bound morphemes:

disallow	:	dis-	:	bound morpheme
		-allow	:	free morpheme
impossible	:	im-	:	bound morpheme
		-possible	:	free morpheme
desirable	:	desir(e)-	:	free morpheme
		-able	:	bound morpheme
kindness	:	kind-	:	free morpheme
		-ness	:	bound morpheme
unacceptable	:	un-	:	bound morpheme
		accept-	:	free morpheme
		-able	:	bound morpheme
works	:	work-	:	free morpheme
		-s	:	bound morpheme

We notice that all the words have a free morpheme and one or more than one bound morpheme. We also notice that the bound morphemes are attached, or affixed, either to the beginning or to the end of the free morpheme. The bound morphemes are, therefore, said to function as **affixes** in the structure of a word. Affixes in English are of two types: **prefixes** (those which are attached to the beginning of the free morpheme, e.g., *dis-*, *im-*, *un-*, etc.) and **suffixes** (those which are attached to the end of the free morpheme, e.g., *-able*, *-ness*, *-s*).

Although we have just said that an affix is attached to a free morpheme, this is not strictly correct. Take, for example, the word *unacceptable*, or the word *bathrooms*. In *unacceptable*, the prefix *un-* is attached not to the free morpheme *accept* (since that would give us *unaccept*, which is not a word of English), but to the 'word' *acceptable*, which consists of a free morpheme plus a bound morpheme. Similarly, in the word *bathrooms*, the suffix *-s* is attached not simply to the free morpheme *room* but to the whole word *bathroom*, which consists of two free morphemes. We should not, therefore, say that an affix is always attached to a free morpheme. Strictly speaking, we also cannot say that affixes are attached to 'words', since 'word' is a vague term and is used loosely to refer to items without as well as with affixes. We, therefore, require a term to describe the 'portion' to which an affix is attached. The term is **stem**. Affixes are attached to stems. For example, in *unacceptable*, *-acceptable* is the stem to which the prefix *un-* is attached, but *accept-* is the stem to which suffix *-able* is attached. In *bathrooms*, the stem is *bathroom-*. A stem can consist of either a single free morpheme, a free morpheme and one or more bound morphemes, or two (or more) free morphemes. The stem which consists of a single free morpheme is also called the **root**. E.g. in *unacceptable*, *accept* is the root, i.e. the free morpheme from which the word *unacceptable* grows. If the stem consists of two (or more) free morphemes (e.g. *bathroom-*), it is called a **compound root**.

Root, stem, prefix and suffix are the terms that we use in describing the structure of a word, i.e., they are the elements of word-structure. Morphemes are what make up these elements. We can compare the structure of a word with the structure of an essay. The structure of an essay is said to be made up of a Beginning, a Middle and a Conclusion. We can call these the elements of the structure of an essay. Paragraphs are what make up these elements but are not themselves the elements. Similarly, morphemes are what make up the elements of word-structure but are not themselves the elements.

Check Your Progress 1

1) Divide the following words into their structural parts, or morphemes:

a) comparable

.....

b) disallowed

.....

c) employee

.....

d) inanimate

.....

e) irregularity

.....

f) subcategory

.....

g) reconstruction

.....

h) uncontrollable

.....

i) unexpected

.....

j) voters

.....

2) For each word in Exercise 1 above, identify the root, the prefixes, and the suffixes.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

3) State how many morphemes each of the following words/phrases has:

a) decentralized

.....

b) disagreeable

.....

c) electrified

.....

d) friendliest

.....

e) marriageable

.....

- f) passbooks
.....
- g) points of view
.....
- h) teeth
.....
- i) unconditionally
.....
- j) uppermost
.....
- k) went
.....
- l) workmen
.....

4) Which of the following words have compound roots?

- a) reaction
 - b) overtaken
 - c) pickpockets
 - d) unearthed
 - e) handfuls
-

5) State whether the morphemes represented by the italicized portions in each pair of words below are the same morphemes or different morphemes.

- a) *gently*; gentlemanly
- b) mangoes; *goes*
- c) *higher*; lower
- d) sleeps; *feels*
- e) *speaker*; sweeter

11.3 HOW ARE MORPHEMES COMBINED INTO WORDS?

As stated in Section 11.1, the second important question of morphology is how morphemes are combined into words. This is the question we shall discuss in the present section.

When a word consists of only one morpheme, or of two morphemes, the problem of combination does not arise. In a two-morpheme word, a free morpheme is combined either with a bound morpheme (as in *brothers*, *unwise*, etc.) or with another free morpheme (as in *homework*, *gentleman*, etc.), producing a complex and a compound word respectively. Since there are only two morphemes, the question of the order in which they are combined does not arise. But when a word consists of three or more morphemes, this question becomes quite important.

Consider the word *unacceptable*, which we referred to in Section 11.2.4. There are two ways in which the morphemes can be said to have been combined in this word, either in Order 1, or in Order 2:

Order 1:

- accept : free morpheme (root)
- un + accept : bound morpheme + free morpheme (prefix + root)
- (un + accept) + able : (bound morpheme + free morpheme) + bound morpheme ((prefix + root) + suffix)

Order 2:

accept : free morpheme (root)

accept + able : free morpheme + bound morpheme (root + suffix)

un + (accept + able): bound morpheme + (free morpheme + bound morpheme): (prefix + (root + suffix))

Which is the correct order and why?

In Section 11.2.4 we suggested that the correct order was Order 2. The reason given was that the prefixation of *un-* to the root *-accept* produced a form **unaccept*, which did not exist in English. (* indicates an unacceptable form.) Hence Order 1 was wrong. In Order 2, on the other hand, the suffixation of *able* to the root *accept-* produce the form *acceptable*, which is a word in English. The prefix *un-* is then attached to the stem *-acceptable* to produce *unacceptable*.

Let us now elaborate this point a little more. How can we state the rule that the prefix *un-* cannot be attached to *accept* but can be attached to *-acceptable*? Do we have to list each and every stem to which *un-* can be prefixed? That will make our task very difficult, as a very, very long list will have to be drawn up. Moreover, such a list will have to be drawn up for every prefix and every suffix, making our task almost impossible.

Fortunately, this is not necessary. We can state the rule in terms of the part of speech of the stem. We can say that *un-* is prefixed to adjectives: that explains why *un-* can be prefixed to *-acceptable* but not to *-accept*. We can further strengthen the rule by saying that when *un-* is prefixed to an adjective, it produce the negative meaning.

There are some difficulties about this 'rule' which we must point out. First, *un-* cannot be prefixed to all adjectives, e.g., we cannot say **unbeautiful*, **untall* **un-sweet*, etc. Generally, *un-* is prefixed only to those adjectives which do not have a separate and independent word denoting the opposite meaning. Words like *beautiful*, *tall*, and *sweet* do have independent words which denote the opposite meaning, namely, *ugly*, *short*, and *bitter*. Secondly, though *un-* cannot be prefixed to *-accept*, there are verbs which take *-un* as a prefix, e.g., *undress*, *untie*, *unlock*, etc. However, the meaning of this prefix *un-* is different from the meaning of the adjective prefix *un-*: it means 'reversing or undoing an action' and not 'negative or opposite of the meaning denoted by the stem', which is the meaning of the negative prefix. We shall, therefore, treat the two prefixes *un-* to be different morphemes.

If we now accept the *un-* of *unacceptable* as an adjective prefix, we can identify the structure of a number of complex words containing *-un*, and can describe the order of combination of the morphemes. For example, the word *unfortunately* has the structure

((un + (fortun(e) + ate)) + ly)

since only *fortunate*, being an adjective, can be the stem for *un-*; *-fortune* would be a noun, and *fortunately* an adverb. Hence the order of combination of the morphemes must be

fortun (e) + ate
un + (fortun (e) +ate)
((un + (fortun(e) + ate)) + ly)

Rules of this kind have been formulated for most prefix and suffix morphemes in English. Though these rules are not as thoroughly reliable as rules of mathematics, they do provide us some guidance in combining morphemes into words and, therefore, in identifying the structure of complex words. The following are some rules of this kind:

- i) The suffix morpheme *-ness* is attached to adjective stems and produces abstract nouns with the meaning 'having the quality denoted by the adjective'; e.g., *kindness*, *happiness*.
- ii) The prefix morpheme *de-* is attached to verb stems and produces the meaning 'reversing the action denoted by the verb'; e.g., *denationalize*, *decentralize*, etc.
- iii) The suffix morpheme *-ize* is attached to adjectives and produces the meaning 'to make (adjective)'; e.g., *modernize*, *nationalize*, etc. It is also attached to nouns producing various types of meaning.
- iv) The suffix morphemes *-ation* is attached to verbs and produces the meaning 'the process or state denoted by the verb', e.g. *exploration*, *starvation* etc.

- v) The suffix morpheme *-ly* is attached to adjectives and produces the meaning 'in the manner denoted by the adjective', e.g. *calmly, happily, etc.*

Making use of such rules, we can see how morphemes are combined into words. For example, they tell us how the morphemes are combined in the complex word *denationalization*. The structure of the word is

((de + ((nation + al) + ize)) + ation)

which tells us that the morphemes are combined in the following order:

- nation + al (This suffix *-ial* is attached to nouns to produce adjectives.)
- (nation + al) + ize (see rule (iii) above)
- de + ((nation + al) + ize) (see rule (ii) above)
- (de + ((nation + al) + ize)) + ation (see rule (iv) above)

The morphology of a language consists largely of rules of this kind, which tell us how the morphemes of the language are combined to produce complex words.

It should be noted that rules of this kind are not always sufficient to tell us how the morphemes are combined in every case. Sometimes, additional guidance is needed from other sources. For example, in describing the structure of the word *ungentlemanliness*, we could start on the wrong foot if we started either by taking *un + gentle* or *man + ly* as the first step, though both affixations follow the rules of English. (The suffix *-ly* here is different from the one described in rule (v): it forms adjectives from nouns). We must first identify the compound root *gentleman*, or all our later steps will also go wrong.

Identifying the compound root is not difficult since, unlike other roots, it consists of two free morphemes. It is also identified by its meaning, since a 'gentleman' is not just a 'gentle man', i.e. a man who is gentle in nature, but 'a man who comes from a family of high social standing' or 'a man who is well behaved, educated, and refined in his manners'. With such clues, we can often identify the structure of a complex word in those places where the general rules fall to provide us adequate guidance.

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) Show how the word *ungentlemanliness* is built up step by step. State which rule applies at each step. Finally, show the structure of the word with the help of multiple brackets as we have done in the text.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

- 2) Show the structure of the following words with the help of multiple brackets:

a) decentralization

.....

b) destabilized

.....

c) insanity

.....

d) insincerity

.....

e) miscalculations

.....

f) mismanagement

.....

g) rearrangement

.....

h) re-election

.....

i) unlikely

.....

j) untouchables

.....

3) Formulate rules for the use of the prefixes *in-*, *mis-*, and *re-* on the basis of your analysis of the relevant words in Exercise 2 above.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

4) On the basis of words like *rigidity*, *legality*, *scarcity*, *ability*, etc., formulate a rule for the combination of the suffix morpheme *-ity* with stem morphemes.

.....

.....

5) Identify the prefixes and the suffixes that occur in the following words and state the roots/stems to which they are attached:

a) destabilize

.....

.....

b) disagreement

.....

.....

c) inexcusable

.....

.....

d) inflammable

.....

.....

e) unearthed

.....

.....

f) unwanted

.....

.....

11.4 LET US SUM UP

We have made the following major points in this unit.

- i) Morphology is the study of the internal structure of the word.
- ii) Two important questions in morphology are: (a) How do we identify the parts of a word? and (b) How do the parts combine with each other?
- iii) Four major criteria are used for identifying the parts of a word. They are
 - a) their occurrence as words independently,
 - b) their occurrence in other words,
 - c) their occurrence with a clearly recognizable element of meaning everywhere, and
 - d) their occurrence with the same grammatical function.
- iv) A portion of a word which satisfies these criteria is a 'structural part' of the word.
- v) The smallest structural part of a word is called a morpheme.
- vi) A morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of a language which is grammatically relevant.
- vii) A morpheme is not always identical with a portion of a word. Sometimes it is represented in other ways like a change in the vowel. Sometimes it has zero representation.
- viii) Morphemes are free or bound.
- ix) Complex words are combinations of free and bound morphemes.
- x) Compound words are combinations of free morphemes.
- xi) Bound morphemes occur as affixes: prefixes or suffixes.
- xii) Affixes are attached to stems: prefixes are attached to the beginning and suffixes to the end of the stems.
- xiii) A stem consisting of a single free morpheme is a *root*.
- xiv) Affixes are attached to stems in a certain order. This order is determined by certain general rules which are stated in terms of the part of speech of the stem and the resulting word, the effect on meaning, etc.
- xv) The order in which affixes are attached to the stems determines the internal structure of the word. This structure can be shown by multiple bracketting.

11.5 KEY WORDS

Morphology: the study of the internal structure of words.

Structure: the way something is made up of parts and the relationships between its parts.

Morpheme: the smallest meaningful unit of a language which is grammatically relevant.

Free Morpheme: a morpheme which can occur independently as a word.

Bound Morpheme: a morpheme which cannot occur independently as a word but must combine with a free morpheme to form a word.

Affix: a bound morpheme which is attached to the beginning or the end of a stem.

Prefix: a bound morpheme which is attached to the beginning of a stem.

Suffix: a bound morpheme which is attached to the end of a stem.

Stem: the element consisting of a free morpheme and one or more than one bound morpheme to which an affix is added.

Root: the element consisting of a single free morpheme to which affixes are added.

Compound Root: the element consisting of two or more free morphemes to which affixes are added.

Simple Word: a word consisting of a single free morpheme.

Complex Word: a word consisting of a free morpheme and one or more bound morphemes.

Compound Word: a word consisting of two or more free morphemes.

11.6 SOME USEFUL BOOKS

Akmajian, A., Demers, R.A., and Harnish, R.M. (1984). *Linguistics: An Introduction to Language and Communication*, (Ch. 3), Cambridge, Mass.: The MIT Press.

Fromkin, V. and Rodman, R. (1974). *An Introduction to Language*, (Ch. 6). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Gleason, H.A (1961). *An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics*, (Revised Edition), (Chs., 5, 6, 7, 8). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Quirk, R. (1962). *The Use of English*, (Ch. ii), London: Longman.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

- 1)
 - a) compar(e) + able
 - b) dis + allow + ed
 - c) employ + ee
 - d) in + animate
 - e) ir + regular + ity
 - f) sub + category
 - g) re + construct + ion
 - h) un + control(l) + able
 - i) un + expect + ed
 - j) vot(e) + er + s
- 2)
 - a) Root: compar(e) ; suffix: -able
 - b) Root: allow; prefix: dis- ; suffix: -ed
 - c) Root: employ; suffix: - ee
 - d) Root: animate; prefix: in-
 - e) Root: regular; prefix: ir- ; suffix: -ity
 - f) Root: category; prefix: sub-
 - g) Root: construct; prefix: re- ; suffix: -ion
 - h) Root: control; prefix: un- ; suffix: -able
 - i) Root: expect; prefix: un- ; suffix: -ed
 - j) Root: vote; suffix-1: -er; suffix-2: -s
- 3)

a) Five	g) Four
b) Three	h) Two
c) Three	i) Four
d) Three	j) Three
e) Three	k) Two
f) Three	l) Three
- 4)
 - b) overtaken
 - c) pickpockets
- 5)
 - a) different
 - b) different
 - c) same
 - d) same
 - e) different

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) gentle + man : compounding
gentle + man + li : adjective-forming suffix *-ly* is attached to nouns
un + gentle + man + li : negative forming prefix *un-* is attached to adjectives
un + gentle + man + li + ness : noun forming suffix *-ness* is attached to adjectives
structure: ((un + (gentleman + li)) + ness)
- 2) a) ((de + ((centr(e) + al) + ize)) + ation)
b) ((de + (stab(i)l(e) + ize)) + ed)
c) ((in + san(e) + ity)
d) ((in + sincere) + ity)
e) (((mis + calculat(ion) + ion) + s)
f) ((mis + manage) + ment)
g) ((re + arrange) + ment)
h) ((re + elect) + ion)
i) (un + (like + ly))
j) ((un + (touch + able)) + s)
- 3) Rules:
in- : is prefixed to adjective stems to produce adjectives with negative meaning
mis : is prefixed to verbs to produce verbs with the meaning 'do the action denoted by the stem verb badly, wrongly, improperly, etc.'
re- : is prefixed to verbs to produce verbs with the meaning 'do the action denoted by the stem verb again'
- 4) Rule for *-ity* : *ity* is suffixed to adjectives to produce abstract nouns with the meaning 'state or quality denoted by the adjective'
- 5) a) *de-* : prefixed to the stem *-stabilize*
-ize : suffixed to the root *stable-*
b) *dis-* : prefixed to the root *-agree*
-ment : suffixed to the stem *disagree*
in- : prefixed to the stem *-excusable*
-able : suffixed to the root *excuse-*
d) *in-* : prefixed to the root *-flame*
-able : suffixed to the stem *inflamm-*
e) *un-* : prefixed to the root *-earth*
-ed : suffixed to the stem *unearth-*
f) *un-* : prefixed to the stem *-wanted*
-ed : suffixed to the root *want-*

UNIT 12 MORPHOLOGY: THE BASIC CONCEPTS - 2

- 12.0 Objectives
 - 12.1 Introduction
 - 12.2 Different Types of Affixes: Inflectional vs Derivational
 - 12.3 Compounding
 - 12.4 Conversion
 - 12.5 Morphophonology
 - 12.6 Let Us Sum Up
 - 12.7 Key Words
 - 12.8 Some Useful Books
- Answers

12.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to

- distinguish inflectional affixes from derivational affixes,
- identify compounds,
- recognize cases of conversion, and
- recognize the difference between morpheme, morphs and allomorphs.

12.1 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 11 we discussed two important questions of morphology: What are the criteria for dividing words into their constituent parts, or morphemes, and what are the rules for combining morphemes into words? In discussing these questions, we introduced a number of concepts which are basic to morphology, e.g., morpheme, free morpheme vs. bound morpheme, affix, stem, root, etc. We applied these concepts when dividing the words into their parts as well as when telling you how the parts (i.e. morphemes) were combined into words. However, we did not distinguish between different types of affixes (prefixes and suffixes) and implied that the same concepts and rules applied to all affixes. Secondly, though we distinguished between two kinds of roots, simple roots and compound roots, we did not say much about compound roots and how they were formed. Thirdly, we concentrated mostly on the physical shapes of words and discussed how a change in these shapes by the addition of a prefix or suffix, or by some other process (e.g., vowel change) could sometimes result in the formation of a 'new' word, but did not say anything about how 'new' words could be created even without a change in the shape of the word. Finally, though we talked about the 'abstract' nature of the morpheme and said that the spoken form was only a representation of the morpheme and not the morpheme itself, we did not say anything about the nature of relationship between a morpheme and its representation. All these questions are also important to morphology and we shall not be able to understand English morphology unless we know something about them.

Accordingly, in this unit we propose to discuss the following topics:

- i) different types of affixes: inflectional vs derivational,
- ii) compounding,
- iii) conversion, or formation of new words without any change in the shape of words, and
- iv) the relationship between morphemes and their representations in the spoken form.

12.2 DIFFERENT TYPES OF AFFIXES: INFLECTIONAL VS DERIVATIONAL

In discussing the criteria for identifying parts of words in Unit 11, we mentioned two criteria which are of particular relevance to morphology: the criterion of meaning and the criterion of grammatical function. The criterion of meaning applies whenever a word can be divided into two or more parts such that each part carries a distinct meaning. Some examples of this type that we cited in Unit 11 were the prefixes *un-* ('negative meaning'), *de* ('reversing the action'), *re-* ('do again'), and the suffixes *-ness* ('the quality of being ---'), *-ly* ('manner'), *-ation* ('process or state of -----'), etc. The criterion of grammatical function is useful whenever an affix is added to a word in accordance with a grammatical rule to perform a given grammatical function. Some examples given were the third person singular present *-s* added to verbs, the plural *-s* added to common nouns, etc. We also stated that the two criteria were not always clearly distinguishable, since affixes with grammatical functions (e.g. the plural *-s*) also often had clearly recognizable meanings.

We should now like to make a sharper distinction between the two types of affixes, but we shall not base this distinction on meaning. We will note that affixes can be divided into two basic types: grammatical and lexical. Grammatical affixes are those affixes which are attached to words in accordance with the rules of grammar in order to relate them to other words in the phrase, clause, sentence, etc. For example, a rule of English grammar says that we cannot simply put two nouns together to create a phrase. *Ram book* does not make a grammatical unit. One way of turning this sequence into a grammatical unit is to add the suffix *-s* to *Ram*: *Ram's book* is a grammatically constructed nouns phrase. The 'apostrophe *-s*', as the suffix is commonly called, is a grammatical device for relating two nouns in a relationship which gives the meaning of 'possession'. Similarly, any common noun which occurs in the blank in the following sentence must occur with the plural morpheme so that it can be related to the verb *were* which is in the plural:

The ----- were shouting slogans.

A similar statement can be made about verbs with the third person singular present morpheme, which we described as a grammatical morpheme in Unit 11. We can, therefore, classify the possessive *'s*, the plural *-s* and the third person singular present *-s* as grammatical morphemes, or grammatical affixes. Other grammatical affixes in English are the past tense *-ed* morpheme, the perfect *-en* or *-ed*, the continuous *-ing*, which are all used with verbs, and the comparative *-er* and the superlative *-est*, which are used with adjectives and adverbs. Grammatical affixes are also called inflectional affixes. 'Inflection' is the traditional term for the change in the form of a word that shows its grammatical function.

All the remaining affixes of English are called lexical affixes. The term 'lexical' comes from the word 'lexis', which means 'vocabulary' or the word-store of a language. The reason for calling these affixes 'lexical' is that they help us form new words, or new vocabulary items. By 'new' we do not mean that they have not been used by anyone else before and that we are the first ones to coin them, but that when they were first coined by someone, he simply added that particular affix to an already existing word and got a 'new' word, i.e., he did not produce an *entirely* new word. Of course, writers and speakers sometimes do produce new words in this way which may not have been used by anyone before, and may not be used very commonly afterwards. For example, describing a person whose hat had been blown away in the wind, an author may refer to his '*hatless* state', a person asked to name the hour when he would turn up for an appointment, visit, etc. may say '*Tennish*', meaning 'Around ten o'clock', and so on. It is a characteristic of lexical affixes that they can be used creatively in this way to form new words. Some of these new words, when they fulfil a felt need, become permanent additions to the language.

Notice that, in contrast to the words created by the addition of lexical affixes, the words formed by the addition of grammatical affixes are not considered new words. A dictionary, for example, does not list *work*, *works*, *working*, *worked* separately: they are all listed under the word *work*. Similarly, the singular and plural forms of nouns and the comparative and superlative forms of adjectives and adverbs are not listed separately. It is assumed that these forms can be created, whenever required, by applying the appropriate rules of grammar. The word is the same, but it has different grammatical forms. Whatever change in meaning is involved can be attributed to the rule of grammar (e.g., the plural

rule produces the meaning 'more than one'). By contrast, words created by the addition of lexical affixes are listed separately in a dictionary, since they are treated as separate words. The reason is that these affixes are added to words not because some rule of grammar requires it but because we want to say something different. In other words, words with lexical affixes present us with a lexical choice. For example, we can form the words *childish* and *childlike* by adding the lexical affixes *-ish* and *-like* respectively to the root *child-*. Whether we want to use the word *childish* or *childlike* in speaking of someone's appearance, behaviour, etc. depends on whether we wish to speak disapprovingly or appreciatively of him or her. No rule of grammar requires us to use the one word or the other. The difference in the meaning of *childish* and *childlike*, therefore, cannot be derived from any grammatical rule : it must be listed in the dictionary. That is the reason *childish* and *childlike* are listed separately in a dictionary. We must learn their meanings as we learn the meaning of *child* when we learn English.

The point illustrated by this example is this: lexical affixes do not change the meaning of the words in a regular way while grammatical affixes do. The addition of the plural affix *-s* to a common noun always adds the same meaning ('more than one') to the meaning of the noun, but the addition of the verb-forming suffix *-ize* to adjectives and nouns adds different meanings to different words, e.g., *modernize* means 'to make modern', *symbolize* means 'to act as a symbol of', *hospitalize* means 'to put in a hospital', *dieselize* means 'to convert to diesel-engined power', and so on. For this reason, these words must be treated as different words and listed separately in a dictionary.

In brief, this distinction between grammatical affixes and lexical affixes can be described as follows:

The addition of grammatical affixes to words is controlled by the (compulsory) rules of grammar. They change the form of a word to relate it to other words in the sentence.

The addition of lexical affixes to words is controlled by the choice of the user of the language. He attaches lexical affixes to existing words to produce 'new' words which can express exactly the meanings he wants to communicate.

The distinction between grammatical and lexical affixes is a basic and an important one. They are generally known as **inflectional** and **derivational** affixes respectively. The word *derivational* implies that the words formed by the attachment of lexical affixes are *derived* from other words, and *derivational* affixes are those affixes which help in this derivation.

The study of morphology is divided into two main branches: the study of inflectional affixes is called **inflectional morphology** and the study of derivational affixes is called **derivational morphology**.

There are a few other important characteristics of inflectional and derivational affixes in English which may be summarised as follows:

- i) Inflectional affixes never change the part of speech of the stem. A noun to which a plural affix is added still remains a noun; a verb to which the past tense affix is added still remains a verb, and so on.
Derivational affixes may change the part of speech of the stem though they do not always do so. Thus *child* > *childish*, *childlike* involves a change in the part of speech but *obey* > *disobey*, *build* > *rebuild*, etc. do not. Derivational prefixes, in particular, do not affect the part of speech of the stem.
- ii) Inflectional affixes of English are all suffixes; derivational affixes occur both as prefixes and suffixes.
- iii) Inflectional affixes are attached to a stem after all the derivational affixes have already been attached, and usually only one inflectional suffix is attached to a word. Therefore, once an inflectional affix has been attached to a word, no other affix can be added to it. As a result, the inflectional affix forms the outer layer in the structure of a word, while derivational affixes form the inner layers. E.g., in the word *destabilized* the inflectional affix is the past tense suffix *-ed*. It is added last of all to the verb stem *destabilize-*, which is built up by the addition of the derivational affixes *-ize* and *de-* as follows; *stable* > *stabilize* > *destabilize*.

Check Your Progress 1

1) State whether the italicized affixes in the following sentences are inflectional or derivational :

- a) He *accepted* the offer.
- b) The *announcement* came at midnight.
- c) A dog is *barking* outside.
- d) I *befriended* him easily.
-
- e) They may *disqualify* him.
-
- f) The dog's *assistance* was *invaluable*.
-
- g) The new bill *enlarges* the scope of the earlier one.
-
- h) Icecream is *sweeter* than cake.
-
- i) I don't use sugar, I use a *sweetener*.
-
- j) I *familiarized* myself with the set-up during my latest visit.
-

2) Each group below contains a root and some affixes. Combine the morphemes of each group to form a word. Specify the order in which you attach the affixes. For each affix (prefix and suffix), also specify whether it is derivational or inflectional. Remember that inflectional affixes are always the last affixes to be attached. Make all necessary adjustments in spelling:

- a) -s, obey, dis-
.....
- b) en-, -ing, code
.....
- c) build, re-, -ing
.....
- d) -ly, friend, -est
.....
- e) host, -es, -ess
.....
- f) -ify, simple, -es
.....
- g) able, dis-, -ity, -es
.....
- h) -er, cater, -s
.....

i) -ize, im-, mortal, -ed

.....

.....

j) respect, -ly, -ful, dis-

.....

.....

12.3 COMPOUNDING

One of the criteria for dividing words into their constituent parts that we described in Unit 11 was the following:

If a word is wholly made up of two or more parts which also occur independently as words, we can divide the word into parts identical with the independently occurring words.

Consider the following words:

afternoon, airtight, airworthy, earthquake, pickpocket, turncoat

Each of these words is made up of two morphemes which also occur as words independently, e.g., *after* and *noon*, *air* and *tight*, and so on. However, when these morphemes occur in compounds, they do not occur as words but as parts of words. Hence they will be written as *after-*, *-noon*, *air-*, *-tight*, etc.

Compounding may be said to be a process of forming 'new' roots, since inflectional and derivational affixes can be attached to the forms resulting from compounding, e.g., *afternoons*, *airworthiness*, etc. To distinguish such roots from simple roots, we call them **compound roots**. The complex forms derived from compound roots by attaching inflectional or derivational affixes to them are sometimes called **compound-complex words**.

All the examples of compounds that we have cited above are written as single words, i.e., without any space between the parts. However, not all compounds are written as single words: some are written with a hyphen (small dash) between the parts, and some are written as two words, i.e., with a space between the parts. For example,

Written with a hyphen : *air-conditioning, brother-in-law, double-cross, man-eater, mother-tongue.*

Written with a space : *air raid; black market, fancy dress, ground staff; rock garden*

With some compounds, there is a considerable amount of variation and they may be written without space, with space, and with a hyphen, e.g., *birdcage, bird cage, or bird-cage*.

In speech, compounds are generally characterized by the fact that the stress is on the first constituent, i.e., the stressed syllable of the first constituent is pronounced with greater force than anything else in the compound. As a result, we can sometimes distinguish a compound from a non-compound by this feature, e.g., *darkroom*, pronounced with stress on *dark*, is a compound referring to the room where photographic plates are processed, while *a dark room*, with stress on both constituents is a phrase referring to a room which is dark. However, this feature is not a characteristic of all compounds, e.g., *black market* and *fancy dress* are pronounced with the main stress on the second constituent.

It is thus clear that we cannot identify compounds by the way they are written or spoken. How then do we know when a word is a compound? This question is important since a compound often consists of 'a noun + a noun' or 'an adjective + a noun', and such combinations can also occur as phrases. We have just seen the example of *a dark room* (phrase) vs. *a darkroom* (compound). Another example is *a green house* (phrase: a house that is painted green) and a *greenhouse* (compound: a glass house for the protection of plants). Similarly, *common man* is a phrase, *common room* is a compound; *baby girl* is a phrase but *baby-sitter* is a compound. How do we decide this?

The criterion is simple and it is based on meaning. The meaning of a compound is *not* a sum of the meanings of its constituent parts. That is why the compound *darkroom* does not simply mean a room which is dark. The meaning of a compound word is something different from the meaning its parts make. We express this by saying that its meaning is **idiomatic**. The meaning of *darkroom*, viz, 'a room for photographic processing' is an idiomatic meaning, not a literal meaning of its parts. This is true of all compounds (note, for example, the meanings of *greenhouse* and *common room*). This is what shows that a compound is a single unit i.e., one word and not two.

The one-word character of compound words is seen specially when affixes are attached to them. Though the affix is actually attached to only one element (usually the last one but sometimes also to others, e.g., *brothers-in-law*), it is understood as applying to the whole compound. For example, in the word *black marketeer*, the suffix *-eer* is taken to be attached to *black market* and not to *market* only. Accordingly, the structure of the word is

- (black + market) + eer
- and not
- black + (market + eer)

Check Your Progress 2

1) Consult a dictionary and find out the idiomatic meanings of the following compounds:

a) bedclothes

.....

b) bigwig

.....

c) brain-drain

.....

d) egghead

.....

e) kill-joy

.....

f) turncoat

.....

2) Show the structure of the following compound-complex words by multiple bracketing:

a) caretaker

.....

b) giftwrapping

.....

c) globe-trotter

.....

d) motor-cyclist

.....

e) proof-reader

.....

f) tape-recorder

.....

- 3) How would you show the structure of compound-complex words in which the affix is attached to the first element, e.g. *looker-on*, *passer-by*, *runner-up*, etc.?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

12.4 CONVERSION

In discussing the differences between inflectional and derivational affixes, we mentioned in Sec. 12.1 that derivational affixes help us to create 'new' words. Since these 'new' words can be stems for other affixes (inflectional or derivational), we can also say that derivational affixes help us produce new stems. On the other hand, inflectional affixes do not produce new stems, since once an inflectional affix is attached to a stem, no other affix can be attached to it.

Derivational affixes produce new stems by changing the form of the word. For example, we produce a new stem from the verb *play* by attaching *-er* to it. *Player* is a 'new' word and can be a stem, e.g., in the word *players*. We note here that the verb *play* changes into the noun *player*. Hence there is a change in the part of speech of the word as well as in its shape. Sometimes, however, we can change the part of speech of a word without changing its form. For example, the word *carpet* is a noun, but it is used as a verb in the following sentence without any change of form:

How much would it cost to *carpet* this room?

Thus *carpet* is not like those nouns which require a derivational affix to change into a verb, e.g., *friend* requires the prefix *be-* to become the verb *befriend* (= to make friends with), *class* requires the suffix *-ify* to become the verb *classify*, and so on. Verbs like *carpet*, *stone*, *table*, etc., can be derived from the corresponding nouns without any affix. They are, therefore, said to be cases of derivation by the *zero* affix.

How do we know that it is the verb *carpet* that is derived from the noun *carpet* by the zero affix and not the noun *carpet* that is derived from the verb? In other words, what are the criteria for treating one of the two words related by the zero affix to be the source or the base? Three criteria are generally used:

- i) The first criterion is **meaning**. We generally identify a word as a noun if it denotes a person or an object; we identify it as a verb if it denotes action, and as an adjective if it denotes a quality, and so on. In a pair of words related by the zero affix we can generally tell which meaning is primary and which derived. *Carpet*, *stone*, *table*, etc., are primarily nouns as they denote objects, hence we regard the verb to be derived. On the other hand, in pairs like *attack* (verb) and *attack* (noun), *help* (verb) and *help* (noun), *laugh* (verb) and *laugh* (noun), etc., we can tell that the base is the verb since the words primarily denote actions.
- ii) The second criterion is **form**. For example, some suffixes occur typically with nouns, others with verbs. The suffixes *-tion*, *-ion*, *-ure* are typically noun endings. Hence when words containing such endings are used as verbs, we can say that the noun form is basic, the verb form derived. Consider, for example, the word *partition* in the following sentence:

They *partitioned* the room and converted the front part into an office.

The prefix *re-*, on the other hand, is a typical verb prefix. Hence in a pair containing a noun and a verb with the prefix *re-* the noun word is considered to be derived from the verb word, e.g., *recall* (noun) and *recall* (verb); *re-run* (noun) and *re-run* (verb).

- iii) The third criterion is **historical**. If the criteria of meaning and form do not help us, we can turn to the history of the language and try to determine which use came first. For example, the noun *worship* has existed in English for about 600 years, but the

verb is even older. This criterion is, however, not very reliable as historical records are not easily available for all words.

Check Your Progress 3

1) The following words can occur both as nouns and verbs. Determine whether they are cases of conversion from noun to verb (N>V), or from verb to noun (V>N):

a) attempt

b) bottle

c) catalogue

d) floor

e) love

f) position

g) puncture

h) refill

i) skin

j) show-off

2) Use the following words as verbs in sentences:

corner

floor

mother

position

snowball

3) Use the following words as nouns in sentences:

catch

find

show-off

throw

12.5 MORPHOPHONOLOGY

In Unit 11, Section 11.2.2, we stated that morphemes were units of grammar and that they were abstract. This means that morphemes cannot be pronounced. One reason for considering morphemes to be abstract was that the same morpheme (e.g. 'plural number') was represented by different spoken forms (/z/ or /s/), and we could not identify the 'plural number' morpheme with any one of these forms.

The pronunciation of words, morphemes, etc. in linguistics is represented in phonemic notation. Phonemic notation is based on the principle of 'one symbol for one sound'. This notation is specially necessary for representing the pronunciation of languages like English where the spelling does not represent the pronunciation at all accurately. The same letter (e.g. *n*) represents a number of different sounds (as in *put*, *cut*, *rude*, *suppose*, etc.), and the same sound is represented by different letters (e.g., the vowel sound of *put* is also represented by *o* (*wolf*), *oo* (*book*), and *ou* (*could*)). In the phonemic notation, one symbol represents one sound: the same symbol represents the same sound everywhere. To devise the phonemic notation for a language, therefore, we first identify the total number of different sounds in the language. Each different sound is called a *phoneme*. Next, we find a symbol for each phoneme. The symbols we have used above for representing the plural number morpheme in English, /z/, /s/, /ɪz/ are phonemic symbols. /ɪz/ is a sequence of two phonemic symbols. The pronunciation of words and morphemes is represented by sequences of phonemic symbols wherever they consist of more than one sound.

As we stated in Section 11.2.2, most morphemes are identical with parts of words. For example, the four morphemes in the word *representations* are *re-*, *present-*, *ation* and the plural number. These four morphemes are represented by the parts /re/, /prɪznt/, /eɪʃən/ and /z/ in the spoken form /,reprɪznt'eɪʃən z/. These spoken forms are sometimes called *morphs* to distinguish them from morphemes. Morphemes are abstract grammatical or lexical units, morphs are their representations, or realizations, in the spoken form.

Three of the morphs in the word *representations* are direct, one-to-one, representations of the morphemes. These are /re/, /prɪznt/ and /eɪʃən/. The fourth morph /z/, however, is only one of the representations of the 'plural number' morpheme. This morpheme, as stated above, is also represented by other morphs. For example, in the word *hats* /hæts/, it is represented by /s/; in the word *horses* /hɔ:sɪz/, it is represented by /ɪz/; in the word *men*/men/, it is represented by a change of the stem-vowel which we represent as the morph /æ>e/; in the plural noun *sheep*, it is represented by the zero morph, and so on. When different morphs represent the same morpheme, we call them **allomorphs**. Thus /ɪz/, /z/, /s/, /æ>e/ and 'zero' are allomorphs of the plural morpheme.

Why should different allomorphs represent the same morphemes? Why can't the same morph represent a morpheme everywhere? There are two kinds of reasons for this:

First, there are reasons which have to do with pronunciation. In English, an *-s* suffix occurring with words ending in voiceless sounds like /p, t, k, f/, is generally pronounced as /s/. Being a voiceless sound, /s/ is more natural after voiceless sounds. After voiced sounds like /ŋ, b, d, v, m, n, l/ and the vowel sounds the *-s* suffix is pronounced as /z/, which is a voiced sound and more natural after voiced sounds. However, the *-s* suffix is not realized as /s/ after words ending in /s/, though it is also a voiceless sound; and it is not realized as /z/ after words ending in /z/, though it is also a voiced sound. The reason is that a /s/ + /s/, or /z/ + /z/ combination would be hard to pronounce. Hence the suffix *-s* is realized as /ɪz/ after sounds like /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /t/ and /dʒ/, as in *horses*, *roses*, *bushes*, *garages*, *churches* and *judges*. In other words, the occurrence of the allomorphs /ɪz/, /z/, and /s/ is conditioned by phonological factors, or factors having to do with pronunciation. They are therefore, said to be **phonologically conditioned** allomorphs. Other phonologically conditioned allomorphs occur in English with the past tense morpheme, the third person singular present morpheme, the possessive morpheme etc.

It is not only the affixes which occur as allomorphs. Sometimes the root or the stem also has allomorphs. For example, the plural of *house* / haʊs / is *houses* / 'haʊzɪz /; the plural of *knife* / naɪf / is *knives* / naɪvz /. How do we relate the singular / haʊs / to the stem /'hɑ:z- / of / 'haʊzɪz /? Or the singular / naɪf / to the stem/naɪv- / of / naɪvz /? One solution is to say that / haʊz / and / naɪv / are phonologically conditioned allomorphs of / haʊs / and /naɪf/ respectively which occur with the voiced suffix / z /.

The second reason for the occurrence of allomorphs is that, for historical reasons, some words behave in an irregular way. Thus, while most nouns form plurals by taking a suffix, some nouns (like *man*, *woman*, *child*, *mouse*, *sheep*, etc.) do it in a different way; while most verbs form past tense by a *-d* affix, some verbs (like *get*, *run*, *sing*, *weep*, etc.) do it by changing the stem-vowel, and so on. This is a peculiarity of these words and there is no rule which can tell us why these words behave in this way. Such words give rise to special allomorphs like the *replacive allomorph*, in which one or more sounds of the stem are replaced (e.g. / æ>e / in *man* > *men*), the *zero allomorph*, in which the stem remains unchanged, and so on. Allomorphs of this kind are said to be **grammatically conditioned allomorphs**. A typical grammatically conditioned allomorph in English is *-en*, the plural ending which occurs only with the noun *ox* and none other.

The study of how morphemes of a language are represented by morphs and allomorphs is called its **morphophonology**. The study of the morphophonology of a language requires a knowledge of its phonetics and phonology, i.e., of its sounds and sound patterns. You are therefore, advised to master the knowledge of English phonetics and phonology well (see Blocks 1-2) so that you can understand its morphophonology.

Check Your Progress 4

1) Identify the morphemes in each of the following words. Then identify the morph which represents each of the morphemes:

a) actors / 'æktəz /

.....

b) breathed / brɪ:ðd /

.....

c) developed / dɪ'veləpt /

.....

d) halted / 'hɔ:lɪd /

.....

e) inglorious / ɪn'glɔ:riəs /

.....

f) imperfect / ɪm'pɜ:fɪkt /

.....

g) electricity / ɪlek'trɪsɪti /

.....

h) thieves / θɪ:vz /

.....

i) Ram's / rɑ:mz /

j) taller / 'tɔ:lə /

The past tense morpheme in English has three phonologically conditioned allomorphs. They are illustrated in the following set of words. Find out how these words are pronounced and then identify the allomorphs. Finally, state the phonological conditioning. Remember that /t/ is a voiceless sound and /d/ a voiced one :

a) slipped

b) kicked

c) hissed

d) flashed

e) laughed

f) rubbed

g) plugged

h) dozed

i) judged

j) dived

k) cried

l) called

m) hummed

n) banned

o) banged

p) waited

q) raided

12.6 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have made the following major points:

- i) Affixes are inflectional or derivational.
- ii) Inflectional affixes are those affixes which are required to be attached to words by some rule of grammar and perform some grammatical function.
- iii) Derivational affixes are attached to words to produce 'new' words. These words add to our lexical choice and are listed separately in the dictionary.
- iv) Inflectional affixes change the meaning of the stem to which they are attached in a regular way; derivational affixes affect the meaning of different sets of words in different ways.
- v) Inflectional affixes never change the part of speech of the word to which they are attached; derivational affixes often do.
- vi) English inflectional affixes are all suffixes.
- vii) Inflectional affixes are attached to words after all the derivational affixes have been attached to them.
- viii) Usually, only one inflectional affix is attached to a word.
- ix) Compounding is the process of combining two or more free morphemes in a single word.
- x) When compound roots occur with inflectional or derivational affixes in a word we call it a compound-complex word.
- xi) Compounds cannot be always recognized from the way they are written or pronounced. They can, however, be recognized by their idiomatic meanings.
- xii) 'New' words are also created by changing the part of speech of a word without adding an affix to it, or changing its shape in any other way. Such cases are said to be cases of 'conversion', or cases of derivation by the zero-affix.
- xiii) The 'base' word in a case of conversion is recognized either by its primary meaning or by its form.
- xiv) Morphemes are represented in the spoken form by **morphs**. Sometimes a morph is also equivalent to a change in one or more phonemes of the stem. When the addition of a morpheme is represented without any change in the form of the stem, it is said to be represented by a *zero morph*.
- xv) The different morphs representing the same morpheme are said to be **allomorphs**. Allomorphs of a morphemes are **phonologically conditioned** or **grammatically conditioned**.
- xvi) The study of how morphemes are represented by morphs and allomorphs is called **morphophonology**.

12.7 KEY WORDS

Inflectional Affix: an affix that is attached to a word to perform some grammatical function in accordance with some rule of grammar.

Derivational Affix: an affix that is attached to a word to produce a 'new' word, or a new stem.

Compounding: the process of making a 'new' word, or root, by combining two or more free morphemes.

Compound-Complex Word: a word containing a compound root and one or more affixes.

Conversion: the process of creating a 'new' word by changing its part of speech without adding any affix to it or changing its form in any other way.

Morph: the physical spoken form which realizes a morpheme; it is represented as a phoneme, a sequence of phonemes, a process of change of phonemes, or as zero.

Allomorph: When two or more morphs represent the same morpheme, they are said to be allomorphs of the morpheme.

Replacive Allomorph : When the addition of a morpheme is represented in a word by the replacement of one or more phonemes in the stem, the process of replacement is represented as a replacive allomorph.

Zero Allomorph: When the addition of a morpheme to a stem leads to no change in the form of the stem, the morpheme is said to be represented by a zero morph.

Morphophonology: the study of how morphemes are represented by morphs and allomorphs.

12.8 SOME USEFUL BOOKS

Brown, E.K. and Miller, J.E. (1980). *Syntax: A Linguistic Introduction to Sentence Structure*, (Chs. 11 - 16). London: Hutchinson.

Francis, W.N. (1958). *The Structure of American English*, (Ch. 4.). New York: The Ronald Press Company.

Fromkin, V. and Rodman, R. (1974). *An Introduction to Language*, (Ch. 6). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Gleason, H.A. (1961). *An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics*, Revised Edition, (Chs. 5,6,7,8). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Quirk, R. and Greenbaum, S. (1973). *A University Grammar of English*, (Appendix D). London: Longman.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

- 1) a) *-ed* : Inflectional
 b) *-ment*: Derivational
 c) *-ing*: Infl.
 d) *be-* : Deriv.; *-ed*: Infl.; *-ly*: Deriv.
 e) *dis-* : Deriv.
 f) *'s*: Infl.; *-ance* : Deriv.; *in-*: Deriv.; *-able*: Deriv.
 g) *en-* : Deriv.; *-es*: Infl.; *-er*: Infl.
 h) *-er*: Infl.
 i) *-en*: Deriv.; *-er*: Deriv.
 j) *-ize*: Deriv.; *-d*: Infl.; *-est*: Infl.
- 2) a) *dis* + *obey* (Deriv.); *disobey* + *s* (Infl.)
 b) *en* + *code* (Deriv.); *encod(e)* + *ing* (Infl.)
 c) *re* + *build* (Deriv.); *rebuild* + *ing* (Infl.)
 d) *friend* + *ly* (Deriv.); *friendl(i)* + *est* (Infl.)
 e) *host* + *ess* (Deriv.); *hostess* + *es* (Infl.)
 f) *simple* (e) + *ify* (Deriv.); *simplif(i)* + *es* (Infl.)
 g) *able* + *ity* (Deriv.); *dis* + *ability* (Deriv.); *disabilit(i)* + *es* (Infl.)
 h) *cater* + *er* (Deriv.); *caterer* + *s* (Infl.)
 i) *im* + *mortal* (Deriv.); *immortal* + *ize* (Deriv.); *immortalize* + *d* (Infl.)
 j) *respect* + *ful* (Deriv.); *dis* + *respectful* (Deriv.); *disrespectful* + *ly* (Deriv.)

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) Students are advised to consult a dictionary.
- 2) a) ((*care* + *take*) + *er*) b) ((*gift* + *wrap*) + *ing*)
 c) ((*globe* + *trot*) + *er*) d) ((*motor* + *cycle*) + *ist*)
 e) ((*proof* + *read*) + *er*) f) ((*tape* + *record*) + *er*)
- 3) The important point about such words is that though the affix is attached. *the first* element, it actually applies to the whole compound. E.g., *looker - on* means *the same*

thing as *onlooker*, where the suffix is attached to the whole compound, i.e. *-er* does not apply to *look-* only but to the compound *look on*. This cannot be represented by multiple bracketing, but may be represented in one of the following ways:

- a) $\overline{\text{look}} + \overline{\text{er}} + \text{on}$ b) $\overline{\text{look} + \text{er}} + \text{on}$
-

Check Your Progress 3

- a) V > N b) N > V c) N > V d) N > V
 e) V > N f) N > V g) N > V h) V > N
 i) N > V j) V > N

2 & 3 Examples of such sentences will be found in any learner's dictionary of English.

Check Your Progress 4

- 1)
 - a) Morphemes: act-; -or; -s.
Morphs: /ækt /; /ə /; /z /.
 - b) Morphemes: breathe-; -d
Morphs: /bri:ð /; /d /
 - c) Morphemes: develop-; -ed
Morphs: /di'veləp /; /t /
 - d) Morphemes: halt-; -ed
Morphs: /hɔ:lt /; /ɪd /
 - e) Morphemes: in-; glor(y)-; -ous
Morphs: /ɪn /; /'glɔ:ri /; /əs /
 - f) Morphemes: im-; -perfect
Morphs: /ɪm /; /'pɜ:fɪkt /
 - g) Morphemes: electric-; -ity
Morphs: /ɪlektɪs /; /ɪti /
 - h) Morphemes: thief-; plural number
Morphs: /θi:v /; /z /
 - i) Morphemes: Rom-; possessive morpheme
Morphs: /rɔ:m /; /z /
 - j) Morphemes: tall-; comparative morpheme
Morphs: /tɔ:l /; /ə /
- 2) The three allomorphs of the past tense morpheme are /t /, /d / and /ɪd /.
 Phonological conditioning: The allomorph /t / occurs after stems ending in all voiceless sounds except /t /; the allomorph /d / occurs after stems ending in all voiced sounds except /d /; /ɪd / occurs after stems ending in /t / or /d /.

UNIT 13 INFLECTIONAL MORPHOLOGY OF ENGLISH - 1

- 13.0 Objectives
- 13.1 Introduction
- 13.2 The Major Parts of Speech
- 13.3 Inflectional Morphology of the English Noun
 - 13.3.1 Noun Classes
 - 13.3.2 Grammatical Categories Associated with the Noun
 - 13.3.3 Morphology of the Proper Noun
 - 13.3.4 Morphology of the Count Noun
 - 13.3.5 Morphology of the Mass Noun
- 13.4 The Inflectional Paradigm of the English Noun
- 13.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 13.6 Key Words
- 13.7 Some Useful Books
- Answers

13.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to

- recognize the various inflections that English nouns take,
- describe the grammatical categories/subcategories the inflections represent,
- distinguish proper, count and mass nouns in terms of the kind of inflections they take,
- distinguish between regular and irregular nouns,
- recognize the various allomorphs of the regular plural and the possessive morpheme and describe their phonological conditioning, and
- recognize the various ways in which irregular nouns convey the number and case contrasts.

13.1 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 12, Section 12.2, we described morphology as the study of inflectional and derivational affixes. Inflectional affixes were described as those affixes which are required to be attached to words by some rules of grammar and perform some grammatical function. It was also stated that inflectional affixes generally add a fixed element of meaning to the meaning of the stem, and, unlike in the case of derivational affixes, this meaning-element does not vary from one set of words to another.

We may also recall the definition of morphology given in Unit 11. Morphology, it was stated, is the study of the internal structure of words. When an affix is added to a root, it becomes a complex word and acquires morphological structure, since it is now composed of two recognizable parts. If an affix is added to a stem which already has two or more parts, the resulting word becomes morphologically more complex, since it has now one more part added to it. In other words, it acquires more morphological structure. The point to note is that the morphological structure of a word is described in terms of the physically distinguishable parts (e.g., affixes) it has.

Accordingly when an inflectional affix is attached to a stem, the resulting word becomes complex, or more complex than it was before. Each inflectional affix represents a grammatical category and performs the grammatical function associated with that category. Thus, the plural affix represents the grammatical category 'number' and performs the function of pluralizing the noun to which it is attached. Most English nouns form their plural forms by taking the affix. We, therefore, call the method of plural formation by affixation the *regular* method of plural formation in English, and the nouns which form their plural nouns in this way the *regular* nouns. The plural forms of regular nouns have a clearly recognizable morphological structure and we can analyse and study this structure, as we have done for some examples in the previous units.

However, as noted in Unit 11, some nouns do not form their plurals in the regular way, i.e. they do not take the plural affix. E.g., nouns like *man* and *mouse* form their plurals by changing their vowel sound; the noun *sheep* does not change its form at all, and so on. We call such nouns *irregular* nouns. Since the plural forms of such nouns do not have affixes which can be isolated, we cannot analyse their structure by the same general rules which we apply to the regular cases. How, then, do we treat such cases?

As you will remember, we introduced notions like 'the replacive allomorph' and 'the zero allomorph' precisely to account for such cases. By this method, we are able to relate these cases to the regular cases, since all of them use different allomorphs of the same morpheme. However, this method works only if the number of irregular cases is relatively small as compared to the regular cases. If, on the other hand, irregular cases predominate, the method is not very helpful. For example, if every noun of English were to form its plural in a different way, there would be no point in listing 'allomorphs'; we could as well list the words. This would mean that the words were treated as morphologically simple, lacking structure, and were to be learnt as separate items.

Something like this happens to pronouns in English. Different grammatical categories are associated with the pronouns, viz. case, person, number and gender. Each pronoun expresses more than one of these categories, e.g., *I* expresses nominative case, first person and singular number; *he* expresses nominative case, third person; singular number, and masculine gender; *her* represents objective or possessive case, third person, singular number and feminine gender, and so on. As you notice, the pronouns do not seem to have *regular* ways of expressing these grammatical categories: each pronoun does it in its own way. Compare, for example, the different ways in which nouns and pronouns express the possessive case: all nouns express the possessive case category by taking the affix *'s* (pronounced as /ɪz/, /z/ or /s/). The possessive case forms of nouns, therefore, have structure which can be easily analysed into the stem + the affix. But pronouns express the possessive case category in a different way: in the first person singular it is *my* and *mine*; in the second person it is *your* and *yours*; in the third person, singular number and masculine gender it is *his*; in the third person, plural number it is *their* or *theirs*; in the third person, singular number, feminine gender it is *her* or *hers*; in the third person, singular number and neuter gender it is *its*. We cannot analyse these forms into any clearly recognizable parts which would be found in all pronouns, and which could be separated into elements occurring elsewhere with the same meaning. At first sight, *-r* and *-rs* may look like suffixes, but they do not occur in *my*, *mine* and *his*. They do occur in *her* and *hers*, but if we isolate them, we are left with *he* in which we don't know what to do with. The same kind of story is repeated if we examine the nominative or the objective case forms of pronouns.

It is, therefore, not desirable to treat pronouns as complex forms with morphological structure. We should treat them as morphologically simple forms and, since they are anyway few in number, learn them individually. It is therefore sufficient to list them. If we treat them as morphologically complex, we will have to state rules for their structure and such rules will be many and quite complicated. It will be easier to learn the pronouns individually than to learn these rules.

In describing the inflectional morphology of English, we shall, therefore, take the following approach:

- i) We shall first divide the words into parts of speech e.g., noun, verb, etc. Since only words belonging to the major parts of speech (noun, adjective, verb and adverb) take inflectional morphemes, we shall be concerned only with words belonging to these categories.
- ii) We shall next describe the various grammatical categories (e.g., case, number, tense, degree, etc.) which are associated with a particular part of speech. We shall describe the subcategories of each grammatical category, e.g., the category 'number' has the subcategories 'singular' and 'plural', 'degree' has the subcategories 'positive', 'comparative' and 'superlative', and so on.
- iii) Thirdly, we shall describe how these subcategories are expressed by means of suffixes in the regular cases belonging to a particular part of speech.
- iv) Next we shall describe the irregular cases and note how the grammatical subcategories are expressed in different ways by different sets of irregular words. If no general rules can be formulated for them, we shall simply list the various forms (e.g., with pronouns and the verb 'be').

v) Lastly, we shall present a summary of the complete set of forms which words belonging to a particular part of speech acquire in order to express the grammatical contrasts associated with it. For example, regular count nouns acquire the following four forms (in writing, not in speech) in order to express the number and case contrasts associated with nouns: *boy, boy's boys, boys'*. The forms respectively express singular number non-possessive case, singular number possessive case, plural number non-possessive case, and plural number possessive case. Irregular count nouns, like *child*, express the same grammatical contrasts through four forms which are different in speech as well as in writing: *child, child's, children, children's*.

The set of different but related forms which express the grammatical contrasts associated with a part of speech is called the *inflectional paradigm* of that part of speech. The inflectional morphology of a part of speech is, in fact, a description of its inflectional paradigm. We shall conclude our description of the inflectional morphology of each part of speech by presenting its inflectional paradigm in the form of a table.

13.2 THE MAJOR PARTS OF SPEECH

English has four major parts of speech: nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Only the words which belong to these categories have inflections. (Pronouns are treated as a subclass of nouns.) In fact, one of the major ways in which the part of speech of a word is identified is by looking at the inflections it takes. For example, a noun takes the plural or the possessive inflection, a verb takes the tense inflections, and so on. But the major parts of speech can also be identified in other ways, e.g., by looking at the typical positions they occupy in a construction like a phrase or a clause. Thus, some nouns can be identified by their position after a determiner word as in the following frame where the blanks can be filled only by common nouns:

The worked hard to make his better.

A more general position for nouns is the blank in the following frame which can be occupied by all types of nouns as well as pronouns:

..... is good.

Verbs can be identified by their position after the subject noun phrase, before the object noun phrase or before an adverb:

The man good.

The boy the apple.

The work slowly.

Apart from the criterion of position, the major parts of speech can also be identified by their meanings. Traditional definitions of the parts of speech mostly depend on this criterion. Thus nouns are said to denote persons, things, places, etc., verbs are said to be 'doing' words, adjectives convey qualities, and adverbs have meanings which modify the meanings of adjective, verbs and other adverbs. Though the criterion of meaning by itself is not very helpful, using it with the position criterion we are able to identify the major parts of speech in most cases.

Check Your Progress 1

1) Identify the part of speech to which each italicized word in the following sentences belongs:

a) The government ordered the *release* of all the protesters who had been *arrested*.
.....

b) He is *very friendly* towards me.
.....

c) He is *seldom* late.
.....

d) Let us *set* the plant here.

e) The *ride* was very *tiring*.

f) Last *Monday* was a holiday.

g) The car approached *rapidly*.

h) He is more *British¹* than the *British²*.

i) He has worked very *hard* for this exam.

j) He drives *carelessly*.

k) *Careless* drivers *cause* accidents.

Put the words in brackets in their correct inflected form so that the sentence becomes grammatical. Then state the specific grammatical subcategory or subcategories (e.g., plural number, possessive case, past tense, comparative degree, etc.) which the inflected form expresses:

a) The teacher told the (student) that they were responsible for maintaining discipline in the class.

b) My (sister) husband loves potatoes but my sister (hate) them.

c) I was (read) my lessons when the telephone (ring).

d) Raghu is the (tall¹) boy in the class; there is no one (tall²) than him.

e) All the boys made a request to the Principal that they be allowed to watch the hockey final on the TV. The Principal turned down the (boy) request.

f) When we (reach) the station, the train had already (leave).

13.3 INFLECTIONAL MORPHOLOGY OF THE ENGLISH NOUN

13.3.1 Noun Classes

In the preceding section, we suggested the following test-frame for identifying nouns:

..... is good.

A large variety of words can occupy this position: first, there are names of persons and places, e.g., Ram, John, Delhi, London, etc. which we call *proper nouns*; second, there are names of objects and things e.g., *water, milk, tables, chairs, film, play*, etc., called *common nouns*, all of which can occur in the frame if the verb is appropriately changed for subjects in plural; thirdly, there are words like *he, she, it*, etc., called *pronouns*, which can also occupy this position.

We shall deal with pronouns in a later unit; let us deal with nouns first.

Nouns, as we have seen, are divided into two main classes: *proper* and *common*. Common nouns are further divided into two subtypes: *count* and *mass*. Count nouns are those common nouns which denote objects which can be counted and which can therefore occur with numerals like *one (or a), two, ten, hundred*, etc., e.g., *chair, table, egg*, etc., mass nouns are nouns which treat the objects they denote as uncountable and therefore cannot occur with numerals, e.g., *water, milk, peace, advice*, etc. The distinction between proper, count and mass nouns is important for the morphology of these nouns.

13.3.2 Grammatical Categories Associated with the Noun

The major grammatical categories associated with nouns are *number* and *case*. Some nouns also express gender by taking a suffix (e.g., *authoress, hostess*) but they are very few and English nouns cannot be said to express gender inflectionally by a grammatical rule.

The grammatical category of number has two subcategories: singular and plural. The contrast is expressed morphologically and it is the plural subcategory which requires a change in the form of the noun. The change is either the addition of a suffix, the replacement of one or more vowels in the stem, or both. Sometimes, there is no change in the form of the stem and we are left to guess from the context whether the singular or the plural is meant.

The grammatical category of case also has two subcategories: *possessive* and *non-possessive (or common)*. The traditional three subcategories (nominative, objective, and possessive) apply only to the subclass of pronouns, since only pronouns have different forms for the subject (nominative), the object (objective) and the possessive (e.g., *he, him* and *his*). Nouns show only two forms, if at all: the possessive form (e.g., *boy's*) and the common or the uninflected form (e.g., *boy*). The common case form is used everywhere except in the possessive relationship: it occurs as subject or object of a verb, object of a preposition, and so on. There is, therefore, no reason (morphologically) for dividing it into the nominative and the objective subcategories.

While the meanings of the grammatical subcategories singular ('one') and plural ('more than one'), number are fairly regular, the same cannot be said about the meanings of the grammatical subcategory 'possessive case'. Contrary to what we may expect, the possessive case does not always express the relationship of 'possession': the cases where it does are fairly well-known, e.g., *Ram's book*, which means 'the book which Ram possesses'. But the relationship in the following cases is more complex and varied as the given meanings will show:

- Ram's murder: the murder of Ram (= Ram is murdered)
- Ram's murder: the murder which Ram committed
- Ram's victory: the victory which Ram won
- Ram's failure: the fact that Ram failed
- Ram's thoughts: the thoughts that Ram has

13.3.3 Morphology of the Proper Noun

The only grammatical category that is associated with the proper noun is case. English proper nouns, therefore, generally show only two forms: the common case form and the possessive case form. The possessive case form is the inflected form. Thus the paradigms of the proper names *Ram* and *India* consist of the forms *Ram* and *Ram's* and *India* and *India's* respectively.

The pronunciation of the inflectional suffix follows the same rules as the pronunciation of any other *-s* suffix. These rules are described in detail in Section 13.3.4 below in the context of the plural *-s* suffix with count nouns.

Proper nouns sometimes also take the plural inflection but such cases are very rare and occur with very specific meanings. For example, they may occur when we wish to refer to two or more persons with the same name, as in

There are more than 500 *Patels* listed in the London telephone directory.

Sometimes we also use the plural form of a surname to refer to the family, e.g., *Khannas* to refer to the Khanna family. Such cases are, however, very few and irregular. The plural, therefore, cannot be said to be a regular paradigm form of the proper noun.

13.3.4 Morphology of the Count Noun

The two grammatical categories associated with count nouns in English are 'number' and 'case'. Accordingly, most count nouns adopt different forms to signify the singular-plural number contrast and the common-possessive case contrast. We shall discuss the number-contrast first.

The number contrast

Most count nouns express the number-contrast by taking an inflectional suffix (*-es*) for the plural, so that a look at the form of the noun is sufficient to tell us whether it is singular or plural, e.g., *cats* / kæts /, *dogs* / dogz /, and *horses* /'hɔ:sɪz /. Some count nouns express the contrast not by taking an affix but through some other kind of change in the stem, e.g., *mouse* / maʊs / > *mice* /maɪs/; *man* / mæn / > *men* / men /. In such cases, too, the form of the noun is a sufficient indication of its number status. However, some nouns do not change the form at all: they can be used in the singular or the plural in the same form, e.g., *sheep* > *sheep*; *deer* > *deer*. With such nouns, we must look at the whole sentence to find out whether the singular or the plural meaning is intended, e.g.,

A sheep was grazing in the field.

The sheep were grazing in the field.

What tells you that *sheep* is singular in the first sentence but plural in the second?

.....

The three types of count nouns we have described may be respectively labelled as:

- a) nouns with the regular plural forms.
- b) nouns with the irregular plural forms
- c) nouns with the zero plural forms

These three types of count nouns should be distinguished from those count nouns which do not show the singular-plural contrast at all. Nouns of the latter type may show some of the features of the count nouns (e.g. some of them can occur with number words, or with adjectives like *few*, *many*, etc.), but they lack singular equivalents and have, in fact, no number-contrast. Some nouns of this type are *cattle*, *people*, *clothes*, *thanks*, etc.

Let us now look at the morphology of the three types of plural nouns listed above.

a) Regular plurals

The vast majority of English count nouns form their plurals by taking an inflectional suffix. In writing, this suffix takes the following forms:

- i) *-s* after most nouns ending in a consonant letter, e.g., *cats*, *books*, etc., or in *-e*, e.g., *colleges*, *horses*, etc.

- ii) *-es*, if the noun ends in *-s*, *-z*, *-x*, *-ch* or *-sh*, e.g., *buses*, *buzzes*, *boxes*, *clutches*, *flashes*.
- iii) *-s*, if the noun ends in *-o*, e.g., *radios*, *zoos*. Some nouns ending in *-o* are exceptions to this rule and take *-es*, e.g., *heroes*, *tomatoes*, *vetoed*.
- iv) *-es*, accompanied by a change of *y* to *i* in nouns ending in *-y*, e.g., *city* > *cities*, *cry* > *cries*. However, if *y* is preceded by a vowel, *-y* is retained and simply *-s* is added, e.g., *day* > *days*. Proper nouns ending in *-y*, if pluralized, end in *-ys*, e.g., *the two Germanys*.

In pronunciation, the plural suffix takes the following forms:

- i) /ɪz / after stems ending in sibilant sounds. Sibilant sounds are those sounds which produce a hissing noise, e.g. /s/, /z/, /ʒ/, /ʒ/, /ʒ/, /ʒ/, /ʒ/. It should be particularly noted that in writing the noun may end in a silent *e*; the form of the suffix is decided by the final sound, not the final letter. Examples: *horses*, *churches*, *bushes*, *sizes*.
- ii) /z / after stems ending in vowels and in voiced consonants other than sibilants. Voiced sounds are those sounds in the production of which the vocal cords vibrate resulting in a kind of musical note (compare, e.g., /k/, voiceless, with /g/, voiced). All vowels are voiced. The non-sibilant voiced consonants are /b/, /d/, /g/, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, /v/, /ð/, /l/. Though /ʃ/, /w/ and /r/ are also voiced and non-sibilant, we do not mention them, since no English words end in these sounds (according to British Received Pronunciation). (Note, again, that we are not concerned with spelling here.)
Examples: *cubs*; *buds*; *bugs*; *rooms*; *buns*; *songs*; *gloves*; *lathes* balls.
- iii) /s / after stems ending in voiceless consonants other than sibilants. The non-sibilant voiceless consonants in English are /p/, /t/, /k/, /f/ and /θ/. Examples: *caps*; *cats*; *books*; *beliefs*; *months*.

These three spoken forms of the plural suffix are said to be the allomorphs of the plural morpheme (See Unit 12, Section 12.5). These allomorphs are phonologically conditioned, since their occurrence depends on the nature of the preceding sound (or phoneme).

b) Irregular plurals

Irregular plurals are different from regular plurals in that, given the singular form, we cannot foretell what the plural form will be, as we can do with regular plurals. This is because almost each irregular noun forms its plural in a different way. We can, however, discover a few general features in some of these nouns. The following classification is based on these features:

- i) Change of vowel in the stem: The following nouns form their plurals by changing the vowel sound: *man*, *foot*, *goose*, *mouse*, *tooth*, and *louse*. However, the kind of change that actually takes place is different in most cases. We can represent the types as follows:

/æ > e / : *man* > *men*
 /ʊ > i / : *foot* > *feet*
 /u : > i / : *tooth* > *teeth*; *goose* > *geese*
 /aʊ > aɪ / : *mouse* > *mice*; *louse* > *lice*

In addition, the noun *woman* forms its plural by changing both its vowel sounds: *woman* /wʊmən/ becomes *women* /wɪmən/. This may be represented as /ʊ > ɪ / & /ə > ɪ / : *woman* > *women*.

Each one of these five vowel changes may also be called an allomorph of the plural morpheme. We may note that these allomorphs are of a different kind from the ones we saw occurring with the regular plurals: first, these allomorphs are not sounds but the replacements of one sound by another, second, they are not phonologically conditioned, since their occurrence cannot be predicted from some sound feature of the base form. They are known as *replacive allomorphs* and are said to be *morphologically conditioned* (see 12.5).

- ii) Voicing of the final consonant of the stem plus the regular suffix. Note how the following count nouns form their plurals:

knife /naɪf/ > *knives* /naɪvz/

thief / θi:f > thieves / θi:vz /
 mouth / maʊθ / > mouths / maʊ z /
 path / pɑ:θ / > paths / pɑ: z /
 house / haʊs / > houses / 'haʊ ziz /

In these words, the plural is formed by replacing the final voiceless consonant of the stem with its voiced counterpart and then adding the regular suffix allomorphs / z / or / ɪz / according to the regular rule.

How can we represent cases of this type? The best way seems to be to say that the stem morpheme has an allomorph which occurs with the plural morpheme. Thus / naɪf / has the allomorph / naɪv / when combining with the plural morpheme, / ma θ / has the allomorph / ma /, / ha s / has the allomorph / ha z /, and so on. The plural allomorph is then used according to the rule that applies to the regular cases. This allomorph of the stem also does not depend on any sound feature of the suffix, hence it is not a phonologically conditioned allomorph. We may note that many count nouns ending in / f / or / θ / do not change the final consonant to a voiced sound and are quite regular in forming their plurals, e.g., *chiefs*, *cliffs*, *months*, *births* (pronounced / tʃi:fs /, / klɪfs /, / mʌnθs / and / b :θs / respectively).

- iii) The suffix *-en* with other changes. The *-en* / n / allomorph of the plural morpheme occurs only with the noun *ox*, the plural form being *oxen* / ' ks n /. It also occurs with the noun *child* / tʃaɪld / but involves some other changes too: the vowel changes from / aɪ / to / i / and / r / is added to the stem. Another word that takes the *-en* suffix with other changes is *brother* when it means 'fellow member of a religious society'. The plural form is *brethren* / bre r n /.
- iv) Foreign plurals. A number of nouns that have been borrowed into English from foreign languages, particularly Latin, sometimes retain their original plurals. The general tendency, however, is to use the regular English plural suffix for them too. For example, Latin nouns ending in *-um* usually have their plurals ending in *-a*. This pattern is retained in some English nouns, e.g., *curriculum* > *curricula*, *bacterium* > *bacteria*, *erratum* > *errata*, but most other such nouns now generally tend to have the plural in *-s*, e.g., *album*, *forum*, *museum*, *premium*, *stadium*, *ultimatum*, etc. The major types of foreign plurals retained in English are:
 - i) / əs > aɪ / (From Latin): *alumnus* > *alumni*, *stimulus* > *stimuli*. But many words (e.g., *campus*, *chorus*, *prospectus*, etc.) have regular plurals.
 - ii) / əm > ə / (From Latin) : See examples above.
 - iii) / ɪ s > i:z / (From Greek): *basis* > *bases*; *crisis* > *crises*; *oasis* > *oases*; *thesis* > *theses*
 - iv) / ə n > ə / (From Greek): *criterion* > *criteria*; *phenomenon* > *phenomena*

Wherever these forms occur, they are also considered morphologically conditioned allomorphs of the plural morpheme.

c) Zero plurals

Nouns which do not change their form for plural are also irregular. The number of such count nouns in English is quite small. Some examples of this type are:

- i) Names of animals: *sheep*, *deer*
- ii) Names of nationalities: *Chinese*; *Japanese*; *Swiss*
- iii) Nouns denoting quantities: *dozen*, *hundred*, *thousand*, *million* (occasionally also occur in the regular plural form)

As described in Unit 12, Section 12.5, in such cases we speak of the zero allomorph of the plural morpheme.

We must distinguish count nouns with zero plurals from mass nouns, which have no plurals, and those count nouns which have no number-contrast. Thus *sheep* is neither like *mutton* nor like *cattle*, since *sheep* can be used both in the singular and in the plural, but *mutton*, being a mass noun, can be used only in the singular, while *cattle*, which is a count noun with no number contrast, can be used only in the plural.

The case *crisis* is

by an -s suffix on the noun while the common case is uninflected. The possessive case inflection occurs when certain kinds of relationships (not necessarily those of possession) are to be established between the nouns. The common case occurs everywhere else. For example, the count noun *boy* occurs as *boy* when subject or object of a verb: there is no change of form for what are sometimes called the nominative and the objective cases. Since case refers to the inflection on the noun, and there is no inflection for either nominative or objective, there is no point in distinguishing these two cases. But there is an inflection for the possessive *boy's* and we must distinguish it. We do so by writing it with an apostrophe + s and pronouncing it as a suffix with allomorphs phonologically identical to the allomorphs of *o* (the allomorpheme with the regular nouns, i.e. /ɪz/ after nouns ending in sibilant sounds like *the judge's seat*; *my niece's education*, etc.), /z/ after non-sibilant voiced sounds like *the boy's application*, *the girl's story*, *the man's house*, etc.); and /s/ after non-sibilant voiceless sounds (e.g., *the earth's surface*, *a moment's thought*, etc.)

The possessive case of singular count nouns is always expressed by using the suffix -'s with its various allomorphs, i.e., there are no irregular cases as there are with the plural number. As a result, the plural and possessive forms of count nouns, though mostly alike, are not always so. Thus if we simply hear /bɔɪz/ we cannot tell whether it is *boy's* or *boys*; if we hear /'dʒʌdʒɪz/, we cannot tell whether it is *judge's* or *judges*. But this does not happen with nouns with irregular plurals. If we hear /waɪvz/ we know it is *wives*, since *wife's* will be pronounced /waɪfs/; if we hear /pɑːðz/ we know it is *paths*, since *path's* will be pronounced /pɑːθs/, and so on.

With plural count nouns, however, there is an irregular class of nouns with respect to the expression of case. Note the following possessive forms of plural count nouns:

children > children's /tʃɪldrənz/
men > men's /mɛnz/
boys > boys' /bɔɪz/
cats > cats' /kæts/

The irregular plurals (*children*, *men*) take the regular possessive suffix -'s (pronounced /ɪz/, /z/ or /s/), while the regular plurals (*boys*, *cats*) take the 'zero' possessive (i.e., the possessive inflection is not pronounced separately; in writing too only the apostrophe is used: the -s in dropped).

The 'zero' possessive is, however, not confined to the regular plural count nouns only, as the following examples will show:

for goodness' sake : /fə'gʊdnɪs 'seɪk/ (mass noun)
Socrates' wife : /'sɒkrətiːz 'waɪf/ (proper noun)

It thus seems that the zero possessive is used in order to avoid repetitive or awkward combinations of sounds e.g. */bɔɪzɪz/, */gʊdnɪsɪz/ etc.

From this, it is clear that when we hear /bɔɪz/ or /'dʒʌdʒɪz/ the reference may be not only either to *boys* or to *boy's*, either to *judges* or to *judge's*: it is also possible that it may be to *boys'* or to *judges'* respectively. The three forms, the plural, the singular possessive, and the plural possessive, are not distinguished in speaking in the case of count nouns which form their plurals regularly.

We may mention here that all count nouns do not take the possessive inflection freely. It is generally (though not always) the nouns which denote persons, or animate beings in general, which take the possessive affix. Other nouns express the relationship by occurring in an *of*-phrase after the noun they modify. Thus we have

the boy's bicycle but *the seat of this bicycle*
the lady's purse but *the colour of this purse*

and so on.

13.3.5 Morphology of the Mass Noun

Mass nouns (or noncount/uncountable nouns) are nouns which treat the things they denote as uncountable, i.e., are not differentiated into items which can be counted. The objects denoted are, therefore, treated as forming a *mass*. For example, when *stone* refers to the material of which houses etc. are made, it is a mass noun. The same noun, when referring to pieces which can be counted, becomes a count noun. Some nouns can thus occur both

as count and mass. When they occur as count nouns, they share their morphology with the other count nouns; when they occur as mass nouns, their morphology is like those nouns which occur only as mass nouns. Examples of pure mass nouns are *furniture* and *happiness*.

We have noted that the inflectional categories that are generally associated with nouns are number and case. Proper nouns inflect generally for (possessive) case only, while count nouns inflect for both (plural) number and (possessive) case. Mass nouns inflect for neither number nor case. Since they denote objects not as differentiated items but as mass, the concept of 'one' vs. 'more than one' does not apply to them. In other words, mass nouns lack number contrast. For purposes of agreement with the verb, they are treated as singular. If we regard the regular plural suffix *-s* as the typical plural marker, they are also singular in form since they lack this suffix. The important point, however, is that the number contrast is irrelevant to mass nouns.

This should not be taken to mean that things denoted by mass nouns cannot be counted at all. That was why we said above that the things denoted by mass nouns are *treated* as uncountable and not that they *are* uncountable. There are two ways in which we may sometimes wish to count the things treated as uncountable: first, we might wish to count the different items which constitute the undifferentiated mass. We might, for example wish to count the chairs and tables which constitute the *furniture* of a room, or the *items* or *pieces of advice* given to us. When we do so, we use some count noun denoting 'part' or 'entity' with the mass noun, e.g. we speak of *items* or *articles of furniture*, *words or pieces of advice*, *pieces or bits of information*, and so on. We do not add the plural suffix to the noun. Secondly, we may wish to refer to different 'types' or 'kinds' of the object in question. For example, though *cloth* and *oil* are mass nouns, we may wish to speak of different kinds of cloth, or different kinds of oil. In such cases, we use the plural suffix (with allomorphs as in the case of count nouns) with the mass noun in question, viz., *cloths* and *oils*.

Mass nouns also do not inflect for case; instead they occur in the *of-* construction after the noun they modify. For example, we do not say *power's love* but rather *the love of power*; we do not say *courage's man* but a *man of courage*.

Check Your Progress 2

1) Distinguish count and mass nouns in the following list:

- a) bread
- b) butter
- c) day
- d) grass
- e) husband
- f) breadth
- g) man
- h) poverty
- i) report
- j) storm

2) Distinguish the following in the given list of nouns:

- A) Singular noun with number contrast
- B) Singular noun but without number contrast
- C) Plural noun with number contrast
- D) Plural noun but without number contrast

- | | | | | |
|----------|-----------------|--------------|-----------|------------|
| a) cow | b) news | c) clothes | d) people | e) thought |
| f) goods | g) police | h) economics | i) women | j) cattle |

.....

.....

.....

.....

3) Write the inflected forms of the nouns:

Inflectional Mor
of E

Stem	Plural	Singular possessive	Plural possessive
girl
woman
Ramayan
courage
foot
bird
wife
Japan

4) Which of the nouns in Exercise 3 above have the full set of four forms? Why don't the others have four forms?

.....

5) In which of the nouns in Exercise 3 above are the four forms phonologically distinct from each other? What kinds of nouns are these—count or mass? Regular or irregular?

.....

6) Which allomorph of the plural morpheme (/ɪz/, /z/, /s/, some replacive morph, or the zero morph) does each of the following count nouns take?

- a) analysis
.....
- b) bank
.....
- c) cloud
.....
- d) fish
.....
- e) foot
.....
- f) garage
.....
- g) goose
.....
- h) hypothesis
.....
- i) louse
.....
- j) swine (=pig)
.....

7) Which of the following nouns take the regular possessive suffix and which the 'zero' possessive? What general rule (or rules) will describe the facts adequately?

a) horse

.....

b) horses

.....

c) man

.....

d) men

.....

e) Euripedes

.....

f) conscience

.....

g) Socrates

.....

h) goodness

.....

.....

.....

.....

13.4 THE INFLECTIONAL PARADIGM OF THE ENGLISH NOUN

Now that we have described the inflectional morphology of all types of nouns, we are in a position to display the paradigm of the noun in English. A paradigm, you will recall, is the complete set of inflectional forms that a word has. We have seen that the set of inflectional forms of English nouns varies according to the type of the noun (proper, count or mass) and according to whether it is a regular noun or an irregular one. The following table lists all types.

Note also that the inflectional form may vary in writing but not in speech. The phonological representations of the various inflectional forms have also been given so that you can make sure if the spoken forms are the same or different. The number of inflectional forms for a noun will vary according to whether you are looking at the written form or the spoken one.

Type of noun	Stem	Plural	Possessive	Plural + Possessive
Proper	Ram / rɑ:m /	—	Ram's / rɑ:mz /	—
Count Regular	boy / bɔɪ /	boys / bɔɪz /	boy's / bɔɪz /	boys' / bɔɪz /
Count Irregular	man / mæn /	men / men /	man's / mænz /	men's / menz /
Mass	furniture / fɜ:ni tʃə /	—	—	—

Mark the following statements True or False:

- a) The paradigm of a proper noun consists of two forms which are distinguished in speech as well as writing.
.....
- b) The paradigm of a regular count noun consists of two forms, if we consider only the spoken forms.
.....
- c) In writing, the paradigm of the regular count noun distinguishes three forms.
.....
- d) Irregular count nouns are the only type of nouns which distinguish four forms in writing as well as speech.
.....
- e) The plural, the singular possessive, and the plural possessive forms of regular count nouns are not distinguished in the spoken form.
.....

13.5 LET US SUM UP

We have made the following major points in this unit:

- i) The inflectional morphology of a part of speech is a description of the regular and irregular ways in which words belonging to it express certain grammatical contrasts.
- ii) The regular way of expressing the grammatical contrasts is by taking an inflectional suffix.
- iii) The addition of an inflectional suffix to a word makes it complex (or more complex) and its structure can be studied according to rules.
- iv) Words which express grammatical contrasts in irregular ways cannot generally be analysed according to these rules. Where the number of such cases is large, it is preferable to treat them as morphologically simple forms and to learn them individually.
- v) The morphology of words belonging to a given part of speech is studied by (a) describing the various grammatical categories associated with the part of speech, (b) noting the subcategories, (c) describing how the contrasts of subcategories are expressed in regular cases, and (d) describing how the contrasts are expressed in irregular cases.
- vi) The complete set of inflectional forms of a word belonging to a particular part of speech is called its inflectional paradigm.
- vii) The major parts of speech are nouns (including pronouns), verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Only words belonging to these parts of speech are inflected.
- viii) The major parts of speech can be identified by the criteria of position in a sentence and meaning.
- ix) The inflectional morphology of the English noun is studied by subclassifying the nouns into proper and common. Common nouns are further subdivided into count and mass.
- x) The major grammatical categories associated with nouns are number (singular and plural) and case (possessive and common).
- xi) Proper nouns express only case contrast. The inflectional suffix - 's is used to express possessive case. Its pronunciation is identical to other -s suffixes, e.g., the plural suffix.
- xii) Count nouns express both number and case contrast. The plural number suffix has three phonologically conditioned allomorphs: /ɪz /, /z / and /s / which are used in the regular cases. Irregular nouns form their plurals by changing the vowel sound or some other kind of change in the stem. Some nouns do not change their forms at all. These are said to be cases of replacive and zero allomorphs of the plural morpheme respectively.

- xiii) Count nouns express the case contrast by attaching the *'s* suffix with the noun in the possessive case. The possessive suffix has phonologically conditioned allomorphs similar to the plural suffix. Plural count nouns also inflect for case but they take the zero allomorph of the possessive morpheme unless the noun is an irregular plural.
- xiv) Mass nouns do not inflect for either number or case.
- xv) If we consider the written forms, the inflectional paradigm of the English noun consists of two forms for proper nouns, four forms for count nouns, and a single form for mass nouns. If we consider the spoken forms only, the proper and the regular count nouns have two forms each, irregular count nouns have four forms, while mass nouns have a single form.

13.6 KEY WORDS

Inflectional Morphology: description of the inflectional affixes and other changes that occur in words belonging to the major parts of speech when certain grammatical contrasts are to be conveyed.

Grammatical Categories : categories like number, case, gender, tense, degree, etc. which are associated with various parts of speech. Words belonging to these parts of speech acquire different forms to express the contrasts created by the subcategories of these grammatical categories.

Regular Cases : words belonging to any part of speech which express the grammatical contrasts in the regular way by taking a suffix.

Irregular Cases : words belonging to any part of speech which express the grammatical contrasts in a non-regular way.

Inflectional Paradigm : the complete set of inflectional forms of a word belonging to a particular part of speech.

The Major Parts of Speech : nouns (including pronouns), verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Only words belonging to these parts of speech take inflections.

Number Contrast : the contrast between singular ('one') and plural ('more than one') expressed through inflectional changes in the word.

Case Contrast : the contrast between the various forms that a noun acquires to express its relationship with other words in a sentence.

Possessive Case : the case form that a noun acquires to convey certain kinds of relations (e.g. possession) with another noun which follows it.

Common Case : the uninflected form of a noun that occurs in all positions except where the possessive form occurs.

Proper Noun : a noun which is the name of a person, a place, etc.

Count Noun : a noun which denotes items which can be counted. A count noun can therefore be used with numerals (e.g., *one, two, ten*, etc.).

Mass Noun : a noun which treats the object it denotes as an undifferentiated mass which cannot be divided into countable items.

13.7 SOME USEFUL BOOKS

Francis, W.N. (1958). *The Structure of American English* (Chs. 4,5). New York: The Ronald Press Company.

Gleason, H.A. (1961). *An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics*. Revised Edition! (Ch. 8). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Quirk, R. and Greenbaum, S. (1973). *A University Grammar of English* (Ch.4). London: Longman.

Strang, B.M.H. (1962). *Modern English Structure* (Ch. 6). London: Edward Arnold Ltd.

Check Your Progress 1

- 1) a) release: noun b) very: adverb; friendly : adjective c) seldom: adverb
 d) set: verb e) ride: noun; tiring: adjective f) Monday: noun
 g) rapidly: adverb h) British¹: adjective; British²: noun i) hard: adverb
 j) carelessly: adverb k) careless: adjective; cause: verb
- 2) a) student > students (plural number)
 b) sister > sister's (possessive case)
 hate > hates (third person, singular number, present tense)
 c) read > reading (continuous tense)
 ring > rang (past tense)
 d) tall¹ > tallest (superlative degree)
 tall² > taller (comparative degree)
 e) boy > boys' (plural number, possessive case)
 f) reach > reached (past tense)
 leave > left (perfect tense)

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) a) bread: mass b) butter: mass c) day: count
 d) grass: mass e) husband: count f) breadth: mass
 g) man: count h) poverty: mass i) report: count
 j) storm: count
- 2) A) Singular noun with number contrast: a) cow
 B) Singular noun but without plural contrast : b) news h) economics
 C) Plural noun with number contrast: e) thoughts i) women
 D) Plural noun but without number contrast: c) clothes d) people f) goods
 g) police h) cattle
- 3)

Stem	Plural	Singular possessive	Plural possessive
girl	girls	girl's	girls'
woman	women	woman's	women's
Ramayan	—	Ramayan's	—
courage	—	—	—
foot	feet	foot's	feet's
bird	birds	bird's	birds'
wife	wives	wife's	wives'
Japan	—	Japan's	—
- 4) The following nouns have the full set : *girl, woman, foot, bird* and *wife*. *Ramayan* and *Japan* are proper nouns and therefore have no plural and plural possessive forms. *Courage* is a mass noun with neither the plural nor the possessive form.
- 5) Only the following nouns have four phonologically distinct forms. They are irregular, count nouns:
woman, foot
 Though *wife* is also an irregular count noun it has only three distinct forms.
- 6) a) *analysis* takes the replacive morph / I>i: /
 b) *bank* takes the morph / s /
 c) *cloud* takes the morph / z /
 d) *fish* takes the morph / ɪz /
 e) *foot* takes the replacive morph /ʊ>i: /
 f) *garage* takes the morph / ɪz /
 g) *goose* takes the replacive morph / u: >i: /
 h) *hypothesis* takes the replacive morph / I>i: /
 i) *louse* takes the replacive morph / aʊ> ai /
 j) *swine* takes the replacive zero morph

In discussing the inflectional characteristics of pronouns, adjectives and adverbs also we shall once again begin with the grammatical categories associated with them. We shall then see how the words belonging to these parts of speech express the contrasts between the subcategories of each category. If these contrasts are expressed in a systematic and regular way through the addition of suffixes, we shall describe the suffix morphemes and their allomorphs; if they are not expressed systematically through suffixes, but through some other irregular changes in the forms of words, we shall just list the forms and shall content ourselves by describing the different types of grammatical contrasts the different forms express. In every case, we shall end by describing the inflectional paradigm of the words belonging to each part of speech.

14.2 INFLECTIONAL MORPHOLOGY OF THE ENGLISH PRONOUNS

14.2.1 Identifying Pronouns

In Unit 13, Section 13.2. we stated that pronouns could be identified by their ability to occur in the following frame:

..... is good.

But since nouns can also occur in this frame, we must find some way of distinguishing pronouns from nouns. Traditionally, pronouns are said to occur 'in place of' nouns. It is, however, not quite clear when a pronoun can be said to occur 'in place of' a noun. Take, for example, the following sentence:

My daughter wanted a talking doll, so *I* bought *her* *one*.

We have underlined the pronouns in this sentence. We probably say that *her* and *one* are pronouns since they occur 'in place of' *daughter* and *talking doll* respectively. But what nouns do *my* and *I* occur in places of? These words may refer to Mr. X, Mr. Y, or Mrs. X or Mrs. Y, depending on who spoke the sentence. Yet we cannot replace *My* and *I* by *Mr. X's* and *Mr. X* respectively, since Mr. X would not be the speaker then.

It is, therefore, more accurate to say that pronouns behave like nouns, but are different from them in certain ways. The number of pronouns in English is very small, and it is, therefore, possible to treat them as a separate class with some special characteristics. Unlike the class of nouns, the class of pronouns is closed, i.e. no new pronouns can be added to this class. Further, their functions are largely grammatical: they serve to identify number, person, case, gender, etc. but beyond that they do not tell us anything about the characteristics of the person, object, etc. they refer to, as, for example, nouns do. Hence pronouns are treated as function (or structure) words like articles, prepositions, etc. Their only additional characteristic is that they behave like nouns.

14.2.2 Grammatical Categories Associated with Pronouns

The grammatical categories associated with pronouns are case, person, gender and number. Though we cannot show that all pronouns express the contrasts between the various subcategories of these grammatical categories by means of inflectional suffixes, we can show that they nevertheless do express these contrasts because of the different forms they have. In other words, pronouns do have morphological characteristics which show that these grammatical categories are associated with them, though all of them do not have clearly identifiable suffixes to express these categories.

The category of pronouns includes not only personal pronouns like *I*, *he*, *she*, *it*, etc. and their other forms but also words like *someone*, *somebody*, *everyone*, *everybody*, *everything*, etc. These words do take suffixes, as in *someone's*, *everyone's*, etc. But the most important and the most typical pronouns are the personal pronouns, in which suffixes are not clearly recognisable. When talking of the grammatical categories associated with nouns, we shall be generally thinking of the personal pronouns. As we shall see below, other pronouns are more like nouns in their morphology.

Case Contrast

The first grammatical category associated with pronouns is **Case**. Case has *three* subcategories with the personal pronouns: nominative, objective and possessive. Other pronouns have two subcategories — possessive and common — like nouns. This means that while personal pronouns have three different forms for case, nouns and other pronouns have only two.

We saw in Unit 13 that nouns change their forms only when they enter into relationship with other nouns. Thus *Ram* changes to *Ram's* when it enters into possessive relationship with another noun *book* in the phrase *Ram's book*. It, however, does not change its form when it enters into subject relationship with a verb (as in the sentence *Ram speaks English well*), or when it enters into object relationship with a verb (as in *I know Ram well*). However, if we use a personal pronoun in place of a noun, we find that it changes its form, as in the sentences

Subject: *He* speaks English well. or *I* speak English well.

Object: I know *him* well. or He knows *me* well.

Thus the forms *he* vs. *him* and *I* vs. *me* express the contrast between the **nominative case** (when the pronoun is subject) and the **objective case** (when the pronoun is object). The 'common case' of nouns is thus divided into two cases: nominative and objective. The possessive case remains unaffected, since pronouns also have a different form for expressing the possessive relationship: if *Ram* becomes *Ram's* in the possessive case, *he* becomes *his* and *I* becomes *my*. There is, however, one difference. Personal pronouns show a **second possessive form** when they occur as complements after the verb in a sentence. Thus while we say

This is *my* bicycle

when we use the possessive *my* before a noun, we say

This bicycle is *mine*

when we use the possessive after the verb (*is*). *Mine* is the second possessive form of *my*. Other second possessive forms of personal pronouns are *yours*, *his*, *hers*, etc. Case contrast in pronouns can thus be shown in a table as follows:

Nominative	I/we	he/they	she/they	you	it
Objective	me/us	him/them	her/them		
Possessive 1st	my/our	his/their	her/their	yours	its
2nd	mine/ours	his/theirs	hers/theirs	yours	its

Person Contrast

The second grammatical category associated with pronouns is **Person**. *Person* has three subcategories as follows:

First Person: Pronouns which refer to the speaker (*I, me, etc.*)

Second Person: Pronouns which refer to the addressee (*you, yours, etc.*)

Third Person: Pronouns which refer to a 'third party' (*he, she, it, etc.*)

This grammatical category does not apply to nouns at all, since all nouns are treated as third parties, or as belonging to the third person. But pronouns have different forms according to person. Once again, a three-way contrast occurs, e.g.,

First person	I, me, mine we, us, our, ours
Second person	you, your, yours
Third person	he, him, his, she, her, hers, they, them, their, theirs, it, its

Gender Contrast

The third grammatical category associated with pronouns is **Gender**. Only pronouns in the third person and singular number show this contrast. Gender has three subcategories: masculine, feminine and neuter. The forms of the third person singular pronoun which express this contrast are as follows:

Masculine	he	him	his
Feminine	she	her	her/hers
Neuter	it	it	its

The masculine and feminine forms are used mainly to refer to human beings, male and female respectively. Their use is, however, sometimes also extended to animals and non-living objects. For example, *he* may be used for a bull or a lion, *she* for a cow and a lioness. When referring to inanimate objects, the use of *he* or *she* depends on whether the object is thought of as male or female. For example, a car and a ship are often thought of endearingly as living and female and are referred to by *she*.

It is normally used to refer to non-living objects, but is also used to refer to animals when they are not treated as familiar (or pet) animals, and to a baby when its sex is not known or is not relevant.

Number Contrast

Most personal pronouns have singular and plural forms which are unrelated. The number contrast is found in all cases, persons and genders of pronouns, but in the second person the contrast is not expressed by different forms and we have to rely on their clues. We know, for example, that *you* is singular in the first sentence below but plural in the second sentence:

You are a teacher and should know how to deal with students.

You are all teachers and should know how to deal with students.

How do we know this?

The number contrast in personal pronouns can be seen in the following table:

	First person			Third person		
	Nom.	Obj.	Poss.	Nom.	Obj.	Poss.
Singular	I	me	my(mine)	he/she/it	him/her/it	his/her(hers)/its
Plural	we	us	our(ours)	they	them	their (theirs)

Since the number contrast is associated with the person contrast, the meaning of the plural is understood somewhat differently with pronouns than with nouns. Thus *we* does not mean 'more than one I' but 'I plus one or more other persons'. Similarly, *you* with plural reference normally means 'you (singular) plus one or more other persons, but not me'. The meaning in the third person is more regular and contrasts 'more than one' with 'one'.

Pronouns belonging to other categories (interrogative, relative, etc.) do not have number contrast with the exception of the demonstrative pronouns *this/that, these/those*.

14.2.3 The Paradigm of Personal Pronouns

Since pronouns do not express the grammatical contrasts by means of suffixes but through different forms, there is no distinction between regular and irregular cases: all pronouns are irregular. We can, therefore, go on to list the complete set of forms of the personal pronouns, presenting it in a form which will reveal the grammatical contrasts we have described above:

Person	Number	Gender	Case			
			Nom.	Obj.	1st Poss.	2nd Poss.
FIRST	SINGULAR		I	me	my	mine
	PLURAL		we	us	our	ours
SECOND			you		your	yours
THIRD	SINGULAR	Masc.	he	him	his	
		Fem.	she	her	hers	
		Neut.	it		its	
	PLURAL		they	them	their	theirs

Check Your Progress 1

- 1) Fill in the blanks in each of the following sentences with the pronoun whose description is given in brackets. The description does not include the case of the pronoun. Determine the correct case form to be used and complete the description accordingly.
 - a) are looking for a taxi. (First person, plural number, case)
 - b) "Who is it?" "It's" (First person, singular number, case)
 - c) This book is, (Third person, singular number, masculine gender, case)
 - d) was the best. (Second person, singular number, case)
 - e) It was who missed the test. (Third person, feminine gender, singular number, case)
 - f) He is more intelligent than (Third person, feminine gender, singular number, case)

2) Give full descriptions of the italicized pronoun(s) in each sentence:

a) Let's have a look.

.....

b) It was no fault of *theirs*.

.....

.....

c) *She* is as tall as *me*.

.....

.....

.....

d) This is *her* book.

.....

.....

e) Give it to *her*.

.....

.....

f) These are *ours*; *yours* are on the other table.

.....

.....

.....

14.3 INFLECTIONAL MORPHOLOGY OF THE ENGLISH ADJECTIVE

14.3.1 Identifying Adjectives

Adjectives are typically identified by their ability to occur in the following two positions: the position before a noun as in

the boy
and the position after a verb as in

The boy is

They are respectively called the *attributive* position and the *predicative* position. Not all adjectives occur in both positions, however. For example, the adjectives *well*, *ill* and *afraid* do not occur in the attributive position (e.g., **a well man*, **an ill man*, **an afraid girl*), while words like *sheer*, *utter*, etc. do not occur in predicative positions (e.g., **This nonsense is sheer/utter*). Words which can occur in both the positions (e.g., *happy*, *tall*, *good*, etc.) are typical adjectives and are the largest in number.

14.3.2 The Grammatical Category Associated with Adjectives

The grammatical category associated with adjectives is that of *degree*. This category has three subcategories: positive, comparative and superlative. A large number of adjectives express the three-way contrast by taking the inflectional suffix *-er* for the comparative degree and the suffix *-est* for the superlative degree. For example, the adjective *sweet* has the three forms *sweet*, *sweeter*, *sweetest*, which occur in three different grammatical contexts: the uninflected form *sweet* is used when no comparison is involved, as in the sentence

Sugar is sweet.

The comparative form *sweeter* is used when the comparison involves two items, as in
Saccharin is *sweeter* than sugar.

The superlative form *sweetest* is used when the comparison involves more than two items:
This is the *sweetest* of all substances.

You must, of course, be aware that many adjectives do not form their comparative and superlative degrees in this way. For example, the comparative and superlative forms of the adjective *beautiful* are not **beautifuller* and **beautifullest* respectively, but *more beautiful* and *most beautiful*. In other words, the same meanings which are conveyed by the suffixes *-er* and *-est* with some adjectives are conveyed by separate words (*more* and *most*) with other adjectives. This raises the question whether we should treat *-er* and *-est* as inflectional suffixes at all. Would it not be better to treat them as derivational suffixes? And if they are not inflectional suffixes, then probably *degree* is not a grammatical category in English.

In Unit 12, Section 12.2, we distinguished between inflectional and derivational suffixes as follows: inflectional suffixes are attached to words in accordance with certain rules of grammar in order to relate these words to other words in the sentence; derivational affixes, on the other hand, are attached to words to create new words which present the user with more lexical choice: no grammatical rule is involved here.

To decide whether *-er* and *-est* are inflectional suffixes or not, let us, therefore, ask if there are grammatical rules which say that the adjective should have the suffix *-er* or *-est* in a particular sentence. Consider the following frames:

Tokyo is than New York.

Tokyo is the city in the world.

Supposing the word to be used in the blanks is *big*. It is obvious that the rules of grammar require us to use *bigger* in the first sentence and *biggest* in the second one: *more big* and *most big* are not possible.

By this criterion, then, *-er* and *-est* are inflectional and not derivational suffixes. Accordingly, *degree* is a grammatical category of English. It is true that sometimes the meanings of comparative and superlative degrees are also expressed by separate words (*more* and *most* respectively), but this does not make *-er* and *-est* derivational suffixes.

14.3.3 The Regular Adjectives

As stated above, the morphologically regular adjectives form their comparative and superlative forms by the addition of inflectional suffixes. The comparative suffix is written as *-er* and the superlative suffix as *-est*. If a stem ends in a silent *e*, this *e*, is

dropped before the suffix is added, e.g., *large* > *larger*, *largest*; *safe* > *safer*, *safest*. Stems ending in the letter *-y* change *y* to *i* before adding the suffixes, e.g., *happy* > *happier*, *happiest*; *funny* > *funnier*, *funniest* except when *y* is preceded by a vowel in the stem. In stems ending in a vowel+*y*, as in all other types of stems, the inflectional suffixes are added on directly, e.g., *gay* > *gayer*, *gayest*; *sad* > *sadder*, *saddest*; *shallow* > *shallower*, *shallowest*, etc. In some cases (e.g. *sad* > *sadder*, etc.) the final consonant of the stem is doubled.

The spoken form of the comparative suffix is /ə/. Hence, *deeper* is pronounced /'di:pə/, without the *r*. The *r* is pronounced only if the adjective is followed by another word which begins with a vowel sound. For example, *deeper and deeper* is pronounced /'di:pərən 'di:pə/, *a bigger idiot* is pronounced /əbɪgəɪ 'ɪdɪət/ and so on. The superlative suffix is pronounced /ɪst/.

As we stated earlier, not all adjectives express comparative and superlative degrees by means of suffixes; some express them through the use of the structure words *more* and *most*. Some adjectives express the degrees in both ways. Here is a general guideline for cases of each type:

- i) Nearly all one-syllable adjectives have inflectional degree forms, e.g., *hot* > *hotter* > *hottest*; *big* > *bigger* > *biggest*; *small* > *smaller* > *smallest*.
- ii) A large number of two-syllable adjectives frequently take inflectional suffixes, especially those ending in *-ly*, e.g., *holy* > *holier* > *holiest*; *lovely* > *lovelier* > *loveliest*; *noble* > *nobler* > *noblest*; *shallow* > *shallower* > *shallowest*. They may, however, also be compared with *more* and *most*, e.g., *more holy*, *most holy*, etc. Some two-syllable adjectives are compared with *more* and *most* only, e.g., *more complex*, *most complex*; *more fruitful*, *most fruitful*, etc.
- iii) Nearly all adjectives of three or more syllables are compared only with *more* and *most*, e.g., *more/most beautiful*, *more/most sociable*; *more/most reluctant*.
- iv) Adjectives with the *un-* or *in-* prefixes and participles used as adjectives regularly take only *more* and *most* for comparison, e.g., *more/most unhappy*; *more/most incomplete*; *more/most interesting*; *more/most interested*.

We may note that some adjectives cannot be compared at all. Hence they neither take the inflectional suffixes nor *more* and *most*. Some such adjectives are *dead* (as in *a dead mouse*), *criminal* (as in *a criminal lawyer*) and *male* (as in *the male partner*). Such adjectives are called **non-gradable** adjectives. Only **gradable** adjectives can be compared using either the inflections or the structure words *more* and *most*.

14.3.4 The Irregular Adjectives

There is a small group of adjectives in English which have comparative and superlative forms quite different from the base form. Though small in number, these adjectives are used very frequently and the fact that the forms follow no rules creates no difficulty in learning them. The adjectives are listed below:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
good } well }	better	best
bad	worse	worst
far	farther } further }	farthest } furthest }
little	less } lesser }	least
much } many }	more	most
old	older } elder }	oldest } eldest }

Wherever more than one comparative and superlative forms are available, their uses are usually distinct. Thus, of the two comparative and superlative forms of *far*, one set (*further*, *farthest*) is used only when speaking of places, direction and distance (e.g., the

This train goes *faster* than the others. (Adjective: the *faster* train)

He worked *harder* than anyone else. (Adjective: *harder* work)

They arrived *later* in the day. (Adjective: in the *later* part of the day)

There is another group of words of this type which sometimes change their form for adverb slightly, by taking the *-ly* suffix. Consider the following examples,

Adjective: A sharp knife makes a *clean* cut.

Adverb: The knife cut *clean* through the ropes.

Adverb: The knife cut *cleanly* through the ropes.

Adjective: Take a *deep* breath.

Adverb: Breath *deep*.

Adverb: Breathe *deeply*.

Some other words of this type are *direct, fine, flat, high, light, sharp*, etc. The interesting thing about them is that when they occur in comparison, the choice is between the inflected forms of the base and the *-ly* form with *more* or *most*. E.g.,

This knife cuts *cleaner* than that.

This knife cuts *more cleanly* than that.

From these examples, it becomes clear that adverbs are like adjectives and inflect for degree in the same way. And, in the same way as adjectives, they sometimes compare with the help of the structure words *more* and *most*.

Do adverbs inflect for manner? In other words, is the *-ly* suffix an inflectional one? If it is then *manner* is a grammatical category associated with adverbs.

Though a few grammarians treat *-ly* as an inflectional suffix, the general opinion is in favour of calling it a derivational suffix. The reasons for this become clear if we compare *-ly* with an inflectional suffix like the past tense suffix *-ed*. While the addition of the *-ed* suffix to the verb is required by a rule of grammar, there is no such rule which requires the addition of the *-ly* suffix. There is no other way of saying,

They *arrived* yesterday

except by using the past tense inflection of the verb *arrive*. But we can express the idea contained in the sentence

She sang *beautifully*

in another way by saying

She sang *in a beautiful manner*.

This shows that adverbs in *-ly* present us with a lexical choice, or an alternative form of expression, which is a mark of derivational suffixes.

Further, inflectional suffixes are used when a contrast is to be expressed, e.g., between past and present, plural and singular. The *-ly* adverbs do not express any contrast. In other words, if *manner* is a grammatical category associated with adverbs, it has no subcategories.

Lastly, as we have seen, inflectional suffixes do not change the part of speech of the word to which they are attached. The addition of *-ly*, on the other hand, changes the part of speech of the word from adjective to adverb.

We therefore conclude that *manner* is not a grammatical category and the only grammatical category associated with adverbs is *degree*.

14.4.3 Regular and Irregular Adverbs

Not all adverbs inflect for degree. The only adverbs which do, barring a couple of cases, are those which have an identical adjective form. The forms of the inflection are also identical: *-er / or* / for the comparative and *-est / ist* / for the superlative. Since the same words with the same inflections can occur either as regular adjectives or as regular adverbs, the important thing is not to memorize their forms separately but to be able to distinguish them in use. If the forms are adjectives, they will occur before a noun or after certain verbs, modifying the noun or saying something about it; if they are adverbs they will modify adjectives, verbs and other adverbs, as we saw above.

Two adverbs which do not have identical adjective forms but inflect for degree are *soon* and *often*. They have the comparative and superlative forms *sooner/soonest* and *oftener!*

oftenest respectively; e.g., He come *sooner* than expected/ the *soonest* possible date; you must come *oftener*. However, with *often*, the use of *more* and *most* is more common.

Irregular adverbs are also mostly identical with irregular adjectives: the only difference that is sometimes found is in the positive form. Thus, notice the use of *well*, *badly*, *far* and their inflected forms as adverbs:

Sita paints very *well*. Gita paints *better*. Rita paints *best*.
 We played *badly*. You played *worse*. They played (the) *worst*.
 We travelled *far*. You travelled *farther*. They travelled (the) *farthest*.

Compare them with their use as adjectives:

Sita is a *good* painter. Gita is a *better* painter. Rita is the *best* painter.
 We are *bad* players. You are *worse*. They are (the) *worst*.
 We travelled to *far* places. You travelled to *farther* places. They travelled to (the) *farthest* places.

Note that the positive form corresponding to the adverbs *better* and *best* is *well* and the positive form corresponding to the adverbs *worse* and *worst* is *badly*. Other irregular adverbs (*far*, *little*, *much*) have the same forms as the corresponding irregular adjectives.

Other adverbs either do not enter into comparison at all (e.g., adverbs of time and place), or are used with *more* and *most* (e.g., manner adverbs ending in *-ly*).

14.4.4 The Inflectional Paradigm of the Adverb

The inflectional paradigm of adverbs is identical with the adjective paradigm:

Base	Positive	Comparative	Superlative
soon	soon	sooner	soonest
fast	fast	faster	fastest

Check Your Progress 3

- Distinguish adjectives from adverbs among the italicized words in the following sentences:
 - He cut his hair very *short*.
 - The *early* bird catches the worm.
 - I got up *early* today.
 - They are demanding *longer* holidays.
 - I can't wait much *longer*.
 - His hair is very *short*.
 - That is a very *hard* question to answer.
 - Think *hard* about what I have said.
 - Turn *right* at the next crossing.
 - Lift your *right* hand.
- Fill in the blanks in the following sentences with the positive form of the adverb/ adjective italicized elsewhere in the sentence:
 - Thank you, I am quite today. I expect to be even *better* tomorrow.
 - I know they played very this year, but they played *worse* last year.
 - If he was yesterday, he is even *worse* today.
 - If this is the *best* score you can get, your best score is not enough.
 - His condition went from to *worse*.
 - Shakespeare knew Latin and *less* Greek.
 - people are killed in accidents everyday but *more* people die because of the evils of smoking.
 - I know I have caused you trouble already. Do you mind if I cause a little *more*?

- 3) Mark the following statements 'True' or 'False':
- Adjectives are inflected for degree; adverbs are inflected for degree and manner
 - The inflectional endings *-er* and *-est* are used only with a few adverbs, mostly those which are identical in form with corresponding adjectives.
 - Most adverbs ending in *-ly* are compared with *more* and *most*.
 - The word *good* can occur either as an adjective or an adverb.
 - Some words ending in *-ly* are adjectives and take the inflectional endings *-er* and *-est*.
 - When *worse* and *worst* are used as adverbs, their corresponding positive form is *bad*.
 - The word *well* occurs as an adjective as well as an adverb. In both cases, its comparative and superlative forms are *better* and *best* respectively.
 - The inflectional paradigms of adjectives and adverbs are identical.

14.5 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have discussed the following main points:

- Case, person, gender and number are the grammatical categories associated with English pronouns.
- Each of these grammatical categories has some subcategories:
case has the subcategories: nominative, objective and possessive;
person has the subcategories: first, second and third;
gender has the subcategories: masculine, feminine and neuter;
number has the subcategories: singular and plural.
- Pronouns express the contrasts between these subcategories by assuming different forms in most cases.
- The different forms of pronouns are not related to each other in a regular way, e.g., there are no regular suffixes to express the case or number subcategories. Hence all pronouns are treated as irregular.
- Degree is the grammatical category associated with adjectives. It has three subcategories: positive, comparative and superlative.
- The contrast between the three subcategories of degree is expressed in two ways: some adjectives express it through inflection, other adjectives express it by taking the words *more* and *most*.
- The regular inflectional forms are *-er* for the comparative degree and *-est* for the superlative degree.
- A small number of highly frequent adjectives have irregular degree forms.
- Only a few adverbs have inflected forms. The inflections are the same as for adjectives, viz. for the grammatical category of degree.
- Most adverbs which inflect for degree are those which have identical corresponding adjective forms.
- The inflected forms for adverbs, both regular and irregular, are the same as for the corresponding adjectives.
- The manner suffix *-ly* is not an inflectional suffix.
- The inflectional paradigms of adjectives and adverbs are identical.

14.6 KEY WORDS

Pronouns: a group of structure words which behave like nouns

Case: a grammatical category associated with nouns and pronouns. When associated with pronouns, it has three subcategories: nominative, objective and possessive.

Nominative Case: the case of a pronoun when it is the subject of a verb

Objective Case: the case of a pronoun when it is the object of a verb or a preposition

Possessive Case: the case of a pronoun when it occurs as a determiner before a noun or as complement of a verb.

Person: a grammatical category associated with pronouns. It has three subcategories: first person, second person, third person.

First Person: pronouns of the first person refer to the speaker or writer of the message when in the singular, and to the speaker/writer plus some others when in the plural.

Second Person: pronouns of the second person refer to the person(s) addressed.

Third Person: pronouns of the third person refer to third parties not directly involved in speaking or receiving the message.

Gender: a grammatical category associated with pronouns. It has three subcategories: masculine, feminine, and neuter.

Masculine Gender: Masculine pronouns are those pronouns which are used to refer to human beings or animals belonging to the male sex.

Feminine Gender: Pronouns of the feminine gender are used for referring to human beings or animals of the female sex.

Neuter Gender: Pronouns of the neuter gender are used for referring to non-living objects.

Number: a grammatical category associated with nouns or pronouns. It has two subcategories: singular and plural.

Adjectives: Words which function as modifiers of nouns by occurring before them or occur as complements saying something about the subject noun.

Adverbs: Words which modify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs, denote time, place, frequency, etc. of an action, or apply to whole clauses and sentences as modifiers.

Degree: A grammatical category associated with adjectives and a few adverbs which are mostly identical in form with adjectives. It has three subcategories: positive, comparative and superlative.

Regular Adjectives/Adverbs: Adjectives/adverbs which form their comparative and superlative degree forms by taking the suffixes *-er* and *-est* respectively.

Irregular Adjectives/Adverbs: Adjectives/adverbs which form their comparative and superlative degree forms by changing their forms in other ways.

14.7 SOME USEFUL BOOKS

Lecch, G., Deuchar, M. and Hoogenrad, R. (1982) *English Grammar for Today: A New Introduction* (Ch. 3). London: Macmillan.

Quirk, R. and Greenbaum, S. (1973) *A University Grammar of English* (Chs. 4 and 5). London: Longman.

Roberts, P. (1954) *Understanding Grammar* (Chs. 3, 4 and 7). New York: Harper & Row.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

- | | | |
|---|---------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1 | a) We (nominative) | b) me (objective) OR I (nominative) |
| | c) his (possessive) | d) yours (second possessive) |
| | e) she (nominative) | f) her (objective) |

- 2) a) *us*: first person, plural number, objective case
- b) *theirs*: third person, plural number, (second) possessive case
- c) *she*: third person, singular number, feminine gender, nominative case
me: first person, singular number, objective case
- d) *her*: third person, singular number, feminine gender, possessive case
- e) *her*: third person, singular number, feminine gender, objective case
- f) *ours*: first person, plural number, (second) possessive case
yours: second person, (second) possessive case

Check Your Progress 2

Adjective	Comparative	Superlative
angry	angrier	angriest
bitter	bitterest
common	commoner	commonest
cruel	crueiler	cruellest
foolish
handsome	handsomest (not very common)
healthy	healthier	healthiest
honest
mellow	mellower	mellowest
pleasant

- 2) Category A: great, low, old
Category B: like, right, wrong
Category C: brave, clever, polite, wealthy
- 3) a) older b) elder/older c) farther d) farthest e) least f) lesser g) worst h) worse i) most

Check Your Progress 3

- 1) a) short: adverb b) early: adjective c) early: adverb d) longer: adjective
e) longer: adverb f) short: adjective g) hard: adjective h) hard: adverb
i) right: adverb j) right: adjective
- 2) a) well b) badly c) ill d) good e) bad f) little g) Many h) much
- 3) a) False b) True c) True d) False e) True f) False g) True h) True

UNIT 15 INFLECTIONAL MORPHOLOGY OF ENGLISH - 3

- 15.0 Objectives
- 15.1 Introduction
- 15.2 Identifying Verbs
- 15.3 Verb Classes
- 15.4 Grammatical Categories Associated with the English Verb
 - 15.4.1 Person and Number
 - 15.4.2 Tense
 - 15.4.3 Aspect
 - 15.4.4 Mood
 - 15.4.5 Voice
- 15.5 Morphology of the Full Verb
 - 15.5.1 The Regular Verbs
 - 15.5.2 The Irregular Verbs
 - 15.5.3 The Basis for the Regular-irregular Distinction
 - 15.5.4 Morphophonology
- 15.6 Morphology of the Modal Verb
- 15.7 Morphology of the Primary Verb
- 15.8 The Inflectional Paradigm of the English Verb
- 15.9 Let Us Sum Up
- 15.10 Key Words
- 15.11 Some Useful Books
- Answers

15.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to

- identify verbs by their position and inflections,
- recognize the three main classes of verbs: full, modal and primary,
- recognize the different grammatical categories associated with the English verb, and
- recognize how grammatical contrasts relating to these categories are expressed by verbs 'belonging to the three different classes through inflections.

15.1 INTRODUCTION

The verb is often considered to be the most important word in a sentence: it has been called 'the heart of the sentence'. Though occasionally we may use expressions without any verbs in them (e.g., Good! Sure? Coffee?, etc.), we cannot speak for any length of time without using verbs. In fact, verbs are considered so essential to sentences that expressions without verbs are interpreted and understood as shortened versions of sentences with verbs. For example, if we say 'Good', it is understood as a shortened form of 'It is good' with the verb *is*; if we ask 'Coffee?' it is interpreted as 'Do you want coffee?' with the verb *want*, and so on.

The importance attached to verbs is quite understandable. It is often the verb that decides the structure of the whole sentence. If we choose a transitive verb, the sentence will have an object in addition to the verb and, in most cases, a subject. With some verbs (e.g., *give*) we may have two objects. If we choose an intransitive verb we may just have a subject and the verb (e.g., *Birds fly*). With some other verbs, we may compulsorily require an adverb (e.g. *He lives here*), and so on. Secondly, the verb is morphologically quite complex. It has several inflections which express a variety of grammatical contrasts (e.g., tense, mood, number, person) and we can communicate various shades of meaning with their help. No wonder, it is said that if you wish to master the English language you must master the English verb.

15.2 IDENTIFYING VERBS

Verbs are generally identified with the help of their inflections, but since we are going to describe their inflections later, we shall not use this criterion. We shall instead look for some other criteria.

Look at the following sentence:

Time flies.

We interpret this to mean 'Time passes quickly', interpreting *Time* as a noun and *flies* as a verb. Now let us look at this sentence with either *Please* or *Let's* at the beginning:

Please time flies.

Let's time flies.

The structure of the sentence has undergone a change: *time* is now interpreted as a verb meaning 'record the time taken by the flies (in doing whatever they are doing)' and *flies* is a noun referring to the insects. Another sentence of this type is "Love blossoms in spring", which is normally interpreted as a statement about the noun *Love*. But put *Please* or *Let's* at the beginning and *love* becomes a verb, while *blossoms* turns into a noun.

Hence one criterion of a verb is that it can occur at the beginning of a sentence after some structure words like *Please*, *Let's* or *Do*.

Another position for a verb is between two nouns or noun phrases. For example,

Cats love fish.

Students read books.

The leader leads the people. etc.

However, only transitive verbs occur in this position. Intransitive verbs are generally preceded by a noun or noun phrase and sometimes followed by an adverb or adverbial, e.g.,

The tree fell.

He went home.

The boy sat on the chair.

A third type of verb, called the linking verb, occurs between nouns/noun phrases or between a noun/noun phrase and an adjective or adverb, e.g.,

Radha is a teacher.

She became angry.

Madhav remained in England.

Still another criterion sometimes used for identifying verbs is the occurrence of auxiliaries. Auxiliaries are a group of structure words which often combine with verbs to produce verb phrases (e.g., *is*, *are*, *was*, *can*, *could*, *will*, *would*, *must*, etc.). We shall, however, not use this criterion for two reasons: first, auxiliaries are also verbs and we must, therefore, have a criterion for identifying them; second, auxiliaries do not always occur with verbs (e.g., He came yesterday) and cannot therefore be always helpful in identifying verbs.

Check Your Progress 1

1) Identify the verbs in the following sentences. State the criterion used. You are not free to use inflection as a criterion.

a) The children enjoyed the film.

b) Let's make a move.

c) Please book a table for us.

d) The stars light our path.

e) They harbour false hopes.

f) The light turned red.

g) Please be ready.

h) Hunters free bears.

i) The anger rose.

j) They can fruit.

15.3 VERB CLASSES

There are two ways in which a verb can function in an English sentence: either as the main verb or as an auxiliary verb. A complete English sentence always has a main verb: it may or may not have an auxiliary. Consider the following examples:

Ram *left* yesterday (Main verb: *left*, no auxiliary)

Sita *has left* a note for you. (Main verb: *left*; Auxiliary: *has*)

In both these sentences, the main verb is *left*. The first sentence has no auxiliary; the second has the auxiliary *has*. A combination of an auxiliary verb plus a main verb is called a **verb phrase**.

In a verb phrase, it is the main verb which carries the principal meaning. Auxiliary verbs are meaningless except for the fact that they express tense, voice, aspect, or mood of the main verb. Thus in the sentence *He is meditating*, it is the main verb *meditating* which describes the action; the auxiliary *is* only shows that the action is taking place in the present. A different main verb would describe another action; a different auxiliary would only change the tense, voice, aspect, etc. of the same sentence. The main verb therefore (generally) represents a lexical choice; the auxiliary represents a grammatical function.

The verbs of English are divided into three classes according to whether they function as main verbs, as auxiliaries, or as both. The verbs which function only as main verbs are called FULL VERBS. They are a large and open class: new verbs are often added to the class. They are listed in the dictionary and their meanings given. Verbs like *eat, come, go, cheat, meditate, laugh, vanish*, etc. are full verbs. The verbs which function only as auxiliaries are called MODAL VERBS (or MODAL AUXILIARIES). They are very few in number and they form a closed class: no new modals are possible. Modal verbs do not contribute any 'lexical' meaning. They are usually not listed in dictionaries, but if they are, the dictionary describes how they are used and not their meanings. They usually indicate the speaker's attitude towards the action described in the sentence. Compare, e.g., the two sentences.

Sriram *works* hard.

Sriram *should work* hard.

The first sentence, which has only a main verb (*works*) and no modal auxiliary, merely describes a fact. The second sentence, which has the modal auxiliary *should*, expresses the speaker's attitude, viz., that he thinks it is desirable that Sriram should work hard. Different modal verbs express different kinds of attitudes, e.g., desirability, necessity, possibility, likelihood, etc. The modal auxiliaries of English are *will, would, shall, should, can, could, may, might, must, ought, dare, need* and *used*.

The third category of verbs is that of PRIMARY VERBS which can function either as main verbs or as auxiliaries. There are only three verbs in this category (*BE, HAVE, and DO*), but they are probably the three most important verbs in English. Each of them has a

number of different forms according to the grammatical contrasts they express, and most of these forms can occur both as main verbs and as auxiliaries. Thus, for example, *BE* has the forms *is, was, am, are, being, been*, etc. Note how some of these forms occur as main verbs and as auxiliaries:

- Rajni *is* a teacher. (Main verb)
- Ram *is* learning Sanskrit. (Auxiliary)
- I *am* very happy. (Main verb)
- I have *been* studying. (Auxiliary)

Note that when the primary verb occurs as the main verb, no full verb occurs: the primary verb itself functions like a full verb. Sometimes, like a full verb, it also carries lexical meaning. Thus, the primary verbs *have* and *do* carry the meanings 'possess' and 'finished' respectively in the following sentences:

- Do you *have* a car?
- Have you *done* your homework?

Each of the three types of verbs we have described above will be discussed separately below with regard to its morphology.

Check Your Progress 2

Identify the verbs in the following sentences and assign them to the classes to which they belong, viz., **full verb, modal verb or primary verb**. If you find a primary verb, state whether it is functioning as the main verb or as an auxiliary:

- a) He may come tomorrow.
.....
- b) Mrs Gandhi was Prime Minister of India for seventeen years.
.....
- c) The river rose above the danger mark.
.....
- d) You ought to apologize.
.....
- e) They can fruit.
.....
- f) They can can fruit.
.....
- g) Have you had lunch?
.....
- h) The guards overpowered the robber.
.....
- i) I had had no difficulty in finding your house.
.....
- j) You should have written to your father.
.....

15.4 GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES ASSOCIATED WITH THE ENGLISH VERB

We shall now describe the grammatical categories which are associated with the English verb. Each of these categories has two or more subcategories. The majority of English verbs acquire different forms to show the contrast between these subcategories.

15.4.1 Person and Number

Note the verb forms in the following sentences:

<i>Full verb</i>	<i>Primary verb</i>
I work.	I <i>am</i> working.
We work.	We <i>are</i> working.
You work.	You <i>are</i> working.
He works.	He <i>is</i> working.
They work.	They <i>are</i> working.

Modal verb
I *may* go.
We *may* go.
You *may* go.
He *may* go.
They *may* go.

In Unit 14, Section 14.2.2, we noted that pronouns change their form for number and person; now we notice that full verbs and primary verbs also change their forms for number and person. When the number is singular and the person is the third person, the full verbs take the *-s* inflection. The primary verbs show even greater variation in form: *am* in first person singular, *is* in third person singular and *are* in rest of the cases. The modal verb, however, shows no change of form for person and number.

Two things need to be noted about this change in the form of verbs: first, this change is determined by the number and person of the subject. The verb simply **agrees** with the subject in person and number. In the light of this, we may say that **person and number** are associated with the agreement between the subject noun or pronoun and the verb, and not with the nouns/pronouns and verbs separately. Secondly, full verbs show this change only in the present tense: in the past tense there is no change. E.g.,

I *worked*. We *worked*.
You *worked*.
He *worked*. They *worked*.

Primary verbs, however, do show the change in the past tense as well:

I *was* working. We *were* working.
You *were* working.
He *was* working. They *were* working.

Modal verbs do not have clear past tense forms. The so-called past tense forms of some modals (e.g., *could*, *would*, *might*, etc.) also, however, do not change their forms for number and person (e.g., I/we/you/he/they *might* go).

15.4.2 Tense

The grammatical category of tense, as expressed by inflections of the verbs, has only two subcategories: past and non-past (or common). This means that with regard to the expression of time, verbs have only two kinds of forms: one form locates the event, action, etc., denoted by the verb specifically in the past time: the other form refers to all times except the past (viz. present, future or all time). You can see this from the following examples:

Full verbs
They *arrived* last week. (Past time)
They *arrive* tomorrow. (non-past = future)
He *left* early today. (Past)

He usually *leaves* at 6.00 o'clock. (habit: all time)

Primary verbs

India *was* under British rule till 1947. (Past)

He *was* writing a letter. (Past)

Honesty *is* the best policy. (non-past = all time)

She *is* coming tomorrow. (non-past = future)

Note particularly that the verbs do not have an inflected form to refer specifically to future time. When we wish to talk of an event in the future, we generally use the modal auxiliaries *will* or *shall* with the base form of the verb (e.g., He *will* do it tomorrow. I *shall* try again next week.), or use constructions like *be going to*, *be about to*, etc., or we use the non-past form of the verb described above. Since there is no verb-form used exclusively for future reference, future is not regarded as a subcategory of tense in English.

15.4.3 Aspect

The next grammatical category associated with the verb is ASPECT.

Look at the following sentences:

Seema *is* reading a novel.

Seema *was* reading a novel.

The first of these sentences refers to an activity in the present, the second to an activity in the past. This is expressed by the use of the appropriate forms of the primary verb *BE* as an auxiliary: *is* in the first sentence, *was* in the second. But though the sentences make different time-references, they have one thing in common: they both speak of the activity as continuing at the time of which the speaker is speaking (*now* in the first sentence, *yesterday*, *last week*, etc. in the second). Note that in both sentences the main verb has the suffix *-ing*. It is this form of the verb which expresses the idea of 'activity in progress' which we find in both sentences.

In contrast to these, the following sentences express the idea of 'activity completed'. In the first sentence, the activity has been completed in the present, in the second some time in the past. The reference to present and past time is made by the verb forms *have* and *had* respectively.

I *have* written the letter.

I *had* written the letter (when you came.)

The sense of 'activity completed' comes from the special form of the verb used. The form is often called the past participle form. It is marked by the suffix *-ed* in regular verbs and by the suffix *-en* or some other feature in irregular verbs. To distinguish this *-ed* suffix from the past tense *-ed* suffix, we shall mark the latter (past) suffix as *-ed'* and the former (past participle) suffix as *-ed²*.

The distinction between 'action in progress' and 'action completed', which is expressed by inflectional changes in the verb, is what we call ASPECT in English. As we have seen, this grammatical category has two subcategories: the progressive aspect ('action in progress') and the perfective aspect ('action completed').

15.4.4 Mood

Another grammatical category associated with the verb is MOOD.

A verb or verb phrase in English takes different forms depending on what kind of attitude the speaker is expressing towards what is being said, or towards the person being addressed. It takes one set of forms if what is being said is considered to be a fact. For example, the following sentences are all spoken as statements of fact:

Sheela *is* brave girl.

The sun *rises* in the east.

Man *landed* on the moon for the first time in 1969.

The verbs in these sentences are said to be in the **Indicative Mood**. They take different forms depending on the person and number of the subject, the tense, the aspect, etc. that are involved. If, however, the sentence is meant not as a statement of a fact but as a

command, or a request, telling someone to do something, the verb forms used are different. For example,

Jump!
Be prepared.
Tell me the truth.

It is the base form of the verb which is used in this case and there are no distinctions of tense, aspect, etc. The verb in this use is said to be in the IMPERATIVE MOOD and the sentence containing the verb is called an imperative sentence.

The third subcategory of mood in English is the SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD. Verbs acquire still different forms when one is expressing a wish, a suggestion, a demand, a possibility, a doubt, etc. This is most clearly seen in clauses with third person singular subjects in the non-past tense. In the indicative mood the verb in such clauses takes the -s suffix (e.g., He leaves for Delhi today), but in the subjunctive mood, the base form of the verb is used, e.g.,

I suggest that he *leave* today.
We suggest that he *leave* today.
We demand that he *leave* at once.

This use of the base form of the verb is called its use as the present subjunctive.

Another subjunctive form of the English verb is the past subjunctive. The only verb with a past subjunctive is BE, and the form is *were*, which occurs with subjects of all persons and numbers. E.g.,

I wish I *were* rich.
I wish he *were* here.

In the indicative mood the use of *were* is limited to subjects in the second person and the first and third person plural. This agreement rule does not apply to verbs in the subjunctive mood.

It may be noted that in the informal style the subjunctive *were* is often replaced by *was*.

15.4.5 Voice

The final grammatical category associated with verbs is the category of VOICE. The category has two subcategories: ACTIVE and PASSIVE. While reporting the same event we may either use the active voice or the passive voice. In the active voice, the subject is seen as the 'doer' of the action; in the passive the action is seen as done to the subject. For example,

The police *arrested* the thief. (Active)
The thief *was arrested* by the police. (Passive)

The passive voice is recognized by the form of the verb phrase. The main verb is in the past participle (-ed²) form and is preceded by some form of the primary verb BE as an auxiliary.

We have now described the grammatical categories that are associated with the verb in English. The verbs assume different forms in order to express the contrasts related to these categories. We shall now look at these forms. To make our presentation systematic, we shall look at these forms separately for the three classes of verbs we have described: full verbs, modal verbs and primary verbs.

But before we do this, let us check your progress in this section.

Check Your Progress 3

State the grammatical category that is involved in the contrast between the verb forms in each pair of sentences below.

- 1) a) A girl loves dolls.
b) Girls love dolls.
.....
- 2) a) I go for a walk every evening.
b) Ram goes for a walk every evening.
.....

- 3) a) Sita is washing clothes.
b) Her friend has already washed her clothes.
- 4) a) Get ready to leave.
b) He is getting ready to leave.
- 5) a) The vacation started yesterday.
b) The vacation begins tomorrow.
- 6) a) Give Santosh the first prize.
b) I propose that Santosh be given the first prize.
- 7) a) Santosh was given the first prize.
b) They gave Santosh the first prize.
- 8) a) I am his friend.
b) He is my friend.
- 9) a) (When I reach there) he had already left.
b) (When I reached there) he was leaving.
- 10) a) I wish I were rich.
b) I dreamed that I was rich.

15.5 MORPHOLOGY OF THE FULL VERB

On the basis of their inflectional changes, full verbs can be divided into two types: the Regular Full Verbs and the Irregular Full Verbs.

15.5.1 The Regular Verbs

The regular full verbs have four different morphological forms to express the grammatical contrasts of person, number, tense, aspect, mood, and voice. The four forms, along with the contrasts they express, are illustrated below with the help of the verb *help*.

- i) The base form: *help*. This form occurs in
- the indicative mood to express the non-past tense in all persons and numbers except the third person singular, e.g., *I/we/you/they help* the poor.
 - the imperative mood: *Help* the poor!
 - the present subjunctive: They demanded that the government *help* the victims.
- In these cases the base form occurs by itself as the sole verb, i.e., it does not have an auxiliary. When a verb form occurs by itself as the sole verb, its form is said to be **finite** since it expresses the 'limits' of person and number. When a verb form cannot occur by itself as the sole verb (e.g., * *He going*/**He gone*), it is said to be a **non-finite** form. The base form of regular verbs also occurs as a non-finite form with modal verbs, e.g., *He will help/He must help*, etc. This is called the **bare infinitive** form of the verbs and is contrasted with the *to*-infinitive form (as in '*He wants to help*'), another non-finite form.
- ii) The *-s* form: *helps*. This form occurs as a finite form in the indicative mood to express the third person, singular number and non-past tense, e.g., *She helps* the poor.
- iii) The *-ing* form: *helping*. This form cannot occur by itself as the main verb: it must be accompanied by an auxiliary. (Such verb forms are called **non-finite** forms.) The auxiliary that occurs with the *-ing* form is *BE*.

When the *-ing* form occurs with the auxiliary *BE* (as in *She is helping* them), it expresses the **progressive aspect**.

- iv) The *-ed* form: The regular full verb has an *-ed* form which occurs in two different functions. In one function it is a finite form, in the other it is non-finite. Mark the following sentences:

She *helped* the poor.

She has *helped* them before.

They were *helped* by the government.

In the first sentence, the *-ed* form of *help* is finite, in the other two it is non-finite (hence the auxiliaries). The finite form, represented as *-ed¹*, expresses the past tense, while the non-finite form, represented as *-ed²*, expresses the perfective aspect. We shall see below that some irregular verbs, which have five forms in all, have a separate suffix (*-en*) for the non-finite form.

The large majority of full verbs fall in this category: they have four forms but the *-ed* form is actually equivalent to two forms: one finite (*-ed¹*) and the other non-finite (*-ed²*).

15.5.2 The Irregular Verbs

The irregular verbs fall into two categories according to the number of forms they have: those that have five forms and those that have only three. Those that have five forms (e.g. *speak*, *write*) distinguish the past (*-ed¹*) and the past participle (*-ed²*) forms. E.g.,

Base form: *speak*, *write*

-s form: *speaks*, *writes*

-ing form: *speaking*, *writing*

Past form: *spoke*, *wrote*

Past participle form: *spoken*, *written*

We can also include in this category the exceptional verb *go*. Though this verb also has five forms (*go*, *going*, *goes*, *went*, *gone*), it is unique in having a past form which is quite distinct from the base.

Those verbs that have only three forms do not distinguish the past and the past participle forms, which are identical with the base form. E.g.,

Base form: *cut*, *hit*

-s form: *cuts*, *hits*

-ing form: *cutting*, *hitting*

Past form: *cut*, *hit*

Past participle form: *cut*, *hit*

In addition, the base form also occurs as infinitive.

15.5.3 Basis for the Regular-Irregular Distinction

The four-form verbs (15.5.1) are called regular verbs for the following three reasons:

- If we know the base form of the regular verb; we can predict all its other forms.
- New or coined verbs follow the pattern of these verbs. Consider the Hindi word *gherao* which English newspapers in India often use. It has the forms: *gherao*, *gheraoing*, *gheraoes*, *gheraoed*.
- The vast majority of English verbs belong to this class.

In contrast to regular verbs, we cannot predict the forms of the irregular verbs. Some irregular verbs have five forms, others have only three; with some, the past and past participle forms are identical with the base form; with others, they are different; some allow two alternative forms for the past and the participle; others don't. Consider some examples:

Base	<i>-s</i> form	<i>-ing</i> form	<i>-ed¹</i> form	<i>-ed²</i> form
break	breaks	breaking	broke	broken
burn	burns	burning	burned burnt	burned burnt
show	shows	showing	showed	showed shown
cut	cuts	cutting	cut	cut
strike	strikes	striking	struck	struck

g) She was (permit) by the teacher to leave the class.

h) He (saw) the table into two.

i) The police claims to have (bust) the drug racket in the city.

j) The party has (split) again.

2) Write the allomorph of the appropriate morpheme which occurs in the spoken form of the suffix in the following verbs:

- a) calls b) hisses c) shocked d) hated
 e) bakes f) crushed g) saves h) types
 i) coughed j) agrees

3) Mark the following statements True or False:

- a) In regular verbs the past and the past participle forms are identical.
 b) If we know the base form of an irregular verb we can predict all its other forms.
 c) All full verbs, regular or irregular, form their *-ing* and *-s* forms in the same way.
 d) The regular verbs have five different forms, if we consider *-ed¹* and *-ed²* as two separate forms.
 e) The *-ed²* form expresses the progressive aspect.

15.6 MORPHOLOGY OF THE MODAL VERB

Not much needs to be said about the morphology of the modals, since they do not inflect for any of the grammatical categories associated with the other types of verbs. For example, they do not inflect for number and person. The third person singular present forms of the modals are not *-s* forms, e.g., *He can/will/must* (etc.) go. Though some modals (e.g., *would, should, could, might*) are sometimes said to be past forms of other modals (*will, shall, can* and *may* respectively), these forms are not always used to refer to past time. For example, the sentences *He might leave tomorrow* and *Would you call again next week?* refer to future time though they contain the forms *might* and *would*. Further, modal verbs have no *-ing* forms and no *-ed²* forms; hence they do not express aspect either. All modal verbs are finite verbs which occur only as auxiliaries and express various kinds of 'moods'. They have no non-finite forms (*-ing, -ed²* and infinitive).

Two points, however, need to be noted about the morphology of the modals. First, most modals have two forms: a strong form and a weak form. The strong form occurs when the modal is stressed, or when it occurs at the beginning or end of an utterance; the weak form occurs in unstressed positions and in the middle of an utterance. For example, the modals *can* and *could* have the strong forms /kæn/ and /kʊd/ and the weak forms /kən/ and /kəd/ respectively. Secondly, the modals have special negative forms in speech. The negative word *not* is abbreviated to /nt/ and combined with different modals in different ways. While with most modals (*would, should, could, might, ought, dare, and need*) /nt/ is simply added to the base, with others a special allomorph of the base combines with /nt/. For example, *will + not* becomes *won't* /wəʊnt/, *shall + not* becomes *shan't* /ʃɑ:nt/, *can + not* becomes *can't* /kɑ:nt/, and so on.

Check Your Progress 5

Mark the following statements True or False:

- a) Modal verbs have two kinds of forms, finite and non-finite.
 b) Modal verbs have weak forms which occur in unstressed positions.
 c) Modals express tense and aspect.
 d) Modal verbs have special negative forms.

e) The special negative forms of the modals consist simply of the modal + /nt/.

15.7 MORPHOLOGY OF THE PRIMARY VERB

The three primary verbs of English are *BE*, *HAVE* and *DO*. They can occur either as main verbs or as auxiliaries. However, their morphology is the same in both cases. They inflect for number, person, tense and aspect though not all inflected forms can occur both as main verbs and auxiliaries. In addition, like modal verbs, they have special strong vs. weak forms and negative forms with /nt/.

The primary verb *BE* has the largest number of forms. They can be seen in the table below. Wherever more than one spoken form is given, the first one shows the strong form, the remaining weak forms:

	Non-past		Past		-ing form	-ed ² form
	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative		
1st Person Singular	am /æm/ /m/		was /wɒz/, /wəz/	wasn't /'wɒznt/		
1st Person Plural						
2nd Person Singular	are /ɑ:/, /ə/	aren't /ɑ:nt/	were /wɜ:/, /wə/	weren't /'wɜ:nt/	being /'bi:ŋ/	been /bi:n/, /bm/
2nd Person Plural						
3rd Person Plural						
3rd Person singular	is /ɪz/, /z/, /s/	isn't /'ɪznt/	was /wɒz/, /wəz/	wasn't /'wɒznt/		

All these forms can occur either as main verbs or as auxiliaries. Except *being* and *been*, all the others are finite forms and show the tense, number, person, etc. of the verb phrase. For example.

- He *is* very happy. (Full verb, finite form)
- He *is* leaving tomorrow (Auxiliary; finite)
- He *is being* difficult. (Full; non-finite)
- He *is being* questioned. (Passive auxiliary; non-finite)

There is also a third non-finite form *be* which is the infinitive form. It occurs as a full verb, as in *He wanted to be a teacher*.

The primary verb *HAVE* too has strong and weak forms and negative forms with /nt/, but it has fewer forms than *BE*. It changes its forms only for the past, the two participles, and for the third person singular in the non-past. The past and the past participle forms are alike. The base form also occurs as the infinitive.

	Non-past		Past		-ing form	-ed ² form
	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative		
1st Person Sing./Plu.	have /hæv/	haven't /'hævnt/				
2nd Person Sing./Plu.	/əv/					
3rd Person Plural			had /hæd/, /həd/, /əd/, /ɪd/	hadn't /'hædnt/	having /'hævɪŋ/	had /hæd/
3rd Person Sing.	has /hæz/, /həz/, /ɒz/, /z/, /s/	hasn't /'hæznt/				

The primary verb *DO* is also like *HAVE* in that it has special forms only for the past, the two participles, and the third person singular in the non-past. But, unlike *HAVE*, the past and the past participle forms of *DO* are different.

	Non-past		Past		-ing form	-ed ² form
	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative		
1st Person Sing./Plu.					doing /'du:ɪŋ/	done /dʌn/
2nd Person Sing./Plu.	do/du:/ /d ɪ, /d/	don't /d nɪ/				
3rd Person Plural			did /dɪd/	didn't /'dɪdnɪ/		
3rd Person Singular	does /dʌz/, /dəz/	doesn't /'dʌznt/ /dəz/				

The non-finite forms *doing*, *done* and the infinitive *do* occur only as main verbs: the other forms are finite and occur both as main verbs and auxiliaries.

Check Your Progress 6

Identify the primary verbs in the following sentences and state whether they are used as auxiliaries or as main verbs.

a) My friend has an excellent collection of stamps.

.....

b) The leader was prevented from entering the country.

.....

c) They weren't very happy to hear the news.

.....

d) I have had no difficulty in finding your house.

.....

e) He will be leaving in a day or two.

.....

f) Did you do your homework?

.....

g) Where does your friend live?

.....

h) What's your name?

.....

i) Don't be angry.

.....

j) Do you have a pen?

.....

15.8 THE INFLECTIONAL PARADIGM OF THE ENGLISH VERB

The morphology of the English verb is so complicated that it is difficult to present it in a single chart. We have divided the verbs into three major classes: full verbs, modal verbs and primary verbs, but even within each class all verbs do not have the same inflectional forms. Full verbs are regular or irregular. All regular verbs have the same set of forms, but irregular verbs don't. We list three major types of irregular verbs with five, four and three separate forms. Among primary verbs, *HAVE* and *DO* have four and five forms respectively, while *BE* has eight forms. Modal verbs are quite different and have no inflected forms. They are treated as forming a single class containing thirteen finite forms.

Type of verb	Base	Finite forms		Non-finite forms		
		-s form	-ed ¹ form	Infinitive	-ing form	-ed ² form
Full Regular	help	helps	helped	help	helping	helped
Full Irregular	break	breaks	broke	break	breaking	broken
	sit	sits	sat	sit	sitting	sat
	cut	cuts	cut	cut	cutting	cut
Primary	have	has	had	have	having	had
	do	does	did	do	doing	done
	be	am, is, are, was, were		be	being	been
Modal		will, would, shall, should, can, could, may, might, must, ought, dare, need, used				

15.9 LET US SUM UP

We have made the following major points in this Unit:

- i) English verbs occur either as main verbs or as auxiliaries.
- ii) English verbs are divided into three classes: full verbs, modal verbs and primary verbs. Full verbs occur only as main verbs, modal verbs occur only as auxiliaries, primary verbs occur both as main verbs and as auxiliaries.
- iii) The grammatical categories associated with verbs are person and number, tense, aspect, mood, and voice.
- iv) Person and number contrasts of verbs are dependent on the person and number contrasts of the subject since the verb agrees in person and number with the subject.
- v) Tense has two subcategories, past and non-past, which are expressed inflectionally by verbs.
- vi) The category 'aspect' refers to the inflectional expression of whether the activity denoted by the verb is in progress or has been completed. These represent its two subcategories called the progressive and the perfective aspect respectively.
- vii) The category 'mood' has the subcategories indicative, imperative and subjunctive. Verbs assume different forms for expressing these moods.
- viii) The category 'voice' has two subcategories: active and passive.
- ix) The class of full verbs is divided into regular verbs and irregular verbs from the viewpoint of their morphology. The morphological pattern followed by the majority of full verbs is called the regular pattern.
- x) The regular pattern consists of four forms: the base form, the -s form, the -ing form and the -ed form. These forms express various contrasts of person, number, tense, aspect, mood and voice. The -ed form performs two distinct functions as a past tense form and as a past participle (=perfective aspect) form. These two forms are therefore represented as -ed¹ and -ed².
- xi) A verb form which is capable of occurring by itself as the main verb is called a finite form; a form which cannot occur by itself as main verb and requires the help of an auxiliary is called a non-finite form.
- xii) Irregular full verbs have either five forms or three forms. They are divided into nine types according to the types of changes that occur in these forms.
- xiii) Modal verbs do not inflect for grammatical contrasts but they have strong or weak forms and have a special negative form with/nt/. They have no non-finite forms.
- xiv) Each of the primary verbs, BE, HAVE and DO, shows a different set of forms to express grammatical contrasts. They also show strong, weak and special negative forms. BE is the most irregular and shows the largest number of forms.

15.10 KEY WORDS

Verb: a class of words which are identified by their position in a sentence or their inflectional characteristics, and express action, state, etc.

Verb Phrase: the element in the predicate part of a sentence which consists of one or more than one auxiliary and a main verb.

Main Verb: the word in a verb phrase which expresses its principal meaning, as distinguished from the auxiliary verb which merely modifies that meaning. The main verb can also occur alone as the verb element of a sentence and carry all its indicators of tense, number, person, etc.

Auxiliary Verb: the part of a verb phrase that modifies the meaning of the main verb by showing such things as tense, aspect, mood, voice, etc.

Full Verbs: the large and open class of verbs in English which occur only as main verbs.

Modal Verbs or Modal Auxiliaries: a small and closed class of verbs in English which occur only as auxiliaries.

Primary Verbs: the verbs *BE*, *HAVE* and *DO* which can occur either as full verbs or as auxiliaries.

Person and Number: grammatical categories associated with the agreement between the subject and verb of a sentence. Already explained in Unit 14 Section 14.6 and Unit 13 Section 13.6.

Tense: expression of time reference by means of verb inflections. Tense has two subcategories: past and non-past.

Past Tense: the subcategory of tense that expresses action in past time.

Non-past Tense: the subcategory of tense that expresses action in present, future, or in all time. The so-called present tense forms (e.g. the *-s* form) are actually non-past forms.

Aspect: the grammatical category which expresses the way in which the action described by the verb is seen either as 'continuing' or as 'completed'. It has two subcategories: progressive ('action continuing') and perfective ('action completed').

Mood: the grammatical category which reflect the speaker's attitude towards what is being said or towards the person being addressed. It has three subcategories: indicative (statements of fact), imperative (requests and commands) and subjunctive (wishes, demands, doubts, etc.).

Voice: the grammatical category which indicates whether the subject is seen as the 'doer' of the action or as the 'receiver'. The category has two subcategories: *active voice* ('subject does the action') and *passive voice* ('the action is done to the subject').

Regular Verbs: those full verbs which occur in four forms: the base form, the *-ing* form, the *-s* form and the *-ed* form.

Irregular Verbs: those full verbs which occur in five or three forms. They form their past tense forms in ways other than by the addition of *-ed*.

Finite Verb: the verb or verb form that expresses person and number and can occur by itself as the sole verb, e.g., the *-s* form, the *-ed* form, the base form in some uses.

Non-finite Verb: the verb form that cannot occur as the sole verb in a sentence and requires an auxiliary, e.g., the *-ing* form, the *-ed* form.

Strong Form: the pronounced form of a modal or a primary auxiliary which is used when the auxiliary is stressed or when it occurs at the beginning or end of an utterance.

Weak Form: the pronounced form of a modal or a primary auxiliary which is used in other positions.

Present Participle: refers to the *-ing* form.

Past Participle: refers to the *-ed* form; also expressed in irregular verbs with *-n* or *-en* suffix.

15.11 SOME USEFUL BOOKS

- Palmer, F.R. (1974). *A Linguistic Study of the English Verb*, London: Longman.
Quirk, R. and Greenbaum, S. (1973). *A University Grammar of English*, (Ch.3), London: Longman.
Roberts, P. (1954). *Understanding Grammar*, (Ch. 5), New York: Harper and Row.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

- | | | | |
|-------------|-----------|---|---|
| a) enjoyed. | Criterion | : | Position between two noun phrases |
| b) make. | " | : | Let's |
| c) book. | " | : | Please |
| d) light. | " | : | Position between two noun phrases |
| e) harbour. | " | : | " " " " |
| f) turned. | " | : | Position between a noun phrase and an adjective
(Linking verb) |
| g) be. | " | : | Please (Linking verb) |
| h) free. | " | : | Position between two noun phrases |
| i) rose. | " | : | Position after noun phrase (Intransitive verb) |
| j) can. | " | : | Position between two noun phrases. |

Check Your Progress 2

- a) may: modal; come: full
b) was: primary (functions as main verb)
c) rose: full
d) ought: modal; (to) apologize: full
e) can: full
f) can¹: modal; can²: full
g) Have: primary (functions as auxiliary)
had: primary (functions as main verb)
h) overpowered: full
i) had¹: primary (functions as auxiliary)
had²: primary (functions as main verb)
j) should: modal; have: primary (functions as auxiliary)
written: full

Check Your Progress 3

- 1) Number 2) Person 3) Aspect 4) Mood 5) Tense 6) Mood 7) Voice 8) Person
9) Aspect 10) Mood

Check Your Progress 4

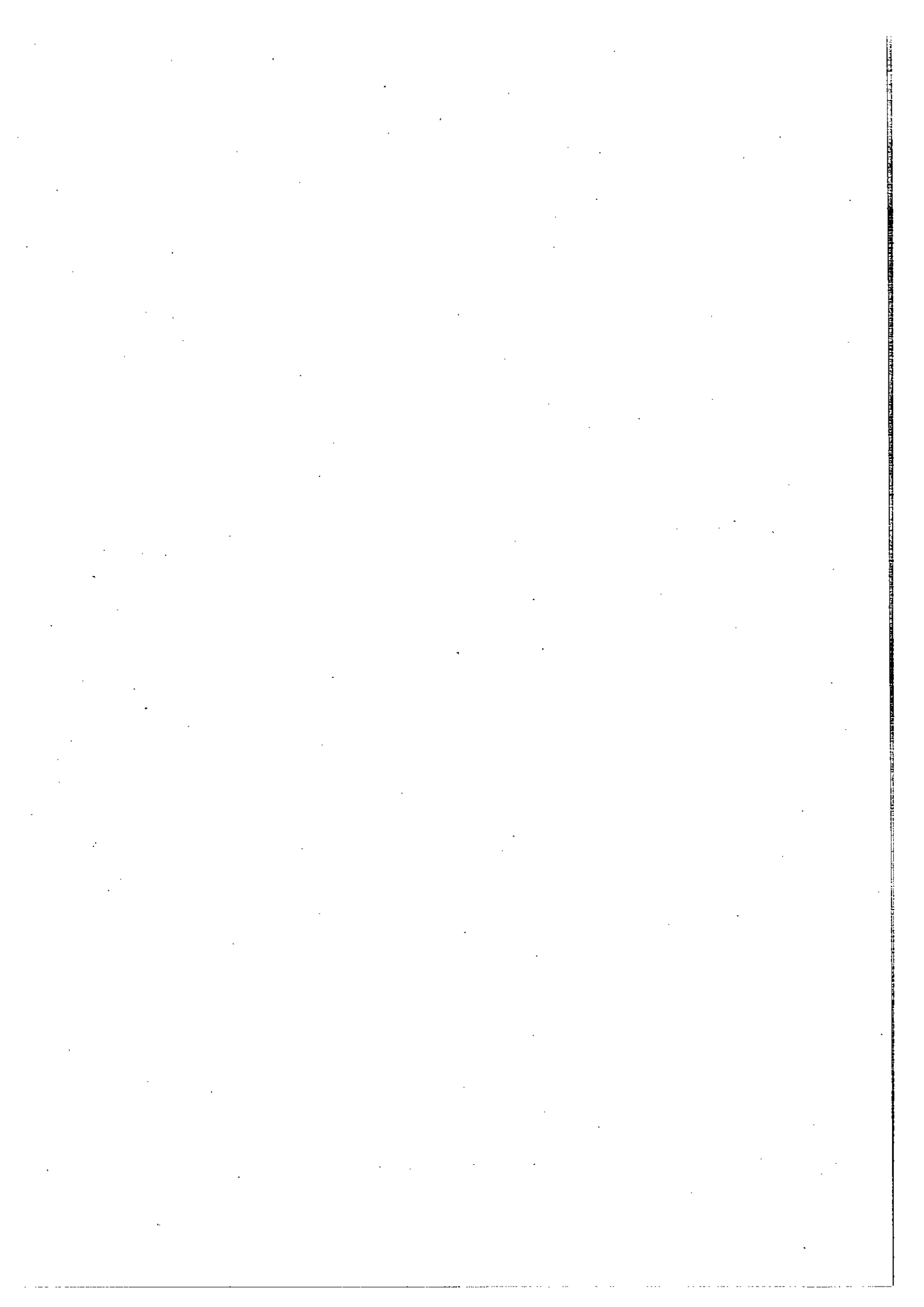
- 1) a) broadcast b) dived c) clung d) quitted (or quit) e) worn f) patrolling g) permitted
h) sawed i) bustend (or bust) j) split
2) a) / z / b) / ɪz / c) / t / d) / ɪd / e) / s /
f) / t / g) / z / h) / s / i) / t / j) / z /
3) a) True b) False c) True d) True e) False

Check Your Progress 5

- a) False b) True c) False d) True e) False

Check Your Progress 6

- a) has: main verb b) was: auxiliary c) were (n't): main verb d) have: auxiliary;
had: main verb e) be: auxiliary f) Did: auxiliary; do: main verb g) does: auxiliary
h) 's (=is): main verb i) Do(n't): auxiliary; be: main verb j) do: auxiliary; have: main





UTTAR PRADESH
RAJARSHI TANDON OPEN UNIVERSITY

UGEN-02 The Structure of Modern English

Block

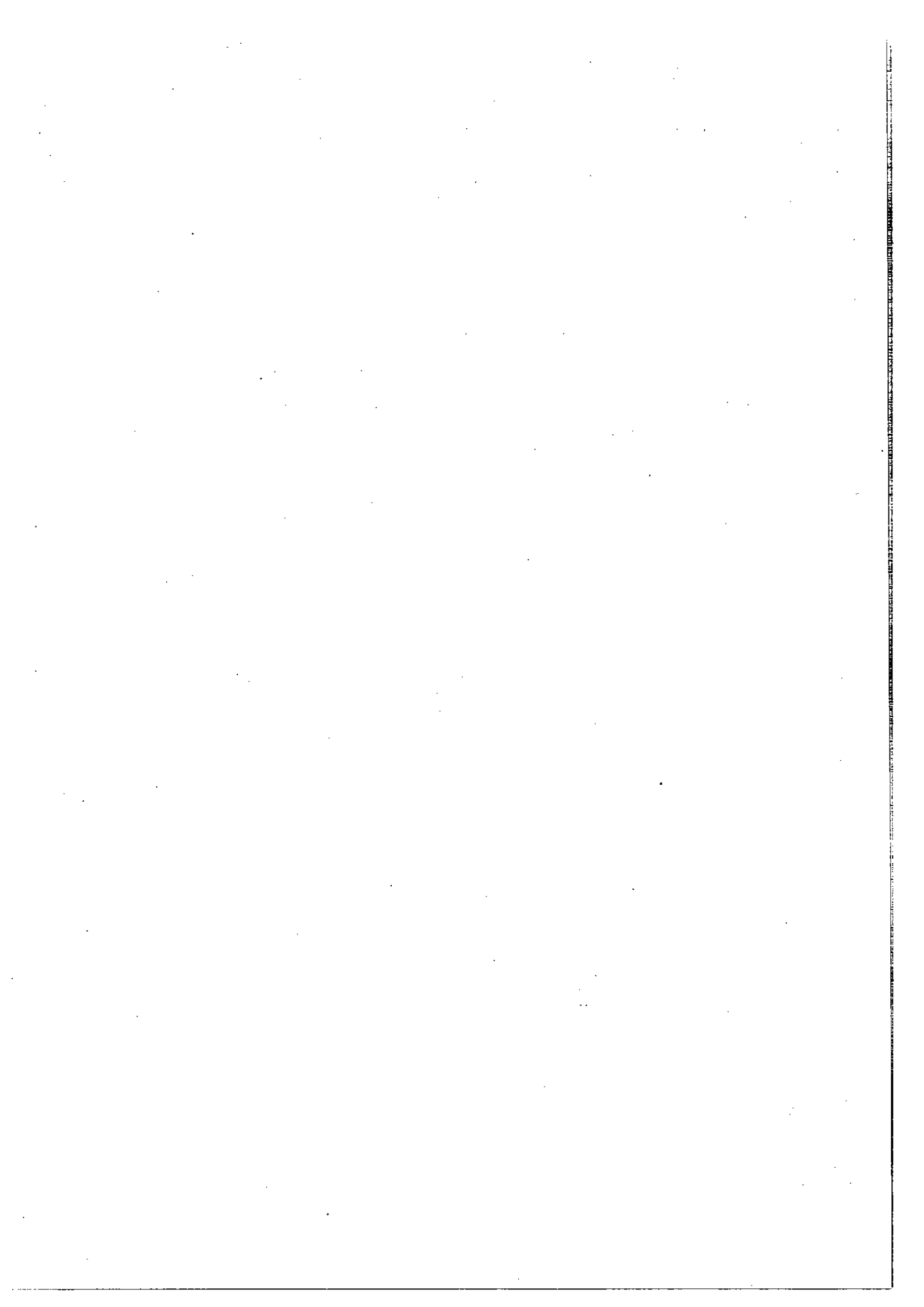
4

MORPHOLOGY-2

Introduction to the Block	3
UNIT 16 Derivational Morphology-1	5
UNIT 17 Derivational Morphology-2	19
UNIT 18 Derivational Morphology-3	31
UNIT 19 Word Compounding-1	45
UNIT 20 Word Compounding-2	59

INTRODUCTION TO THE BLOCK

This is the second block on morphology. The first three units will deal with derivational morphology—prefixation (Unit 16), suffixation (Unit 17), and Conversion (Unit 18). The last two units (19-20) will deal with word compounding.



UNIT 16 DERIVATIONAL MORPHOLOGY - 1

- 16.0 Objectives
- 16.1 Introduction
- 16.2 Derivational Morphology: Characteristics
- 16.3 Prefixation: Types of Prefixes
 - 16.3.1 Negative Prefixes
 - 16.3.2 Reversative and Privative Prefixes
 - 16.3.3 Pejorative Prefixes
 - 16.3.4 Number Prefixes
 - 16.3.5 Prefixes of Degree, Rank, Size, etc.
 - 16.3.6 Prefixes of Time and Order
 - 16.3.7 Prefixes Showing Location
 - 16.3.8 Prefixes Showing Attitude and Orientation
 - 16.3.9 Prefixes which Change the Part of Speech of the Stem
- 16.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 16.5 Key Words
- 16.6 Some Useful Books
- Answers

16.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to

- describe the general characteristics of derivational affixes as a class,
- explain why derivational affixes are not classified on the basis of the part of speech of the stems to which they are attached,
- explain why derivational **prefixes** are classified on the basis of meaning while derivational **suffixes** are classified on the basis of grammar,
- recognize the different types of derivational prefixes classified according to the kind of meaning they contribute, and
- distinguish the small class of conversion prefixes.

16.1 INTRODUCTION

In 12.2, we distinguished derivational morphology from inflectional morphology. The distinction was mainly based on the nature of the affixes which are attached to roots and stems to produce words with complex internal structure. Affixes which are attached to words in accordance with some rules of grammar, which have a constant element of meaning, or which perform a constant grammatical function were called inflectional affixes. The study of the rules according to which they are attached to words, their forms and their meaning, was called **inflectional morphology**. In the preceding three units (Block 3: Units 13-15) we studied the inflectional morphology of English. This consisted of a description of the form and meaning of the inflectional morphemes which are combined with words belonging to the 'parts of speech' nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs and verbs, and the rules for their combination. In this and the following two units we shall discuss the derivational morphology of English.

16.2 DERIVATIONAL MORPHOLOGY: CHARACTERISTICS

Derivational morphology was described in 12.2 as the study of derivational affixes. Derivational affixes were identified as those affixes which are attached to stems not in

order to express a grammatical contrast in accordance with some rule of grammar, but in order to create a 'new' word, a word which enables the speaker to express a new idea. By adding derivational affixes to existing words, the speaker creates for himself a bigger store of words from which he can choose the most appropriate words to express his ideas. We also stated that 'new' words 'created' by the addition of derivational affixes are treated as separate words and are listed separately in dictionaries. (In contrast, word forms containing inflectional suffixes are not treated as separate words and not listed separately in dictionaries.) Some other distinguishing characteristics of derivational affixes were also stated. They occur both as prefixes and as suffixes (unlike inflections which occur only as suffixes), they often change the part of speech of the stem to which they are attached, and they are attached to stems before any inflectional suffix is added to them.

When we begin to describe derivational affixes, we note that they show the following additional characteristics as compared to inflectional affixes:

- i) Their number is much larger than the number of inflectional affixes, and
- ii) They cannot be usefully classified on the basis of the part of speech of the word to which they are attached.

Let us elaborate these points a little:

We saw in the last three units that the inflectional affixes of English are rather few and they are classified on the basis of the part of speech of the words to which they are attached. Thus the plural number suffix *-s* and the possessive case suffix *'s* are the only two affixes that are attached to nouns; the comparative suffix *-er* and the superlative suffix *-est* are the only two affixes attached to adjectives; the third person singular non-past suffix *-s*, the past suffix *-ed¹*, the perfect suffix *-ed²*, the progressive suffix *-ing* are the only four affixes that are attached to verbs, and so on. On the other hand, the number of derivational affixes is very large: despite certain difficulties of counting, one can make a rough estimate of about 50 prefixes and almost the same number of suffixes. Further, neither the prefixes nor the suffixes can be usefully classified on the basis of the part of speech of the stem to which they are attached, i.e., we cannot point to a group of derivational affixes and say that they are attached only to nouns, point to another group and say that they are attached only to verbs, and so on.

Why should the number of derivational affixes be so large as compared to inflectional affixes? The reason is quite simple: inflectional affixes perform grammatical functions of which there are only a few; derivational affixes express meaning modifications of which there can be many. For example, one may modify the meaning of a verb to express the opposite meaning, or to express the state or action denoted by it, or to express specific meanings like 'performer of action', 'object of action', 'result of action', etc. Similarly one may modify the meanings of adjectives and nouns in several ways. Sometimes, different affixes are used to express the same modification of meaning, e.g., the 'negative' or 'opposite' meaning is expressed by the prefixes *in-*, *un-*, *dis-*, and *non-*, the meaning 'performer of action' is expressed by *-er* or *-ant*, and so on.

To come to the second point, why can't the derivational affixes be classified on the basis of the part of speech of the stem? After all, affixes like *-er*, denoting 'performer of action' can only be attached to verbs; affixes like *-ness*, denoting 'the quality referred to by the adjective' are attached only to adjectives. So why can't we classify the affixes on this basis? There are two reasons: first, not all affixes are so restricted to one part of speech. Some affixes can be attached to more than one part of speech. For example, *dis-*, the negative prefix, can be attached to adjectives (*disloyal*), nouns (*disorder*) or verbs (*disobey*); the suffix *-hood* can be attached either to nouns (*boyhood*) or to adjectives (*falsehood*), and so on. Secondly, unlike inflectional affixes, derivational affixes are never attached freely to all, or even the majority of, words belonging to a part of speech. For example, though *-er* is attached only to verbs it cannot be attached to all the verbs, or even to most of them. We can have *dancer*, *player*, *worker*, *reader*, *runner*, *writer*, etc., but we cannot have **cheater*, **stealer*, **hoper*, **expresser*, **arranger*, etc. Similarly, though *-ness* is attached only to adjectives, there are some adjectives with which *-ness* is odd and unusual if not impossible, e.g., *clearness*, *longness*, *fatness*, *freeness*, *corruptness*, etc.

Since derivational affixes are quite a few in number, and since they cannot be classified in terms of the part of speech of the stem, how shall we classify them?

This negative prefix occurs mostly with adjectives but also occurs with nouns, e.g., *incomplete, inevitable, illiterate, irregular* (adjectives), *inability, inattention, injustice* (nouns). It is a less common prefix than *un-* and the words with which it occurs seem to be fixed: no new words take this suffix. The suffix used with new words is *un-*. Notice the following pairs where *un-* is used with the adjectives but *in-* with the nouns:

unable: inability; unequal; inequality; unjust; injustice

Some negative words with the *in-* prefix now have unique meanings, i.e. their meanings are not equal to the negation of the meaning of the stem, since the stem does not have the corresponding positive meaning. E.g., *infirm* means 'weak in health' though *firm* is not used in the context of health at all. Similarly, *infamous* does not mean 'not famous' but 'well-known because of something bad or evil'. Some other words with the *in-* prefix have no free morpheme as stem, e.g., *inept, inert* (**ept, *ert*).

dis-: Pronounced / dɪs /. As a negative prefix, it occurs with adjectives, verbs as well as nouns, e.g., *dissimilar, disbelieve, disbelief, disunity*.

a-: Pronounced / eɪ / or / æ /. The meaning of this prefix contrasts with that of *un-* or *in-*. Whereas these prefixes mean 'not' or 'opposite of', *a-* means 'lacking in the feature or quality' described by the word to which it is prefixed. Thus, while *immoral* means 'not moral' or 'contrary to the ideas of morality', *amoral* means 'having nothing to do with, or lacking in the feature of, morality'. Some other examples are *apolitical, asocial, asexual*.

non-: Pronounced / nɒn /. Has the meaning 'not'. Occurs with adjectives and nouns, e.g., *non-violent, non-existent, non-cooperation, non-smoker*. In some special cases also attached to nouns (e.g., *non-event*) and verbs (e.g., *non-stop*, which is used as an adjective). The meaning of *non-* differs from that of *un-* in the following way: *non-* expresses a two-way contrast and no degrees of 'more' or 'less'; *un-* expresses degrees. For example, in terms of citizenship one is either an 'Indian' or a 'non-Indian' (not 'un-Indian'), but not 'more Indian' or 'less Indian', but in terms of attitudes one can be 'more Indian' or 'less Indian' than someone else, or 'un-Indian'.

16.3.2 Reversative and Privative Prefixes

The following prefixes contribute the meaning 'reverse the action denoted by the stem' (**Reversative**) or 'deprive someone or something of the object denoted by the stem' (**Privative**).

un-: Pronunciation details the same as with the negative *un-*. Combines only with verbs and produces the meaning 'reverse the action', e.g., *undo, untie, unpack, unlock, unzip*. Also combines with some nouns to produce verbs (see 16.3.9 below); produces the meaning 'deprive of', 'release from', etc., e.g., *unseat, unmask, unearth, unhorse*.

de-: Pronounced / di: /. Combines with verbs and with nouns derived from verbs and produces the meaning 'reverse the action', e.g., *decode, decontrol, denationalize, decarbonize*.

Combines with verbs, and with nouns derived from verbs, to produce the meaning 'deprive of', e.g., *dethrone, deforest, depopulate, depopulation*.

dis- / dɪs /. Combines with verbs with the meaning 'reversing the action', e.g., *disconnect, disinfect, disown, disqualify, dissatisfy*. Occurs with the sense 'remove, deprive of, rid of' what is denoted by the noun stem. The resulting word is a verb, e.g., *disarm, disfigure, dishonour, discourage*.

16.3.3 Pejorative Prefixes

Pejorative prefixes are those prefixes which add to the meaning of the stem the element 'bad', 'badly', 'wrong', 'wrongly', 'false', 'imitation', etc. The main pejorative prefixes of English are:

mal-: Pronounced / məl /. Is combined mostly with verbs (e.g., *maltreat, maladjust*), nouns (*maladministration, malnutrition*), adjectives (*malodorous*), and participles (*malnourished, maladjusted*).

mis-: Pronounced / mɪs /. Used mainly and frequently with verbs, it conveys the meaning 'badly, wrongly, improperly, etc.' as in *mislead, mishandle, misbehave, misgovern, mismanage*. Also occurs with participles (*misshappen, misguided*) and nouns (*misfortune, misconduct, misrule*).

pseudo-: Pronounced / 'sju:dəʊ/. Is prefixed quite freely to nouns and adjectives to form other nouns and adjectives. Adds the element of meaning 'false', 'not what it is claimed to be', e.g., *pseudo-intellectual*, *pseudo-scientific*.

16.3.4 Number Prefixes

The following prefixes, attached to nouns and adjectives, express various numbers which are somehow relevant to the meanings of the resulting words. For example, the prefix *bi-* (expressing the number 'two') in the word *biplane* refers to the two pairs of wings that a plane of this kind had. Similarly, the term *bimonthly*, in the expression *a bimonthly magazine*, refers to the fact that it is published twice every month.

bi-: Pronounced / baɪ /. *di-*: Pronounced / daɪ /. Express the number 'two'. *Bi-* occurs in words like *bicycle*, *bilingual*, *bigamy*, *bifocal*, *bimonthly*, while *di-* occurs mostly in scientific words, e.g., *dioxide*, *diode*.

mono-: Pronounced / 'mɒnəʊ/ or / mə'nɒ/ depending on the position of stress.

uni-: Pronounced / 'ju:nɪ /. Express the number 'one', as in *monolingual*, *monoplane*, *monorail*, *unidirectional*, *uniform*, *unilateral*.

semi-: Pronounced / 'semɪ /. *demi-*: Pronounced / 'demɪ /. Express the number 'half', as in *semi-circle*, *semi-automatic*, *semi-darkness*, *demi-god*.

tri-: Pronounced / traɪ /. Expresses the number 'three' as in *tricycle*, *tripod*.

poly-: Pronounced / 'pɒlɪ /. *multi-*: Pronounced / 'mʌlɪ /. Express the number 'many' as in *polyglot* ('speaking or understanding many languages'), *polygamy* ('the practice of having more than one wife'), *polyandry* ('the practice of having more than one husband'), *polytechnic* ('a college where many technical subjects are taught'), *multiracial*, *multimillionaire*, *multipurpose*.

16.3.5 Prefixes of Degree, Rank, Size, etc.

The following prefixes are attached to nouns, verbs or adjectives and contribute meanings which have to do with degree, rank, size, etc. in one way or the other:

arch-: Pronounced / ɑ : tʃ / except in *archangel* where it is pronounced / ɑ : k /. Has the meaning 'of the highest rank' as in *archbishop* or *archangel*. With most other nouns, it occurs with the meaning 'having the qualities associated with the type denoted by the noun to the highest degree', e.g., *arch-enemy*, *arch-villain*, *arch-hypocrite*. In this sense, it generally occurs with nouns of pejorative meaning.

co-: Pronounced / kəʊ/. Occurs with personal nouns or with verbs. The resulting nouns and verbs generally refer to people sharing things or doing things together, e.g., *co-author*, *co-operate*. It does not always mean 'of the same rank' with nouns, e.g., a *co-pilot* is not of the same rank as the chief pilot but subordinate to him.

extra-: Pronounced / 'ekstrə/. Used with adjectives to form other adjectives with the meaning 'to an exceptional degree', or 'having more of a particular quality than usual', e.g., *extra-large*, *extra-long*. With some other adjectives, it means 'outside' or 'beyond' as in *extra-constitutional*, *extra-marital*.

micro-: Pronounced / 'maɪkrə/. Occurs with nouns which refer to 'very small' versions of certain things, e.g., *microcomputer*, *micro-organism*.

mini-: Pronounced / 'mɪnɪ /. Is used to form nouns denoting a smaller or less important version of something else, e.g., *mini-computer*, *minibus*.

out-: / aʊt /. Is attached to some verbs to form other verbs which mean 'do something better than another person, thing, etc.', e.g., *outrun*, *outnumber*, *outgrow*.

over-: / 'əʊvə /. Is used with adjectives or verbs to indicate that a quality exists or an action is done to too great an extent; shows disapproval, e.g., *overripe*, *overeat*.

sub-: / sʌb /. Attached to adjectives produces the meaning 'inferior' e.g., *subhuman*, *substandard*.

super-: / 'su:pə /. Combines with nouns and adjectives. The resulting words refer to things that are larger or more powerful than other things of the same kind, e.g., *superpower*, *supermarket*, *superhuman*, *supersensitive*.

under-: / 'ʌndə / . Added to nouns produces the meaning 'lower in rank', e.g., *undersecretary*; attached to verbs and participles the meaning it produces is that the action 'has been done or the quality exists to an insufficient extent, e.g., *underestimate*, *undernourished* (= 'not sufficiently nourished').

16.3.6 Prefixes of Time and Order

Prefixes of time and order are attached to nouns, verbs and adjectives and qualify the meanings of these words by putting them in some time or order context.

ex-: / eks / . Adds the meaning 'former' as in *ex-president*. Is mostly used with nouns only.

fore-: / fɔː / . Adds the meaning 'before in time', e.g., *foretell*, *forethought*. Occurs with verbs and nouns.

post-: / pɒst / . Forms words (nouns or adjectives) which describe something as taking place *after* a particular date or event, e.g., *post-war*, *post-independence*, *post-colonial*.

pre-: / pri / . Forms words (nouns or adjectives) which describe something as taking place *before* a particular date or event, e.g., *pre-war*, *pre-independence*, *pre-colonial*.

re-: / ri / . Is added to verbs and nouns to form other verbs and nouns which refer to the repetition of an action (e.g., *rebuild*, *re-use*) or to the opposite of an action that has already taken place (e.g., *reappear*, *regain*).

16.3.7 Prefixes Showing Location

Historically, like many other prefixes, prefixes which show location are also derived from prepositions, and their meanings are similar to those of prepositions showing location. For example, the prefix *inter-* means 'between', hence we can either speak of '*international relations*' or of '*relations between nations*'. With some uses of these prefixes, 'location' has to be understood in an abstract sense, as is also the case with some locative prepositions. For example, the noun *subconscious*, with the locative prefix *sub-*, refers to that part of the mind that is located 'below' the conscious mind in the sense that we are not aware of it.

fore-: / fɔː / . Compare with *fore-* in 16.3.6, the time prefix. Like the preposition *before* when referring to place, *fore-* means 'front' or 'front part of' as in *forearm*, *foreground*, *forename*. Occurs with nouns.

inter-: / 'ɪntə / . Occurs with adjectives, verbs and nouns with the meaning 'between', e.g., *international*, *intermarry* *inter-university*.

sub-: / sʌb / . Compare with *sub-* in 16.3.5, the degree prefix. Occurs with adjectives, verbs and nouns with the meaning 'below' or 'under', as in *subnormal*, *submerge*, *subsoil*.

super-: / 'su:pə / . Compare with *super-* in 16.3.5, the degree prefix. Combines with a few nouns and contributes the meaning 'above' as in *superstructure*, *superscript* (= 'that which is written above something else').

trans-: / træns / or / trænʒ / . Combines with adjectives or verbs and contributes the meaning 'across', 'beyond', or 'over', e.g., *transatlantic*, *transcontinental*, *transport*, *transcribe* (= 'to write across', i.e., to record in a different set of symbols).

16.3.8 Prefixes Showing Attitude and Orientation

A few prefixes are such that, attached to nouns, adjectives and verbs, they produce words which reflect attitudes, or position with respect to something. The meanings of these prefixes can also be expressed by prepositions.

anti-: / 'ænti / . Is added to nouns and adjectives and contributes the meaning 'against' as in *antislavery* (= against slavery), *anti-Indian* (= against India).

counter-: / 'kaʊntə / . Is added to nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs and produces the meaning 'against', 'in opposition to' 'in the opposite direction', etc. as in *counterattack*, *counteract*, *counter-clockwise* (adjective & adverb). While *anti-* suggests only an attitude

of opposition, *counter-* suggests action in response to a previous action. A *counterattack* is an attack in response to an attack.

pro- / prəʊ/. Is added to adjectives and nouns and contributes the meaning 'for', 'in favour of', e.g., *pro-Indian*, *pro-student*.

16.3.9 Prefixes which Change the Part of Speech of the Stem

We noted above (16.2) that prefixes normally do not affect the stems grammatically, i.e., they do not change the part of speech of the stem. In a few cases, however, prefixes do affect the part of speech of the stem. Such prefixes do not carry any specific meanings; their function is mainly a grammatical one. The number of such prefixes is quite small and so is the number of words to which they are added. Such prefixes are called **conversion prefixes**. Here are a few of them:

a- / ə /. This prefix forms adjectives from verbs, e.g., *ablaze* (from *blaze*), *asleep* (from *sleep*), *astir* (from *stir*), *aglow* (from *glow*). The adjectives thus formed can only be used in predicative (= after the verb) positions. Thus we can say *The house was ablaze* but not **the ablaze house*.

be- / bi /. Forms transitive verbs from adjectives, verbs and nouns, e.g., *becalm*, *bemoan*, *befriend*. In another use, it is attached to past participles turning them into *adjectives*, e.g., *bespectacled*, *bejewelled*, *bewigged*.

en- or *em-* / ɪn / or / ɪm /. Form transitive verbs mainly from nouns, e.g., *endanger* (= put into danger), *entrain* (= get into a train), *enslave* (= make into a slave), *empower* (= provide with power), *embitter* (= make bitter), *imperil* (= put into peril).

Some other prefixes also have the effect of changing the part of speech of the stem, but the number of words affected is quite small, e.g., *debark* (= disembark), *non-stick*, *unhorse* (see 16.3.2).

Check Your Progress 2

1) Identify the type of meaning that the prefix contributes in each of the following words. Write the type (negative, reversative, pejorative, number, degree, time, etc.) in the first column. In the second column write another word containing the same prefix with the same meaning. Then consult the dictionary to see if the meaning it gives for the word confirms the meaning you have given to it:

	Word	Type of Affix	Your Word
i)	amoral
ii)	anti-social
iii)	arch-enemy
iv)	bicycle
v)	co-pilot
vi)	denationalize
vii)	defrost
viii)	disarm
ix)	disagree
x)	discomfort
xi)	ex-prime minister
xii)	forewarn
xiii)	illegal
xiv)	imperfect
xv)	irregular
xvi)	insecure
xvii)	inter-state
xviii)	malpractice
xix)	microfilm
xx)	misdeed
xxi)	multinational
xxii)	non-resident

xxiii)	postgraduate
xxiv)	pre-Vedic
xxv)	pro-Russian
xxvi)	Pseudo-philosopher
xxvii)	replay
xxviii)	semi-conscious
xxix)	submarine
xxx)	subcontinent
xxxi)	supernatural
xxxii)	superimpose
xxxiii)	unwind
xxxiv)	unworthy
xxxv)	unilateral

2) For each word given below, choose the correct prefix from the prefixes given to express the kind of meaning indicated. In some cases more than one prefix is possible. Indicate all possible prefixes for such words:

i)	intelligible	(un-, in-, non-): negative
ii)	religious	(un-, in-, ir): negative
iii)	clockwise	(non-, counter-, anti-): 'against'
iv)	treat	(mis-, pseudo-, mal-): 'badly'
v)	frost	(dis-, de-, un-): 'remove'
vi)	comfort	(un-, dis-, non-): 'lack of'
vii)	comfortable	(dis-, non-, un-): negative
viii)	just	(in-, un-, non-): negative
ix)	justice	(in-, un-, non-): negative
x)	associate	(de-, un-, dis-): reversative
xi)	contented	(mal-, mis-, dis-): negative
xii)	independence	(pre-, post-, ex-): 'before'
xiii)	lateral	(poly-, multi-, bi-): (having) many (sides)
xiv)	coloured	(mis-, mal-, dis-): 'lacking in (colour)'
xv)	mask	(de-, un-, dis-): 'deprive of (mask)'

3) Using appropriate prefixes, turn the words in brackets into verbs or adjectives, as required, which will fill the blanks in the sentences correctly. Put the words into the required inflected forms:

- i) By constantly kicking against water, he managed to stay (float)
- ii) The house was with lights. (blaze)
- iii) He sat all alone, his loss. (moan)
- iv) She joined her hands in a most charming 'Namaste'. (jewel)
- v) People belonging to different races and religions have Indian culture. (rich)
- vi) "You can at Allahabad," the booking clerk told him. (train)
- vii) "A very sad case," said the judge, shaking his head. (wig)
- viii) The crisis has the future of the party. (peril)
- ix) The 1986 Act the police to ban political processions in the count (power)
- x) When Rajan joined the new school, many boys in his class tried to him. (friend)

16.4 LET US SUM UP

We have made the following major points in this lesson:

- i) Derivational affixes modify the meanings of the words to which they are attached. Such modifications of meaning can be of many types and, accordingly, the number of derivational affixes is also large when compared to inflectional affixes.
- ii) Derivational affixes cannot be usefully classified on the basis of the part of speech of the stem. There are two reasons for this: first, many affixes are attached to words belonging to more than one part of speech; second, there are no derivational affixes which can be attached to all the words belonging to a part of speech.
- iii) Derivational affixes are either prefixes or suffixes unlike inflectional affixes, which are only suffixes.
- iv) Prefixes and suffixes affect the words to which they are attached in different ways. Both affect the meanings of the words, but suffixes also affect their grammar by changing their part of speech. Only a few prefixes affect the grammar of words in this way.
- v) It is, therefore, useful to classify prefixes on the basis of the meanings they contribute, while suffixes can be classified on the basis of the grammatical changes they produce.
- vi) Prefixes can be classified into eight main groups on the basis of the meanings they contribute to the resulting words. These eight groups are: negative; reversative and privative; pejorative; number; degree, size, rank, etc.; time and order; location; attitude and orientation.
- vii) A ninth group of prefixes consists of those few prefixes which change the part of speech of the word they are added to. They are called conversion prefixes.

16.5 KEY WORDS

Negative Prefix: A prefix that contributes the meaning 'not', 'opposite of', 'lacking in', 'irrelevant to', etc.

Reversative Prefix: A prefix that contributes the meaning 'reverse the action' or 'undo the action' denoted by the stem.

Privative Prefix: A prefix that contributes the meaning 'deprive (someone of something)'

Pejorative Prefix: A prefix that adds the meaning 'bad', 'badly', 'wrongly', 'false', 'imitation', etc. to the meaning of the stem.

Number Prefix: A prefix which contributes the idea of number (one, two, three, many, half, etc.) to the meaning of the stem.

Degree, Rank or Size Prefix: A prefix that contributes the idea of one thing being higher or lower than, or equal to, something else in degree, rank or size.

Time and Order Prefix: A prefix that helps to identify a thing, action, etc. by relating it to some event or other action in terms of time (e.g. before or after) or order (e.g., following or preceding)

Location Prefix: A prefix that helps to identify a thing by describing it as being located at, in front of, below, above (etc.) something else, or between two or more other things. Location is sometimes understood in a metaphorical (= abstract) sense.

Attitude or Orientation Prefix: A prefix that helps to identify something by describing its attitude or orientation towards something else.

Conversion Prefix: A prefix that changes the part of speech of the word to which it is attached

16.6 SOME USEFUL BOOKS

Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary (1987). London: Collins.

Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (1978). London: Longman.

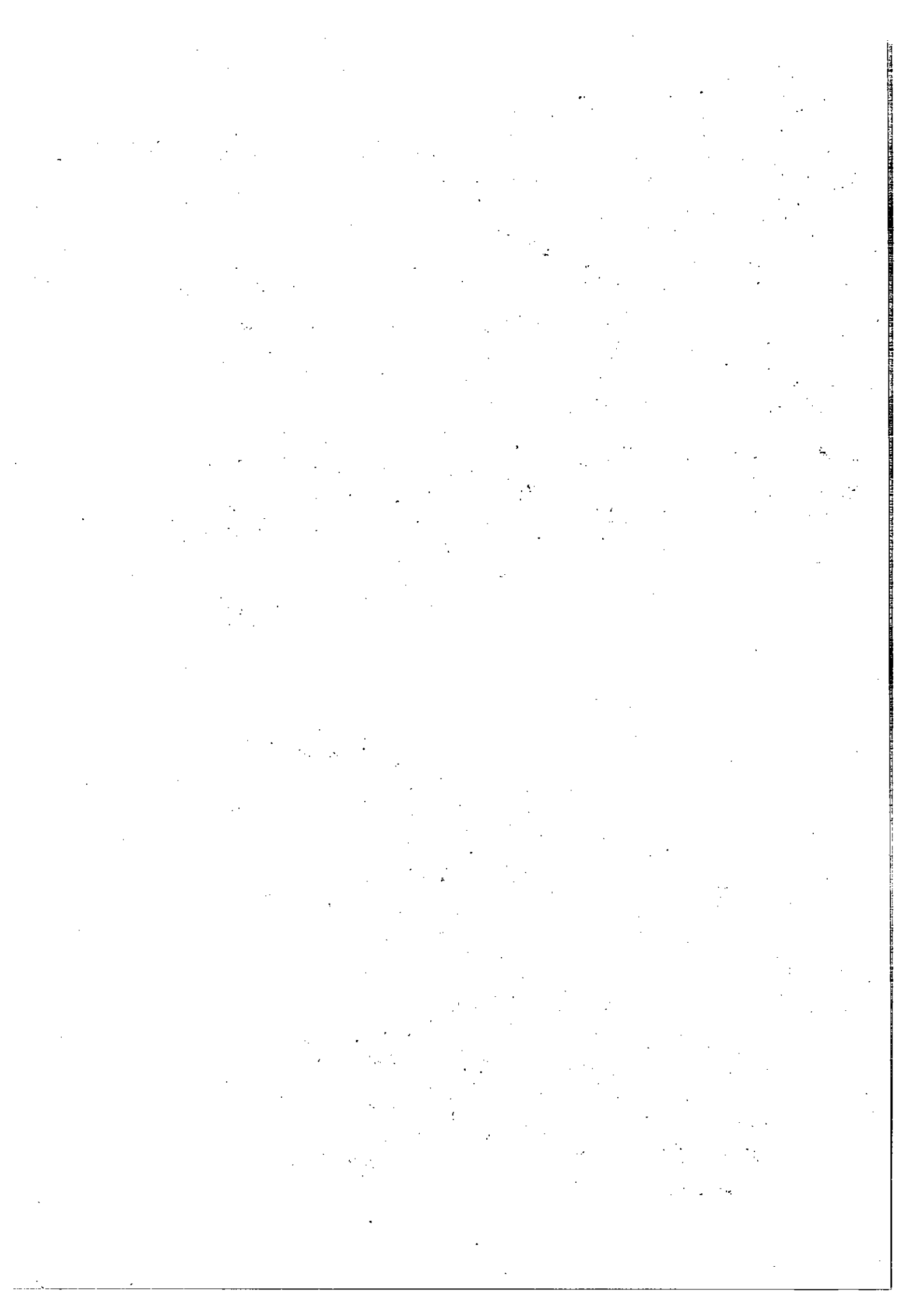
Quirk, R. and Greenbaum, S. (1973). *A University Grammar of English* (App. D). London: Longman.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

- | 1) Inflectional Affixes | Derivational Affixes |
|--|--|
| i) Create grammatical forms of words in accordance with some grammatical rules. | i) Create 'new' words and enlarge the lexical choice available to the user. |
| ii) Words with inflectional affixes are regarded as grammatical forms of the stem word and are not listed separately from it in the dictionary. | ii) Words with derivational affixes are regarded as independent words and listed in the dictionary separately from the stem word. |
| iii) Affect the meaning of the stems in a regular way. | iii) Affect the meaning of different sets of stems in different ways. |
| iv) Never change the part of speech of the stem. | iv) May change the part of speech of the stem. |
| v) Normally a word can take only one inflectional affix. | v) A word may have more than one derivational affix. |
| vi) An inflectional affix is the last affix added to a word. No derivational affix can be added after an inflectional affix has been added. | vi) Derivational affixes may be followed in a word by more derivational affixes or by an inflectional affix. |
| vii) All inflection affixes are suffixes. | vii) Derivational affixes may be prefixes or suffixes. |
| viii) The number of inflectional affixes is very small. | viii) The number of derivational affixes is comparatively large. |
| ix) An inflectional affix is attached to all, or at least to the vast majority, of words belonging to the part of speech to which the grammatical rule applies. | ix) A derivational affix is attached only to a selected number of words belonging to a part of speech, never to all of them, or even a majority of them. |
| x) A given inflectional affix is attached only to words belonging to a particular part of speech. Hence inflectional affixes can be classified on the basis of the part of speech of the stem. | x) The same derivational affix may be added to words belonging to different parts of speech. Hence derivational affixes cannot be classified on the basis of the part of speech of the stem. |
- 2) The existence of simple words for conveying the same meanings, viz. *thief* for *stealer, *bad* for *ungood, *ugly* for *unbeautiful, *short* for *untall.
- 3) The two reasons are: (i) the same derivational affix may be attached to words belonging to different parts of speech, and (ii) no derivational affix is attached to all the words belonging to a part of speech.

- 1) The solutions below give only the type of meaning contributed by the prefix. To confirm whether the word cited by you also contains the same prefix with the same meaning or not, consult the books mentioned in 16.6. (i) amoral: negative, with the meaning 'having nothing to do with' (ii) anti-social: attitude (iii) arch-enemy: degree (iv) bicycle: number (v) co-pilot: rank (vi) denationalize: reversative (vii) defrost: privative (viii) disarm: reversative (ix) disagree: negative, meaning 'not' (x) discomfort: negative, meaning 'lack of' (xi) ex-prime minister: time (xii) forewarn: time (xiii) illegal: negative, meaning 'not' (xiv) imperfect: negative, meaning 'not' (xv) irregular: negative, meaning 'not' (xvi) insecure: negative, meaning 'not' (xvii) inter-state: location (xviii) malpractice: pejorative (xix) microfilm: size (xx) misdeed: pejorative (xxi) multinational: number (xxii) non-resident: negative, meaning 'not' (xxiii) postgraduate: time (xxiv) pre-Vedic: time (xxv) pro-Russian: attitude (xxvi) pseudo-philosopher: pejorative (xxvii) replay: time/order (xxviii) semi-conscious: number (xxix) submarine: location (xxx) subcontinent: location (xxxi) supernatural: degree (xxxii) superimpose: location (xxxiii) unwind: reversative (xxxiv) unworthy: negative meaning 'not' (xxxv) unilateral: number.
- 2) (i) un- (ii) ir- (iii) counter-, anti- (iv) mis-, mal- (v) de- (vi) dis- (vii) un- (viii) un- (ix) in- (x) dis- (xi) dis- (xii) pre- (xiii) multi- (xiv) dis- (xv) un-
- 3) (i) afloat (ii) ablaze (iii) bemoaning (iv) bejewelled (v) enriched (vi) entrain/detrain (vii) bewigged (viii) imperilled (ix) empowered/empowers (x) befriend.



UNIT 17 DERIVATIONAL MORPHOLOGY-2

- 17.0 Objectives
- 17.1 Introduction
- 17.2 Classification of Derivational Suffixes
 - 17.2.1 The Scheme of Classification
 - 17.2.2 Same-sounding Suffixes (Suffixal Homophones)
- 17.3 Derivational Suffixes of English
 - 17.3.1 Noun Suffixes: Suffixes Forming Nouns
 - 17.3.2 Adjectives Suffixes: Suffixes Forming Adjectives
 - 17.3.3 Noun/Adjective Suffixes: Suffixes Forming Words Which Can Occur as Nouns or Adjectives
 - 17.3.4 Verb Suffixes: Suffixes Forming Verbs
 - 17.3.5 Adverb Suffixes: Suffixes Forming Adverbs
- 17.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 17.5 Key Words
- 17.6 Some Useful Books
- Answers

17.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to

- describe how derivational suffixes are classified and how this classification differs from the classification of derivational prefixes,
- identify the major derivational suffixes of English and classify them according to the scheme of classification,
- distinguish suffixal homophones, and
- distinguish derivational suffixes from inflectional suffixes where they happen to be identical in form.

17.1 INTRODUCTION

In unit 12 of Block 3 and again in the preceding unit, we distinguished between two kinds of derivational affixes: prefixes and suffixes. The preceding unit was devoted to a discussion of the prefixes. In this unit, we shall discuss the process of suffixation and the major derivational suffixes of English.

Suffixation is the process by which a bound morpheme is attached after a stem. In the discussion of the inflectional morphology of English, we noted that all inflectional affixes of English were suffixes, and we discussed the various suffixes and the rules by which they were attached to words. We shall now discuss the derivational suffixes and the rules of their attachment to stems.

The distinction between inflectional and derivational affixes has been discussed earlier (See 12.2 and 16.2) and we will not repeat the discussion here. You will, however, do well to remember that derivational affixes create 'new' words from old ones by modifying their meanings in certain ways. In the preceding unit (16.2) we noted that the role of derivational *prefixes* was almost totally confined to the modification of meaning, while derivational *suffixes*, in addition to modifying the meaning of the stem, also brought about some grammatical change. For example, the addition of the derivational suffix *-er* to the word *write* changes the meaning of the word to 'one who writes professionally', or to 'one who has written a particular thing', but it also changes the verb *write* into the noun *writer*. This brings about a grammatical change, since, as a noun, *writer* must be used differently from the verb *write*. To illustrate, *writer* can be used in the plural form *writers*, but it has no past tense form, nor can it be used with an auxiliary. It has even been said that the grammatical change caused by derivational suffixes is more important than the change they cause in meaning and that, in most cases, the change in meaning can be derived from

the grammatical change. For example, whenever an adjective is changed into an abstract noun by adding the derivational suffixes *-ness* or *-ity*, the meaning change that occurs is the addition of the idea 'the quality of being'. To illustrate, *elasticity* means 'the quality of being elastic', *kindness* means 'the quality of being kind', and so on. This change in meaning follows directly as a result of turning the adjectives *elastic* and *kind* into the abstract nouns *elasticity* and *kindness*.

17.2 CLASSIFICATION OF DERIVATIONAL SUFFIXES

17.2.1 The Scheme of Classification

In the preceding unit (16.3), derivational prefixes were classified on the basis of the kinds of meaning they contributed to the word. Thus we got classes of prefixes like the negative class, the reversative and privative class, the pejorative class, etc. We also mentioned there that derivational suffixes could not be usefully classified in the same way. Three reasons were given for this: One, which we have repeated above, was that, with suffixes, change of meaning was less important than grammatical change, and, second, that suffixes did not always change the meaning in a regular way as most prefixes did. For example, the suffix *-able*, which is added to transitive verbs to produce adjectives, mostly creates a kind of meaning which can be expressed in a passive clause with *can be*, e.g., the meaning of *eatable* can be expressed as '(that which) can be eaten', of *drinkable* as '(that which) can be drunk', and so on. But there are many words with the suffix *-able* whose meaning cannot be so expressed e.g., *changeable* ('likely to change'), *fashionable* ('following the latest fashion'), *washable* ('that can be washed without damage'). Similarly, the suffix *-ful*, which is attached to nouns to produce adjectives, generally produces the meaning 'full of', as in *beautiful*, *doubtful*, etc., but in words like *restful* (as in *restful colours*), *mindful* (= 'giving attention to'), a different kind of meaning is implied. The suffix is also sometimes attached to verbs, where the meaning 'full of' is not possible at all, e.g., *forgetful*, *mournful*, *wakeful*, etc. The third reason is that suffixes add a variety of different kinds of meanings so that it is not possible to group them into a few groups like time suffixes, number suffixes, 'place suffixes' etc.

Suffixes are therefore classified on the basis of grammar. Here also we face a problem. How should we classify them grammatically? As we have stated, derivational suffixes change the part of speech of the stem, i.e., the stem belongs to one part of speech while the word that results from suffixation belongs to another part of speech (e.g., *forget* is a verb but *forgetful* is an adjective). Shall we classify the suffixes on the basis of the part of speech of the stems to which they are attached, or shall we classify them on the basis of the part of speech of the words that result from suffixation? For example, shall we call *-ness* an adjective suffix because it is attached to adjectives (e.g. *ind*, *happy*, *mean*) or shall we call it a noun suffix because the resulting words (*kindness*, *happiness*, *meanness*) are nouns?

The best classification will, of course, be one which gives us both kind... of information, viz. information regarding the part of speech of the stem and regarding the part of speech of the resulting word. The scheme of classification that we have set out below gives you both kinds of information. We first classify the suffixes on the basis of the part of speech of the word that results when they are added to a stem. Those suffixes which result in nouns are called *noun suffixes* (e.g., *-hood*, *-dom*, *-ful*, *-ism*). Those which result in verbs are called *verb suffixes* (e.g., *-en*, *-fy*, *-ize*). Those which result in adjectives are called *adjective suffixes* (e.g., *-ful*, *-ish*, *-less*, *-y*), and so on. In this way, we get the following types of suffixes:

- i) **Noun Suffixes:** Suffixes that result in nouns.
- ii) **Adjective Suffixes:** Suffixes that result in adjectives.
- iii) **Noun Adjective Suffixes:** Result in words which can be used either as nouns or as adjectives.
- iv) **Verb Suffixes:** Suffixes that result in verbs.
- v) **Adverb Suffixes:** Suffixes that result in adverbs

This step in classification gives us only one kind of information: What kind of word results from the addition of the given suffix (i.e. to what part of speech does the resulting word belong?). Now we take the second step in classification which will tell us the part of

speech of the stem to which the suffix is added. To do this we subclassify each type above into various subtypes according to the part of speech of the stem. Thus supposing we find that the stems to which (adjective) suffixes are added to derive (adjective) words belong to two parts of speech: nouns and verbs, i.e. there are some suffixes (e.g., *-less*, *-ish*, *-ful*) which are attached to noun stems, and there are other suffixes (*-able*, *-ive*) which are attached to verb stems. In both cases, the resulting words are, of course, adjectives. We shall then subclassify adjective suffixes into two subtypes: those which are attached to noun stems (to be called **Denominal Adjective Suffixes**) and those which are attached to verbs (to be called **Deverbal Adjective Suffixes**). When this step in classification is taken, we shall have both kinds of information.

Following the second step, our scheme of classification for derivational suffixes will appear as follows:

- I **Noun Suffixes:** Form nouns
 - I.A) **Denominal:** attached to noun stems
 - I.B) **Deadjectival:** attached to adjective stems
 - I.C) **Deverbal:** attached to verb stems
- II **Adjective Suffixes:** Form adjectives
 - II.A) **Denominal:** attached to noun stems
 - II.B) **Deadjectival:** attached to adjective stems
 - II.C) **Deverbal:** attached to verb stems
- III **Noun/Adjective Suffixes:** Form words which can occur either as nouns or as adjectives
 - III.A) **Denominal:** attached to noun stems
 - III.B) **Deadjectival:** attached to adjective stems
- IV **Verb Suffixes:** Form verbs
 - IV.A) **Denominal:** attached to noun stems
 - IV.B) **Deadjectival:** attached to adjective stems
- V **Adverb Suffixes:** Form adverbs
 - V.A) **Denominal:** attached to noun stems
 - V.B) **Deadjectival:** attached to adjective stems

This classification provides us with a label, or a description, for every suffix in English. For example, if we follow this scheme we will label *-ness* as a 'deadjectival noun suffix' (I.B), or a suffix which forms nouns from adjectives; the suffix *-able* will be described as a 'deverbal adjective suffix' (II.C) i.e. a suffix that forms adjectives from verbs, and so on. Some suffixes are such that they occur in more than one class. For example, the suffix *-ish* may be described either as a 'denominal adjective suffix' (II.A), since it forms adjectives from nouns (e.g., *child* > *childish*, *fool* > *foolish*), or as 'deadjectival adjective suffix' (II.B), since it forms adjectives from adjectives (e.g., *green* > *greenish*, *sweet* > *sweetish*).

Our description of the English suffixes will follow the scheme of classification set out above. Therefore study the scheme closely and make sure that you understand the meaning of all the possible labels like the two we have cited as examples.

17.2.2 Same-sounding Suffixes (or Suffixal Homophones)

In the discussion of inflectional morphology (13.3.4; 15.5.4), we saw that some inflectional suffixes have the same written and spoken forms, e.g., the plural inflection on nouns and the third person singular non-past inflection on verbs both have the forms *-s* or *-es* in writing and /s/, /z/ or /ɪz/ in speech. Similarly, some derivational suffixes, though they belong to different subtypes, have the same written and spoken shape. For example, there are two suffixes *-er¹* and *-er²*, which have different functions but the same form. *-er¹* is a 'denominal noun suffix' (I.A): it forms nouns from other nouns and contributes the meaning 'having the characteristic described by the stem', 'one who lives in', etc. e.g., *teenager*, *three-wheeler*, *villager*. *-er²* is a 'deverbal noun suffix' (I.C) which forms nouns from verbs and contributes the meaning 'one who does the activity described by the stem in a professional capacity', e.g., *singer*, *dancer*, *teacher*. Both suffixes are written as *-er* and pronounced /ə/. Such same-sounding suffixes are called **Suffixal Homophones**.

Some derivational suffixes have forms which are identical with the forms of some inflectional suffixes. For example, we saw in 15.5.1 that the inflectional suffix which expresses the progressive aspect is *-ing* / ɪŋ /, but there is a derivational suffix *-ing* which is also pronounced / ɪŋ /. This derivational suffix occurs in the word *meetings* in the following sentence:

I have to attend three *meetings* today.

That the *-ing* in *meetings* is a derivational suffix is clear from the fact that it allows an inflectional suffix (*-s*) to come after it. But in the following sentence the suffix *-ing* in *meeting* is an inflectional one, since it expresses the progressive aspect:

They are *meeting* after twenty years.

Another suffix of this kind is *-ed*, which already occurs in two functions as an inflectional suffix (*-ed¹* and *-ed²*; see 15.5.1). It also occurs as a derivational affix forming adjectives from nouns, e.g., *tired* (as in *a tired man*), *walled* (as in *the walled city*), *pointed* (as in *a pointed question*). That this is a derivational suffix can be seen from the fact that the resulting word is an adjective and can be qualified by adverbs (e.g., *a very tired person*, *a more pointed question*), while the verb *pointed* in the following sentence cannot be so qualified:

He *pointed* to the road sign.

It is important that you should be able to distinguish between the 'same' suffix occurring sometimes as an inflectional affix and sometimes as a derivational affix.

Check Your Progress 1

- 1) Give three reasons why derivational suffixes are classified on the basis of grammar and not on the basis of meaning.
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
- 2) What are the two steps in the grammatical classification of derivational suffixes?
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
- 3) Suffixes which are attached to noun stems and produce noun words are called DENOMINAL NOUN SUFFIXES in our classification. What are the following types of suffixes called?
 - i) Suffixes which are attached to noun stems and produce verbs
.....
 - ii) Suffixes which are attached to verb stems and produce nouns
.....
 - iii) Suffixes which are attached to adjective stems and produce verbs
.....
 - iv) Suffixes which are attached to verb stems and produce adjectives
.....
 - v) Suffixes which are attached to adjective stems and produce nouns
.....

vi) Suffixes which are attached to noun stems and produce adjectives.

4) The suffix *-ness* is attached mostly to adjectives and produces nouns, e.g., *sick* > *sickness*. It is therefore a 'deadjectival noun suffix'. What types of suffixes are the following?

- i) *-hood*: boy > boyhood.....
- ii) *-ee*: employ > employee.....
- iii) *-age*: cover > coverage.....
- iv) *-ity*: rapid > rapidity.....
- v) *-ly*: friend > friendly.....
- vi) *-able*: debate > debatable.....
- vii) *-ize*: legal > legalize.....
- viii) *-ly*: quiet > quietly.....
- ix) *-ment*: arrange > arrangement.....
- x) *-ous*: virtue > virtuous.....

5) We can identify at least two *-er* suffixes, two *-ing* suffixes, two *-ed* suffixes and two *-ly* suffixes in English. The suffixes may be inflectional or derivational, as follows:

- < *-er*¹ > : inflectional suffix as in big > bigger
- < *-er*² > : derivational suffix as in sing > singer
- < *-ing*¹ > : inflectional suffix in play > playing (as in *They are playing cards*)
- < *-ing*² > : derivational suffix as in draw > drawing (as in *drawings*)
- < *-ed*¹ > : inflectional suffix as cry > cried (as in *She cried*)
- < *-ed*² > : derivational suffix as invite > invited (as in *an invited guest*)
- < *-ly*¹ > : derivational suffix as in friend > friendly (as in *a friendly person*)
- < *-ly*² > : derivational suffix as in quiet > quietly (as in *He went away quietly.*)
(deadjectival adverb suffix)

Identify the type of each italicized suffix; in the following sentences; e.g., (i) is (*-er*¹):

- i) He is stronger than he looks.
- ii) The house is burning.
- iii) He loves farming.
- iv) I had a reserved seat.
- v) He is a very scholarly person.
- vi) A famous painter is visiting the campus.
- vii) It was a cowardly act.
- viii) He walked slowly into the room.
- ix) Srikant was a neglected child.
- x) The father neglected the child.

17.3 DERIVATIONAL SUFFIXES OF ENGLISH

In this section we shall describe the derivational suffixes of English following the scheme of classification we have set out in 17.1. Only the more important suffixes will be listed.

17.3.1 (I) Noun Suffixes: Suffixes Forming Nouns

These suffixes form nouns from other nouns, adjectives and verbs. We have called them *nominal*, *deadjectival* and *deverbal* suffixes respectively.

1.A) Denominal noun suffixes (forming nouns from other nouns). These suffixes are attached to noun stems and form other nouns. We can divide these suffixes into two types: those which form abstract nouns (1.A.a) and those which form concrete nouns (1.A.b).

1.A.a) Forming abstract nouns

age: Pronounced /ɪdʒ/. Attached to different types of nouns, it produces the meaning 'collection' (e.g., bag > baggage), 'state' (bond > bondage), 'fee or charge' (post > postage), etc.

-dom: / dɒm / 'Territory or domain of' as in *kingdom*; 'state or condition' as in *stardom*, *serfdom*.

-ery/-ry: / ɜəri / or / ri / 'collection', e.g., *jewellery*, *weaponry*; 'condition' e.g. *slavery*.

-ful: / fʊl / 'Quantity which fills or would fill', e.g. *glassful*, *handful*.

-hood: / hʊd / 'State or time of being', e.g., *boyhood*, *widowhood*.

-ing: / ɪŋ / 'Collection of' or 'material for', e.g., *tubing*, *shirting*; 'activity or practice of', e.g., *farming*, *advertising*.

-ism: / ɪz(ə)m / 'Attitude and behaviour of' as in *heroism*, *fanaticism*; 'beliefs, practices, etc. of' as in *Hinduism*.

-ship: / ʃɪp / 'Position, status, or office of' as in *membership*, *fellowship*, *professorship*.

(I.A.b) Forming concrete nouns

-eer: / iə / 'A person who is engaged in doing whatever is suggested by the stem', e.g., *engineer*, *mountaineer*, *profiteer*, *scrutineer*.

-er: / ə / 'Having the characteristic denoted by the stem', e.g., *teenager*, *three-wheeler*; 'one who engages in the kind of activity denoted by the stem', e.g. *gardener*, *jeweller*.

-ess: / es / Forms female personal nouns from stems denoting a profession, e.g., *actress*, *waitress*, *manageress*. Also denotes females of some species, e.g., *lioness*, *tigress*.

-let: / let / 'A small one of the kind', e.g., *booklet*, *droplet*, *starlet*.

-ling: / lɪŋ / 'A small one of the kind', e.g., *duckling*, *seedling* (= 'a young plant'); also occurs with other stems, e.g., *weakling*, *underling*.

(I.B) Deadjectival noun suffixes (forming nouns from adjectives)

-dom: / dɒm / See (I.A.a) above. This suffix also forms nouns from adjectives, e.g., *freedom*.

-er: / ə / See (I.A.b) above. Also forms nouns from adjectives, e.g., *fiveer*, *sixer*.

-hood: / hʊd / See (I.A.a) above. Also forms nouns from adjectives, e.g., *falsehood*.

-ry: / ri / Adds the meaning 'state, quality, condition, etc. of' e.g., *regularity*, *sanity* (from *sane*), *technicality*.

-ness: / nis / A very common suffix, added to every type of adjective. Forms nouns with the meaning 'state, quality condition of' in, e.g., *bitterness*, *darkness*, *idleness*, *usefulness*, *vagueness*.

-th: / θ / Occurs in some words usually with a change in the form of the stem, e.g., *broad* > *breadth*, *deep* > *depth*, *long* > *length*. The stem remains the same in *warm* > *warmth*. Is not added to any new words.

(I.C) Deverbal noun suffixes (forming nouns from verbs)

These suffixes are attached to verbs to produce nouns. They produce two types of nouns: abstract and concrete.

(I.C.a) Forming abstract nouns

-age: / ɪdʒ / See (I.A.a) above. Attached to some verbs, it produces uncountable nouns with the meaning 'result of', 'action of', etc., e.g., *breakage*, *coverage*, *seepage*, *wastage*.

-al: / əl / 'Action of', 'result of', etc., e.g., *arrival*, *refusal*, *survival*.

-ation: / 'eɪʃən / Forms nouns which refer to the state or process denoted by the verb, e.g., *alteration*, *exploration*, *starvation*. Some nouns thus produced refer to the product of the action denoted by the verb, e.g., *foundation*, *organization*. This suffix frequently occurs with verbs which have been formed by the addition of verb suffixes like *-ify*, *-ize*, and *-ate*, e.g., *justification*, *nationalization*, *meditation*.

-ment: / mənt / Form nouns with the meanings 'the act of', 'the result of', 'the state of', etc., e.g., *appointment*, *astonishment*, *development*, *equipment*.

-ure: / jə / 'The act or condition of', e.g., *failure*, *exposure*, *closure*.

(I.C.b) Forming concrete nouns

-ant: / ənt / Forms nouns which refer to persons or things that do the action denoted by the stem, e.g., *contestant*, *defendant*, *inhabitant*, *participant*, *lubricant*.

-ee: / i: /. Forms nouns referring to a person to whom the action denoted by the stem verb is done, e.g., *employee, payee, trainee*, or a person who acts in the way denoted by the stem verb, e.g., *escapee*.

-er / -or: / ə /. Forms nouns which denote a person who does the action denoted by the stem verb as a profession, (e.g., *writer, dancer*), or a person who is doing the action on a particular occasion (e.g., *diner, caller*), or a thing that is used for doing the stated action (e.g., *accelerator, silencer, screwdriver*).

17.3.2 (II) Adjective Suffixes: Suffixes Forming Adjectives

II.A) Denominal adjective suffixes (forming adjectives from nouns)

all-iall-icall: / ə l /, / ɪ ə l /, / ɪ k ə l /. Turn nouns into adjectives with no particular change in meaning, e.g., *accident > accidental, culture > cultural, education > educational*. Occur frequently with stems already bearing other suffixes, e.g., *environmental*. The spelling **-ial** generally occurs after stems which end in **-or** or in **-t** (e.g., *editor > editorial; president > presidential*), **-cal** occurs with words ending in **-y**, which replaces (e.g., *philosophy > philosophical*). Another spelling that sometimes occurs with bases ending in **-t** is **-ual** (e.g., *concept > conceptual*). The spelling is **-al** in other cases.

ed: / ɪ d /, / d /, / t /. Adds the meaning 'having', e.g., *bearded = 'having a beard', three-legged, odd-shaped*.

ful: / f ə l /. 'Full of', 'having', 'providing', etc. e.g., *beautiful, delightful, useful*.

c: / ɪ k /. 'Connected with'. e.g., *atomic, heroic, patriotic*. When the noun stem itself ends in **-ic**, as in *music*, **-al** is added to get an adjective (*musical*). However, some stems ending in **-ic** (e.g., *magic*) can be nouns or adjectives. In such cases, addition of **-al** (*magical*) gives us another adjective without any difference in meaning. But when two adjectives are formed from some other noun stems they may have different meanings, e.g., *historic vs. historical, economic vs. economical*.

ish: / ɪ ʃ /. 'Having the nature of', usually pejorative, e.g., *childish, foolish, monkeyish*; with names of countries, races, languages, 'belonging to', e.g., *Swedish, Turkish*.

less: / l ɪ s /, / l ə s /. 'Lacking' as in *childless, homeless*; 'free from' as in *painless, harmless*; 'without', e.g., *hatless*.

ly: / l ɪ /. 'Having the qualities of' as in *motherly, womanly, soldierly*, etc.

ous-ious: / ə s /, / ɪ ə s /. 'Having the nature of, or causing' as in *ceremonious, dangerous, desirous, grievous*. The spelling **-ious** occurs especially when replacing **-ion** or **-ity** in the bases, e.g., *ambition > ambitious; capacity > capacious*. With some stems the spelling that occurs is **-eous**, e.g., *courtesy > courteous, pity > piteous*.

y: / ɪ /. 'Full of', 'covered with' 'tending to', etc. e.g., *filthy, hairy, sleepy*.

II.B) Deadjectival adjective suffixes (forming adjectives from other adjectives)

ish: / ɪ ʃ / in words like *greenish, yellowish* etc. Its use with numerals with the meaning approximately, as in *eightish (=about 8 o'clock), fortyish (= about forty years of age)* also falls in this category.

II.C) Deverbal adjective suffixes (forming adjectives from verbs)

able: / ə b ə l /. Forms adjectives from transitive verbs, e.g., *attainable, bearable, controllable*, etc. The resulting adjectives can be said to have the meaning 'of the kind to which the thing described by the verb can be done', but in usage the adjectives usually display a variety of other meanings. With some verbs, **-able** occurs as suffix only if the adjective is negated by a negative prefix, e.g., we have *unbelievable* and *unthinkable* but *believable* and *thinkable* are unusual. **-able** also occurs as **-ible** and **-uble** as in *visible* and *soluble* respectively.

antl -ent: / ə n t /. Meaning, 'that which shows the state, condition, etc., described by the verb stem', e.g., *differ > different, depend > dependent, absorb > absorbent, please > pleasant*.

atory: / ə t ə r ɪ /. 'Causing the action denoted by the verb stem', e.g., *defamatory, confirmatory, affirmatory*.

ful: / f ə l /. See (I.A.a) and (II.a). With a few words **-ful** occurs with verbs to form adjectives, e.g., *forgetful, mournful, resentful*

-ive/-ative: / ɪv /, / ə t ɪ v /. Adjectives containing this suffix can be said to have the meaning 'of the kind that does the thing described by the verb', e.g., *attractive* = 'that attracts' etc., but many adjectives also display other kinds of meaning, e.g., *creative* = 'characterised by creation', *possessive* = 'having the desire to possess', *digestive*: 'helping to digest or related to digestion', etc. Some verbs take the longer suffix *-ative*, e.g., *talkative*, *affirmative*.

-less: / l ɪ s /. Is to be found only in a few established words, e.g., *countless*, *tireless*.

17.3.3 Noun/Adjective Suffixes: Suffixes Forming Words Which Can Occur as Nouns or Adjectives

The following suffixes, attached to nouns or adjectives, produce words which can be used either as nouns or as adjectives:

-ese / i:z /, e.g., *Chinese*, *Japanese*. Denote nationality, language, etc.

-ian / ɪ ə n /, e.g., *Indian*, *Russian* (nationality or language)

-ist / ɪ st /, e.g., *socialist*, *loyalist*, *violinist*, *pianist*.

17.3.4 Verb Suffixes: Suffixes Forming Verbs

(IV.A) **Denominal verb suffixes:** forming verbs from nouns

-ify/-fy: / ɪ faɪ /, / faɪ /. Produce the meanings 'to endow with', 'to put into', 'to turn into', etc. as in *beautify*, *codify*, *gasify*. The stem sometimes occurs in a reduced form as in *certify*, *identify*, *electrify*. This suffix also occurs with adjective stems. See (IV.B).

-ize: / aɪ z /. Occurs with various meanings, e.g., *crystallize* = 'to cause to form crystals', *epitomize* = 'to be an epitome', *hospitalize* = 'to put into hospital for treatment', *terrorize* = 'to fill someone with terror'. Also occurs with adjective stems. See (IV.B).

(IV.B) **Deadjectival verb suffixes:** forming verbs from adjectives

-en: / ə n /. Produces transitive verbs with the meaning 'to make.....', e.g., *shorten*, *widen*, and intransitive verbs with the meaning 'to become' as in *the fruit ripened*.

-ify / -fy: / ɪ faɪ /, / faɪ /. For example, *falsify* and *simplify*.

-ize: / aɪ z /. Examples: *civilize*, *equalize*, *modernize*, etc.

17.3.5 Adverb Suffixes : Suffixes Forming Adverbs

(V.A) **Denominal adverb suffixes:** forming adverbs from nouns

-ward/-wards: / wəd /, / wədz /. 'Towards the direction or place denoted by the noun', e.g., *homeward(s)*, *earthward(s)*. This suffix also occurs with some adverb stems, e.g., *upward(s)*, *onward(s)*, *downward(s)*.

-wise: / waɪ z /. 'In the position or direction denoted by the noun stem', e.g. *lengthwise*, *clockwise*, *crosswise*; 'in regard to or in connection with what is stated by the stem', e.g., *education-wise* (=in so far as education is concerned).

(V.B) **Deadjectival adverb suffix:** forming adverbs from adjectives

-ly: / lɪ /. A very commonly used suffix. Is freely added to adjectives to produce the meaning 'in the manner stated by the adjective', e.g., *silently* (= in a silent manner), *angrily*, *unexpectedly*, *hesitatingly*, or the meaning 'in the degree indicated by the stem', e.g., *completely*, *extremely*, *highly*.

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) Find single words with appropriate suffixes (and prefixes where required) for the following. The part of speech to which the word belongs is given in brackets:
 - i) having the qualities of a mother (adjective)

ii) the cost of having goods carried from one place to another in a cart (noun)

iii) the quality of being kind-hearted (noun)

iv) the action or waste resulting from spoiling (noun)

v) that which cannot be translated (adjective)

vi) to put into liquid form (verb)

vii) in a manner which cannot be forgiven (adverb)

viii) to make sad (verb)

ix) to make legal (verb)

x) one who absents himself from the place where he is required to be (noun)

xi) the act of refusing (noun)

xii) the act of refuting (noun)

xiii) that which cannot be refuted (adjective)

xiv) diagonally (or in the form of a cross) (adverb)

xv) in a hearty manner (adverb)

2) Starting with the root given, go through the steps indicated, adding the appropriate derivational affix at each step. Study the example:

Example: *fortunate* → negative → adverb =

Ans. *unfortunately*. (*fortunate* → *unfortunate* → *unfortunately*)

i) *central* → verb → reversative → noun =

ii) *expect* → adjective → negative → adverb =

iii) *habit* → adjective → adverb =

iv) *interest* → adjective → negative → noun =

v) *nation* → adjective → verb → noun =

vi) *order* → adjective → negative → noun =

vii) *perish* → adjective → negative =

viii) *question* → adjective → negative → adverb =

ix) *regular* → verb → noun =

x) *repair* → adjective → negative =

3) In 17.3.2, we pointed out that some nouns form two adjectives, one with the suffix *-ic*, the other with the suffix *-ical*, and that the two adjectives have different meanings. Given below are six such pairs of adjectives. Against each pair are given the meanings of the adjectives in mixed order. Relate each adjective with its correct meaning.

- i) a) classic: 1) of the highest quality
- b) classical: 2) belonging to the tradition of Latin, Greek, Sanskrit, etc.

- | | | | | |
|------|----|------------|----|--|
| ii) | a) | comical | 1) | intended to make people laugh |
| | b) | comic | 2) | odd, amusing, strange |
| iii) | a) | economic | 1) | pertaining to trade, industry, wealth, etc.
..... |
| | b) | economical | 2) | not wasteful |
| iv) | a) | electric | 1) | worked by electricity |
| | b) | electrical | 2) | concerned with electricity |
| v) | a) | historical | 1) | important in history |
| | b) | historic | 2) | connected with, or pertaining to,
history |
| vi) | a) | political | 1) | tactful |
| | b) | politic | 2) | concerning politics |

17.4 LET US SUM UP

We have made the following major points in this unit:

- i) Derivational suffixes change the part of speech of the stems to which they are attached.
- ii) Though derivational suffixes also affect the meanings of the stems, this grammatical change (i.e., the change in their part of speech) is more important than the meaning change they cause.
- iii) The meaning-changes caused by suffixes are not regular and show great diversity.
- iv) Suffixes are classified on the basis of the grammatical changes they make.
- v) This classification is made in two steps: first, all suffixes are classified on the basis of the part of speech of the word which results when they are attached to a stem, (as noun suffixes, verb suffixes, etc.); second, each suffix type thus obtained is divided into subtypes on the basis of the part of speech of the stem to which the suffix is attached. Thus all suffix-types get divided into denominal (attached to noun stems), deadjectival (attached to adjective stems), and deverbal (attached to verb stems) subtypes.
- vi) Following this scheme of classification each derivational suffix can be labelled suitably.
- vii) Some derivational suffixes which have different grammatical functions and contribute different meanings have the same spoken form. They are called *suffixal homophones*.
- viii) Some derivational suffixes are identical in form with some inflectional suffixes.
- ix) Derivational suffixes of English can be divided into following classes according to the part of speech of the words resulting from their addition: noun suffixes, adjective suffixes, noun/adjective suffixes, verb suffixes, adverb suffixes.
- x) Noun suffixes can be further subclassified into suffixes which are attached to noun stems (denominal), to adjective stems (deadjectival) and to verb stems (deverbal). Similarly, adjective suffixes can be subclassified into denominal, deadjectival and deverbal, but the other types of suffixes have only two subtypes: denominal and deadjectival.

17.5 KEY WORDS

Suffixation: The process by which a bound morpheme is attached to the end of a stem

Derivational Suffix: A derivational affix which is attached to the end of a stem

Classification of Derivational Suffixes: Putting derivational suffixes into separate classes according to their grammatical properties

Noun Suffix: A derivational suffix which results in a noun word when added to a stem

Adjective Suffix: A derivational suffix which results in an adjective word when added to a stem

Noun/Adjective Suffix: A derivational suffix which, when added to a stem, results in a word which may be used either as a noun or as an adjective

Verb Suffix: A derivational affix which, when added to a stem, results in a verb word

Adverb Suffix: A derivational suffix which, added to a stem, results in an adverb

Denominal: Derived from a noun

Deadjectival: Derived from an adjective

Deverbal: Derived from a verb

Suffixal Homophones: Two derivational suffixes with different grammatical functions and different meanings which are identical in the spoken form.

17.6 SOME USEFUL BOOKS

Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary (1987). London: Collins.

Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (1978). London: Longman.

Quirk, R. and Greenbaum, S. (1973). *A University Grammar of English (App.I)*, London: Longman.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

- 1) The three reasons are (i) the grammatical change caused by derivational suffixes is more important than the meaning change, since it changes the part of speech of the word, (ii) the meaning changes caused are irregular, and (iii) the meaning changes caused are too diverse and cannot be grouped into classes.
- 2) The first step is the classification of suffixes on the basis of the parts of speech of the words which result from their addition to stems; the second step is the subclassification of these types according to the part of speech of the stem to which the suffix is attached.
- 3)
 - i) Denominal verb suffixes
 - ii) Deverbal noun suffixes
 - iii) Deadjectival verb suffixes
 - iv) Deverbal adjective suffixes
 - v) Deadjectival noun suffixes
 - vi) Denominal adjective suffixes
- 4)
 - i) *-hood*: denominal noun suffix
 - ii) *-ee*: deverbal noun suffix
 - iii) *-age*: deverbal noun suffix
 - iv) *-ity*: deadjectival noun suffix
 - v) *-ly*: denominal adjective suffix
 - vi) *-able*: deverbal adjective suffix
 - vii) *-ize*: deadjectival verb suffix
 - viii) *-ly*: deadjectival adverb suffix
 - ix) *-ment*: deverbal noun suffix
 - x) *-ous*: denominal adjective suffix
- 5)
 - i) stronger: < -er¹ >
 - ii) burning: < -ing¹ >
 - iii) farming: < -ing² >
 - iv) reserved: < -ed² >
 - v) scholarly: < -ly¹ >
 - vi) painter: < -er² >
 - vii) cowardly: < -ly¹ >
 - viii) walked: < -ed¹ >
 - slowly: < -ly² >
 - ix) neglected: < -ed² >
 - x) neglected: < -ed¹ >

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) i) motherly ii) cartage iii) kind-heartedness iv) spoilage v) untranslatable vi) liquefy
vii) unforgivably viii) sadden ix) legalize x) absentee xi) refusal xii) refutation
xiii) irrefutable xiv) cross-wise xv) heartily
- 2) i) decentralization ii) unexpectedly iii) habitually iv) disinterestedness
v) nationalization vi) disorderliness vii) non-perishable viii) unquestionably
ix) regularization x) irreparable
- 3) i) a: 1, b: 2 ii) a: 2, b: 1 iii) a: 1, b: 2 iv) a: 1, b: 2 v) a: 2, b: 1 vi) a: 2, b: 1

UNIT 18 DERIVATIONAL MORPHOLOGY-3

- 18.0 Objectives
- 18.1 Introduction
- 18.2 The Nature of Conversion
 - 18.2.1 Conversion and Derivation
 - 18.2.2 Conversion and Suffixation
 - 18.2.3 Full and Partial Conversion
 - 18.2.4 Conversion with Formal Modification
- 18.3 Types of Conversion: Classification and Description
 - 18.3.1 Classification
 - 18.3.2 Direction of Conversion
 - 18.3.3 Description
- 18.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 18.5 Key Words
- 18.6 Some Useful Books
- Answers

18.0 OBJECTIVES

Our objective in this unit is to enable you to

- recognize conversion as a process of word formation,
- recognize the similarities between conversion and derivation, and conversion and suffixation,
- distinguish full conversion, partial conversion, and conversion with formal modification,
- recognize the direction of conversion, and
- classify cases of conversion according to the part of speech of the resulting word and the base.

18.1 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 12 (Section 12.4), we described CONVERSION as the process by which 'new' words (or stems) are created without the addition of an affix. We cited examples of words like *carpet*, *stone*, *table*, *attack*, *help*, *laugh*, etc., which can be used as nouns as well as verbs without any change of form. Rather than considering them as belonging simultaneously to the two classes of nouns and verbs, we decided to consider some of them as being basically nouns which are 'converted' to verbs, and others as basically verbs which are 'converted' to nouns. We then also gave some criteria for basic nouns and basic verbs.

In this unit, we shall consider conversion in greater detail. We shall be concerned mainly with the following topics:

- i) The nature of conversion: conversion and derivation; conversion and suffixation; full and partial conversion; conversion with formal modification
- ii) Types of conversion in English: classification and description

18.2 THE NATURE OF CONVERSION

18.2.1 Conversion and Derivation

The first thing to note about conversion is that it is a process of derivation, though it does not add any derivational affixes. If you go through the list of characteristics that

distinguish derivational affixes from inflectional affixes (see 16.7) and examine cases of conversion in their light, you will notice the obvious similarities:

- i) Conversion, like derivation, creates 'new' words and enlarges the lexical choice of the user. Some new words in English created in this way are the verbs *beggar*, *people* and *police* in the following sentences. They have been 'converted' from the corresponding nouns:

The economic policies of the government have *beggared* the small farmers.

The island is *peopled* by pygmies.

The city was *policed* by the army.

Sometimes, you may find a speaker using totally new nouns as verbs (e.g., when one speaks about *garaging* a car).

- ii) Such words are treated as independent words and are listed separately in dictionaries. For example, the verbs *beggar*, *people* and *police* will be found listed separately from the corresponding nouns in a dictionary.
- iii) Whenever a word is 'converted' from one part of speech to another, its meaning undergoes some change, but the change is not regular. Different cases show different kinds of meaning change. For example, the verb *beggar* means something like 'to make into a beggar', but the verb *people* means 'to fill with people' while the verb *police* means 'to control a place in the way police do'. Nouns converted from verbs show other kinds of meaning change, e.g., the noun *cheat* means 'one who cheats', the noun *desire* means 'the state of desiring', the nouns *walk* means 'the manner of walking', and so on.
- iv) Conversion changes the part of speech of the 'stem'. (Since no suffix is added, it may be more appropriate to speak of a 'base' rather than a 'stem'.)
- v) A word which has been converted from another word can take derivational affixes appropriate to its new class, e.g., *bottle* (n.) > *bottle*(v.) > *bottle*. Similarly, a word with a derivational affix can undergo conversion, e.g., *beg*(v.) > *beggar*(n.) > *to beggar*(v.). This shows how similar the two processes, derivation and conversion, are.
- vi) A word cannot undergo conversion after an inflectional suffix has been added to it, but, as we stated in (v.), it can still undergo conversion if it has a derivational suffix.

These features are sufficient to show the similarity between conversion and derivation. The only difference between them seems to be that while in derivation an affix (prefix or suffix) is added to the stem, no such thing takes place in conversion. In the terminology that we have used before (see 12.5: 'zero allomorph'), we may say that conversion is derivation with a 'zero' affix.

18.2.2 Conversion and Suffixation

In the preceding section, we have shown that conversion is like derivation. In this section, we will be more specific and will try to show that conversion is more like derivational suffixation than like derivational prefixation.

In 16.2, we described the differences between derivational prefixes and suffixes. We stated that they affected the stems in different ways: prefixes mainly affected their meaning but left their grammar practically untouched; suffixes affected their grammar but had little effect on meaning. By 'affecting the grammar of stems' we meant 'changing their part of speech', which leads to changes in the way they are used. We found that while the great majority of prefixes did not change the part of speech of the stem, suffixes invariably did.

In this respect (i.e. in respect to their effect on stems), conversion is like suffixation. The term 'conversion' denotes the converting of the base from one part of speech to another. Thus nouns are changed into verbs and adjectives, adjectives are changed into nouns and verbs, verbs are changed into nouns and adjectives, and so on. The consequences of such change are very important, since the resulting words must be used very differently from the bases. As compared to this change, the changes in meaning are less important and can mostly be predicted from the change in grammar. For example, if a word is changed from verb to noun, we can be confident that the resulting noun will either denote the state or the activity described by the verb, or denote the agent, the object, the manner, the place or the instrument of the action denoted by the verb (see 18.3.3 (IA) below). Similarly, if a noun is turned into a verb, the meaning elements 'to put into', 'to provide with', 'to make

into', 'to go by', etc. may be added to the meaning of the base noun (see 18.3.3 (II.A) below). You will recall that in Section 17.2.1, we used this as one of the arguments to classify suffixes on the basis of grammar, while we had earlier classified prefixes on the basis of meaning. Conversion is similar to suffixation in this respect, and conversion cases should also therefore be classified on the basis of grammar. The difference, once again, is only that no suffixes are added in the case of conversion, or, to use our earlier terminology, it is zero suffix which is added. Accordingly, we may define conversion more precisely as 'derivation with a zero *suffix*' (instead of as 'derivation with a zero *affix*').

The only place where conversion takes place with the help of a non-zero affix is in the case of 'conversion prefixes' (See 16.3.9). This is a small group of prefixes which, unlike the majority of prefixes, affect the grammar of the stem, changing its part of speech. These prefixes behave more like suffixes and like cases of conversion; this is the reason why we have called them **conversion prefixes**.

18.2.3 Full and Partial Conversion

Look at the following examples of conversion:

He is an *intellectual* person > He is an *intellectual*. (Adj. > Noun)

He is *progressive* in his thinking > He is a *progressive*. (Adj. > Noun)

In both these sentences, an adjective has been converted into a noun. 'Intellectual' and 'progressive' are originally adjectives, which modify nouns (i.e. describe the qualities of the person, things, etc. denoted by the noun), but in the latter sentences, they have been turned into nouns. One sign of their use as nouns is that they have been used with the determiners *an* and *a* respectively. We can cite other uses of these words to show that they are *full* nouns, e.g., they can be inflected for plural number (They are *intellectuals/progressives*), for possessive case (an *intellectual's* / a *progressive's* reaction), and we can modify them with adjective, (e.g., a well-known *intellectual/progressive*).

When a word belonging to one part of speech is converted into another word in such a way that it shows all the characteristics of another part of speech, we call it a case of **FULL CONVERSION**. The nouns *intellectual* and *progressive* represent cases of full conversion, since they show all the characteristics of nouns.

PARTIAL CONVERSION occurs when a word does not show all the characteristics of the part of speech to which it belongs after conversion. For example, the words *poor* and *rich*, which are originally adjectives, are used as nouns in the following sentence:

The poor are getting poorer, *the rich* richer.

'Poor' and 'rich', however, do not show all the characteristics of nouns: first, they can only be used with the determiner *the*, which must occur; secondly, they only have a plural reference and there is no singular form; thirdly, unlike full nouns, they can still be inflected for degree, e.g., *the poorer*, *the richer*, etc. They are therefore treated as cases of partial conversion.

In our account of conversion we shall be concerned only with cases of full conversion.

18.2.4 Conversion with Formal Modification

In 12.5, we discussed some cases in which the stem assumes a different form when an suffix is added to it, e.g., the stem / haʊs / assumes the form / haʊz / when the plural suffix / ɪz / is added to it. We called the form / haʊz / an allomorph of the morpheme < haʊs > which occurs when the plural suffix is added.

When the noun *house* is changed to the verb *to house*, we find the same change occurring again: the noun *house* is pronounced / haʊs /, the verb (*to*) *house* is pronounced / haʊz /. If we looked only at the written form, we might consider it to be a pure case of conversion, since there is no change in spelling: the change of the final sound is not reflected in spelling. However, there are other words which show the change in pronunciation as well as in spelling, e.g., *advice*(n.) / ə d'vaɪ s / and *advise*(v.) / ə d'vaɪ z /, *use*(n.) / ju:s / and *use*(v.) / ju:z /, *belief*(n.) / bɪ'li:f / and *believe*(v.) / bɪ'li:v /, *half*(n.) / hɑ:f / and *halve*(v.) / hɑ:v /.

The formal changes (changes in pronunciation and spelling) that these words show when they change their part of speech are so minor and so regular that we may include these words also among cases of conversion. Generally, the change in pronunciation consists in turning the final voiceless consonant into the corresponding voiced one (/s/ > /z/, /f/ > /v/, /θ/ > /ð/), and the change in spelling, when it occurs, reflects this change. Some other words show different kinds of changes in the sounds, sometimes accompanied by a change in the position of the stress. Look at the following examples:

- conduct (v.) / kən'dʌkt / > conduct (n.) / 'kɒndʌkt /
- conflict (v.) / kən'flɪkt / > conflict (n.) / 'kɒnflɪkt /
- convert (v.) / kən'vɜ:t / > convert (n.) / 'kɒnvɜ:t /
- discount (v.) / dɪs'kaʊnt / > discount (n.) / 'dɪskaʊnt /
- extract (v.) / ɪk'strækt / > extract (n.) / 'ekstrækt /
- insult (v.) / ɪn'sʌlt / > insult (n.) / 'ɪnsʌlt /
- permit (v.) / pə'mɪt / > permit (n.) / 'pɜ:mɪt /
- transfer (v.) / træn'sfɜ: / > transfer (n.) / 'trænsfɜ: /

All the above cases show the stress on the second syllable in verbs but on the first syllable in nouns. In some cases there is also a change in a vowel sound (e.g., in *conduct*, *conflict*, *extract*, etc.). There is, however, no addition of a suffix either in the noun or in the verb. We can therefore treat them as cases of conversion with modification of form.

Check Your Progress 1

1) Mark the following statements True or False:

- i) Conversion, like derivation, is a process of word-formation.
.....
- ii) Conversion does not affect the meaning of the base.
.....
- iii) If a derivational affix has been added to a base, it cannot undergo conversion.
.....
- iv) Conversion changes the part of speech of the base.
.....
- v) If an inflectional suffix has already been added to a base, it cannot undergo conversion.
.....
- vi) Conversion is more like derivational suffixation than derivational prefixation.
.....
- vii) Conversion always changes the form of the base.
.....
- viii) Conversion means a change in the part of speech of the base without the addition of an affix.
.....
- ix) Some cases of conversion may show a change in pronunciation and spelling.
.....
- x) Those cases of conversion which do not show any change in pronunciation and spelling are said to be cases of 'full conversion'.
.....

2) Fill in the blanks in the following sentences:

- i) Conversion may be said to be derivation with a
- ii) When a converted word shows all the characteristics of its new part of speech, it is said to be a case of
- iii) When a converted word shows only a few characteristics of its new part of speech, it is said to be a case of
- iv) Conversion is more like suffixation than prefixation, because, like suffixation, it

v) *Extract* (v.) > *extract* (n.) is a case of conversion with

3) Study how the underlined words are used in the following sentences. Then say

I) whether they are cases of conversion or not;

II) if they are cases of conversion, say (a) whether they are cases of 'full conversion' or 'partial conversion', and (b) whether conversion is accompanied by formal modification or not.

i) He apologized for his late *arrival*.

ii) Be careful when you approach the *bend* on the road.

iii) He is a *criminal*.

iv) It is my *wish* that you should all stay together.

v) The *old* must help and guide the *young*.

vi) He was asked to improve his *conduct*.

vii) We *motored* down to Lucknow.

viii) They *partitioned* the room.

ix) You need a work *permit* to go to Dubai.

x) I'll *mail* it to you next week.

18.3 TYPES OF CONVERSION: CLASSIFICATION AND DESCRIPTION

18.3.1 Classification

In 18.2.2 we stated that conversion, like suffixation, affects the grammar of the base by changing its part of speech and that, therefore, cases of conversion should also be classified on the basis of grammar. You will recall (from Section 17.2.1) that we classified cases of suffixation on the basis of the part of speech of both the word and the stem. In this way, we could divide suffixes into noun suffixes, verb suffixes, adjective suffixes, etc., and subdivide each type further into denominal, deverbal, deadjective, etc. depending on the part of speech of the stem.

Since there are no suffixes in conversion, how shall we classify cases of conversion? Obviously, the only way of classifying cases of conversion grammatically is to note the part of the speech of the base and the part of speech of the word resulting from conversion. In this way, we will be able to put cases of conversion into different classes like the following: conversion from noun to verb; from verb to noun, from adjective to noun, from noun to adjective, etc.

To make our classification more systematic, however, we shall follow the two-step pattern of classification that we followed with cases of suffixation. We shall first divide all cases of conversion according to the part of speech of the word which results from conversion. We shall thus find the following major types of conversion:

- I) Conversion to noun
- II) Conversion to verb
- III) Conversion to adjective

We shall then take the second step in classification and subdivide each type of conversion (I, II and III) according to the part of speech of the base (i.e. the word which undergoes conversion). Thus, the word which is converted to noun (i.e. the base) may be a verb or it may be an adjective. Following our terminology, we shall call such case **deverbal nouns** and **deadjectival nouns** respectively. This second step of classification produces the following scheme of classification:

- I) Conversion to noun
 - I.A) from verb base: deverbal
 - I.B) from adjective base: deadjectival
 - I.C) from other bases
- II) Conversion to verb
 - II.A) from noun base: denominal
 - II.B) from adjective base: deadjectival
 - II.C) from other bases
- III) Conversion to adjective
 - III.A) from noun base: denominal
 - III.B) from verb base: deverbal
 - III.C) from other bases

18.3.2 Direction of Conversion

Look at the following examples of conversion:

Be careful when you approach the *bend* on the road.
I'll *grease* the joints after you have cleaned them.

It is not difficult to make out that the italicized words are cases of conversion. There are two words *bend*, one a noun and the other a verb, hence one of them must be the base and the other a result of conversion. Similarly, there are two words *grease*, one a noun and the other a verb. In this case too, one must be the base and the other a converted form, since they belong to different parts of speech.

The important question is: How do we decide which one of the two words in each case is the base and which the converted form? The question is important since unless we answer it, we cannot classify the cases. For example, is the noun *bend* the base, or is it a result of conversion? If it is the base, the verb *bend* belongs to type (II.A), i.e. it is a denominal verb; if, on the other hand, it is the result of conversion, then the verb *bend* is the base, and the noun *bend* belongs to type (I.A), i.e. it is a deverbal noun.

In Section 12.4, we introduced some criteria precisely for deciding this issue. The criteria we introduced were the following:

- i) The criterion of meaning: We know that nouns are names of objects and persons and things, that verbs denote actions and that adjectives denote qualities. Every word belonging to any of these categories can be identified to some extent with the help of its meaning. The word may later be converted into another part of speech with a slight change of meaning. If we can identify the *primary* meaning of the word, we can identify it as the base. For example, 'bend' primarily denotes an action: the meaning of *bend* in 'bend on the road' is derived from the verb *bend*. Hence the verb is the base, and the noun is a result of conversion. Therefore the noun *bend* is a **deverbal noun**. Similarly, we can identify the verb *grease* (in the second sentence above) as a result of conversion from the noun *grease*, since the primary meaning of *grease* refers to an object. The verb *grease* is a **denominal verb** meaning 'to apply grease'.
- ii) The criterion of form: Some words contain prefixes or suffixes which identify them as belonging to a particular part of speech, e.g., the prefix *re-* occurs typically with verbs with the meaning 'to do the thing denoted by the verb again', e.g., *rebuild*, *reuse*, *refill*, etc. When some of these verbs are converted into nouns (e.g., *refill*, *re-run*, etc.), the verb prefix helps us to identify the verb as the base. Similarly there are some suffixes which occur only with nouns, e.g., *-ion*, *-tion*. When words containing such suffixes occur as verbs (e.g., *to vacation*, *to position*, *to commission*), we can

naturally conclude that they have been converted from nouns. A similar statement can be made about words containing the adjective suffix *-y* (as in *dirty, filthy, watery, sandy, empty*) when some of them are used as verbs (e.g., *Don't dirty the floor*).

- iii) The criterion of history: As we stated in 12.4, this criterion is unreliable and we shall therefore not discuss it further.

18.3.3. Description

The criteria of meaning and form enable us to fix the direction of conversion in most cases. We can, therefore, now proceed to describe the cases of conversion in English according to the scheme of classification suggested in 18.3.1.

D) Conversion to noun

I.A) From verb bases (Deverbal nouns)

When verbs are converted into nouns, various kinds of meaning changes take place. The noun may express any of the following meanings:

- a) Agent of the action denoted by the verb, e.g., *cheat, rebel, spy* (in the context 'He is a')
- b) Object of the action denoted by the verb, e.g., *catch* and *find* in the following sentences:
 We went fishing and made a good *catch* (= amount of something caught).
 That was a real *find* (= something important that is discovered).
- c) A single instance of the event or activity resulting from the action denoted by the verb, e.g., *attack, attempt, collapse, cry, fall, hit, laugh, look, murder, search*, etc., as in *They launched an attack, He gave a laugh*, etc.
- d) Instrument used for the action denoted by the verb e.g., *cover, lift, wrench*:
 Where is the *cover* of this typewriter (= with which to cover)?
 Use the *lift* (= with which to lift someone or something)!
 Where is the shoe *polish* (= with which to polish shoes)?
- e) Feeling, emotion, state of mind, etc. expressed by the action denoted by the verb, e.g., *desire, dislike, doubt, love, need, taste*, etc.
- f) place of the action denoted by the verb, e.g. *dump* (where garbage etc. is dumped), *retreat* (where one retreats), etc.

I.B) From adjective bases (Deadjectival nouns)

Almost any adjective may take the definite article and function like a plural noun (e.g., *the poor, the rich*), but such cases do not show all the properties of nouns and we have therefore treated them as cases of partial conversion (see 18.2.3).

Some nouns derived from adjectives, however, show all the characteristics of nouns and therefore are treated as cases of full conversion. They can not only be used as subjects, objects, etc., but can also be inflected for number and case and can be modified by adjectives. There are two main types:

- a) Words like *criminal, intellectual, natural, noble, progressive* etc. as in *He's a natural for this game. The queen was dethroned by her own nobles*.
- b) Words like *daily, weekly, monthly, annual*, etc. usually when they refer to newspapers and magazines. These 'nouns' are derived by shortening an adjective + noun phrase (e.g., *a weekly magazine*) and are therefore sometimes not treated as cases of conversion but as cases of shortening.

I.C) From other bases

Nouns are sometimes also derived from particles, auxiliaries, conjunctions, affixes and whole phrases, e.g.,

Particles: the *ups* and *downs* of life

Auxiliaries: This is a *must*.

Conjunctions: *ifs* and *buts*....

Affixes: Socialism, communism and the other *isms* of the modern world....

Phrases: Also *rans*; a *has-been*; *high-ups*; *know-how*, etc.

II) Conversion to verb

II.A) From noun bases (Denominal verbs)

Verbs which are converted from nouns convey various kinds of meanings which can be expressed in another way by using the noun. For example, the verb *to fish*, which is derived from the noun *fish*, conveys the meaning which can be expressed as *to catch fish*. Sometimes meanings of a whole set of verbs can be expressed in ways which are identical, e.g., the meanings of the verbs *captain*, *father*, *pilot*, *tailor*, *tutor*, *umpire*, etc. can all be expressed as 'to take on the role denoted by the noun', as the following illustrative examples will show:

Who will *captain* the team?
 He *tutors* the students in physics and maths.
 He *piloted* the plane in a most skilful manner.
 He *umpires* all the local matches.

Here are a few other sets of verbs whose meanings can be specified in this way.

- a) *Campaign*, *motion*, *orbit*, *parade*, *queue*, etc. meaning 'to perform the action implied in the noun', e.g., We *queued* up for the medical examination (= formed a queue).
 The spaceship *orbited* the earth (= moved in an orbit).
- b) *Bottle*, *can*, *catalogue*, *floor*, *ground*, *land*, *list*, *pocket*, *table*, etc. meaning 'to put, or to be, in/on the place, container, etc. denoted by the noun', e.g.,
 He *pocketed* all the money (= put in his *pocket*).
 She *catalogued* the books (= put into the *catalogue*).
- c) *Brake*, *cart*, *hammer*, *mirror*, *nail*, *screw*, *x-ray*, *knife*, *stone*, etc. meaning 'to perform an action by means of what the noun denotes', e.g.,
 He *carted* the goods away.
 He *nailed* the notice to the post.
- d) *Butter*, *grease*, *mask*, *plaster*, *powder*, *salt*, *wax*, etc. meaning 'to provide with, apply, etc. the substance denoted by the noun', e.g.,
 Let me *butter* the toast.
 She has *waxed* the floor.
- e) *Bud*, *flower*, *seed*, *joke*, *echo*, *steam*, *coin*, *tunnel*, etc. meaning 'to produce or make the thing denoted by the noun', e.g.,
 Plants *bud* in spring.
 They *tunnelled* through the mountain to reach the other side.

There are many other groups of words with meanings like 'to change into the thing denoted by the noun' (e.g., *cash*, *cripple*, *group*), 'to remove the object denoted by the noun from someone or something' (e.g., *dust*, *milk heel*, *skin*), 'to send or go by the means of communication denoted by the noun' (e.g., *mail*, *ship*, *bicycle*, *boat*, *motor*), and so on.

II.B) From adjective bases (Deadjectival verbs)

We can distinguish two main types of deadjectival verbs, intransitive and transitive respectively:

- a) Intransitive verbs with the meaning 'to be or become, the quality, denoted by the adjective', e.g., *bald*, *dry*, *empty*, *narrow*, *slim*, *sour*. Examples of their use are:
 I am *balding* (= becoming bald) fast.
 The road *narrows* (= becomes narrow) at that point.
- b) Transitive verbs with the meaning 'to cause someone or something to be or become the quality denoted by the adjective' e.g.,
 Do not *dirty* the floor (= make *dirty*).
 He *humbled* the enemy (= made him *humble*).

Other verbs of this type are *dry*, *free smooth*, *still*, etc.

II.C) From other bases

A few verbs are also produced by converting adverbs, particles and interjections, e.g.,

- a) *from adverbs*: *to near*, *to further* in the sentences:
 As we *neared* the city, we could see smoke rising.
 His aim is *to further* his own interests.

- b) *from particles*: *up, off, down*, etc. are often used as verbs in informal speech, e.g.,
 He *upped* and left (= got up suddenly).
 The workers *downed* their tools (= put down).
- c) *from interjections*: *Hurrah! Shoo!* etc. may sometimes be used as verbs, e.g., *He shooed* the dog away.

III) Conversion to adjective

III.A) From noun bases (Denominal adjectives)

The number of adjectives derived from nouns is rather small. This may be due to the fact that nouns can often be used in an adjective function while still remaining nouns. For example, they are often placed before nouns in the modifying function (e.g., a *brick* house, a *gold* chain); they can also occur after the verbs like adjectives e.g., *It's a beauty* instead of *It's beautiful*, *He's a fool* instead of *He's foolish*). However, very few nouns are such that they can occur both *before* a noun and *after* a verb. For example, we can say *a paper cup* but not **This cup is paper*; similarly, we can say *Naresh is a fool* but we cannot say **fool Naresh*. If we do come across a noun which can occur in both these positions, we can regard it as a denominal adjective. Here are some examples:

- a *brick* house > The house is *brick*.
 the *head* teacher > This teacher is *head*.
 a *concrete* floor > The floor is *concrete*.

III.B) From verb bases (Deverbal adjectives)

There are no pure cases of conversion from verb to adjective. In 16.3.9, we noted cases of 'conversion prefixes' which included the prefix *a-* in words like *asleep, afloat, aglow*, etc. These are commonly regarded as adjectives derived from verbs. Some pairs of verbs and adjectives related by formal modification (18.2.4) also exist e.g., *frequent* / 'fri:kwənt / (adj.) and *frequent* / frɪ'kwent / (v.) *perfect* / 'pɜːfɪkt / (adj.) and *perfect* / pə'fekt / (v.), but they are treated as cases of adjective to verb conversion and not the other way round.

Check Your Progress 2

- What are the two steps in the classification of conversion cases? Choose the answer which gives the correct steps in the correct order:
 - First step: classification on the basis of meaning
 Second step: classification on the basis of grammar
 - First step: classification on the basis of grammar
 Second step: classification on the basis of meaning
 - First step: classification on the basis of the part of speech of the word resulting from conversion
 Second step: classification on the basis of the part of speech of the base
 - First step: classification on the basis of the part of speech of the base
 Second step: classification on the basis of the part of speech of the word resulting from conversion
- Indicate the direction of conversion in the following cases. State the criterion used:

approach (N & V), arm (N & V), capture (N & V),
 classic (Adj. & N), climb (N & V),
 dirty (Adj. & V), function (N & V),
 intellectual (Adj. & N), petition (N & V),
 remake (N & V), shoulder (N & V), visit (N & V),
 walk (N & V), weary (Adj. & V),
 wing (N & V)
- Label the following words according to their category of classification. For example, (i) is a *denominal verb*:

VERBS:
 (i) pilot

(ii) crowd

(iii) sour

(iv) blind

NOUNS:

(v) spy

(vi) noble

(vii) cry

(viii) daily

4) Indicate the part of speech of the italicized word(s) in each sentence. Then indicate the part of speech of the base from which it has been converted:

i) He *elbowed* me out of the way.

ii) He was *eyeing* her with curiosity.

iii) Let her have her *say*.

iv) You gave me a *scare*.

v) She won't have icecream. She is trying to *slim*.

vi) I *slaved* through the week to finish the *work* on time.

vii) Have another *try*!

viii) When the time came to make the *plunge*, he *shied* away.

ix) The DMS has *upped* the price of milk again.

x) I'm feeling a bit *down* today.

18.4 LET US SUM UP

have made the following major points in this unit:

Conversion is a method of forming new words.

- ii) Conversion creates a 'new' word by changing the part of speech of the word but without adding any suffix to it.
- iii) Conversion shows many similarities with derivation and may be described as a kind of derivation: (a) Both produce 'new' words which are listed in the dictionary separately from the bases. (b) In both types, there is some meaning change, but the change is irregular. (c) Like most cases of derivation, particularly suffixation, conversion changes the part of speech of the base. (d) A word which has undergone conversion is like a word which contains a derivational affix: both of them can take an additional derivational affix. (e) Neither conversion nor derivation is possible, if an inflectional suffix has been added.
- iv) Conversion is more like suffixation than like prefixation. Like suffixation, conversion changes the part of speech of the base, but does not affect its meaning very significantly.
- v) Since conversion is similar to derivational suffixation in every respect except that it does not add a suffix, it has been called 'derivation with a zero suffix'.
- vi) Conversion is of two kinds: full and partial. When a converted word shows all or most of the properties of the part of speech to which it belongs, it is said to be a case of full conversion; otherwise it is a case of partial conversion.
- vii) Some cases of conversion undergo modification in pronunciation or spelling, or both. These are not pure cases of conversion.
- viii) Cases of conversion are classified on the basis of grammar. As in the case of suffixation, a two-step classification is used: first, the word is classified on the basis of the part of speech of the word resulting from conversion and, second, it is subclassified on the basis of the part of speech of the base.
- ix) Which is the base and which is the word resulting from conversion (i.e. the direction of conversion) is decided on the basis of two criteria: the criterion of meaning and the criterion of form.
- x) The cases of conversion are divided into three classes according to the part of speech of the word resulting from conversion, viz. conversion to noun, conversion to verb, and conversion to adjective. Each class is further subdivided into three classes according to the part of speech of the base. Conversion to noun may be from verb bases or adjective bases; conversion to verb from noun or adjective bases, conversion to adjective from verb or noun bases. In addition, a few conversions of each type may be from some other bases.

18.5 KEY WORDS

Conversion: A process of derivation by which 'new' words are created without the addition of an affix

Base: The word which undergoes conversion

Direction of Conversion: Deciding which of the two words, identical in form, is the base and which the result of conversion, and the parts of speech to which they respectively belong

Full Conversion: The type of conversion in which the resulting word shows all or most of the characteristics of the part of speech to which it belongs

Partial Conversion: The type of conversion in which the resulting word shows only a few characteristics of the part of speech to which it belongs

Conversion with Formal Modification: Cases of conversion in which the base and the resulting word show some differences in the pronunciation of certain sounds, stress, or spelling

Classification of Conversion Cases: Putting the cases of conversion into different classes according to the part of speech of the resulting word and the base

Conversion to Noun: Where the word resulting from conversion is a noun

Conversion to Verb/Adjective: Where the word resulting from conversion is a verb/an adjective respectively

Deadjectival: Derived from an adjective base

Denominal: Derived from a noun base

Deverbal: Derived from a verb base

18.6 SOME USEFUL BOOKS

Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary (1987), London: Collins.

Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (1978), London: Longman.

Quirk R. and Greenbaum, S. (1973) *A University Grammar of English* (App. I), London: Longman.

ANSWERS

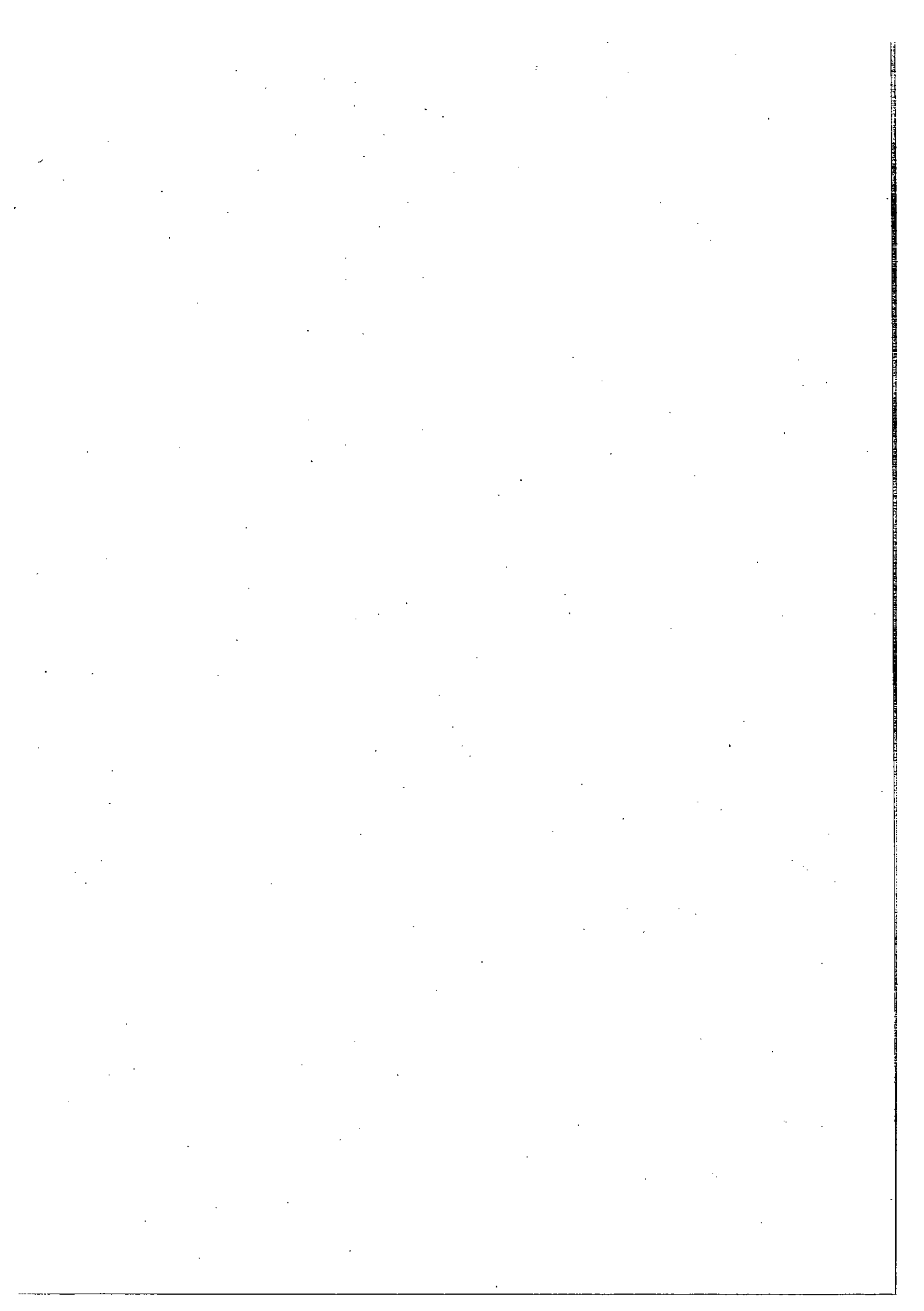
Check Your Progress 1

- 1) i) True ii) False iii) False iv) True v) True vi) True vii) False viii) True ix) True x) False
- 2) i) zero suffix ii) full conversion iii) partial conversion iv) changes the part of speech of the stem or base v) formal modification
- 3) i) *Arrival*: Not a case of conversion ii) *bend*: A case of full conversion without formal modification iii) *criminal*: Like *bend* iv) *wish*: Like *bend* v) *The old ...the young*: Both cases of partial conversion without formal modification vi) *conduct*: A case of full conversion with formal modification vii) *motored*: A case of full conversion without formal modification viii) *partitioned*: Like *motored* ix) *permit*: A case of full conversion with formal modification x) *mail*: A case of full conversion without formal modification

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) c)
- 2) *approach*: V > N (Primary meaning: action; hence verb base)
arm: N > V (Primary meaning: thing, hence noun base)
capture: N > V (Noun ending *-ure* identifies the base as a noun)
classic: Adj. > N (Adjective ending *-ic* identifies the base as an adjective)
climb: V > N (Primary meaning: action)
dirty: Adj. > N (Adjective ending *-y* identifies the base as an adjective)
function: N > V (Noun ending *-ion* identifies the base as a noun)
intellectual: Adj. > N (Adjective ending *-ual* identifies the base as an adjective)
petition: N > V (Noun ending *-ion* identifies the base as a noun)
remake: V > N (Verb prefix *re-* identifies the base as a verb)
shoulder: N > V (Primary meaning: thing or object)
visit: V > N (Primary meaning: action)
walk: V > N (Primary meaning: action)
weary: Adj > V (Adjective ending *-y* identifies the base as an adjective)
wing: N > V (Primary meaning: thing)
- 3) i) pilot : denominal verb
 ii) crowd : denominal verb
 iii) sour : deadjectival verb
 iv) blind : deadjectival verb
 v) spy : deverbal noun
 vi) noble : deadjectival noun
 vii) cry : deverbal noun
 viii) daily : deadjectival noun

- 4) i) *elbowed* Verb, from noun base
ii) *eyeing* Verb, from noun base
iii) *say* Noun, from verb base
iv) *scare* Noun, from verb base
v) *slim* Verb, from adjective base
vi) *slaved* Verb, from noun base; work: noun, from verb base
vii) *try* Noun, from verb base
viii) *plunge* Noun, from verb base; *shied*: verb, from adjective base
ix) *upped* Verb, from adverb base
x) *down* Adjective, from adverb base



UNIT 19 WORD COMPOUNDING - 1

- 19.0 Objectives
- 19.1 Introduction
- 19.2 Criteria for Compounds
 - 19.2.1 The Grammatical Criterion
 - 19.2.2 The Phonological Criterion
 - 19.2.3 The Meaning Criterion
 - 19.2.4 Applying the Criteria
 - 19.2.5 Some Other Considerations
- 19.3 Classification of Compounds
- 19.4 Some Minor Compound Types
 - 19.4.1 The Coordinate (*dvandva*) Compound
 - 19.4.2 The Combining-form Compound
 - 19.4.3 The Reduplicative Compound
 - 19.4.4 The Phrase Compound
- 19.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 19.6 Key Words
- 19.7 Some Useful Books
- Answers

19.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to

- distinguish compounding as a process of word-formation distinct from prefixation, suffixation, etc.,
- apply the grammatical, phonological and meaning criteria of compounds in such a way as to
 - identify compounds and distinguish them from word combinations which are not compounds,
 - distinguish the major compound types: exocentric, endocentric and appositional,
 - classify compounds on a grammatical basis, and recognize the minor compound types: coordinate combining-form, reduplicative and phrase compounds.

19.1 INTRODUCTION

In 12.3 we described a compound as a word which is made up wholly of two or more parts which can also occur independently as words. Compounding can accordingly be described as the process by which (usually two but sometimes more) words are combined to form another word. Therefore, like derivation, compounding too is a process of word-formation. The words which result from compounding are 'new' words: not only are they listed separately in the dictionary, like other words they also take inflectional and derivational affixes, and have independent meanings. In every respect they behave as independent words and not merely as combinations of other words. When two words are combined to form a compound, they lose their independent entities and become parts of the new word. The new word functions as a single word, even if sometimes it is written as two words. We can illustrate this with the following example: *flowerpot* is a compound. Even if it is written as two words, it behaves as a single unit. The two nouns, *flower* and *pot*, lose their independence and become a third noun *flowerpot*. This third noun behaves like any other noun. For example, it has a plural form, it can take an adjective, and so on. Though the plural affix is attached at the end of the word, following the general rule of plural formation in English, it applies not to the element which occurs last, but to the whole unit. Similarly, if an adjective were to occur before the compound, it would apply not to the first element only but to the whole compound. A *red flowerpot* is not a pot for growing red flowers, but a flowerpot which is red in colour. The unity of the compound is also the reason why we cannot speak of **a very blacklist* or **a very black market*. *Blacklist* and *black market*, being nouns, cannot be modified by the adverb *very*, though

their first element, *black*, being an adjective, can be modified by *very*. We can, on the other hand, speak of *a very black sky*, or of *a very black cat*, which shows that *black sky* and *black cat* are not compounds, but adjective + noun sequences, i.e. noun phrases.

19.2 CRITERIA FOR COMPOUNDS

Just as there are some adjective + noun combinations which are compounds and others which are not, there are also some noun + noun combinations which are compounds and others which are not. *Flowerpot* was an example of a noun + noun combination which is a compound; *stone wall*, *gold ring*, *glass table* are examples of noun + noun sequences which are not compounds. How do we make this out? In other words, what are the criteria for compounds?

We stated above that a compound is distinguished from a combination (or a phrase) by virtue of the fact that it functions as a single word (i.e. as a word unit as distinguished from a phrase unit). The criteria for compounds are all such that they try to show the 'unitary' character of the compounds and contrast this 'unitary' character with the non-unitary character of phrases. These criteria can be divided into three types:

- i) having to do with grammar: the grammatical criterion,
- ii) having to do with pronunciation: the phonological criterion,
- iii) having to do with meaning: the meaning criterion.

Before we state these criteria, we must make it clear that not all criteria can be applied to all compounds. Therefore no single criterion is enough to distinguish compounds from phrases. We have to apply all the criteria in order to identify a set of units which can be called *compounds*. However, if we are asked which criterion is the most widely applicable, and most reliable, we will repeat what we said in 12.3, and point to the criterion of meaning.

19.2.1 The Grammatical Criterion

Since compounds function like single words, they show the grammatical characteristics of single words. One such characteristic was mentioned above, viz. that no part of a compound can be modified separately (recall the example *a red flowerpot*), just as no part of a word can be modified separately. Another characteristic is that compounds cannot be divided by inserting some other material between the two parts. For example, the compounds *high chair* and *sweetheart* cannot be changed to **higher chair* and **sweeter heart* by introducing the comparative degree inflection on the adjectives. This is because *high* and *sweet* do not function as full adjectives in compounds, but merely as parts of single words.

Phrases, on the other hand, do not share these characteristics. Not only can the words of a phrase be separately modified (recall *a very black cat*), but the parts of a phrase can be separated by intervening material, e.g., *higher goals*, *(a) kinder heart*, etc., which shows that *high goals* and *(a) kind heart* are not compounds but phrases.

Sometimes the same two words that occur in a compound may occur in a phrase. In such a case we can distinguish the particular use by using these criteria. For example, *sweet potato* is a compound when it refers to the root of a special type of tropical climbing plant, while, *(a) sweet potato* is a phrase when it refers to the 'vegetable' potato which can sometimes be sweet in taste. In the latter, but not in the former case, we can speak of *a very sweet potato*, or *a sweeter potato*, testifying to its non-compound (or phrase) character.

19.2.2 The Phonological Criterion

The phonological criterion that sometimes helps us to identify a compound is the criterion of stress. As we stated in 12.3, compounds are generally characterized by the stress on the first constituent; phrases, in contrast, have the stress on both constituents. To recall the examples given in 12.3, the compound *darkroom* (meaning a specially prepared room

where photographs are developed) is pronounced / 'dɑ:kru:m/, whereas the phrase (a) *dark room* (meaning a room which is dark) is pronounced / 'dɑ:k'ru:m/. Other examples of this type are:

Compound

greenhouse / 'gri:nhaʊs / (= a glass house for the protection of plants)

White House / 'waɪthaʊs/ (= the official residence of that U.S. President in Washington)

blackboard / 'blæk'bɔ:d / (= a dark smooth surface, usually black or green, used especially in school for writing on)

bottleneck / 'bɒtlnek / (= a situation that prevents smooth progress)

Phrase

a) *green house* / 'gri:n 'haʊs / (= a house which is painted green)

a) *white house* / 'waɪt 'haʊs / (= a house which is painted white)

a) *black board* / 'blæk'bɔ:d / (= a thin flat piece of cut wood painted black)

a) *bottle's neck* / 'bɒtlz 'nek / (= the neck of a bottle)

Compounds, however, do not follow this pattern of stress consistently. There are some compounds which show the stress pattern of phrases, e.g., 'fancy 'dress, 'white-'collar, 'White 'Paper, etc. (a 'white-'collar 'job means a job which does not require manual labour; 'White 'Paper refers to an official report from the Government on a certain subject.)

Stress is therefore not a reliable indicator of a compound. There are, however, certain kinds of compounds (e.g., 'cooking apple; see section 19.3 below) which *always* display the compound stress (i.e. stress on the first constituent).

19.2.3 The Meaning Criterion

The meaning criterion states that compounds are single units of meaning, i.e. the meaning of a compound cannot be logically derived from the meaning of its parts separately. In 12.3 we gave examples like *greenhouse* and *darkroom* to illustrate this point.

One may, however, point to examples like *flowerpot*, *drinking water*, *armchair*, *schoolboy*, etc. and argue that the meanings of these compounds are not very different from the combined meanings of their parts. A *flowerpot*, one may say, is a pot for growing flowers and has therefore to do with both flowers and pots; similarly an *armchair* is a chair which has support for arms and has therefore to do with arms as well as chairs. Because of such possible objections, it is necessary to make the meaning criterion more precise.

First of all, there are a large number of compounds whose meanings have nothing to do with the meanings of their parts. Their meanings, as we stated in 12.3, are idiomatic.

Darkroom and *greenhouse* are of this type. Here are some more examples of this type:

- bird-brained* : stupid; silly (also *featherbrained*)
- blockhead* : a foolish person (usually male)
- bluestocking* : (old-fashioned use) a woman thought to be too highly educated
- butterfingers* : a person who lets things fall or slip through his fingers
- egghead* : a highly educated person (disapproving)
- hardware* : tools and equipment for use in the home and garden
- highbrow* : a person thought to show more than average interest in art and intellectual matters
- hotfoot* (verb) : to move fast
- hunchback* : a person with a back mis-shaped by a round lump
- redcap* : (In Britain) a military policeman
- redcoat* : (In former times) a British soldier

About such cases, there is hardly any problem: their meanings simply cannot be derived from the meanings of their parts; the meaning criterion can, therefore, apply without a problem. Such compounds are called EXOCENTRIC or BAHUVRIHI compounds. The

meaning of such compounds lies outside the compound itself, e.g., *highbrow* is not a type of brow but an intellectual, a *redcap* is not a type of cap but a military policeman.

The meaning of compounds like *flowerpot*, *armchair*, *schoolboy*, etc. does not lie totally outside the compounds. We can derive some elements of meaning from the compound itself. For example, an *armchair* is a type of chair and a *flowerpot* is a type of pot. Here are some more examples of this type:

bedroom : a kind of room (for sleeping in)

folk dance: a kind of dance (danced by common people)

goldfish: a kind of fish (often golden in colour kept as a pet)

house arrest: a kind of arrest (in which one cannot leave one's own house)

raincoat: a kind of (light) coat (worn to keep the rain out)

Though, in such compounds, the meaning has something to do with the meaning of the parts, it still remains true that the meaning of the compound cannot be logically derived from the meaning of the parts. This is because we do not know how the meanings of the parts are related to each other. The relationship is different in different compounds. There is no way of knowing the relationship in advance, since there is no rule which the relationship follows. In other words, we must learn the relationship between the meanings of the elements from a dictionary, just as we learn the meaning of exocentric compounds from a dictionary. For example, a *flowerpot* is a pot for *growing* flowers, not for holding them (for decoration); an *inkpot*, on the other hand, is a pot for *holding* ink. Similarly, *home-sickness* is sickness *for* home and is caused by absence from home, while *sea-sickness* is sickness *because of* the sea and is caused by the motion of the sea. Such examples show that though we may know the meanings of the parts of a compound, we cannot derive the meaning of the compound from them: the meaning of the compound is not just a sum of the meanings of the parts. There is some other element in it too, and that is what makes the meaning of such compounds idiomatic. The name given to compounds of this type is ENDOCENTRIC compounds.

A third kind of compound is called an APPOSITIONAL COMPOUND. This kind of compound is similar to endocentric compounds in one respect: its meaning can also be expressed as 'a kind of ...'. In another respect, however, it is different from endocentric compounds: both its constituents can be used to describe the object. For example, a *houseboat* is a kind of boat, but it is also a kind of house; a *maidservant* is a kind of *servant* but it is also a kind of maid. This is not true of endocentric compounds: a *flowerpot* is a kind of *pot* but not a kind of flower. We must, however, add that though both the constituents of an appositional compound can be used to describe the object denoted by it, usually the description by the second constituent is the preferred one. For example, a *houseboat* is better described as a kind of boat (fitted with everything necessary for living) than a kind of house (floating on water); similarly, a *boyfriend* is better described as a kind of friend than a kind of boy.

19.2.4 Applying the Criteria

Whenever we wish to decide whether a particular item is a compound or not, we can apply all the three types of criteria and see the result. Sometimes, one criterion may not apply, but the other criteria should usually be sufficient to give us an unambiguous answer. For example, if we wish to know whether or not the following words are compounds, we can proceed in the indicated manner:

de'mocracy: Not a compound: it cannot be divided into two independently occurring parts.

'cold 'day: Fails grammatical criteria, e.g., *colder day*, *a very cold day*: fails the phonological criterion: *'cold 'day*; fails the meaning criterion: no idiomatic meaning; hence not a compound.

'cotton 'dress: Fails the phonological criterion: *'cotton 'dress*; fails the meaning criterion: no idiomatic meaning; hence not a compound.

'cooking apple: Passes the grammatical test (we cannot say, e.g., **a fast-cooking apple*); Passes the stress test: *'cooking apple*.

passes the meaning test: refers to a special type of apple. Hence a compound.

toothbrush: Passes grammatical test: e.g., we cannot say **teeth-brush* or **milk toothbrush*; passes the stress test: '*toothbrush*'; passes the meaning test: refers to a special type of brush. Hence a compound.

19.2.5 Some Other Considerations

In ordinary everyday use of English, speakers often put together two nouns in such a way that the first noun modifies the second. For example, a shed for bicycles may be called a *bicycle shed*, a token which can be exchanged for a gift may be called a *gift token*, a device for guarding the head against fast bowling in cricket may be called a *head guard*, and so on. Such combinations are normally not considered compounds. They generally show the stress pattern of phrases with stress on both constituents. The main reason for not regarding them as compounds is, however, that they are created to give a concise expression to a momentarily occurring idea, and have not established themselves as lexical items in the language. There are other combinations in English of a similar type which, on the other hand, are regarded as compounds because they have established themselves as single words and show the stress pattern of compounds. Some examples of this type are *bodyguard* (a man whose duty is to guide an important person), *cowshed* (a building where cows are milked or are kept in cold weather) and *book token* (a small card that can be exchanged for books at a shop).

The spelling of compounds unfortunately does not provide us with a reliable clue to the status of a lexical item as a phrase or a compound. As we mentioned in 12.3, compounds may also be written as two words or as hyphenated words. But since words which constitute phrases are also written separately, it is impossible to distinguish compounds from phrases on the basis of writing conventions.

Check Your Progress 1

- 1) Say whether the italicized expression is a compound or a phrase. Do not be guided by hyphens or spaces between words: consult a dictionary, if necessary:
 - i) She has a *strong hold* on him.
.....
 - ii) The northern part of the country is a *stronghold* of the rebels.
.....
 - iii) The *black box* has been found. It will now be possible to find out why the plane crashed.
.....
 - iv) The question papers are in the *black box*.
.....
 - v) He is suffering from *growing pains*.
.....
 - vi) 'Computer Applications' is a *growing area* of study.
.....
 - vii) When in England, I once travelled from London to York by coach. It was a rather *slow coach* and took nearly 12 hours.
.....
 - viii) Even as a child, he was a *slowcoach*.
.....
 - ix) The government brought out a *White Paper* on the Punjab problem.
.....
 - x) The teacher insisted that the students should use *white paper* only.
.....
 - xi) He was wearing a black shirt with a *white collar*.
.....

xii) Modern graduates prefer *white-collar* jobs.

.....

xiii) Most Indian cars are *hardtops*.

.....

xiv) This jar has a rather *hard top*.

.....

2) Distinguish endocentric, exocentric and appositional compounds in the following list. Consult a dictionary if you are not sure of the meaning of a compound:

bath towel;

.....

ladybird;

.....

boyfriend;

.....

deathblow;

.....

doorknob;

.....

fighter plane;

.....

founder member;

.....

paperback;

.....

pickpocket;

.....

playground

.....

19.3 CLASSIFICATION OF COMPOUNDS

As with suffixation and conversation, we use a system of double classification with compounds also. First, all compounds are classified according to the part of speech to which they belong. This step in classification reveals that the majority of English compounds belong to the category of nouns. A smaller number belong to the category of adjectives. The smallest number belong to the category of verbs and most of them are formed by a process of word-formation which is known as back-formation. The first step of classification thus produces three kinds of compounds:

- I) Noun compounds
- II) Adjective compounds
- III) Verb compounds

The second step of classification can be of different types. For example, one can subclassify each type of compound on the basis of meaning into exocentric, endocentric, and appositional. Some grammar books follow this step. Other books follow a different step: they base their subclassification on the nature of the grammatical relation between the constituents of the compound. The nature of the grammatical relationship can be seen by expressing the literal meaning of the compound in a sentence while using the constituents as separate words. For example, the compound *sunset* is said to be 'subject-verb' type of noun compound, since the meaning can be expressed in a sentence (*The sun sets*) in which one constituent of the compound is the subject and the other constituent is the verb. The compound *haircut* is said to be 'verb + object' type of compound since in the associated sentence (*someone cuts hair*) one constituent is the verb while the other is

the object, and so on. Some other possible grammatical relations are verb + instrumental adverb (e.g., *washing machine* = 'wash with a machine', verb + adverb of place (e.g., *swimming pool* = 'swim in the pool'), subject + noun complement (e.g., *maidservant* = 'the servant is a maid'), subject + adjective complement (e.g., *blackboard* = 'the board is black') etc.

A third type of subclassification is based on the parts of speech to which the constituent elements belong. According to this type of subclassification, both *sunset* and *haircut* belong to the 'noun + verb' type, *breakfast* belongs to the 'verb + noun' type, *maidservant* belongs to the 'noun + noun' type, *blackboard* belongs to the 'adjective + noun' type, and so on. Similar subclasses are also made for adjective and verb compounds.

Each type of subclassification that we have discussed gives useful information about compounds, but since we cannot use all the three types of subclassification we shall choose only the third type. We shall, however, give the other two types of information also wherever it is helpful.

With this type of subclassification, we arrive at the following scheme of classification of compounds:

- I) Noun compounds
 - I.A) Noun + noun, e.g., *icecream, girl-friend, walking stick*
 - I.B) Verb + noun, e.g., *breakfast, pickpocket*
 - I.C) Noun + verb, e.g., *sunshine, birth control*
 - I.D) Adjective + noun, e.g., *darkroom, blackboard*
 - I.E) Verb + particle, e.g., *dropout, fallout*
 - I.F) Particle + verb, e.g., *income, outcast*
 - I.G) Particle + noun, e.g., *afterthought, overdose*
- II) Adjective compounds
 - II.A) Noun + adjective, e.g., *waterproof, taxfree, man-made*
 - II.B) Adjective + adjective, e.g., *icy-cold, deaf-mute*
 - II.C) Adverb + adjective, e.g., *long-awaited, over-confident*
 - II.D) Adjective + noun e.g., *white-collar*
- III) Verb compounds
 - III.A) Noun + verb, e.g., *brain-wash, bottle-feed*
 - III.B) Adjective + noun, e.g., *blacklist, cold-shoulder*
 - III.C) Particle + verb, e.g., *overflow, underestimate*
 - III.D) Adjective + verb, e.g., *dry-clean, fine-tune*

Note the following points about the type of subclassification we have used in this scheme:

- i) In compounds like *sunshine, birth control* (Type I.C), we have described the second constituents as verbs, though they also occur as nouns. Similarly, in *blacklist* and *cold-shoulder*, we have called the second constituents nouns, though they also occur as verbs. You will come across many such instances in our description of compounds in the next unit. This problem occurs because of conversion (Unit 18). In all such cases, our subclassification takes into account the part of speech to which the constituent belongs in the associated sentence which expresses its literal meaning. Thus, while *dream* in *day-dream* is taken to be a verb (someone *dreams* during the day), *sleep* in *sleep-walk* is taken to be a noun (someone walks in *sleep*).
- ii) Compounds like *walking stick, writing-table, dancing-girl*, etc. are included in noun + noun (I.A) type. This is because *walking, writing, dancing* are gerunds, or nouns formed from verbs and expressing actions or states. They are not treated as verbs, since in these compounds too they behave like nouns. The meaning of a 'gerund + noun' compound can be expressed in the same way as the meaning of a 'noun + noun' compound. A *walking stick* is 'a stick for walking' just as a bath towel is 'a towel for the bath'. Compounds like *family planning, letter-writing, book-keeping*, etc. are similarly treated as 'noun + noun' compounds.
- iii) Compounds like *man-made* are treated as adjective compounds of the noun + adjective (II.A) type. The reason is that in such compounds the second element is a (past) participle, which is a verb form used as an adjective. For the same reason, compounds of the type *breath-taking, heart-breaking, God-fearing* are also treated as noun + adjective compounds, while *long-awaited, newborn, good-looking, everlasting*, etc. are treated as Type (II. B), adjective + adjective, or as Type (II.C), adverb + adjective, as the case may be.

A detailed description of the English compounds on the basis of the scheme of classification will be given in the next unit.

Check Your Progress 2

1) Identify the type to which each of the following compounds belongs in terms of the scheme of classification given above:

bookbinding;

.....

downpour;

.....

drawback;

.....

earthquake;

.....

farfetched;

.....

heartfelt;

.....

housekeep;

.....

killjoy;

.....

outgrow;

.....

proofread;

.....

red-hot;

.....

sleeping bag;

.....

sleep-walk;

.....

stone-cold;

.....

well-read

.....

2) We have described six types of grammatical relations found in sentences which express the meaning of noun compounds (See Section 19.3). A fuller list of such grammatical relations is given below and numbered I - VIII:

I) Subject + verb : earthquake = The earth quakes.

II) Verb + object : killjoy = Someone kills joy.

III) Adverbial + verb : downpour = Water pours down.
Verb + Adverbial : living room = Someone lives in the room.

IV) Subject + BE + adjective: high chair = The chair is high.

V) Subject + BE + noun : maidservant = The servant is a maid.

VI) Subject + BE + like + noun : goldfish = The fish is like gold.

VII) Subject + BE + for + noun : cowshed: The shed is for cows.

VIII) Subject + has + noun : doorknob: The door has a knob.

Using the numbers I - VIII, identify the type of grammatical relations implied by the following noun compounds:

bellflower;

boyfriend;

flowerbed;

greenhouse;

handshake;

stopover;

television screen;

workman

19.4 SOME MINOR COMPOUND TYPES

In your reading, you will sometimes come across compounds which do not fit any of the types that we have discussed above. This is likely to happen since we have included only the major compound types in our scheme of classification. In this section, we shall give a brief description of some minor types of compounds so that if you come across any of them in your reading, you do not feel at a loss.

You may, for example, come across compounds like those italicized in the following sentences:

- (i) Ali, the producer-director of the film, was also present.
- (ii) The socio-economic causes of the revolution are the most important.
- (iii) a. They all think her a goody-goody.
b. You must not dilly-dally any further on an important matter like this.
- (iv) John's *dog-in-the-manager* attitude did not come as a surprise to those who knew him.

The compounds in these sentences illustrate four different types of compounds.

Respectively, they are known as the *coordinate* compound, the *combining-form* compound, the *reduplicative* compound and the *phrase* compound. Let us describe the four types briefly.

19.4.1 The Coordinate (*dvandva*) Compound

Compounds of this type are very few and are perhaps the least idiomatic of all compounds. They differ from appositional compounds in the following way: as we stated in 19.2.3, both constituents of an appositional compound can be used to describe the object denoted by the compound, but description by the second constituent is generally preferred. For example, we feel that a *maid-servant* is a kind of servant rather than a kind of maid, though it is true that she is both a maid and a servant. This is because the second constituent is, in some sense, more important. In a coordinate compound, on the other hand, both constituents are equally important and no constituent alone can give the full description. For example, a *producer-director* is both a producer and a director: he is not just a director, nor just a producer. Nor is he a kind of director. The meaning of *producer-director* can be expressed best by using *and*: producer and director. Compounds of this type occur more frequently with proper names, particularly in adjectival function, e.g., a *French German trade pact*. Some other adjectives are also sometimes combined in this way. e.g., *auditory-visual*, *deaf-mute*, etc.

19.4.2 The Combining-form Compound

In some compounds, one of the elements takes a special form which occurs only when it is to be combined with another word in a compound. For example, the word *social* occurs in the combining form *socio-* when it is to be compounded with another word. Other examples are *psycho-* for *psychology* or *psychological*, *bio-* for *biology* or *biological*, *astro-* for *astronomy* or *astronomical*, *Euro-* for *European* (in compounds like *psycho-analysis*, *bio-physics*, *astro-physics*, *Euro-dollar*). Such compounds may be the coordinate type (e.g., *socio-economic*) or the endo-centric type, e.g., *psycho-analysis*.

19.4.3 The Reduplicative Compound

The compound *goody-goody* is a noun which refers to a person who behaves very well in order to please others but is not really good. The idiomatic character of the compound is therefore quite clear. What characterizes compounds like *goody-goody* and *dilly-dally* is that they consist of two or more elements which are either identical or differ only slightly. Such compounds are used either to imitate sounds (e.g., *tick-tock*, *bow-wow*), to suggest alternating movements (e.g., *ding-dong*, *zig-zag*, *ping-pong*), to suggest indecision (*dilly-dally*), useless talk (*tittle-tattle*), nonsense (*hocus-pocus*), lack of substance (*wishy-washy*) etc., or to intensify the meaning of the word (*teeny-weeny* = 'very small', *hush-hush* = 'very secret').

19.4.4 The Phrase Compound

Doubt is sometimes expressed whether expressions like 'dog-in-the-manger' should be considered compounds at all. There should be, however, no doubt about their idiomatic character, e.g., *dog-in-the-manger* refers not to a dog but to 'a person who does not wish others to enjoy what he cannot use for his own enjoyment'. Some other compounds of this type are *father-in-law* (*son-in-law*, etc.), *man in the street*, *man about town*, *man-of-war* (= a warship), etc. All of them, and others of this type, must be considered compounds because of their idiomatic character. The reason for the doubt is that almost any kind of grammatical structure can turn into a compound of this type, e.g.,

- ◊ He had a *I-don't-care* look on his face.
- He made a *pain-in-stomach* gesture.
- He gave me a *I-wish-I-could-do-something* look, etc.

It is, however, clear that such compounds have no idiomatic character: their meaning is equal to the meaning of the phrase or clause which has been turned into a modifier of a noun. Hence we must make a distinction between compounds like *dog-in-the-manger* and non-compounds like *pain-in-stomach*. The former are properly called phrase compounds.

Check Your Progress 3

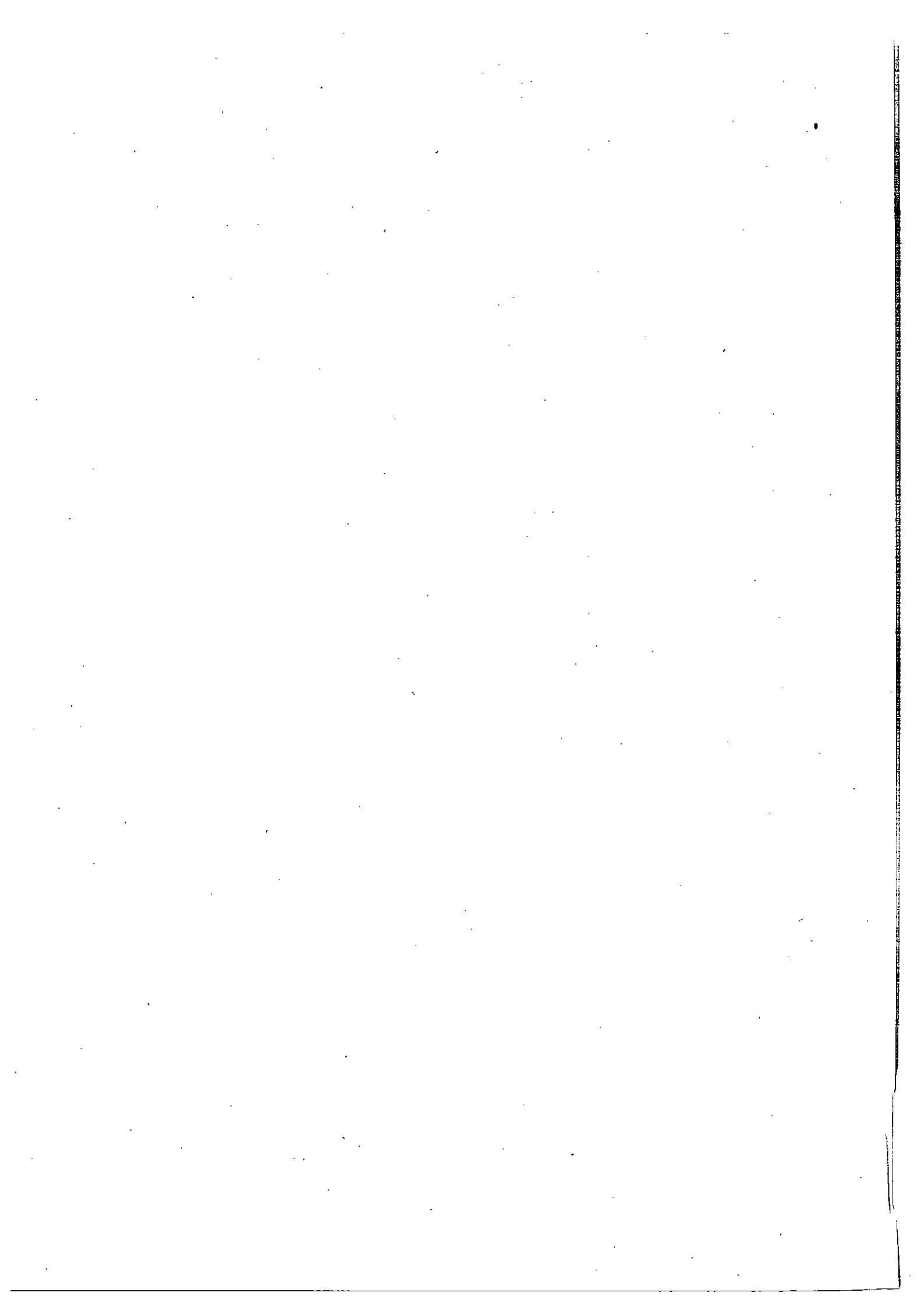
- 1) Identify the type to which each of the following compounds belongs. Use the following abbreviations:
C = Coordinate; C-F = Combining-form; R = Reduplicative; P = Phrase compounds.
- i) electromagnetic
- ii) fighter-bomber
- iii) forget-me-not
- iv) hotch-potch
- v) Jack-in-the-box
- vi) king-emperor
- vii) mumbo-jumbo
- viii) photo-electric
- ix) Sino-Indian
- x) touch-me-not

- 2) Distinguish coordinate compounds (= C) from appositional compounds (=A) in the following list:
- i) Anglo-Polish
 - ii) audio-visual
 - iii) bitter-sweet
 - iv) woman doctor
 - v) pupil teacher
 - vi) queen-bee
 - vii) socio-political
 - viii) washerwoman

19.5 LET US SUM UP

We have made the following major points in this unit:

- i) Compounding is a process of word-formation. In this process two (or more) independently occurring words are combined to form a single 'new' word.
- ii) Both grammatically, as well as in terms of meaning, the 'new' word functions as a single word and not as a combination of two words.
- iii) There are three kinds of criteria for distinguishing compounds from word-combinations (or phrases): grammatical, phonological, and meaning. Not all the three kinds of criteria may, however, apply to each case.
- iv) There are two grammatical criteria: a) no part of a compound can be modified by another word separately, and b) nothing can be inserted between the parts of a compound.
- v) The phonological criterion is the criterion of stress. The vast majority of compounds have the stress on the first constituent. In a phrase, on the other hand, both constituents have the stress. Stress is, however, not a very reliable criterion of a compound since in some compounds it is the second constituent which carries the stress.
- vi) The meaning criterion states that the meaning of a compound is idiomatic, i.e. it cannot be logically derived from the meaning of its parts. The meaning of a phrase, on the other hand, is a combination of the meanings of its constituent words.
- vii) From the viewpoint of meaning, compounds are exocentric, endocentric, or appositional. In exocentric compounds, the meaning lies totally outside the parts. In endocentric compounds some elements of meaning come from the meaning of the parts, but the relationship between these elements still lies outside the compound. Appositional compounds differ from endocentric compounds in that both constituents of the compound can be used to describe the denoted object, though description by the second constituent is generally preferred.
- viii) Though noun + noun combinations occur frequently in the day-to-day use of English, only those noun combinations are considered compounds which are well-established and show the stress pattern of compounds.
- ix) Spelling does not provide a criterion for compounds.
- x) Three kinds of compounds are found in English: noun compounds, adjective compounds, and verb compounds. The vast majority of English compounds are nouns.
- xi) Compounds can be further subclassified in three ways:
 - a) exocentric, endocentric or appositional, b) on the basis of the grammatical relations obtaining between the constituents, and c) on the basis of the part of speech of the constituents. The type of subclassification followed here is c), but information of other types is also provided.
- xii) Gerund + noun compounds are treated as noun + noun type, while noun + participle compounds are treated as noun + adjective type.
- xiii) There are four minor compound types: coordinate, combining-form, reduplicative, and phrase. A coordinate compound is somewhat like an appositional compound, but



UNIT 20 WORD COMPOUNDING - 2

- 20.0 Objectives
- 20.1 Introduction
- 20.2 Noun Compounds
 - 20.2.1 Type < I.A >: Noun + noun
 - 20.2.2 Type < I.B >: Verb + noun
 - 20.2.3 Type < I.C >: Noun + verb
 - 20.2.4 Type < I.D >: Adjective + noun
 - 20.2.5 Type < I.E >: Verb + particle
 - 20.2.6 Type < I.F >: Particle + verb
 - 20.2.7 Type < I.G >: Particle + noun
- 20.3 Adjective Compounds
 - 20.3.1 Type < II.A >: Noun + adjective
 - 20.3.2 Type < II.B >: Adjective + adjective
 - 20.3.3 Type < II.C >: Adverb + adjective
 - 20.3.4 Type < II.D >: Adjective + noun
- 20.4 Verb Compounds
 - 20.4.1 Type < III.A >: Noun + verb
 - 20.4.2 Type < III.B >: Adjective + noun
 - 20.4.3 Type < III.C >: Particle + verb
 - 20.4.4 Type < III.D >: Adjective + verb
- 20.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 20.6 Key Words
- 20.7 Some Useful Books
- Answers

20.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- identify the subclasses of compounds on the basis of the parts of speech to which the constituents of the compounds belong,
- form sentences using the constituents of a compound as separate words in such a way as to express the literal meaning of the compound,
- identify at least seven subclasses of noun compounds and describe their characteristics,
- identify at least five subclasses of adjective compounds and distinguish them from noun phrases and noun compounds wherever a possibility of confusion exists, and
- identify at least four types of verb compounds and distinguish pure verb compounds from those which are formed either by backformation or by conversion.

20.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit we discussed the criteria for compounds and told you how to apply the criteria. We also described how compounds are classified. Using a system of double classification, we arrived at a scheme of classification which was given in Section 19.3.

According to this scheme, compounds are first classified on the basis of the part of speech to which they belong. Three classes of compounds are thus identified: noun compounds (Type I), adjective compounds (Type II), and verb compounds (Type III). Each of these types is then subclassified on the basis of the parts of speech to which the constituents of each compound belong. On this basis, some major subtypes are identified and listed.

Seven subtypes of noun compounds (Type I.A to type I.G.), five subtypes of adjective compounds (Type II.A to Type II.E), and four subtypes of verb compounds (Type III.A to Type III.D) are listed, though it is possible that a few more subtypes may be found. We also pointed out (19.3) that there were at least two other ways in which the major types could be subclassified: on the basis of meaning (as exocentric, endocentric, appositional, etc.) and on the basis of the grammatical relations obtaining between the constituents of the compound in a sentence which expresses its literal meaning (e.g., *sunset* would be

classified as belonging to the subtype < subject + verb > on the basis of the sentence *The sun sets*).

In this unit, we shall follow the scheme set out in 19.3 and present the classes and subclasses of English compounds along with a few examples of compounds in each subtype. In selecting our examples, we will follow the consideration set out in Section 19.2.5 and choose only well-established compounds of English. While the subclassification will follow the method we have chosen, we shall also provide information relating to the meaning of the compounds, and the kinds of grammatical relations that hold between the constituents of a compound in its associated sentence, wherever this is of help or interest.

20.2 NOUN COMPOUNDS

20.2.1 Type < I.A >: Noun + noun

The largest number of compounds belong to this category. Their literal meaning can be expressed in sentences of the following type (*noun*¹ refers to the first constituent, *noun*² to the second):

- a) Noun² is noun¹, e.g., 'boyfriend = the friend is a boy
- b) Noun² is like noun¹, e.g., 'goldfish = the fish is like gold'
- c) Noun² is for noun¹, e.g., 'cowshed = the shed is for cows
- d) Noun¹ has noun², e.g., 'doorknob = the door has a knob'
- e) Noun¹ runs/operates noun², e.g., 'steam engine = steam runs the engine
- f) Noun² produces noun¹, e.g., 'oil well = the well produces oil and several others.

The literal meaning of a compound sometimes helps us to find its idiomatic meaning; in such cases, the associated sentences are helpful. For example, the meaning of the combination *toy factory* may be conveyed either as "the factory produces toys" (Type <f>), or as "the factory is a toy" (Type <a>). Only in the former meaning has *toy factory* established itself as a compound; in the latter meaning it is still generally considered a phrase. This distinction is also reflected in their pronunciation: in the compound the stress is on the first constituent ('toy factory = 'a factory which produces toys'), in the phrase both constituents are stressed ('toy factory = 'the factory is a toy'). We may note that both combinations are endocentric, but with some difference: while 'toy factory is kind of factory, 'toy factory is a kind of toy.

Most noun + noun compounds are endocentric, but exocentric and appositional types are also found. Here are some examples of each type:

EXOCENTRIC: Very few of this type occur. Examples: *egghead* = intellectual (Type : The head is like an egg); *butterfingers*, *hunchback*, *paperback*, *pot-belly*.

ENDOCENTRIC: *ashtray* (Type <c>), *birdcage*, *cowshed*, *fishpond*, *flowerbed*.

APPOSITIONAL: *boyfriend* (Type <a>), *manservant* (Type <a>), *woman doctor*.

A large number of noun + noun compounds consist of a gerund and a noun. The gerund may be the first constituent (e.g. in *walking stick*) or the second (*horse riding*). They are all endocentric (*walking stick* is a kind of stick, *horse riding* is riding of one kind), but the grammatical relations between the constituents are varied (e.g., someone walks *with* a stick; someone *rides* a horse; someone walks *in* his sleep = *sleepwalking*; someone writes *by* hand = *handwriting*, and so on).

20.2.2 Type < I.B >: Verb + noun

Verb + noun compounds are of two types: those in which the noun is the direct object of the verb (e.g., *breakfast*: Someone breaks his fast), and those in which it is not the direct object but shows some other relationship with the verb (e.g., *washbasin*: Someone washes (his hands and face) in the basin; *crybaby*: The baby cries, etc.). The former type are mostly exocentric, e.g., *pickpocket* (not a kind of pocket), *scarecrow* (not a kind of crow), the latter mostly endocentric, e.g., *flashlight* (a kind of light), *glowworm* (a kind of worm), *washbasin* (a kind of basin). There are no appositional compounds in this type.

20.2.3 Type <I.C>: Noun + verb

The second constituent in this type is a noun derived from a verb, but since in the associated sentence (which gives us the literal meaning of the compound) it occurs as a verb, we treat it as a verb for the purposes of subclassification. Noun + verb compounds are of three types: those in which the noun is the subject of the verb (e.g., *sunset* = the sun sets; *heartbeat* = the heart beats), those in which the noun is the object of the verb (e.g., *birth-control* = control the births; *haircut* = cut the hair), and those in which some other relationship holds (e.g., *boat-ride* = ride in a boat; *daydream*: dream during the day). All compounds of this type are endocentric.

20.2.4 Type <I.D> Adjective + noun

Compounds which are combinations of adjective + noun can be sometimes hard to distinguish from phrases. The criteria to be used are the following: (a) Can the adjective be independently modified by an adverb? (b) Is the stress on the adjective only or on the noun also? and (c) Is the meaning idiomatic? The combination is a compound if (a) the adjective cannot be independently modified, (b) the stress is on the adjective only, and (c) the meaning is idiomatic; otherwise it is a phrase. For example, *'darkroom* is a compound which refers to the specially prepared room for developing photographs, while a *'dark room* is a room which is dark. Only in the latter case, which is a phrase, can we say a *very dark room*. All compounds of this type are endocentric (e.g., *a darkroom* is a kind of room). In the associated sentence which expresses the literal meaning of the constituents, the noun occurs as the subject and the adjective as the complement (*darkroom* = the room is dark).

Examples:

blackbird blackboard double-talk fast-food
greenhouse high chair high school quicksand
shorthand software sweetheart

tallboy (a tall piece of wooden furniture containing several drawers.)

20.2.5 Type <I.E>: Verb + particle

Noun compounds which contain a verb as the first element and a particle (adverbs like *down*, *up*, *out*, *under*, *in*, etc.) as the second element are derived from phrasal verbs. Phrasal verbs are verb + particle constructions with idiomatic meaning, e.g., *hold up* in *The robbers tried to hold up the bank but the armed guard foiled their attempt*, where *hold up* means 'rob'. This phrasal verb is turned into a noun compound in *The holdup was foiled by the guard*. Some other compounds of this type are *blackout*, *breakdown*, *build-up*, *come-back*, *drop-out*, *follow-up*, *hand-out*, *hideout*, *print-out*, *setback*, *take-off*, *write-off*, *write-up*. All compounds of this type are exocentric.

20.2.6 Type <I.F.>: Particle + verb

English has a large number of compounds consisting of a particle as the first element and a verb as the second element. Though most of them are nouns, quite a few of them also occur as adjectives and verbs. For example, the compound *upset* occurs as noun, adjective and verb. The stress is generally on the first element when the compound occurs as a noun (e.g., *'bypass*, *'uplift*, *'upset*; in some cases it shifts to the second element when the compound occurs as a verb (e.g. *up'lift*, *up'set*, but *'bypass*). Some other compounds which occur as nouns only are *downfall*, *downpour*, *outburst*, *outcome*, *outlook*, *underwear*, *upkeep*, etc.

It may be noted that the literal meaning of compounds of this type cannot always be expressed in an associated sentence. For example, though such sentences exist for *bypass* (x passes by y), *downfall* (x falls down), *outcome* (x comes out of y, hence result), and so on, there is no such sentence for *upset* or *offspring*.

All compounds of this category may be considered exocentric.

20.2.7 Type <I.G.>: Particle + noun

Noun compounds of this type are quite frequent. The particles that occur most frequently are the following:

- after-* : aftereffect, afterglow, afterthought
out- : outhouse, outpost, outdoor
over- : overcoat, overdraft, overtime
under- : undercurrent, undergrowth, underdog

Noun compounds of this type may sometimes be exocentric (e.g., *underdog* = the oppressed and unsuccessful members of a society) but are mostly endocentric. The literal meaning can be expressed in sentences which use the particles as adverbs or prepositions, e.g., *aftereffects* = 'effects that occur after something' (preposition), *outhouse* = the house is outside (adverb).

A few compounds of this type consist of a particle followed by a deverbal noun having the 'agent' suffix *-er*, e.g., *bystander*, *onlooker*, *outrider*, *overseer*, etc. Note that **bystand*, **onlook*, **outride* do not exist as verbs, though *oversee* is now in use as a backformation from *overseer*.

Check Your Progress 1

For each noun compound in the following list,

- identify its type, (I.A) - (I.G)
- indicate whether it is endocentric, exocentric, or appositional, and
- express its literal meaning in a sentence using the constituents as separate words.

The first compound is done for you:

i) bee-sting

.....

ii) blackout

.....

iii) blockhead

.....

iv) bloodtest

.....

v) firing squad

.....

vi) fuel oil

.....

vii) handlebar

.....

viii) handshake

.....

ix) hangman

.....

x) hothead

.....

xi) hothouse

.....

xii) houseboat

.....

xiii) killjoy

.....

xiv) lockout

.....

xv) outcry

.....

xvi) overbridge

.....

xvii) pathway

.....

xviii) setback

.....

xix) undersecretary

.....

xx) upkeep

.....

Type <I.C>; endocentric; The bee stings.

20.3 ADJECTIVE COMPOUNDS

Adjective compounds are those compounds which can be used like adjectives to modify a noun either by placing it before a noun, or by using it as a complement in a sentence with the verb *be*. For example, the compound *waterproof* is an adjective. It can occur in a noun phrase e.g., *waterproof shoes*, or as a complement e.g., *The shoes are waterproof*.

In the category of adjective compounds we also include compounds containing participles (present and past). Note the following examples:

breathtaking: a breathtaking scene; *The scene was breathtaking*.

man-made: a man-made lake; *The lake is man-made*.

The relationship between the constituents of an adjective compound can be expressed in a phrase or a sentence which expresses its literal meaning. For example,

waterproof (shoes): (the shoes are) proof against water (i.e., do not let in water, are not damaged by water, etc.)

tax-free (income): (income which is) free from tax (i.e. on which you do not have to pay tax)

breathtaking (scene): (a scene which) takes your breath away

man-made (lake): (a lake which has been) made by men. The possible types of relationships between the constituents are very many and very according to the subclass. We shall look at them below.

20.3.1 Type <II.A>: Noun + adjective

The majority of adjective compounds belong to this type. Some examples are —*man-made*, *footsore*, *breathtaking*, *handmade*, *home-made*, *ice-cold*, *world-wide*, *colour-blind*. Each of these examples represents a particular type of relationship between the two constituents. Most adjective compounds show one or the other of these relationships between their constituents:

- i) Type MAN-MADE: In this type the noun is the subject of the participle verb, e.g., a *man-made* lake = Man made the lake (or a lake made by man). Other examples: *God-given*, *self-taught*, *tailor-made*, *frost-bitten*.
- ii) Type FOOTSORE: In this type the noun is the subject and the adjective occurs as complement (i.e. The foot is sore). Other examples: *headstrong*, *topheavy*.

- iii) Type **BREATH TAKING**: The noun is the object of the participle verb, e.g., *a breathtaking scene*: a scene that takes away your breath. Other examples: *heartbreaking, God-fearing, Hindi-speaking, freedom-loving, etc.*
- iv) Type **HAND-MADE**: The noun denotes the instrument by which the action denoted by the participle verb is carried out, e.g., *hand-made* = made by hand. Other examples: *machine-made, paper-bound, snow-blind.*
- v) Type **HOME-MADE**: The noun denotes the place where the action denoted by the participle verb takes place, e.g., *home-made* = made at home. Other examples: *heart-felt, heaven-born, London-trained, world-famous.*
- vi) Type **ICE-COLD**: The noun represents the standard against which an object is compared with respect to the quality mentioned in the second constituent, e.g., *ice-cold* = cold as ice. Other examples: *crystal-clear, dirt-cheap, jet black, paper-thin, razor-sharp.*
- vii) Type **WORLD-WIDE**: The noun indicates the extent of the quality denoted by the adjective, answering the question: *How + adjective?* For example, *world-wide* answers *How wide?*, *knee-deep* answers *How deep?*, and so on. Other examples: *day-long, skin-deep, lifelong.*
- viii) Type **COLOUR-BLIND**: To this type belong most of the remaining adjective compounds. The relations between the elements in this type can be expressed by means of a preposition, e.g., *colour-blind* = blind *to* (or *in regard to*) colour; *homesick* = sick *for* home; *bloodthirsty* = thirsty *for* blood; and so on.
- ix) In addition to these eight types, there are some adjective compounds whose meanings cannot be described so neatly. The relations between the elements of such compounds cannot be summarised as subject -verb, verb -object, instrument, extent, etc., nor represented by a preposition, since a long and complicated sentence is required to represent their meanings, and a number of missing elements have to be supplied. A relatively simple example is *airtight*, which means 'so tight as not to allow air in or out', a more complicated example is *word-perfect*, which means 'repeating, or able to repeat, from memory the exact words of a text'.

20.3.2 Type <II.B>: Adjective + adjective

Most compounds of this type are endocentric and the first adjective modifies the second. The most common compounds of this type are colour names, e.g., *light-green, dark-blue, bright-red*, etc. Other such compounds have a participle as the second element, e.g., *good-looking, sweet-smelling, high-sounding, large-hearted, absent-minded, bright-eyed*, etc. *Icy-cold* and *red-hot* also belong to this endocentric variety.

A few compounds of this sub-class belong to the coordinate type (see 19.4.1). Examples are *bitter-sweet, deaf-mute, Sino-Japanese*, etc. Compound numerals (e.g., *twenty-five, eighty-four*) may also be included in this type.

20.3.3 Type <II.C>: Adverb + Adjective

Compounds of this type almost always have a participle as the second element, which is modified by an adverb occurring as the first element. The compound is, therefore, endocentric. Some examples are: *clean-cut, clean-shaven, deep-set, everlasting, far-fetched, far-reaching, long-awaited, new-born, still-born, widespread.*

Type <II.B> compounds with participles can be distinguished from Type <II.C> compounds in the following way: The sentences which express the literal meaning of Type <II.B> compounds mostly contain a linking verb (*be* as full verb, *look, taste, smell, sound grow*, etc.) followed by the adjective, whereas in the case of sentences associated with Type <II.C> compounds the verb is followed by a modifying adverb. For example,

Type <II.B> *good-looking*: x looks good. (*look*: linking verb)
sweet-smelling: x smells sweet. (*smell*: linking verb)
bright-eyed: x's eyes are bright (*are*: linking verb)

Type <II.C>: *everlasting*: x lasts forever (*forever*: adv.) *Clean-cut*: x is cut clean (*clean*: adv.) *widespread*: x is spread wide (*wide*: adv.)

20.3.4 Type <II.D>: Adjective + noun

Compounds like *long-range*, *middle-class*, *white-collar* are adjectives. Such compounds must be distinguished from noun phrases, which are also adjective + noun sequences, as well as from noun compounds of Type <I.D>. This is not very difficult since adjective compounds of this type mostly occur in the attributive position, i.e. they occur in a modifying function before a noun. For example, *white-collar* is an adjective compound in *a white-collar job* but *a white collar* is a noun phrase in *He was wearing a blue shirt with a white collar*. Similarly, *long-range* is an adjective compound in *a long-range forecast* but a noun phrase in *a powerful gun with a long range*.

Some adjective + noun combinations which occur as adjective compounds also occur as noun compounds, e.g., *middle class*. They can be distinguished by the usual criteria which differentiate adjectives from nouns, e.g., adjectives, but not nouns, can be modified by adverbs. This criterion will tell us that *middle-class* is an adjective in *a very middle-class mentality*. Certain other combinations (e.g., *white-collar*) occur as adjectives only.

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) The following adjective compounds all belong to Type <II.A>: Noun + adjective. Put them into subtypes (i) - (ix) as listed in 20.3.1 on the basis of the kind of grammatical relationship that exists between the elements of the compound:
 - a) colour-blind
 - b) night-blind
 - c) snow-blind
 - d) heart-broken
 - e) heart-felt
 - f) heart-sick
 - g) heartbreaking
 - h) heartwarming
 - i) homesick
 - j) seasick
 - k) carsick
 - l) lovesick

- 2) Distinguish Type <II.B> from Type <II.C> adjective compounds in the following list:
 - a) easygoing
 - b) far-reaching
 - c) fine-looking
 - d) fresh-baked (bread)
 - e) hardworking
 - f) high-sounding
 - g) new-laid (eggs)
 - h) sweet-toothed
 - i) swollen-headed
 - j) well-behaved

- 3) Distinguish Type <II.D> adjective compounds from noun phrases in the following sentences. The relevant portions are italicized:
 - i) He looked awful in his green shirt with a *blue collar*.
 - ii) Workers who do hard or dirty work with their hands are called *blue-collar* workers in America.
 - iii) If you make a *full-scale* model of a car, how will you get it out of this room?

- iv) Like everything else he did, his wedding was also on a *large scale*.

 v) Agricultural production this year is expected to reach an *all-time* high of 170 million tonnes.
 vi) He will be remembered for his contributions to the cause of the poor for *all time* to come.
 vii) One could see the cuts on his *bare back*.
 viii) A rider who rides a horse without a saddle is called a *bare-back* rider.

20.4 AB COMPOUNDS

We have seen so far that compounds are formed by putting two words together to form a new word. Only a few verb compounds are formed in this way. We may call such verb compounds 'pure verb compounds'. Other verb compounds are formed in one of the following two ways:

- i) By backformation: Look at the following verb-noun pairs:

Verb	Noun
collect	collector
hunt	hunter
write	writer
beg	beggar
edit	editor

In Unit 17, Section 17.3.1, we described a type of noun suffix which forms nouns from verbs (Type I.C). In the example above *-or*, *-ar* and *-er* seem to be suffixes of this type. Yet the fact is that only the first three nouns (*collector*, *hunter* and *writer*) are formed in this way. They are derived from the verbs *collect*, *hunt* and *write* respectively by the addition of the suffix *-er/-or*. The last two nouns (*beggar* and *editor*) were not formed in this way. The history of these words shows that the nouns *beggar* and *editor* existed before the verbs *beg* and *edit*. The verbs *beg* and *edit* were formed from the nouns *beggar* and *editor* on the pattern of *collect* > *collector*, *hunt* > *hunter* perhaps under the impression that *-ar* and *-or* (all pronounced /ə/) in these nouns were also suffixes. This process is known as the process of backformation.

A large number of verb compounds are results of backformation. A few common verb compounds and their noun sources are given below:

- (to) babysit < babysitting
- (to) bottlefeed < bottlefeeding
- (to) brainwash < brainwashing
- (to) chain-smoke < chain-smoker
- (to) housekeep < housekeeper
- (to) sight-see < sightseeing
- (to) window-shop < window shopping

- ii) By conversion

A number of compound verbs are converted noun compounds. In Unit 18, Section 18.3.3, we described how nouns like *bottle*, *captain*, *hammer*, *knife*, etc. are converted to verbs. Similarly, noun compounds like *cold-shoulder* (= intentionally cold or unsympathetic treatment), *court-martial*, *handcuff*, *shipwreck*, *snowball* are often converted into verbs, as in the following sentences:

- I knew he would *cold-shoulder* me.
- The police *handcuffed* the prisoner.
- The problems he neglected *snowballed* (grew uncontrollably) and he was forced to close down his business.

In describing the different types of verb compounds below, we shall also tell you how each type is formed.

20.4.1 Type <III.A>: Noun + verb

Most compounds of this type are results of backformation, e.g., *bottlefeed*, *brainwash*, *gatecrash* (from *gatecrasher*), *globtrot* (from *globetrotter*); *housekeep*, *sightsee*, *sleepwalk* (from *sleepwalking*), *tape-record* (from *tape-recording*). Conversion cases are very rare. An example is *carbon-copy* in the sentence.

Didn't you *carbon-copy* the letter?

20.4.2 Type <III.B>: Adjective + noun

Among the more common verb compounds of this type are *blacklist*, *cold-shoutaer* and *short-circuit*. They are all cases of conversion from noun compounds. Note how the last of these compounds is used in a sentence:

He *shot-circuited* the formality by a simple telephone call.

20.4.3 Type <III.C> : Particle + verb

Verb compounds of this type occur mostly with the particles *out*, *over*, and *under*. Some examples are:

out-: outgrow, outlast, outlive, outshine

over-: overcharge, overdo, overeat, overload, oversleep

under-: underline, underestimate, underrate, undervalue

Verb compounds of this type are neither cases of backformation nor of conversion. They are pure verb compounds.

20.4.4 Type <III.D> : Adjective + verb

A typical verb compound of this type is *dry-clean*, a backformation from *drycleaning*. Other compounds of this type are also mostly results of backformation, e.g., *fine-tune* (from *fine tuning*), *soft-land* (from *soft landing*). Examples of conversion are *double-check* (from *double-check*, noun) *whitewash* (from *whitewash*, noun).

The four types of verb compounds we have described are the more common ones. A few verb compounds belonging to some other types are also to be found, e.g., *typewrite*, a backformation from *typewriter*, is of the type verb + verb; *machine-gun* and *snowball*, when used as verbs, are cases of conversion from noun compounds, and belong to the type noun + noun.

Check Your Progress 3

Find out the verb compounds in the following sentences and identify the type (III.A, III.B, etc.) to which they belong. Finally, say whether they are pure verb compounds, results of backformation, or cases of conversion:

- i) The pay rise given in June was backdated to January.
.....
- ii) They wanted to air-condition the building but gave up the idea when they found out the cost.
.....
- iii) Do not underestimate him; he may still get the first position.
.....
- iv) As a student, he met his expenses by babysitting for his neighbours.
.....
- v) The government blacklisted all the schools which did not pay salaries to their staff on time.
.....
- vi) Double-check the locks before you leave the house.
.....

- vii) He was extremely nervous and chain-smoked for a full hour until the results were announced.
-
- viii) They tried to brainwash me into believing that buying a lottery ticket was the best way of getting rich.
-
- ix) Despite a slight mishap on board, the space shuttle soft-landed without a hitch to the great relief of the whole nation.
-
- x) Though shipwrecked in the middle of the Pacific Ocean, they managed to survive for forty days on the meagre rations they had been able to save from the ship.

20.5 LET US SUM UP

We have made the following major points in this unit:

- i) Compounds belong to three major classes: noun compounds, adjective compounds, and verb compounds.
- ii) Each of these classes is subdivided into subclasses on the basis of the part of speech to which the constituents of a compound belong.
- iii) Noun compounds are divided into the following major subclasses: noun + noun; verb + noun; noun + verb; adjective + noun, verb + particle; particle + verb; particle + noun. Noun + noun compounds are exocentric, endocentric, or appositional; verb + noun compounds are either endocentric or exocentric; noun + verb and adjective + noun types are all endocentric; verb + particle and particle + verb types are all exocentric; particle + noun types are mostly endocentric.
- iv) Adjective compounds are divided into the following major subclasses: noun + adjective; adjective + adjective; adverb + adjective, adjective + noun. Noun + adjective types can be further usefully subclassified according to the type of relationship between the two constituents; adjective + adjective types contain two adjectives the first of which modifies the second and are therefore endocentric; in adverb + adjective types, the adverb modifies the adjective. Adjective + noun types always occur in attributive positions.
- v) Verb compounds are of three main types: pure compounds formed by putting two words together; compounds formed by backformation from nouns, and compounds converted from noun compounds. There are four major subclasses of verb compounds: noun + verb, adjective + noun, particle + verb, adjective + verb. Noun + verb types are mostly formed by backformation, adjective + noun types are all cases of conversion, particle + verb types are pure verb compounds, while adjective + verb types are also mostly formed by backformation.

20.6 KEY WORDS

Noun Compounds (or Compound Nouns): Compounds which belong to the part of speech 'noun'

Adjective Compounds (or Compound Adjectives): Compounds which belong to the part of speech 'adjective'

Verb Compounds (or Compound Verbs): Compounds which belong to the part of speech 'verb'

The Literal Meaning of A Compound: The literal meaning of a compound is the meaning which emerges when the constituents of a compound are joined together in a sentence. It does not represent the real meaning of the compound, which is idiomatic.

Backformation: A process of word-formation in which a new word is formed by dropping a suffix, or a supposed suffix, rather than, as is more usual in English, by adding a suffix.

Pure Verb Compounds: Verb compounds which are not a result of backformation, conversion, etc., but are formed by putting two words together.

20.7 SOME USEFUL BOOKS

Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary (1987). London: Collins.

Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (1978). London: Longman.

Quirk, R. and Greenbaum, S. (1973). *A University Grammar of English (App. I)*, London: Longman.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

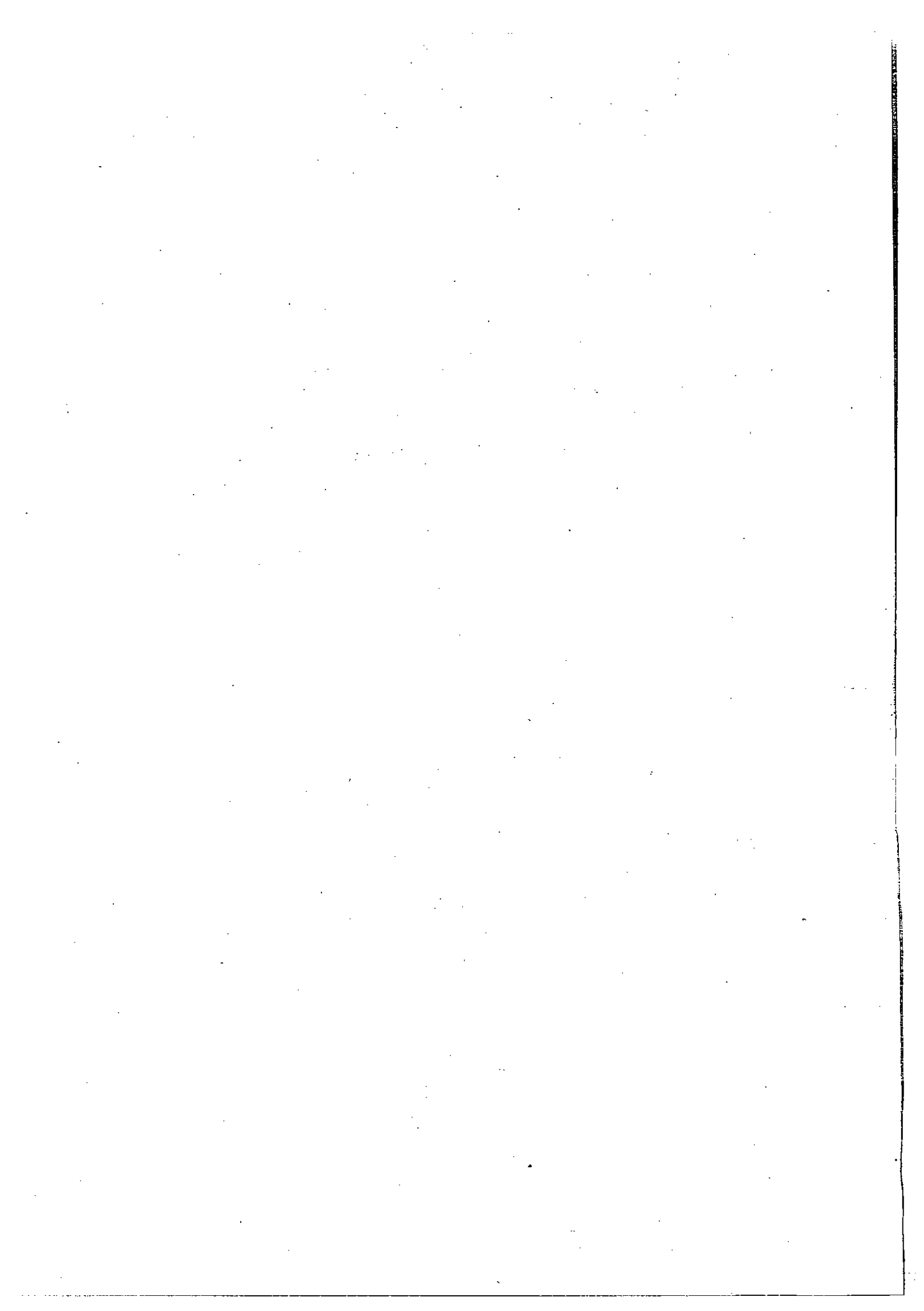
- 1) ii) Type <I.E>; Exo.; X blacks out Y.
- iii) Type <I.A>; Exo.; The head is like a block.
- iv) Type <I.C>; Endo.; Someone tests the blood.
- v) Type <I.A>; Endo.; The squad fires.
- vi) Type <I.A>; App.; The oil is fuel.
- vii) Type <I.A>; App.; The handle is a bar.
- viii) Type <I.C>; Endo.; Someone shakes the hand.
- ix) Type <I.B>; Endo.; The man hangs someone.
- x) Type <I.D>; Exo.; The head is hot.
- xi) Type <I.D>; Exo.; The house is hot.
- xii) Type <I.A>; App.; The boat is a house.
- xiii) Type <I.B>; Exo.; Someone kills joy.
- xiv) Type <I.E>; Exo.; X locks out Y.
- xv) Type <I.F>; Exo.; X cries out.
- xvi) Type <I.G>; Endo.; The bridge is over something.
- xvii) Type <I.A>; App.; The way is a path.
- xviii) Type <I.E>; Exo.; Something sets X back.
- xix) Type <I.G>; Endo.; The secretary is under someone.
- xx) Type <I.F>; Exo.; X keeps Y up.

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) a) Type viii b) Type viii c) Type iv d) Type ii e) Type v f) Type ii g) Type iii
h) Type iii i) Type viii j) Type viii or Type ix k) type viii or Type ix l) Type viii
- 2) a) Type II.B b) Type II.C c) Type II.B d) Type II.C e) Type II.C f) Type II.B
g) Type II.C h) Type II.B i) Type II.B j) Type II.C
- 3) i) NP (= noun phrase) ii) AC (= adjective compound) iii) AC iv) NP v) AC vi) NP
vii) NP viii) AC

Check Your Progress 3

- 1) i) backdate: III.A; BF (= backformation) ii) air-condition: III.A; BF
iii) underestimate: III.C; Pure iv) babysit: III.A; BF v) blacklist: III.B; Conversion
vi) Double-check: III.D; Conversion vii) chain-smoke: III.A; BF
viii) brainwash: III.A; BF ix) softland: III.D; BF x) shipwreck: III.A; Conversion





UTTAR PRADESH
RAJARSHI TANDON OPEN UNIVERSITY

UGEN-02 The Structure of Modern English

Block

5

SYNTAX-1: SENTENCE STRUCTURE—I

Introduction to the Block	3
UNIT 21	
What is a Sentence?	5
UNIT 22	
Basic Sentence Patterns	14
UNIT 23	
The Subject	19
UNIT 24	
The Nature of the Predicate: The Verb	25
UNIT 25	
Objects and Complements	40

INTRODUCTION TO THE BLOCK

Having discussed phonetics and phonology in Blocks 1 and 2, and morphology in Blocks 3 and 4, we shall now take up syntax, that is, the structure of sentences and their constituents.

Blocks 5 and 6 deal with English sentence structure

Block 5 has five units.

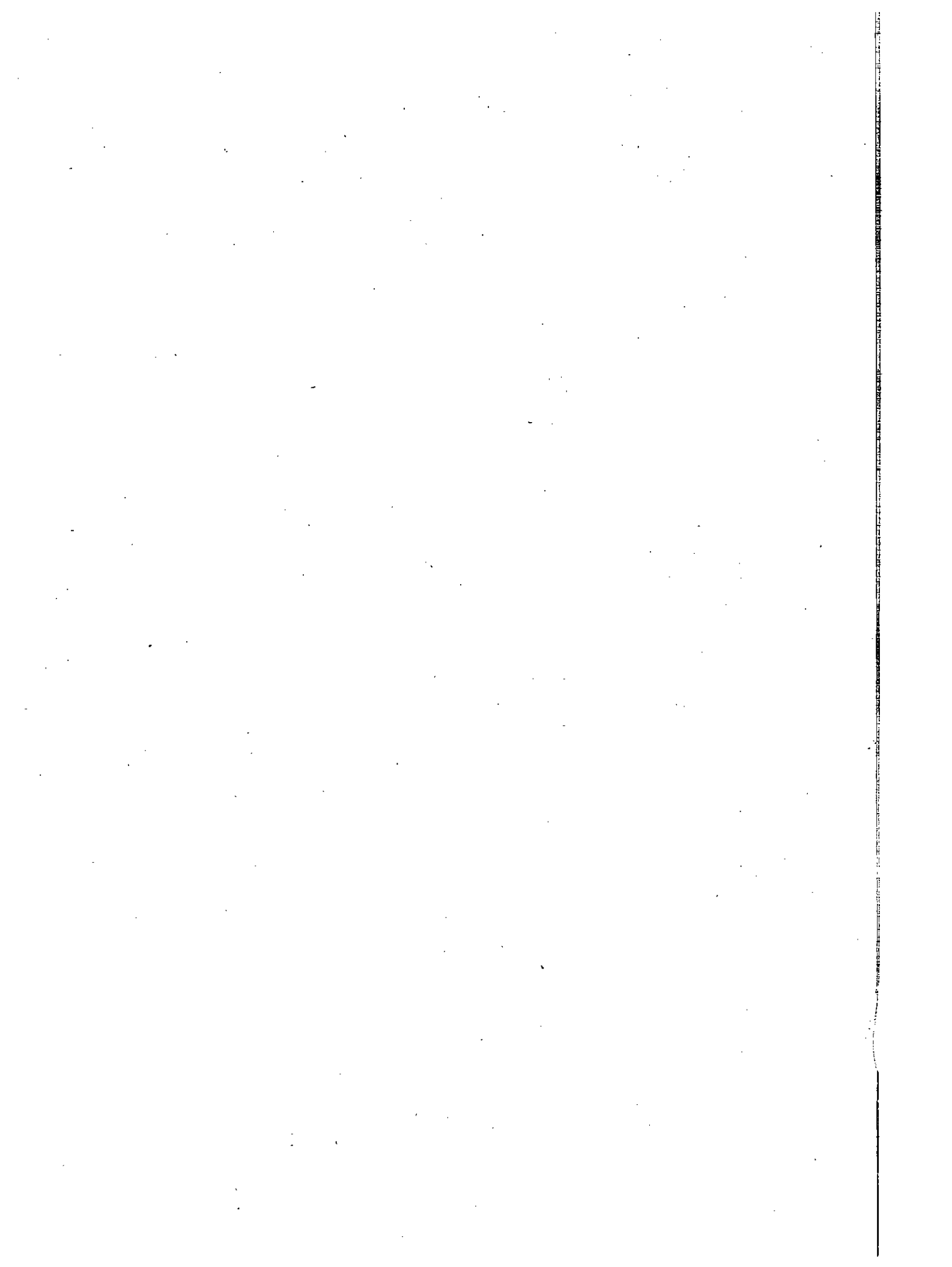
In Unit 21 we shall discuss the sentence as a structured unit and deal with 'word order' and 'agreement'. We shall also present different types of sentences and introduce the notions of 'Subject' and 'Predicate'.

In Unit 22 we shall discuss the basic elements of a sentence, and the basic sentence patterns.

In Unit 23 we shall discuss the concept of the 'Subject'—both the notional view and the grammatical aspects.

In Unit 24 we shall discuss the nature of the predicate and its obligatory element, the 'verb'. We shall try to analyse how the verbal elements indicate 'tense', 'aspect', 'modality' and 'voice', and shall also distinguish between finite and non-finite verb phrases.

In Unit 25 we shall discuss objects and complements and how they differ from adverbials.



UNIT 21 WHAT IS A SENTENCE?

Structure

- 21.0 Objectives
- 21.1 Introduction
- 21.2 What is a Sentence?
- 21.3 Order
- 21.4 Agreement
- 21.5 Types of Sentences
- 21.6 Block Language
- 21.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 21.8 Key Words
- 21.9 Suggested Reading
Answers

21.0 OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this unit is to introduce you to the major features of a simple sentence in English. We'll show that a sentence is not just a group of words randomly put together but an ordered string in which rules of agreement govern the relationships among its different constituents. We'll also introduce you to the different types of sentences in English. After you have completed the work on this unit, you should be able to identify the simple sentences you hear or read everyday. You should also be able to talk about their grammar in an elementary way.

21.1 INTRODUCTION

Having dealt with phonetics, phonology, and morphology in Blocks 1-4 we shall now take up syntax, that is, the structure of sentences in English, and begin by asking you to read some excerpts from books and newspapers. We shall use these excerpts to illustrate the important features of a simple sentence.

21.2 WHAT IS A SENTENCE?

Read the following excerpts carefully:

- A. Robert: No eggs! No eggs!! Thousand thunders, man, what do you mean by no eggs?
Steward: Sir, it is not my fault. It is the act of God.
Robert: Blasphemy. You tell me there are no eggs. And you blame your Maker for it.
Steward: Sir, What can I do? I cannot lay eggs.
(G.B. Shaw: *Saint Joan*)
- B. The Babus of Nayanjore were famous landlords. They were noted for their princely extravagance. They would tear off the rough border of their Dacca Muslin; it rubbed against their delicate skin. They would spend thousands of rupees over the wedding of a Kitten.
(Adapted from R. Tagore: 'The Babus of Nayanjore' in *Hungry Stones and Other Stories*; Macmillan)
- C. What is boredom? It is a state of mental and emotional tension. Is boredom actually dangerous? Yes. It is dangerous. Men and women will go to almost any lengths to escape it.
- D i) Hope in Lanka.
ii) Advantage Graf.
iii) Ceat. Born tough.
iv) Onida. Neighbour's envy. Owner's pride.
v) Good morning.

Can you identify all the sentences in the above excerpts? Do you think all the expressions listed in D above are sentences? Is 'Yes' in C above a sentence? Is 'No eggs!' a sentence? If yes, what type of a sentence is it? How will you characterise

'Is boredom dangerous?' and 'What is boredom?' in C above? From our school days, we have been told that a sentence will normally have the following properties:

- a) It will consist of a group of words which express a complete thought.
- b) It will have two major constituents, namely, subject and predicate. Subject is closely related to what is being talked about and predicate to the new information that is given about the subject.
- c) It will start with a capital letter and end with a period (full-stop), an exclamation mark, or a question mark when it is written.

For example, the sentence

1 The Babus of Nayanjore were famous landlords.

starts with a capital letter and ends with a period. It consists of the subject

The Babus of Nayanjore

which is the theme of sentence, and the predicate

were famous landlords,

which is the new information we learn about the subject that has already been introduced, and all the words in this sentence together express a complete thought. You should be able to identify many similar sentences in the above excerpts. Sentence (1) consists of 7 words. Can we arrange these 7 words in any order than the one given in (1)? We cannot.

For example,

* Babus of the Nayanjore.....

is ungrammatical. Thus another property of sentences may be stated as

- d) It will consist of an ordered string of words and not just a group of words in any order.

We'll talk about order in some detail in 21.3. Again, we can say 'was' instead of 'were' in (1)? It is not possible, because the subject of a sentence must agree with the verb used in that sentence. We may add one more property to our characterisation of a sentence.

- e) The form of the verb will depend on the subject.

We will have more to say about the nature of subject-verb agreement in 21.4 below. A sentence is thus an ordered string of words in which the verb agrees with the subject and which expresses a complete thought. Most of the sentences in the above excerpts end with a period. Some end with an exclamation mark, and some with a question mark and some indeed, as in D, without anything. We'll talk about different types of sentences in 21.5.

Check Your Progress 1

Divide the following sentences into Subject and Predicate:

- 1 His brother grew happier gradually.
- 2 The Romans made him dictator.
- 3 The boys were waiting for the teacher.
- 4 The uses of adversity are sweet.
- 5 The dwindling oxygen content in the city's air is a result of rapid industrialisation.
- 6 The train reached Ambala at about 9.p.m.
- 7 The soft Dacca Muslin rubbed against their delicate skin.
- 8 That tall girl is now a student at the University of York.
- 9 Every feature of the parent was found in the child.
- 10 Mohan searched the room carefully.
- 11 It is raining.
- 12 It is your duty to respect your teachers.

Subject

Predicate

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Check Your Progress 2

Rearrange the following words in such a way that they make a sentence. Use appropriate punctuation marks.

- 1 a, noise, make, do, not
.....
- 2 are, where, you, going
.....
- 3 brave, how, is, she
.....
- 4 and, milk, butter, cheese, made, from, are
.....
- 5 is, he, boy, troublesome, what, a
.....
- 6 own, your, mind, business
.....
- 7 matter, why, you, are, worried, about, so, this
.....
- 8 actually, is, dangerous, boredom
.....
- 9 ailments, incidence, insufficient, is, oxygen, the, reason, primary, for, the, increasing, of, bronchial
.....
.....
- 10 to, asked, I, been, have, leave
.....

21.4 AGREEMENT

It is not enough for words to be in a certain order to form a sentence. There are generally definite rules governing the relationships among different constituents of a sentence. English has a very simple rule for the 'agreement' that must obtain between the subject and the verb: a singular subject requires a singular verb and a plural subject requires a plural verb. Thus

7 The door is open

and

8 The doors are open.

are grammatical but

* The door are open.

* The doors is open.

are ungrammatical. Notice that in the case of pronouns, English treats both 'I' and 'You' as plural for the purpose of agreement. Thus

9	I We You They	sleep	well
10	He She It	sleeps	well

Did you notice that, in sentence (1) in 21.3, in the case of the 'The Babus of Nayanjore' the agreement is with 'Babus' and not with 'Nayanjore'? If the subject of a sentence is a nominal group (also called a 'noun phrase') as in (1), it is the 'head' noun of the group that decides the form of the verb. The 'head' of the subject noun phrase and the verb are italicized in the following examples.

- 11 Many *pages* of the book *are* missing.
 12 The *employment* of young *children* is against the law.

The principle of grammatical agreement i.e. singular subject, singular verb; plural subject, plural verb may sometimes be violated. A plural verb may be used if the subject is seen to be notionally plural. Collective nouns, e.g. *government*, *public*, *audience*, etc. are notionally plural. You may have often seen sentences like

- 13 The *government* *are* planning to revise their policies.
 14 The *audience* *were* raising their hands in protest.

It will not be incorrect to use 'is' in (13). The choice of the verb really depends upon how the speaker views the collective noun in question. A singular verb is in order if the noun is viewed as a single undivided body: a plural verb will be required if it is viewed as a collection of individuals.

Check Your Progress 3

(a) Fill in the blanks with suitable forms of the verbs given in the brackets:

The first thing I.....(do) on arrival in any country.....(be) to
(look) for books on its contemporary literature. As soon as I
(reach) Copenhagen, I.....(set out) with Professor Knud Bugge,
 who.....(teach) comparative religions at a teacher's institute, to.....
 (investigate) local bookstores. I soon.....(realise) that I'd have to
(count) my kroners: in Denmark, books, like everything else.
(be) murderously expensive. The slenderest paperback of under 100
 pages.....(cost) 75 kroners (Rs. 150).

(b) Fill in an appropriate verb in each of the following blanks:

- 1 The jury..... divided in their opinion.
- 2 Mohan and Sumit.....enjoying themselves.
- 3 Slow and steady.....the race.
- 4 Either you or he..... telling a lie.
- 5 Neither my brother nor I.....happy.
- 6 The behaviour of the children.....good.
- 7 Each of the boys..... given a prize.
- 8 The quality of these mangoes.....not good.
- 9 A series of talks.....been arranged at the college.
- 10 Mohan, as well as Sumit,.....at fault.

21.5 TYPES OF SENTENCES

What are the different types of sentences you notice in the excerpts in 21.2? There are sentences which assert and declare something. These **declarative** sentences can be either positive or negative. When a sentence is used to make a statement, we label it as affirmative. For example,

- 15 Boredom is a state of mental tension.
 16 They make him the editor every year.

Sentences which are used to make negative statements are called **negative** sentences. Like the affirmative sentences, they normally start with a capital letter and end with a period. They also have a negative element in them. For example,

- 17 It is not my fault.
 18 The sun does not move round the earth.

The second category of sentences consists of **questions**. Questions such as (19) and (20) below are called *yes-no* questions, because they may be answered with 'Yes' or 'No'.

19 Is boredom dangerous?

20 Do they make him the editor every year?

Questions such as (21) and (22) below are called *wh*-questions or information-seeking questions. They cannot be answered by saying 'Yes' or 'No'. All questions start with a capital letter and end with a question mark. *Yes-no* questions start with some verbal element such as *is, am, are, do, did*, etc. *Wh*-questions start with a *wh*-word such as *who, what, where*, etc.

21 What is boredom?

22 Who has done it?

Sentences which are used to ask questions are also called **interrogative** sentences. Sentences which express strong or sudden feelings are called **exclamatory** sentences. These start with a capital letter and end with an exclamation mark.

For example,

23 How brave he is!

24 What utter nonsense it is!

Sentences may also be used to express commands, requests, desires, etc. Such sentences are called **imperative** sentences. The subject of such sentences is invariably 'You' and is generally deleted. Also notice that unlike other sentence types, we can use only the simple present tense form of the verb in imperative sentences.

For example;

25 Shut the door.

26 Do not make a noise.

Another category of sentences which is not very productive in contemporary English is that of the **subjunctive**. It may be seen in certain set expressions which use only the base form of the verb as in

27 God save the queen!

28 So be it then!

29 Suffice it to say that.....

30 Come what may, I will leave tonight.

The subjunctive with hypothetical meaning may also be seen in such sentences as

31 If I were rich,

32 I wish I were a king.

All such sentences use the form *were*.

Notice that like statements, questions can also be positive or negative. But positive and negative questions do not contrast in the same way as positive and negative statements do. To say

33 He didn't come.

is the opposite of

34 He came.

We could have a question corresponding to (34)

35 Did he come?

which is neutral with respect to the answer that could be given: it could be 'yes' or 'no'. But the question corresponding to (33)

36 'Didn't he come?'

is a way of expressing surprise and the expected answer can only be 'no'.

It must be clear to you by now that in English the first noun that appears in the sentence is generally the subject, and generally it performs the action denoted by the verb. Sometimes we are not aware of the person responsible for the action or we wish to hide his identity, or we wish to shift the focus of the sentence from the subject to the object. In such situations the **passive voice** is used.

The sentence

37 The window was broken.

is in the passive voice. We either do not know who broke the window or we wish to hide the identity of that person. Notice that in the passive voice, in addition to bringing the object to the subject position, we use the verb *be* and the past participle form of the verb *break*. In a later unit, we'll discuss the nature of the passive voice in greater detail.

Check Your Progress 4

Rearrange the following words to form sentences. Use capital letters and punctuation marks at appropriate places. Identify the type of each sentence.

- 1 the, leave, room, once, at
.....
- 2 a, cold, what, is, it, night
.....
- 3 in, holidays, the, go, where, you, did
.....
- 4 caught, thief, was, the, not
.....
- 5 a, girl, what, stupid, are, you
.....
- 6 found, liquor, hand-pumps, flowing, police, the, in, Porbandar, out, of
.....
.....
- 7 Roopa, at, house, murdered, her, was, afternoon, this
.....
- 8 these, we, pesticides, using, several, are, harmful, days
.....
- 9 far, you, walk, can, how
.....
- 10 pretty, she, in, wedding, her, how, dress, looks
.....

21.6 BLOCK LANGUAGE

From the discussion in 21.5, it should be clear that simple sentences can be classified in terms of the following labels: Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative, Exclamatory, Subjunctive or Passive. But how shall we label the expressions in excerpt D in 21.2 above? Or for that matter, how shall we classify 'No eggs!' of A? It does not have the normal sentential constituents of subject and predicate. But it does express a complete idea and we understand it in the context. It is clear to us that the Steward has earlier said that there are no eggs and Robert is expressing surprise and anger at Steward's statement. In actual conversation and writing, we often delete several constituents which may be obvious from the context.

Greetings like *good morning, goodbye, cheerio, hello, hi, merry christmas, happy new year*, etc. are formulaic utterances and cannot be analysed grammatically. They are used and learnt as such.

Many of the expressions included in excerpt D above may be seen in newspaper headlines, labels, advertisements and notices. In such cases, language may violate the rules of punctuation and sentence structure. Such language is used for specific communicative purposes and is organised not in terms of subject, predicate and agreement rules, but in terms of isolated words and phrases which may appear important in a given context. Language so used is called **block language**.

21.7 LET US SUM UP

A sentence is an ordered string of words which expresses a complete thought. It generally consists of a subject and a predicate, and the verb in the predicate agrees with the subject. All sentences begin with a capital letter.

A **declarative** sentence makes a statement, which can be positive or negative. It ends with a period (a 'full stop').

An **interrogative** sentence contains a question and ends with a question mark.

The question can be either 'yes-no' type or *wh*-type.

An **exclamatory** sentence expresses strong feeling and ends with an exclamation mark.

An **imperative** sentence contains a command or a request. It ends with a period.

The **subjunctive** expresses hypothetical meaning and often involves the use of *were*. It may also be seen in some set expressions, e.g. *God save the queen!*

Formulaic expressions, e.g. greetings, and **block language** are used for specific communicative purposes.

Sentences in the **passive voice** are used when we wish to stress the thing done rather than the doer.

21.8 KEY WORDS

'sentence': a group of words that forms a statement, question, request, etc. making complete sense

de'clarative : making statements

inter'rogative : asking questions

im'perative : expressing commands, requests, etc.

ex'clamatory : expressing strong feelings

sub'junctive : expressing a condition, hypothesis, etc.

21.9 SUGGESTED READING

Quirk, R. et al. 1972. *A Grammar of Contemporary English*. Longman. Ch. II. Close, R.A. 1975. *A Reference Grammar for Students of English*. Longman. pp 1-3 and 35-39.

ANSWERS

Check your Progress 1

Subject	Predicate
1 His brother	grew happier gradually.
2 The Romans	made him dictator.
3 The boys	were waiting for the teacher.
4 The uses of adversity	are sweet.
5 The dwindling oxygen content in the city's air	is a result of rapid industrialisation.
6 The train	reached Ambala at about 9 p.m.
7 The soft Dacca Muslin	rubbed against their delicate skin.
8 That tall girl	is now a student at the University of York.
9 Every feature of the parent	was found in the child.
10 Mohan	searched the room carefully.
11 It	is raining. (see the note below)
12 It	is your duty to respect your teachers.

Note on the use of 'It'

Notice the use of 'It' in the excerpts in 21.2. Like any other pronoun, it has been used to refer to something that has already been mentioned. For example, in C all the occurrences of *it* refer to boredom. In B, the *it* in '*it* rubbed against...' refers to the rough border of the Dacca Muslin. In A, *it* refers to a state of affairs i.e. the fact that there are no eggs. We often use *it* to talk about time or weather as in (11) in Exercise 1. We also use *it* as a provisional subject as in (12) in Exercise 1. The real subject in (12) is the infinitive phrase to respect your teachers. The function of *it* is simply to introduce the real subject.

Check Your Progress 2

- 1 Do not make a noise.
- 2 Where are you going?
- 3 How brave she is!
- 4 Butter and cheese are made from milk.
- 5 What a troublesome boy he is!
- 6 Mind your own business.
- 7 Why are you so worried about this matter?
- 8 Boredom is actually dangerous. /Is boredom actually dangerous?
- 9 Insufficient oxygen is the primary reason for the increasing incidence of bronchial ailments.
- 10 I have been asked to leave.

Check Your Progress 3

- a) do, is, look, reached, set out, teaches, investigate, realised, count, are, costs.
- b) 1. were 2. were 3. wins 4. is/was 5. am 6. is/was 7. was 8. is 9. has 10. is/was

Check Your Progress 4

- 1 Leave the room at once! (Imperative)
- 2 What a cold night it is! (Exclamatory)
- 3 Where did you go in the holidays? (Interrogative)
- 4 The thief was not caught. (Passive, negative)
- 5 What a stupid girl you are! (Exclamatory)
- 6 The police found liquor flowing out of the hand-pumps in Porbandar. (Affirmative)
- 7 Roopa was murdered at her house this afternoon. (Passive, affirmative)
- 8 We are using several harmful pesticides these days. (Affirmative)
- 9 How far can you walk? (Interrogative)
- 10 How pretty she looks in her wedding dress! (Exclamatory)

UNIT 22 BASIC SENTENCE PATTERNS

Structure

- 22.0 Objective
- 22.1 Introduction
- 22.2 Basic Elements of a Sentence
- 22.3 Basic Sentence Patterns
- 22.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 22.5 Key Words
- 22.6 Suggested Reading
- Answers

22.0 OBJECTIVES

The aim of this unit is to introduce you to the basic sentence patterns of English. We'll introduce you to the essential elements (or constituents) of an English sentence, namely, Subject, Verb, Object, Complement, and Adverbial. A detailed analysis of these elements of the English sentence will be done in the subsequent units.

After you have completed this unit, you should be able to identify the different constituents of an English sentence—Subject, Verb, Object, Complement and Adverbial. You should also be able to distinguish clearly between direct and indirect objects, between subject and object complements, and between subject complements and direct objects.

22.1 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 21, we tried to show you that a sentence is not just a string of words which have been randomly put together. If it were so, you could pick up the dictionary of any language and start speaking with the native speakers of that language. But languages consist of systematically organised sentences and not just words strung together at random. In fact there is a limited set of constituents that combine to make sentences. The set of rules which is used to combine these constituents is also finite. The infinite variety of sentences that we understand and produce is made possible only by the application of these rules.

22.2 BASIC ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE

You have already come across sentences such as the following in Unit 21:

- 1 Sudhir is now a student at Delhi University.
- 2 The Babus of Nayanjore were famous landlords.
- 3 Vimla has searched the room carefully.
- 4 They make Rahul the captain every year.
- 5 It rained heavily last night.
- 6 Naha gave Sanjay a book yesterday.
- 7 My brother is playing hockey on the playground.

All these sentences are composed of five basic elements, namely,

- Subject (S)
- Verb (V)
- Object (O)
- Complement (C)
- Adverbial (A)

The last four, i.e. Verb, Object, Complement and Adverbial are parts of the predicate. Sentences are formed by combining S with one or more elements of the predicate. V is never optional. It is an essential part of every sentence. Sentence 4 above has all the five elements.

They	make	Rahul	he captain	every year
S	V	O	C	A

We talked about S and V briefly in Unit 21. O, C and A are the new elements. We'll talk about them briefly below. A detailed discussion of these elements will be taken up in the subsequent units.

Among objects we need to distinguish between **Direct Objects (DO)** and **Indirect Objects (IO)**. In sentence 6 above, *a book* is the DO and *Sanjay* the IO. Whatever is directly affected by the verb is called the DO. The IO is generally the recipient of what is directly affected by the verb. In English, the DO generally follows the IO.

Among complements, we need to distinguish between **Subject Complements (SC)** and **Object Complements (OC)**. In 1 above, *a student* is an SC because it is directly related to the subject of the sentence, i.e. Sudhir. It is Sudhir who is a student at Delhi University. In 4, *the captain* is an OC because it relates directly to the object of the sentence i.e. Rahul. It is Rahul who is the captain.

There should be no confusion between an SC and a DO. An SC simply gives additional information about the subject. A DO is directly affected by the verb. For example in 8, below *a doctor* is an SC because it only tells us something new about Nilima. 'Nilima' and 'doctor' refer to the same person.

8 Nilima is a doctor. (S V SC)

9 He became the president (S V SC)

In 9 also, *he* and *the president* refer to the same person. The situation is quite different in 10 and 11 below, where the objects *a cake* and *the door* are directly influenced by the verbs *made* and *opened*.

10 She made a cake. (S V DO)

11 Anju opened the door. (S V DO)

Notice that sentences 10 and 11 having the pattern S V DO can be changed into the passive voice. Sentences 8 and 9 with the S V SC patterns cannot be passivised.

Sentences 12 and 13 are the passives for 10 and 11:

12 A cake was made by her.

13 The door was opened by Anju.

Adverbials (A) elaborate on the action denoted by the verb and generally form answers to questions beginning with *how*, *when*, *where*, etc. For example, in the case of sentence 1, we could ask, 'Where is Sudhir a student?' The answer would be:

at 'Delhi University', which is an Adverbial of place. Similarly adverbs may tell us about the time, manner, and frequency of the action denoted by the verb. In sentences 1-7, *now*, *every year*, *last night*, *yesterday* are all adverbials of time, *on the playground* is an adverbial of place, and *carefully* is an adverb of manner.

We have given a very elementary discussion of the different constituents of a sentence. We may now analyse sentences 1-7 in terms of these elements viz. S V SC IO DO OC A.

S	V	SC	IO	DO	OC	A
Sudhir	is	a student				now at Delhi University
The Babus of Nayanjore	were	famous landlords				
Vimla	has searched			the room		carefully
They	make			Rahul	the captain	every year
It	rained					heavily last night
Neha	gave		Sanjay	a book		yesterday
My brother	is playing			hockey		on the play ground

22.3 BASIC SENTENCE PATTERNS

The above analysis of the seven sentences in 22.2 illustrates some of the basic sentence patterns of English. In its simplest form an English sentence may consist of only a subject and a verb, i.e. the pattern is

A. S V

as in the following sentences:

14 Fire burns.

15 Birds fly.

We may optionally add A (Adverbs) to these sentences as in

16 Fire always burns.

17 Birds fly every morning.

In fact all the seven sentences in 22.2 will make perfect sense without the element A

One of the most frequently used patterns in English is the

B. S V DO (A) (The element A is shown in brackets to indicate that it is optional) Pattern illustrated in sentence 3 in 22.2 above. Some more examples are.

18 Meera wrote a letter.

19 She drives a scooter.

Sentence 6 in 22.2 above illustrates the very productive pattern

C. S V IO DO (A)

We may give some more examples.

20 We gave her a grand party.

21 Ravi lent me ten rupees.

Sentences 18 and 19 contain only one object each. Each of these sentences can have one passive voice form. But there are two objects each in 20 and 21 and each of them may have two passive sentences corresponding to it as follows.

22 A grand party was given to her by us.

23 She was given a grand party by us.

24 Ten rupees were lent to me by Ravi.

25 I was lent ten rupees by Ravi.

Another frequently used pattern of English, namely.

D. S V SC (A)

is illustrated in sentence 1 in 22.2 above. It may also be seen in the following sentences.

26 Rajiv is a doctor.

27 The sky became dark.

The pattern

E. S V DO OC (A)

may be seen in sentence 4 in 22.2 above and in the following examples.

28 We named our son Mukul.

29 She called me a coward.

It is very rare that the same verb is flexible enough to be used in all the above major sentence patterns. Yet we may illustrate all these patterns by using a verb like 'keep.'

Pattern	S	V	SC	IO	DO	OC	(A)
A.	Tinned food	keeps					indefinitely.
B.	Mohan	kept			dogs.		
C.	Mohan	kept		us	seats.		
D.	Tinned food	keeps	fresh.				
E.	Blankets	kept			us	warm.	

Check Your Progress

I Look at the following sentences:

He brought some coffee. S V DO

He brought us some coffee. S V IO DO

Use the following verbs to make up pairs of sentences similar to the above:

i) give:

ii) sell:

iii) lend:

iv) sing:

v) ask:

2 Sort the following sentences into three groups

a) S V b) S V SC c) S V DO

- 1 He became a national hero.
- 2 The sun has set.
- 3 We paused.
- 4 Neetu can drive a car.
- 5 The total is ninety-seven.
- 6 Meera's father is a doctor.
- 7 The men hunted animals.
- 8 Fire interrupted the last performance.
- 9 They were flying kites.
- 10 Birds fly.

S V

S V SC

S V DO

3 Identify the patterns in the following sentences:

- i) She became blind.
- ii) Roopa became an excellent model.
- iii) I gave him all my money.
- iv) That will save us a lot of trouble.
- v) We painted the house white.
- vi) He wrote the letter quickly.
- vii) Experience made her confident.
- viii) You promised me an ice-cream yesterday.
- ix) They will set the prisoners free on the 15th of August.
- x) He always brings sweets on Diwali.

4 It is sometimes possible to use either the S V IO DO or the S V DO OC pattern to say much the same thing as may be expressed in the pattern S V DO, e.g.

- i) Her explanation clarified the situation. (S V DO)
- ia) Her explanation made the situation clear. (S V DO OC)
- ii) They fed the animals. (S V DO)
- ia) They gave the animals food. (S V IO DO)

Make up a sentence based on either ia or iia above for each of the following sentences.

- i) They rewarded us.
- ii) The journey tired him.
- iii) Nobody can simplify his theory.
- iv) His eyes troubled him.
- v) Man has tamed animals.

22.4 LET US SUM UP

Subject (S), Verb (V), Object (O), Complement (C) and Adverbials (A) are the basic elements from which all sentences are made. V is never optional: A may often be optional. Objects may be Direct or Indirect. The Direct Object is the one which is directly affected by the verb. A Subject Complement is directly related to the Subject and an Object Complement is directly related to the Object. The five basic patterns are: (1) S V (2) S V DO (3) S V IO DO (4) S V SC (5) S V DO OC.

22.5 KEY WORDS

'Complement: that which makes something complete

'Adverb: a word used to qualify a verb, adjective, or another adverb.

22.6 SUGGESTED READING

Mittins, W.H. 1962. *A Grammar of Modern English*. New Delhi: B.I. Publications.

Quirk, R. et al. 1972. *A Grammar of Contemporary English*. Longman.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

- 1 i) He gave a lot of money. He gave me a lot of money.
- ii) He sold a house. He sold me a house.
- iii) He lends money. He always lends me money.
- iv) He sang a nice song. He sang me a nice song.
- v) May I ask a question? May I ask you a question?

- 2 S V : 2, 3, 10.
- S V SC : 1, 5, 6.
- S V DO : 4, 7, 8, 9.

- 3 i) S V SC ii) S V SC iii) S V IO DO iv) S V IO DO
v) S V DO OC vi) S V DO A vii) S V DO OC
viii) S V IO DO A ix) S V DO OC A x) S A V DO A.
- 4 i) They gave us rewards.
- ii) The journey made him tired.
- iii) Nobody can make his theory simple.
- iv) His eyes gave him trouble.
- v) Man has made animals tame.

UNIT 23 THE SUBJECT

Structure

- 23.0 Objectives
- 23.1 Introduction
- 23.2 The Notional View of 'Subject'
- 23.3 The Grammatical Aspects of 'Subject'
 - 23.3.1 Subject-Verb Agreement
 - 23.3.2 Question Formation
 - 23.3.3 Passive Voice
- 23.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 23.5 Key Words
- 23.6 Suggested Reading
- Answers

23.0 OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this unit is to introduce you in some detail to the notion of subject in English. We will first discuss the traditional view of the notion of subject. We will try to show that this view is rather vague and imprecise. It does not help us to identify the subject of a sentence unambiguously. We'll show that it is better to define the subject grammatically. We'll discuss some very simple grammatical tests which can be used to identify the subject accurately.

After you have completed this unit, you should be able to identify the subject in most of the sentences you hear or read everyday. You should also be able to give syntactic reasons why a particular noun phrase should be considered the subject.

23.1 INTRODUCTION

In the last two units we introduced you to the major constituents of a sentence. We noticed that the subject (S) is an obligatory constituent. In this unit we discuss the notional and grammatical views about the nature of the subject. The notional view of the subject is based on considerations of meaning. It is also called the logical view. In this traditional view we generally ask the question: 'Who are we talking about?' or 'Who is performing the action' etc.? The typical role associated with the subject is that of an agent, i.e. *doer* of the action. Sometimes the subject may also have the role of an instrument or a recipient. But such notional views force us to go beyond the structure of the sentence. Things become more and more vague as we speculate which of the several things mentioned in a sentence may be important, which one is the instrument and which the recipient. We would like to characterise the notion of subject in such a way that we don't need to go beyond the sentence. There are very simple grammatical tests which can help us to identify the subject in a sentence. As we noticed earlier also, the verb in a sentence matches in person and number the subject of the sentence. We suggest two more tests to identify the subject. If we change the given sentence into a question, it is the subject noun phrase that will get switched around with the auxiliary verb. Secondly, if we change the active sentences with transitive verbs into the passive voice, it is the subject noun phrase which is taken to the end of the sentence in the shape of the *by*-phrase.

23.2 THE NOTIONAL VIEW OF 'SUBJECT'

The notion of subject remains rather ill-defined and vague in spite of the fact that it has been discussed in great detail by grammarians. The nature of elements which can function as subjects of sentences in English (or, for that matter, in any language) is very large and complex. There are a large number of grammatical operations which can be understood only in relation to the notion of subject. Finally, a subject can assume a variety of semantic roles in English, that is it can have different kinds of meaning.

Most traditional grammars provide a semantic or notional definition of subject. It is defined as a set of one or more words in a sentence about which something is said, or as we noted in Unit 21 also, as the person responsible for the action denoted by the verb. It is true that this is the most typical semantic role a subject may assume in English. We may call this the **agentive** role. For example, in

1 Mohan closed the door.

the verb *close* denotes the action of closing and this action is performed by Mohan, who is the subject in the above sentence and has an agentive role. In the following sentence,

2 Kumudini Lakhia is an imaginative choreographer.
something new is being said about Kumudini Lakhia, who is therefore the subject. The subject in English may often appear in an **instrumental** role. We see this most clearly in the case of natural events not caused by human beings, as in

- 3 The floods destroyed several villages.
- 4 The frost ruined the flowers.

With intransitive verbs, the subject may have the role of **'affected'**, as in

- 5 The door opened.
- 6 She became angry.

Another important role a subject may assume is that of a **recipient**, particularly with verbs such as *own, possess, benefit*, etc. The contrast between a recipient subject and an agentive subject is best seen in the case of verbs like *see* and *hear* on the one hand and *look at* and *listen to* on the other. For example, in

- 7 Umesh has seen a good deal in his long life.
- 8 We heard someone crying.

Umesh and *we* have a recipient role. In 9 and 10

- 9 Umesh looked at the pictures carefully,
- 10 We listened to him patiently.

Umesh and *we* have an agentive role.

The subject in English may also perform a **locative** role, i.e. it may indicate the place where the action takes place. For example, in

- 11 Shimla is very cold in winters.

Shimla is the locative subject as it indicates the place where it is cold.

The subject may also have a **temporal** function, i.e. indicate the time of an action or state, as in

- 12 Last two years were really unlucky for me.

Finally, we often use *it* (see Unit 21 for the different functions of *it* as an **empty** subject while talking about time, weather, etc. In such cases there is no semantic content in the word *it*. It only acts as a prop, as in

- 13 It's 8 o'clock.
- 14 It's hot in here.

Notice that in many sentences the message may be such that no subject is required to complete the meaning of the sentence. Such sentences may also be rendered with *it*. Sentence 11 above may be rewritten as

- 15 It's very cold in Shimla in winters.

Check Your Progress I

Identify the semantic roles associated with the italicized noun phrases in the following sentences:

- 1 *Shabana Azmi* protested against the murder of Safdar Hashmi.
- 2 *The heavy rains* destroyed the crops again this year.
- 3 *The hunter* killed the tiger.
- 4 *The gun* killed the tiger.
- 5 *This car* seats five people.
- 6 *Yesterday* was a holiday.

- 7 The key opened the door.
 8 They marched the soldiers.
 9 He became angry
 10 *It* possesses a beautiful house.

23.3 THE GRAMMATICAL ASPECTS OF 'SUBJECT'

Though often helpful, notional definitions such as the ones discussed in 23.2 remain vague and imprecise. They are all based on our ability to identify what we are talking about. And how do we know what the other person is talking about? For example, in

16 Ravi gave the pen to Kirpal.

is the speaker talking about *Ravi*, *Kirpal*, or *pen*? We'd like to have some grammatical criteria which will help us to identify the subject unambiguously. One such criterion, as we discussed in Unit 21, is the agreement that exists between the subject and the verb in a sentence.

23.3.1 Subject-Verb Agreement

The subject of a sentence is a noun phrase, which controls the way in which the person and number of the subject will be reflected in the verb. There is no vagueness about the grammatical test. The *noun phrase*, which controls the agreement marked in the verb is the subject of the given sentence. Consider again the following sentences you have already come across in the last two units.

- 17 *Sudhir* is now a student at Delhi University.
 18 *The Babus of Nayanjore* were famous landlords.
 19 *Vimla* has searched the room carefully.
 20 *They* make him the editor every year..
 21 *It* rained heavily last night.
 22 *Neha* gave Sanjay a book yesterday.
 23 *My brother* is playing hockey on the playground.

In all the above sentences the verb matches the italicized noun phrase in number. Grammatically, these phrases are the subjects. *Sudhir* is singular, therefore we say *is*. But *the Babus of Nayanjore* is plural; therefore we say *were*, and so on. We may say that in 17 *a student* is also singular and *is* may be in agreement with it rather than with *Sudhir*, and that in 18 *landlords* is plural like *The Babus of Nayanjore*—how do we know that *were* matches *The Babus* and not *landlords*? We may notice one thing in all the above sentences: the subject noun phrase precedes the verb. But in 23.3.2 below we'll provide some more tests which will help us to identify the subject of a sentence beyond any doubt. First, let us consider some special cases of subject-verb agreement.

The subject of a sentence may often consist of two or more noun phrases and in such cases we may have some doubts as to which noun phrase should control the agreement to be shown in the verb. Consider the following sentences.

- 24 *Anju and Poonam* are coming home today.
 25 *Both his kindness and sensitivity* have been appreciated.
 26 *Your friend Sujata* always calls in the morning.
 27 *His marble-tiled house and a memory to his wife* was completed last year.
 28 *Either the students or the teachers* are on strike.
 29 *Neither he nor his wife* has/have arrived.

Both *and* and *both* are correlative conjunctions; they always constitute the a plural unit and take the plural verb as in 24 and 25 above. In 24, *Anju is coming* and *Poonam is also coming*; together they *are* coming. But when the components of the compound noun phrases refer to the same person or object, the verb is always singular. In 26, *friend* and *Sujata* refer to the same person, and similarly in 27 it is the same house which is marble-tiled and which is a memory to the wife of the person being talked about in this sentence. The verbs in both the cases are therefore singular.

When two nouns or noun phrases are coordinated by *either... or*, the general rule is that the number of the verb will match the number of the noun closest to the verb. In 28, *teachers* is plural and the plural verb *are* is used, but in

30 *Either his teachers or your son himself is to be blamed,*

though *teachers* is plural, the verb *is* is singular since the noun phrase close to it *your son*, is singular. This principle of the subject-verb agreement being decided by the noun phrase close to the verb is further illustrated in

31 *Either my children or I am going.*

The person and number of *am* matches *I* rather than *children*.

Sentence 29 above which uses the negative correlative *neither.... nor* shows that in this case both singular and plural verbal forms may be equally acceptable. But in general it is better to maintain the principle of proximity and let the noun closer to the verb decide the number of the verb; e.g.

32 *Neither he nor his children have arrived.*

33 *Neither his children nor his wife has arrived.*

though in 33 many may prefer *have*.

23.3.2 Question Formation

We may suggest another test to identify the subject of a sentence. The question forms corresponding to sentences 17-23 above will be

34 *Is Sudhir now a student.....?*

35 *Were the Babus of Nayanjore.....?*

36 *Has Vimla searched.....?*

37 *Do they make him.....?*

38 *Did it rain.....?*

39 *Did Neha give.....?*

40 *Is my brother playing.....?*

What has switched places in the process of forming questions? It is clear that it is the subject, the italicized portions of sentences 17-23. So if you are ever in doubt about the subject of a sentence, change it into a question. The part that will get switched around with the auxiliary (or *be* used as a linking verb) in this process is the subject of the sentence. In case there is no auxiliary in the sentence as in 20, 21 and 22 above, introduce *do* to get the question forms 37, 38 and 39.

23.3.3 Passive Voice

Yet another test to identify the subject of a sentence in English is to use the passive voice. This can be done only if the active sentence has a transitive verb and an object as in

41 *He wrote a book.*

What is the subject in 41? We change it into the passive voice as in

42 *A book was written by him.*

The noun phrase which is taken to the end of the sentence in the form of a *by*-phrase is the subject of 41. In fact, the passive enables the speaker to focus on the person or things affected rather than on the doer. The *by*-phrase incorporating the subject can often be deleted. There are situations in which the doer of an action is either unknown or important or the speaker wants to hide the doer's identity. In such situations the natural form to be used is the passive. In such sentences the person or things affected become the grammatical subject. In

43 *The glasses were broken.*

the glasses is the grammatical subject and the doer does not receive any prominence.

Sentences 19, 20 and 22 above have transitive verbs. We change them into the corresponding passive sentences to get

44 *The room has been searched carefully (by Vimla).*

45 *He is made the editor every year (by them)*

46 *A book was given to Sanjay yesterday (by Neha)*

and notice that the *by*-phrases in the brackets above are the same as the subjects of 19, 20 and 22 respectively. We also notice that the objects in 19, 20 and 22 have become grammatical subjects in 44 - 46 and control the subject-verb agreement.

Check Your Progress 2

1 Turn the following sentences into questions and underline the noun phrase which

should be treated as the subject of the sentence:

i) Nanking claimed further gains in China's civil war.

.....
.....

ii) Business and industrial leaders in New York are predicting a slump in world trade.

.....

iii) Calcutta is running out of atmospheric oxygen.

.....

iv) A strange invitation turned up at newspaper offices in Bombay.

.....

v) The march of modernisation is taking its toll of Lutyen's Delhi.

.....

vi) Town planners fear that Delhi may become a slum by the next century.

.....

vii) Each of the criminals was tried separately.

.....

viii) Your blood pressure, as well as your temperature, is up today.

.....

ix) One of my best friends was killed yesterday.

.....

2 Use the passive voice test to identify the noun phrases which should be treated as subjects of the following active sentences:

i) The police caught the thief immediately.

.....

ii) The manager of the factory distributed the wages yesterday.

.....

iii) Mr. Aiyer, the owner of the restaurant, organised a blood donation camp.

.....

iv) Many private firms supply spurious drugs.

.....

v) The students took out a procession yesterday.

.....

3 Underline the subject and fill in the blanks:

i) One of my brothers coming to help me.

ii) The attempts on his life finally ceased.

iii) Neither of your remarks particularly polite.

iv) Either your brakes or your eyesight at fault.

v) A play by Utpal Dutt a major cultural event. And, typically, the
doyen of the Bengali theatre world chosen an unusual subject: Tipu

Sultan's links with France. As a self-avowed Marxist, Dutt's views far from establishmentarian. Dutt himself Louis XVI. The costumes designed by Jean Claude Barriera.

- vi) The decline in the functioning of our Parliament become a scandal. Our MPs very sensitive if their conduct ever commented-upon. There is always the threat that their privileges not to be touched but one if they even think about own record of work.

23.4 LET US SUM UP

The subject of a given sentence may be viewed notionally or grammatically. Notional definitions tend to be vague and imprecise. Some simple grammatical tests offer more accurate ways of identifying the subject of a sentence. These tests include the subject-verb agreement, question formation, and passive voice. The subject noun phrase of a sentence will control the number and person of the verb used in that sentence. If we change the sentence into a question, it is the subject noun phrase which will get switched with the auxiliary. In the passive voice, the subject noun phrase is taken to the object position in the shape of a by-phrase.

23.5 KEY WORDS

'notional : speculative, based on subjective ideas

'temporal : existing in time

correlative: having a mutual relation, words like *either* and *or* are correlative conjunctions

proximity : nearness

23.6 SUGGESTED READING

Palmer, F. 1971. *Grammar*. Penguin. 34 - 40, 70 - 80

Close, R.A. 1975. *A Reference Grammar for Students of English*. Longman

Quirk, R. et al. 1972. *A Grammar of Contemporary English*. Longman.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

1. Agentive 2. Instrumental 3. Agentive 4. Instrumental 5. Locative 6. Temporal
7. Instrumental 8. Agentive 9. Affected 10. Recipient

Check Your Progress 2

- 1 i) Did Nanking claim.....?
ii) Are business and industrial leaders in New York.....?
iii) Is Calcutta.....?
iv) Did a strange invitation turn up.....?
v) Is the march of modernisation.....?
vi) Do town planners fear that.....?
vii) Was each of the criminals?
viii) Is your blood pressure, as well as your temperature.....?
ix) Was one of my best friends killed.....?
- 2 i) The thief was caught immediately by the police.
ii) The wages were distributed yesterday by the manager of the factory.
iii) A blood donation camp was organised by Mr. Aiyer, the owner of the restaurant.
iv) Spurious drugs are supplied by many private firms
v) A procession was taken out by the students yesterday.
- i) is ii) have iii) is iv) is v) is, has, are, plays, are. vi) has, are, is, are, wonders, their.

UNIT 24 THE NATURE OF THE PREDICATE: THE VERB

Structure

- 24.0 Objectives
- 24.1 Introduction
- 24.2 Verbal Elements of the Predicate
 - 24.2.1 Tense
 - 24.2.2 Aspect
 - 24.2.3 Modality
 - 24.2.4 Voice
 - 24.2.5 Finite and non-finite verb phrases
- 24.3 Let Us Sum Up
- 24.4 Key Words
- 24.5 Suggested Reading
- Answers

24.0 OBJECTIVES

In Unit 23 we talked about the nature of the subject. In this and some of the following units we'll talk about the nature of the **predicate** of a sentence. This particular unit is devoted to a discussion of the **verbal elements** of the predicate. We'll try to analyze how the verbal elements of a sentence contain information about 'tense', 'aspect', 'modality' and 'voice' of the situation described in that particular sentence. We'll also examine some of the complex ways in which information about the dimensions of tense, aspect and modality are interwoven in the verb of a sentence.

After you have worked through this unit, you should be able to analyze those aspects of the verb that tell us about the time at which the situation described in a given sentence took place, the way it was seen by the speaker, his attitude towards the situation, and the relationship that obtains between the action and the actor.

24.1 INTRODUCTION

As we noticed in Unit 22, the predicate of a sentence consists of the obligatory element 'verb' and the optional elements 'object', 'complement' and the 'adverbial'. Some people group all these elements of the predicate under the category 'verb phrase'. We then have to separate the verb from the other elements. In this unit we'll be concerned with the verbal element of the predicate, and we'll use the term verb phrase to refer to the verbal element only.

First of all, the verb in a sentence tells us about its tense, i.e. the time at which the event or situation described in the sentence is to be located. It is through the verb that we come to know whether what is described in the sentence took place in the past, or it will happen now, or at some point of time in the future. Further, it is the verb which tells us whether the speaker views the situation he is talking about as complete, or still in progress. This is the dimension of aspect. We'll see how English has verbal forms corresponding to the present and past time. It has no verbal form that corresponds exclusively to the future time. Though there are a variety of ways to indicate future time, English has no future tense in the sense it has the present and the past tenses. The form of the verb also gives us information about the mood of the speaker, i.e. it tells us whether the speaker intends his utterance as a statement of fact, or as a request, command, etc. Thus tense, aspect and modality are important dimensions of the verb of a sentence. The verb also tells us about the relationship between the action and the actor in a given sentence—the dimension of voice. The discussion of active and passive voice leads to a distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs. Finally, we'll make a distinction between finite and non-finite verb phrases, finite verb phrases being limited by person and number agreement between the subject and the verb and by being marked for tense and mood.

24.2 VERBAL ELEMENTS OF THE PREDICATE

As already pointed out, we can analyze sentences in terms of subject and predicate. In Unit 23, we discussed some of the grammatical properties associated with the subject of a sentence. In this unit, we shall talk about the predicate.

A simple sentence consists of one Subject and one Predicate. The Subject consists of a noun phrase with a noun as its head, and the Predicate must have at least a verb or a verb phrase with a verb as its head. Often you may come across sentences which have only one word. In such sentences the subject noun phrase is deleted and is contextually understood. For example in

- 1 Listen!
- 2 Run!

The subject noun phrase 'You' has been deleted. You may also have seen two-word sentences in which the subject noun phrase is represented by a noun and the verb phrase of the predicate by a verb, as in

- 3 Dogs bark.
- 4 Time flies.

But most sentences have more than two words.

The Predicate of a sentence is best defined negatively: the predicate is what is left of the sentence after we remove the subject. As we noted in 22.2, the predicate of a sentence may consist of the obligatory element verb and one or more of the optional elements object, complements, and adverbials. The most important element in the Predicate is the verbal group. It consists of a verb and may optionally be accompanied by other verbal elements. The head of the verbal group (the verb phrase) is also called the predicator. For example, in

- 5 Mohan washed the car.

Mohan is the subject, and *washed the car* the predicate. In the predicate, *washed* is the verb. It is also the predicator. There are no other verbal elements accompanying *washed*. The other element in the predicate is a noun phrase, *the car*, which is the object of *washed* and consists of the premodifier article *the* and the head noun *car*. The verbal group in the predicate often consists of the main verb plus some auxiliary verbs as in

- 6 Kripal is writing a novel.

where the main verb *write* is accompanied by the auxiliary *is* and the progressive
How will you ana'yze a novel?

24.2.1 Tense

What is the nature of information contained in the verbal group (verb phrase) of a sentence? The dictionary meaning of the head verb is of course very important. It may denote an action as in *drink, play, write*, etc. or a process as in *grow, change, melt*, etc. or a state as in *dislike, see, understand*, etc. But in addition to its meaning, the verb in the predicate contains very important grammatical information as well.

As we noted in Unit 21, it tells us about the person and number of the subject; you remember the rule: singular subject, singular verb; plural subject, plural verb.

Secondly, the verb of a sentence is marked for tense, i.e. it tells us about the location of the event or situation contained in the sentence in time. It is the verb (along with associated adverbs) which tells us whether the speaker is referring to what is *happening now*, or what *happened yesterday*, or what *will happen tomorrow*. Consider the following sentences:

- 7 He is leaving now.
- 8 He left yesterday.
- 9 He will leave tomorrow.

For the speaker of these sentences, the event contained in 7 is concurrent with the

moment of speaking. The event contained in 8 is located at some point in the past before the moment of speaking, whereas the event of 9 is located at some point after the moment of speaking. This information is primarily contained in the verb phrases *is leaving*, *left* and *will leave*. You may like to go over the seven sentences in 22.2 and decide about their location in time.

English has two tenses: present and past. It has two distinct verbal forms (e.g. *walk*, *walked*) which correspond to these tenses respectively. It does not have a Future tense form as such. Though we often use *will* to indicate future time, it is not always its primary function. In fact, we have a variety of ways of indicating future time but there is no grammatical form corresponding essentially to the future tense. The auxiliary *will* belongs really to the category of such modal verbs as *can*, *may*, *must*, etc. Like the modal verbs, and unlike the verbs capable of indicating present or past time, *will* does not show any person and number agreement with the subject.

Contrast 10 and 11:

10 I/You/He/We/They will leave now.

11 I/You/We/They leave now.

He leaves now.

It is clear that *will* is not sensitive to changes in the person and number of the subject, while a verb like *leave* is. Even the non-modal auxiliaries such as *do*, *have*, *be*, etc. are sensitive to changes in number, person and tense. Consider the following table:

	Person	Number	Present	Past
I	I	Singular	I do... I have... I am...	I did... I had... I was...
We	I	Plural	We do... We have... We are... We were...	We did... We had... We were...
You	II	Plural	Singular You do... You have... You are...	You did... You had... You were...
He	III	Singular	He does... He has... He is...	He did... He had... He was...
They	III	Plural	They do... They have... They are...	They did... They had... They were...

Notice that the form of the verb *be* changes according to whether the utterance is located in the present or the past time, and according to whether the subject is the first, second or third person. In the present tense, we have *is* with the third person singular *he*, *are* with the second person singular *you*, and with the first, second and third person plurals *we*, *you*, *they*, and *am* with the first person singular *I*. In the past tense we have *was* with the first and third person singular, and *were* with the second person singular *you* and the first, second and third person plurals *we*, *you*, *they*. The use of *will* does not show similar changes in shape and meaning. Though *would* does exist, it is never used to indicate an event located before the moment of speaking. Thus 12 is acceptable but not 13.

12 He will/would arrive tomorrow.

* 13 He would arrive yesterday.

We will first discuss the present tense. This will be followed by a discussion of the different functions of the past tense. Then we will discuss some of the ways English uses to indicate future time.

The Present Tense

The primary function of the present tense is to locate the situation in the present time, we use it to speak of states and processes which hold at the present moment, the moment of speaking, though they have their beginning at some point in the past and may well continue beyond the present moment.

The simple present (or the present indefinite) form is often used to express general truths which may be considered valid for all times, as in

14 The sun *rises* in the east every day.

15 Wood always *floats* on water.

The simple present is also used for habitual actions. We use it when we wish to talk about actions which recur or about states and activities lasting for variable periods of length. The following examples illustrate this use.

16 I *wake up* at six these days.

17 Politicians always *make* attractive promises during elections.

We also use the simple present to talk of a past event when we wish to emphasise its present importance, as in

18 I *understand* from your letter that you will soon be coming to Delhi.

19 I *believe* that there are no rooms available now.

The states to which the italicized verbs above refer have already taken place at some point in the past but we use the simple present because they are of present interest. In fact, we also use the simple present tense for what is called the historical present, i.e. to talk vividly about some past event, as in

20 Arjuna *asks* Lord Krishna to tell him what his duty is.

21 This is the story of a boy who *runs* away from home.

As we'll see later, the simple present can also be used to express future time.

The Simple Past Tense

The essential meaning associated with the use of the simple past tense forms is the location of a given situation prior to the present moment. If we deduce any other meaning from a sentence using the past tense, it will result from some other parts of the sentence and not the tense. The simple past tense denotes definite past time. As is clear from examples 14-19 above, when we use the simple present tense, the associated adverbs used include *every day, always, these days, now, etc.* When we use the simple past tense, the associated adverbs would include *yesterday, last summer, last year, last night, etc.* Thus the tense forms of verbs and the adverbs reinforce each other's meaning.

The simple past is used when the time of action is detached from the present moment, as in

22 They *visited* Kashmir last year.

23 It *rained* last night.

A very frequent use of the simple past is to express habitual or regular actions which are completed in the past and are not associated with the present. For example,

24 As a child he *completed* his work in time.

25 I *met* him regularly last year.

The simple past may often be used with descriptive force adding vividness to an utterance. It has this stylistic effect especially when a sequence of events is expressed, as in

26 In her anger she *shouted, she screamed, she cried.*

27 *Men shouted, women wept.*

24.2.2 Aspect

Before we go on to discuss different ways of expressing future time in English, it is important to understand the nature of the different aspects indicated by the verb in a sentence. Aspect is essentially a matter of how the speaker views the situation he is talking about. Does he view it as something which finished at some point in the past, or as something which has present relevance, or as something which is still in progress, etc.? English has two aspectual contrasts, namely, Perfective/Non-perfective, and Progressive/Non-progressive. The choice of a particular aspect is a matter of how the speaker views a given situation.

The perfective aspect involves the use of *has/have* in the present tense and *had* in the past tense followed by the past participle form of the main verb.

The Present Perfect

Contrast the following two sentences:

- 28 Anju *lived* in Delhi for ten years.
 29 Anju *has lived* in Delhi for ten years.

In both these sentences, the speaker has located the state of Anju's living at some point in the past. But in the case of 28 he suggests that her stay in Delhi has come to a close, whereas in 29 the speaker indicates that she is still living in Delhi. The past non-perfect of 28 involves a point or period in the past that does not include the present. The present perfect in 29 involves a period that is inclusive of both past and present. The present perfect is generally used for an action that started in the past but whose relevance for the present moment is important, as in

- 30 I am sorry you can't see the minister. He *has just arrived* from Bombay.

Like the simple present and past tenses, there is a set of adverbials typically associated with the present perfect. Adverbials such as *at present, as yet, just now, since last week, etc.* are used with the present perfect but not with the simple past non-perfect. Sentence 31 is grammatical, but not 32.

- 31 At present I *have written* three chapters.
 * 32 At present I *wrote* three chapters.

The Past Perfect

The use of the past perfect involves a double dose of pastness; it has the meaning of past-in-the-past. It is typically associated with an action or a state completed before a certain time in the past. For example, in 33 and 34

- 33 He *had written* only one chapter till yesterday.
 34 The train *had left* half an hour before I reached the station

the situation described is not simply past in relation to the moment of speaking; it is past in relation to a moment that is already in the past, i.e. yesterday, or my reaching the station. You will notice that whereas non-perfects involve reference to a single point in time, the perfect aspects involve reference to more than one point in time. In fact, the multiplicity of time reference points makes the learning of perfect tenses more difficult.

The Progressive Aspect

The progressive or continuous aspect indicates an action in progress as compared to the occurrence of an action or the existence of a state. It is used when the speaker views the situation he is talking about as continuous action.

The Present Progressive

It is used for an action in progress at the present moment. The action will have started at some point in the past and will continue for sometime in the future. It will be easier to understand its nature if we contrast it with the simple present as in

- 35 Tahira *sings* well.
 36 Tahira *is singing* well.

In 35, we are talking about the competence of Tahira as a singer. In 36, we refer to her act of singing now—the song is in progress.

The present progressive is also used for vividness of description; the descriptive force may often be intensified by the use of such adverbs as *always, constantly, perpetually, etc.* For example,

- 37 He *is always talking* nonsense in the class.
 38 Manisha *is always coming* late to the class.

As we'll see later, the present progressive can also be used to indicate future time.

The Past Progressive

The most frequent use of the past progressive is to express an action in progress at a past moment. We may contrast the simple past and the past progressive, as in

- 39 Tahira *sang* well.
 40 Tahira *was singing* well.

Like the present progressive, the past progressive can also be used for vividness of description, as in

- 41 My father *was always getting* into trouble at that time.
 42 He *was always going* late to school as a child.

The progressive aspect, both in the present and the past tense, is used to show the incompleteness and limited duration of an activity.

For example, in

43 I *was reading* a novel that evening.

there is no suggestion that the reading was completed that evening. In

44 The doctor *is typing* his own letters these days.

there is a suggestion that the doctor is doing this work for a limited period.

Since the progressive aspect indicates actions in progress, it is natural that it should be used with dynamic verbs of activity and process. Verbs which describe a state, e.g. *know, see, believe*, etc. will normally not be used with the progressive aspect. We normally don't come across sentences like

- * 45 It is belonging to me.
- * 46 I am seeing the book.
- * 47 I am knowing the language.

In English we would normally say the following instead.

48 It belongs to me.

49 I am looking at the book.

50 I am learning the language.

The verb *know* describes a state. It is a stative verb. It cannot be used with the progressive aspect. The verb *learn* involves a process. It is a dynamic verb and can be used with the progressive aspect.

Notice how dimensions of time and aspect are interwoven in the verbal elements of a sentence. In *was reading*, *was* suggests location in the past, and *-ing* action in progress.

The Perfect Progressive Tenses

It is possible to combine progressive with the perfect to get the present and past perfect progressive tenses. The present perfect progressive tense is used to express the duration of an action which was started sometime in the past and is still continuing into the present moment. There is generally also a possibility of the action continuing in future.

51 I *have been reading* this book since morning. It is still not finished.

52 I *have been painting* my house since yesterday. It is not even half finished.

The past perfect progressive denotes an action started before, and lasting until the past moment with which it is linked. In

53 The bell *had been ringing* for a good five minutes before the door was opened.

The opening of the door itself is a moment in the past and the bell had been ringing before that.

The above discussion shows how aspects of activity (aspect) and aspects of time (tense) are interwoven in the verbal element of a sentence. To summarise, we can rewrite the verbal elements of English sentences as

Tense(*have + en*) (*be + ing*) Verb

where categories outside the brackets i.e. Tense and Verb are obligatory and the ones inside the brackets are optional. Every English sentence must have a verb and should be marked for tense. The tense is attached to the first verbal element in the sentence. We use *have + en* in the case of the perfective aspect and *be + ing* in the case of the progressive aspect. The suffix *-en* stands for the past participle form, as in *eaten*. Let's take the verb *eat* and illustrate different combinations of the above rule for representing the verbal elements of English sentences.

	Example	Tense
Tense + Verb	He eats meat.	Simple Present
Tense + (<i>have + en</i>) + Verb	He <i>has eaten</i> all the mangoes.	Present Perfect
Tense + (<i>be + ing</i>) + Verb	He <i>is eating</i> his dinner.	Present Progressive
Tense + (<i>have + en</i>) + (<i>be + ing</i>) + Verb	He <i>has been eating</i> since 8 o'clock.	Present Perfect Progressive
Tense + Verb	He <i>ate</i> all the mangoes.	Simple Past
Tense + (<i>have + en</i>) + Verb	He <i>had eaten</i> his dinner when I went to see him.	Past Perfect
Tense + (<i>be + ing</i>) + Verb	He <i>was eating</i> his dinner when I went to see him.	Past Progressive

The first element of the verbal group carries the tense marking.

24.2.3 Modality

Every sentence describes some situation. The tense of the verb in that sentence tells us at what point in time that situation should be located. The dimension of aspect tells us how the speaker views the situation. The form of the verb also tells us whether we should understand the given sentence as a statement of fact, or as a command, request, or permission. This is the dimension of modality. Contrast 54 and 55.

54 He *is* a doctor.

55 He *may* be a doctor.

In the case of 54, we are sure that the person referred to as *he* is definitely a doctor. In 55, we lack that knowledge. We are uncertain. This uncertainty is coded in the verb. What we are saying in effect is : I am not certain whether he is a doctor but there is a possibility that he is. Modal uses also arise when we wish to take or give permission, or when we wish to indicate someone's ability to do something or the possibility of something happening. We generally use the modal auxiliaries—*can, may, will, must, should, etc.*—to express modality. For example, *can, could, may, might* can all be used to seek permission as in 56.

Can

56 *Could* I smoke in here ?

May

Might (rare)

The non-modal sentence would be.

57 I *smoke/smoked* in here.

We often use the same modal verbs to indicate possibility, as in

can

58 The road *could* be blocked.

may

might

Notice that though all the four versions of 58 express possibility, there are important differences of meaning. When we say 'The road, *can* be blocked', we are only hinting, at the theoretical possibility of blocked', the road i.e. it is possible to block it. When we say 'The road *may* be blocked' we mean that it is possible that the road is actually blocked. This is a case of factual possibility. We use *can* and *could* to indicate ability also, i.e. in the sense of 'able to', as in

59 I *can* play the sitar.

60 I *could* see him through the window.

We use *should* and *must* to indicate obligations and logical necessity. For example,

61 You *should* follow his advice.

62 You *must* tell the truth.

The obligation becomes the strongest in the imperative mood as in

63 *Tell* the truth.

Ways of Expressing Future Time

There is a natural affinity between modality and future time. Both contain an element of uncertainty. We noticed above that *will* does not mark future time in the same way as the present and past tenses mark the present and past time. There is a strong element of modality in the use of *will*. Sentences 64 and 65 have an almost equal amount of uncertainty. Contrast them with 'She *is* in Bombay now'.

64 She *may be* in Bombay now.

65 She *will be* in Bombay now.

When *will* is used to indicate future time, adverbials reinforce the suggestion of future time as in

66 She will be in Bombay next month.

But in addition to *will*, English has several ways of expressing future time. We often use the simple present for a planned future action, particularly when it concerns travel arrangements. For example,

67 We leave at seven sharp.

68 He arrives tomorrow.

We can also use the present progressive when the plans are certain and are generally in the near future.

69 Vimla is leaving at six tomorrow morning.

Obviously we cannot use those verbs which normally do not take the progressive aspect, i.e. the stative verbs. The verb *see* is an exception when it means visit, as in

70 I am seeing him tonight.

It is also common to use the form *going to* to indicate premeditated intention of future action, as in

71 He is going to get married.

72 We are going to sell this house.

It may also be used to indicate 'future of present cause' as in

73 It's going to rain.

Often *about to* also indicates futurity as in

74 He is about to leave.

24.2.4 Voice

Another dimension along which we can place the verbal elements in an English sentence is that of voice. It is the category of voice that defines the relationship between the action and the actor. In English the same set of facts can be reported in two ways—in the active voice

75 Vimla has searched the room.

or in the passive voice as in

76 The room has been searched by Vimla.

As you notice, passivization involves a total rearrangement of different parts—the object noun phrase moves to the subject noun phrase position while the subject noun phrase moves to the object noun phrase position and is preceded by *by*. There are important changes in the verb phrase as well. The passive sentence above adds a form of the auxiliary *be* and adds *-ed/-en* to the main verb. In a later unit we'll talk about the passive in greater detail. Here we may note that voice changes are reflected in the verb.

It should be obvious that only those sentences can be passivised which have objects. Verbs which can take objects are called transitive verbs. Verbs which do not require objects are called intransitive. For example, the verbs *rain* and *sleep* in

77 It rained heavily last night.

78 I slept early last night.

do not require any objects. The verb *search* in 75 cannot be used without an object. It is a transitive verb. Some verbs can take two objects. They are called ditransitive. For example, *give* in

79 Neha gave Sanjay a book yesterday.

24.2.5 Finite and Non-finite Verb Phrases

'Finite' means limited or bounded. A finite verb phrase is one that is limited by properties of person, number, tense and mood. The verb phrase is called non-finite when it is not marked for these categories. For example, the infinitive *to go*, or the participle form *cooking* in

80 I want *to go*.

81 He watched mother *cooking* the dinner.

are non-finite because they do not show any person or number agreement, nor are they marked for tense or mood. A finite verb phrase has tense distinction, i.e. it has the present and past tense forms as in

82 He *works* hard.
worked

Secondly, it will show person and number agreement. If we change *he* to *they* in 82, *works* will change to *work*. The shape of the verb *be* changes according to the person, as in

I am
83 You *are* going.
He *is*

Thirdly, finite verb phrases are also marked for mood, i.e. they make clear whether the sentence is an assertion, a request, a command, or a wish.

Check Your Progress

1 Rewrite the following sentences changing the form of the verb according to the tense indicated in the brackets. When necessary, change the adverbs as well.

i) The party wants a different ally now. (Simple Past)
.....

ii) We heard a strange story last year. (Present Perfect)
.....

iii) She hid herself. (Past Progressive)
.....

iv) He works hard for his examination. (Present Progressive)
.....

v) The peon rings the bell everyday. (Present Progressive)
.....

vi) She lives in Delhi. (Present Perfect Progressive)
.....

vii) He wrote five letters yesterday. (Past Perfect)
.....

viii) He is playing chess. (Simple Present)
.....

ix) The patient died. The doctor arrived only later. (Past Perfect)
.....

x) He walked for five hours. Then they found him. (Past Perfect Progressive)
.....

2 In the following sentences, identify (a) the verb phrase; (b) tense and aspect; (c) Modality; (d) Voice (e) Whether the verb is transitive or intransitive.

i) You have been speaking for a long time.
.....
.....

ii) You broke your promise.
.....

iii) Delhiites may expect the monsoons next week.
.....

- iv) One of the suspected killers of Raju Pehlwan was arrested today.
.....
- v) The proposed national programme will concentrate on public education.
.....
- vi) The story is about a young couple which surmounts the mandatory obstacles.
.....
- vii) Application forms can be obtained from the office.
.....
- viii) I have been working on this novel for the past ten years.
.....
- ix) He is always making trouble for us.
.....
- x) Leave at once.
.....

3 In the following sentences avoid using the modal verbs, e.g. *may, can*, etc. Use the appropriate form of the verb given in brackets. Also find out the specific function for which the verbal form has been used.

- i) Madhu was looking pale today. The moment I (look) at her, I (know) that she was ill. But she kept smiling as if nothing (happen) to her.
.....
.....
.....
- ii) What a huge house it is ! I (paint) it since morning and it is not even half finished.
.....
.....
.....
- iii) These days I generally have breakfast at eight because I (wake up) at seven.
.....
.....
- iv) Sonia is a careless girl. Yesterday she left her bag in the school. Her mother (get) angry. She asked her why she (leave) the bag in the school. Sonia felt very sad. She thought if she (pick up) her bag, she would not have been scolded.
.....
.....
.....
- v) She smiled as if she (see) me before.
.....
.....
- vi) Arjun stands on the battlefield and (ask) Lord Krishna to tell him what his duty is.
.....

vii) He (go) to Goa last summer.

.....

viii) The match (start) before we reached the field.

.....

ix) It (rain) since morning.

.....

.....

.....

x) He (work) in this college for twenty years before he retired.

.....

.....

.....

4 Give the present perfect and present progressive counterparts of the following sentences and in each case comment on the difference in meaning.

Sunita reads 'The Times of India'.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

5 Give the present perfect counterpart of the following sentences and in each case comment on the difference in meaning.

i) Sujata overslept this morning.

.....

.....

ii) The chief minister resigned.

.....

.....

iii) We found many printing errors in the book.

.....

.....

6 i) What evidence will you give to show that *will* is not primarily a marker of future tense in English?

.....

.....

.....

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

ii) What are the different functions of the simple present?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

iii) What are the different functions of the simple past?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

iv) What are the basic meanings associated with the perfective and the progressive aspects?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

situation he is talking about may also be seen in the verb. A finite verb is one which is marked for person, number, tense and mood.

24.4 KEY WORDS

'aspect: the form a verb takes to indicate whether the action is in progress and whether it involves reference to more than one point in time.

'finite (verb): verb form limited by number, person, tense, or mood, e.g. *am, was, are* are finite verb forms and *being* and *been* are non-finite.

'mood (in grammar): verb form that shows whether things are regarded as certain, possible, doubtful, etc.

'tense (in grammar): verb form that shows time

'transitives' verb: a verb that takes an object

24.5 SUGGESTED READINGS

Close, R.A. 1962. *English as a Foreign Language*. George Allen & Unwin (Chapters 7 and 8)

Comrie, B. 1985. *Tense*. CUP (Chapters 1 and 2)

Leech, G.N. 1971. *Meaning and the English Verb*. Longman. (Chapters 1 to 5)

Huddleston, R. 1988. *English Grammar*. CUP. (Chapters 3 and 5)

Quirk et al. 1972. *A Grammar of Contemporary English*. Longman. (Chapter 3)

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress I

- 1
 - i) The party wanted a different ally then.
 - ii) We have just heard a strange story.
 - iii) She was hiding herself.
 - iv) He is working hard for his examination.
 - v) The peon is ringing the bell now.
 - vi) She has been living in Delhi for a long time.
 - vii) He had written five letters till yesterday.
 - viii) He plays chess.
 - ix) The patient had died before the doctor arrived.
 - x) He had been walking for five hours before they found him.

- 2
 - i) *have been speaking*, present perfect progressive, statement, active, intransitive
 - ii) *broke*, simple past non-perfect, statement, active, transitive
 - iii) *may expect*, future, possibility, active, transitive
 - iv) *was arrested*, simple past, statement, passive, transitive
 - v) *will concentrate*, future of intention, active, transitive
 - vi) *surmounts*, simple present for vividness, statement, active, transitive
 - vii) *can be obtained*, present, permission, passive, transitive
 - viii) *have been working*, present perfect progressive, statement, active, transitive
 - ix) *is making*, present progressive, statement, active, transitive
 - x) *leave*, imperative (the imperative verb normally does not show tense, aspect and voice distinctions)
(Note: Verbs like *speak, concentrate, work*, etc. can be used both transitively and intransitively.)

- 3
 - i) *looked* (simple past for vividness), *knew* (simple past for time of action detached from the present), *had happened* (past perfect for the past before a moment in the past)
 - ii) *have been painting* (present perfect progressive to express the duration of an action which started in the past and is still in progress)
 - iii) *wake up* (simple present to express habitual action)

- iv) *got* (simple past for past time), *had left* (past perfect for the past before a point of time) in the past *had picked up* (past perfect for an action before a past moment)
- v) *had seen* (past perfect for an imaginary situation before a past moment)
- vi) *asks* (simple present for historical present)
- vii) *went* (simple past for an action detached from the present).
- viii) *had started* (past perfect for an action before a past moment).
- ix) *has been raining* (present perfect progressive to express the duration of an action which started in the past and is still in progress)
- x) *had been working* (past perfect progressive to express an action started before, and lasting until the past moment with which it is linked)

- 4 i) Sunita reads 'The Times of India'.
- ii) Sunita has read 'The.....'
- iii) Sunita is reading 'The.....'

Sentence 1 suggests that Sunita normally reads *The Times of India*. It is her habit. Sentence 2 is about reading the newspaper on a particular day. The activity started at some point in the past and includes the present moment. In 3, Sunita is reading the newspaper now. The activity started at some point in the past and will continue for some time in the future.

- 5 i) Sujata has overslept this morning. (She may still be sleeping.)
- ii) The chief minister has resigned. (The news has just come in.)
- iii) We have found many printing errors in the book. (It is possible that we will find more.)

The present perfect is typically associated with recent past. It is used when what we are talking about is of present interest.

- 6 i) Refer to Section 24.2.1
- ii) Refer to Section 24.2.1
- iii) Refer to Section 24.2.1
- iv) Refer to Section 24.2.2
- v) Refer to Section 24.2.3
- vi) Refer to Section 24.2.4
- vii) Refer to Section 24.2.5

UNIT 25 OBJECTS AND COMPLEMENTS

Structure

- 25.0 Objectives
 - 25.1 Introduction
 - 25.2 Objects, Complements and Adverbials
 - 25.3 Properties of Objects and Complements
 - 25.4 Voice
 - 25.5 Let Us Sum Up
 - 25.6 Key Words
 - 25.7 Suggested Reading
- Answers

25.0 OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this unit is to discuss in some detail the properties of objects and complements. We'll show how the nature of objects and complements differs from adverbials. We'll also show how grammatical properties associated with direct objects are not shared by subject complements. The nature of indirect objects and object complements will also be examined. Finally, we have a section on how sentences with objects can be changed into the passive voice.

After you have completed the work on this unit, you should be able to (i) identify objects and complements in sentences and give reasons for your choice, and (ii) use the passive voice in appropriate situations.

25.1 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 22, we noticed that all simple sentences consist of five basic elements, viz. Subject, Verb, Object, Complement and Adverbial. Unit 23 was devoted to a detailed discussion of the nature of Subject in English. The properties of the English Verb were discussed in Unit 24. This unit takes up the next two constituents of a sentence, namely, Object and Complement. The nature of the Adverbial will be discussed in Block 6, Unit 26.

As you will see in 25.2, objects and complements behave quite differently from adverbials. The former are necessary to the structure of a sentence while the latter are optional. There are rules of agreement that obtain between subjects and their complements and between subjects and objects but there are no such rules to bind adverbials in a sentence. We can easily omit adverbials and still have sentences that make sense. Though direct objects and subject complements may sometimes look alike they are very different grammatically. For example, direct object sentences can be passivised but not the ones that have subject complements. When we compare direct objects with indirect objects, we notice that direct objects generally come after indirect objects. The relationship of object complements to objects is similar to the relationship of subject complements to subjects.

25.2 OBJECTS, COMPLEMENTS AND ADVERBIALS

In 22.2, we introduced the concepts of direct and indirect objects as well as of subject and object complements. The nature of objects and complements is quite different from that of the adverbials. The following grammatical features differentiate them :

a) Optionality of Adverbials : Objects and Complements may often be obligatory in a sentence. Adverbials are always optional. Consider the following sentences :

- 1 He bought yesterday.
- 2 He bought a book.
- 3 They make Rahul every year.
- 4 They make Rahul the captain every year.

Sentences (1) and (3) are ungrammatical because the obligatory elements are missing — the Direct Object *book* from (1), and the Object Complement *captain* from (3). The verb *buy* is transitive and requires an object. It may or may not have an adverbial. Similarly *every year* is optional in (4)

b) Freedom of Adverbials from Verbs : We are not allowed to use verbs and objects/complements in whatever combination we like. For example, corresponding to (2) above, (5) is ungrammatical.

* 5 He ate/hoped/cooked/drank a book.

This means that the selection of a particular type of object or complement depends on the kind of main verb we wish to use. The selection of adverbials is not controlled in this way. For example, we can use any adverbial in the place of *every year* in (4) above. Any of the options in (6) below.

6 They make Rahul the captain every year
in Bombay
again
occasionally

There are other ways in which verbs control their objects and complements. Verbs like *scatter* and *disperse* demand the use of plural objects (or singular objects referring to groups) when they are used transitively e.g.

7 The officer dispersed the soldiers.

We cannot use *soldier* instead of *soldiers*. Similarly

* 8 The cup contains kindness.
* 9 The tree married a chocolate.

are ungrammatical because *contain* requires the use of concrete nouns as objects and *marry* involves two human participants. These restrictions may often be violated in poetry for achieving special effects.

It is thus clear that Objects and Complements differ from Adverbials in that they are often obligatory and are controlled by the nature of the verb used in a given sentence. Ungrammatical sentences result if we drop them or if we use nouns that are not in consonance with the nature of the verb.

The fact that objects and complements are more integral to the structure of a sentence than adverbials is further demonstrated by rules of concord that obtain between subjects/objects and their complements and between subjects and objects.

a) Complement agreement in number: The complements of subjects and objects must agree with them in number. This rule of concord explains the ungrammaticality of (10) and (11) and the grammaticality of (12) and (13)

* 10 Sudhir is students at the university.
* 11 They elect Rahul captains.
12 Sudhir is a student at the university.
13 They elect Rahul captain.

In (10) the subject *Sudhir* is singular. Therefore its complement i.e. *student* must also be singular. In (11) the object *Rahul* is singular; therefore its complement *captain* should also be singular as in (13).

b) Subject-object agreement: When we use reflexive pronouns e.g. *himself*, *herself* etc. as objects, they must agree in number, person and gender with the subjects they represent. In (14)

14 Mohan hurt himself seriously.
15 She injured herself in the arm.

himself agrees with *Mohan* in person, number and gender just as *herself* does with *she* in (15). Reflexive pronouns agree with their antecedents i.e. the noun phrases for which they may be regarded as substitutes. Compare (14) and (15) with

16 Mohan hurt her.

where *her* refers not to *Mohan* but to some other person. Notice that (16) can be passivised but not (14) and (15). The passive in (17) is acceptable but not in (18) and (19).

17 She was hurt by Mohan.

18 Himself was hurt by Mohan seriously.

19 Herself was injured by her in the arm.

Notice the difference in meaning in

20 Anju saw herself in the mirror.

and

21 Anju saw her in the mirror.

In (20) *herself* is co-referential with *Anju* i.e. both refer to the same person, In (21), *her* cannot refer to *Anju* i.e. Anju saw somebody else in the mirror. Again, we can passivize (21) but not (20).

Check Your Progress 1

The following sentences are ungrammatical. Write down the grammatical form for each and explain why you consider the sentence ungrammatical:

1 He killed last year.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

2 We will make him tomorrow.

.....
.....

3 They are all well-known painter.

.....
.....

4 He appointed them lecturer.

.....
.....

5 Suresh drank a table.

.....
.....

6 Madhu wrote an apple.

.....
.....

7 He scattered a coin on the table.

.....
.....

8 Herself was slapped by Madhu.

.....
.....

9 Ravi hurt herself in the fight. (Ravi is a male name here.)

.....
.....

10 They will elect Gavaskar captains.

.....

.....

25.3 PROPERTIES OF OBJECTS AND COMPLEMENTS

In 22.2, we said that there was no scope for any confusion between **direct objects (DO)** and **subject complements (SC)**. Direct objects are elements which are directly affected by the verb whereas subject complements simply give us additional information about the subjects. In this section we examine the differences between these two categories in greater detail.

a) Only NPs can be DOs : The DO slot in a sentence can be filled only by a noun phrase. The SC slot may be filled by an NP or an adjective. Consider the following sentences:

- 22 He killed the thief.
 * 23 He killed tall.
 24 She is a genius.
 25 She is brilliant.

In (24) and (25) *a genius* and *brilliant* are SCs : the former is a noun phrase but the latter is an adjective. The verb *kill* requires an object. Sentence (22) is grammatical because the DO *the thief* is an NP. If we replace it by an adjective as in (23), the sentence becomes ungrammatical. In (26)

- 26 He got restless. (where *get* has the meaning of *become*)
 27 He got a prize. (where *get* has the meaning of *obtain*)

restless is an adjective and is an SC but in (27) *a prize* is an NP and is a DO.

b) Passivization : As noted earlier in 22.2, sentences with DOs can be passivised but those with SCs cannot be passivised. Corresponding to (22) above we can have the passive

28. The thief was killed by him.

but corresponding to (24) and (25) we can never have

- * 29 A genius is been by her.
 * 30 Brilliant is been by her.

The complete ungrammaticality of (29) and (30) clearly brings out the differences between DOs and SCs.

c) Number agreement : an SC must agree in number with the subject of the sentence in which it appears. The number of a DO is selected independently of the number of the subject. For example,

- 31 Chomsky is a great linguist.
 * 32 Chomsky is great linguists.
 33 He bought a book.
 34 He bought books.

Sentence (32) is ungrammatical because *Chomsky* is singular and will not accept an SC that is plural in number. On the other hand, the DOs in (33) and (34) are not controlled by the number of the subject. They could be singular or plural.

We now turn to OC and IO. The object complement bears the same relationship to the direct object as does the subject complement to the subject. Consider the OCs in the following sentences:

- 35 They consider Chomsky a genius.
 36 They consider Mohan dishonest.

In (35) the NP *a genius* is the OC and it agrees in number with the DO *Chomsky*. Like the SC again the OC can also be an adjective, e.g. *dishonest* in (36). Finally, when we passivise sentences, like the SC, the OC also cannot become the subject in the passive. Sentence (37) is not grammatical.

- * 37 A genius is considered Chomsky by them.

What are the distinguishing properties of IO? As we noted in 22.2, IO appears generally when a DO is already present. It is the ditransitive verbs like *give, forgive, charge* etc. that take two objects. Consider the following sentences :

38 Neha gave Sanjay a book.

39 The watch-maker charged Madhu fifty rupees.

Sanjay and *Madhu* are IOs in the above sentences. We may note that both of them are NPs. The IO slot is typically filled by an NP. The direct object is more actively involved in the action/situation denoted by a verb : in (38) it is the book which is given and in (39) it is fifty rupees that the watch-maker charged. The properties of IO are:

a) Relative positions of DO and IO : As is clear from (38) and (39), DO follows IO. It is possible to have sentences with a DO only but we normally don't get sentences with only an IO. Also we do not find the order S V DO IO, i.e. sentences like.

40 Neha gave a book Sanjay.

are ungrammatical. In case a sentence like

41 Madhu sent me some flowers.

has both DO and IO, it is possible to drop the IO but not the DO. If we drop *me* from (41), the function of the DO i.e. *some flowers* remains unchanged. But if we drop the DO to get

42 Madhu sent me.

me becomes the DO of *send*.

d) Passivization: Sentences having two objects can be passivised in two ways. Corresponding to (38) above we get the passives.

43 A book was given to Sanjay by Neha.

44 Sanjay was given a book by Neha.

In (43) the DO has been moved to the subject position, whereas in (44), the IO has been moved to that position. Thus IO shares with DO the property of becoming a subject through passivisation.

c) Association with parallel constructions with prepositions: Consider the following sentences:

45 Neha gave a book to Sanjay. (Compare with 38 above)

46 Madhu sent some flowers for me. (Compare with 41 above)

Notice that it is only the IO which is moved and placed after the preposition. The DO does not have this property. There is an important difference between IOs and prepositional phrases like *to Sanjay*. The IOs can become subjects through passivisation but prepositional phrases cannot. Therefore the sentences

* 47 To Sanjay was given a book by Neha.

* 48 For me were sent some flowers by Madhu.

are ungrammatical.

Check Your Progress 2

I Some of the following sentences contain indirect objects. Identify those sentences and rewrite them using prepositions.

i) He slept well.

ii) You can build her a good house.

iii) He sent me some flowers.

iv) Sudha ate an apple.

v) The school gave them a holiday.

vi) We must buy her a decent present.

vii) She likes milk.

viii) The police caught him late in the evening.

ix) She lent me a large sum.

x) I made myself a cup of tea

Some of the sentences in Exercise 1 above contain only the direct objects. Change those sentences into the passive voice.

Identify the italicized constituents in the following sentences as Direct or Indirect Objects or as Subject or Object Complements.

- i) The policeman sounded *the alarm*.
- ii) She appears to be *a decent person*.
- iii) They made him *their leader*.
- iv) He taught *himself* French.
- v) Roses smell *sweet*.

25.4 VOICE

We have been using the process of passivisation as a test for isolating different properties of the constituents of a sentence. We will devote this section to an analysis of this process.

It should be clear to you by now that the category of voice helps us to report the same set of facts in two different ways. Consider sentences (22) and (28) above — the former is in the active voice while the latter is in the passive voice. We may formalise the changes as follows:

Active: NP₁ (+ Aux) + Verb + NP₂ may be written as
 Passive: NP₂ (+ Aux) + Be + Verb + *en* + *by* + NP₁

This means that the process of passivisation involves the following changes:

This means that the process of passivisation involves the following changes:

- i) Take the subject NP to the end and bring the object NP to the subject NP position.
- ii) Add the preposition *by* before the shifted subject NP; *by* + NP is optional; it can be deleted.
- iii) Add the appropriate form of the auxiliary *be* and use the past participle (the *en/ed* form) of the verb.

It is only sentences with transitive verbs (which demand objects) that can be passivised. The changes with different verbal forms may be seen in

Active	Passive
He kills the thief.	The thief is killed (by him).
He killed the thief.	The thief was killed (by him).
He has killed the thief.	The thief has been killed (by him).
He is killing the thief.	The thief is being killed (by him).
He may kill the thief.	The thief may be killed (by him).
He may have killed the thief.	The thief may have been killed (by him).

You will notice that the form of the verb *be* is determined by the properties of the verb in the active voice. It retains the form *be* if there is a modal verb like *may*, *can*, *shall*, etc., takes the form *been* if we have the perfective aspect marker *has/have/had* + *en* in the active voice, *being* if we have the progressive aspect marker *ing* in the active, *is* if the active is in the present tense, and *was* if it is in the past tense.

The passive voice is used not only as an equivalent to the active for saying what we wish to say. There are situations in which only the passive voice is appropriate. We use it when we are either ignorant about the person responsible for the action we wish to speak about or when we deliberately wish to hide his or her identity. You must have frequently come across expressions like 'It is learnt that...', 'It is alleged that....', 'It is reported that....' etc. All these are in the passive voice. In each case the writer wishes to hide the source of his information. In the case of sentences like 'Yesterday an old woman was killed in South Delhi', we use the passive voice because we do not know who killed the woman. Here are some more examples of how our deficient knowledge precludes the possibility of mentioning the subject.

49 Mohit was killed in a road accident.

50 His plans were frustrated in one way or another.

51 He was tempted to take the bribe.

52 His political understanding has been questioned.

The passive voice is also used to avoid saying 'I, we' etc. to show humility and modesty. It may be more modest to say.

53 This painting was completed in 1980.

than

54 I completed this painting in 1980.

If the active sentence has two objects as in

55 Madhu lent me twenty rupees.

there is a possibility of having two passive versions as in

56 I was lent twenty rupees by Madhu.

57 Twenty rupees were lent to me by Madhu.

However, it is normally the indirect object which is moved to the subject position. Sometimes sentences having 'prepositional verbs' as in

58 They looked into the matter carefully.

can also be changed into the passive voice as in

59 The matter was looked into by them carefully.

Sometimes we can make passive sentences using *get* instead of the normal *be*. For example instead of 49 we can also say

60 Mohit got killed in a road accident.

We generally use *get* when the subject is not merely a passive participant and we can associate some amount of intention or responsibility with him or her. In sentences such as

61 He got lost in the crowd.

62 Don't get run over by a bus.

the actors may at least be partly held responsible for the action.

Finally we may note that in addition to the intransitive verbs, there are some transitive verbs which cannot be passivised. For example, the following sentences will not be found in the passive voice:

63 You lack confidence.

64 This dress fits you well.

65 She resembles her mother.

Though the active voice is more frequently used, in scientific and informative prose the passive may be used more commonly. In non-personal scientific writing, it is not of much interest to know the doer of a given action.

Check Your Progress 3

I Identify the passive verbs in the following texts.

- i) Applications are invited from registered handloom weavers for loan-cum-grant assistance. The assistance is available as 2/3rd loan and 1/3rd grant. Application forms can be obtained from the Handloom Department, Delhi. The applications should reach the Handloom Department before July 30.

ii) Tension gripped the trouble-prone localities of the walled city. One person was stabbed to death and another was seriously injured. Three persons were arrested.

iii) A multilingual computer called Transcript has been developed by Applied Electromagnetics Ltd. The Transcript terminal can be connected to any normal computer. It runs most of the standard programmes and comp... The keyboard is arranged according to ISCII standards. The data which is in one language can be transliterated in other Indian languages. This computer can be used effectively for preparing notices, electoral rolls, examination results, etc.

2. What could be the motivation for deleting the doer of the action in the following sentences.

i) The delay is regretted.

.....
.....

ii) This book was written at least fifty years ago.

.....

iii) An old woman was found dead in her apartment.

.....

iv) The data was then carefully analysed.

.....
.....

v) The thief was caught around 11 p.m.

.....

3. Fill in the blanks with appropriate forms of the verbs given in brackets.

The heart which..... (pump) blood for the rest of the body.....

(nourish) by the coronary arteries with oxygenated blood. The oxygen.....

(utilize) to provide energy to the heart so that its pumping function

..... (maintain). Naturally, the heart muscle and its ability to

pump blood to the head, neck etc. (affect) by any disruption

in the coronary blood flow. The blood flow in the arteries.....

(restrict) because of fatty substance and calcium plaques that.....

(deposit) along the walls of the arteries. This restriction of blood flow

..... (cause) a pain known as angina in the chest, neck and arms.

Angina..... (treat) with medication. In more serious cases, a

coronary bypass operation..... (do).

25.5 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have discussed the nature of objects and complements. They are quite different from adverbials. Adverbials are generally optional to the sentence structure. Objects and complements are not. The complements of subjects and objects will show number agreement with them. Objects are selected independently of such constraints. The nature of the subject complement differs from that of the direct object in that the former can either be an NP or an Adjective while the latter can only be an NP. Sentences with direct objects can be passivised. Certain ditransitive verbs take two objects and in such sentences the direct object follows the indirect object. Sentences having two objects may have two passives corresponding to them. The passive may be seen not as a mere equivalent of the active but as a structure which fulfils specific communicative needs.

25.6 KEY WORDS

re'flexive: a word or form showing that the agent's action is upon himself

ante'cedent: noun or clause to which a following pronoun refers

di'transitive (verb): which takes two objects

25.7 SUGGESTED READING

Huddleston, R. 1988. *English Grammar: An Outline*. CUP. 50-68, 176-80.

Quirk R. et. al. 1972. *A Grammar of Contemporary English*. Longman. 37-39, 801-11

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

1 The following are possible:

- a) He killed her last year.
- b) He was killed last year.

In (a) the active voice has been used and the verb *kill* requires an object. In (b) the passive voice has been used.

- 2 We will make him president tomorrow. (*make* has been used here as a ditransitive verb and therefore requires two objects)
- 3 They are all well-known painters. (The subject complement *painter* must agree in number with the subject *they*)
- 4 He appointed them lecturers. (The object complement *lecturer* must agree in number with the object *them*.)
- 5 Suresh drank tea. (The verb *drink* can take only liquids as its objects.)
- 6 Madhu wrote a letter. (You can write letters, books, etc. not, apples.)
- 7 He scattered coins on the table. (The verb *scatter* demands a plural object.)
- 8 Madhu slapped herself. (Reflexive pronouns cannot become subjects through passivisation.)
- 9 Ravi hurt himself in the fight. (The reflexive pronouns must agree in number and gender with their antecedents.)
- 10 They will elect Gavaskar captain. (The object complement *captain* must agree in number with the object.)

Check your Progress 2

- 1 ii) You can build a good house for her.
iii) He sent some flowers for me.
v) The school gave a holiday to them.
vi) We must buy a decent present for her.
ix) She lent a large sum to me.
- 2 x) I made a cup of tea for myself.
iv) An apple was eaten by Sudha.
vii) Milk is liked by her.
viii) He was caught late in the evening.

3 i) DO, ii) SC, iii) OC, iv) IO, v) SC

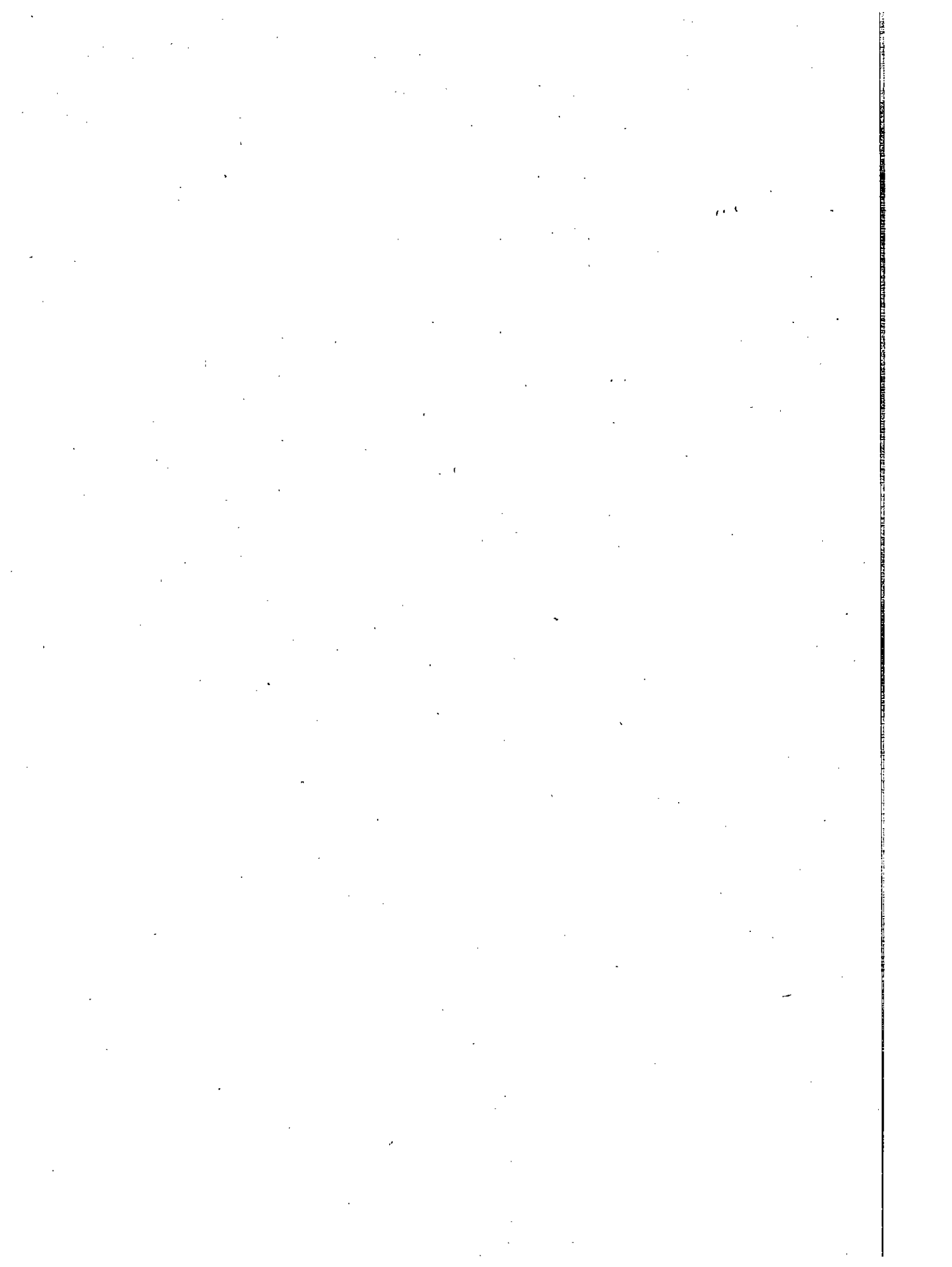
Check your Progress 3

- 1 i) are invited, can be obtained,
ii) was stabbed, was injured, were arrested
iii) has been developed, can be connected, is arranged, is fed, can be transliterated, can be used

- 2 i) The identity of the person making such announcements at railway stations or airports is not important.
- ii) Perhaps the author is not known.
- iii) We do not know who killed her.
- iv) We may wish to hide the identity of the person responsible for the analysis of the data.
- v) It is generally understood that thieves are caught by the police.

(Other explanations are also possible.)

- 3 pumps, is nourished, is utilized, is maintained, is affected, is restricted (gets restricted), are deposited (get deposited), causes, is treated, is done.





UTTAR PRADESH
RAJARSHI TANDON OPEN UNIVERSITY

UGEN-02
The Structure of
Modern English

Block

6

SYNTAX-2: SENTENCE STRUCTURE-2

Introduction to the Block

UNIT 26

Adverbials

5

UNIT 27

Negatives

15

UNIT 28

Questions

25

UNIT 29

Imperatives and Exclamations

37

UNIT 30

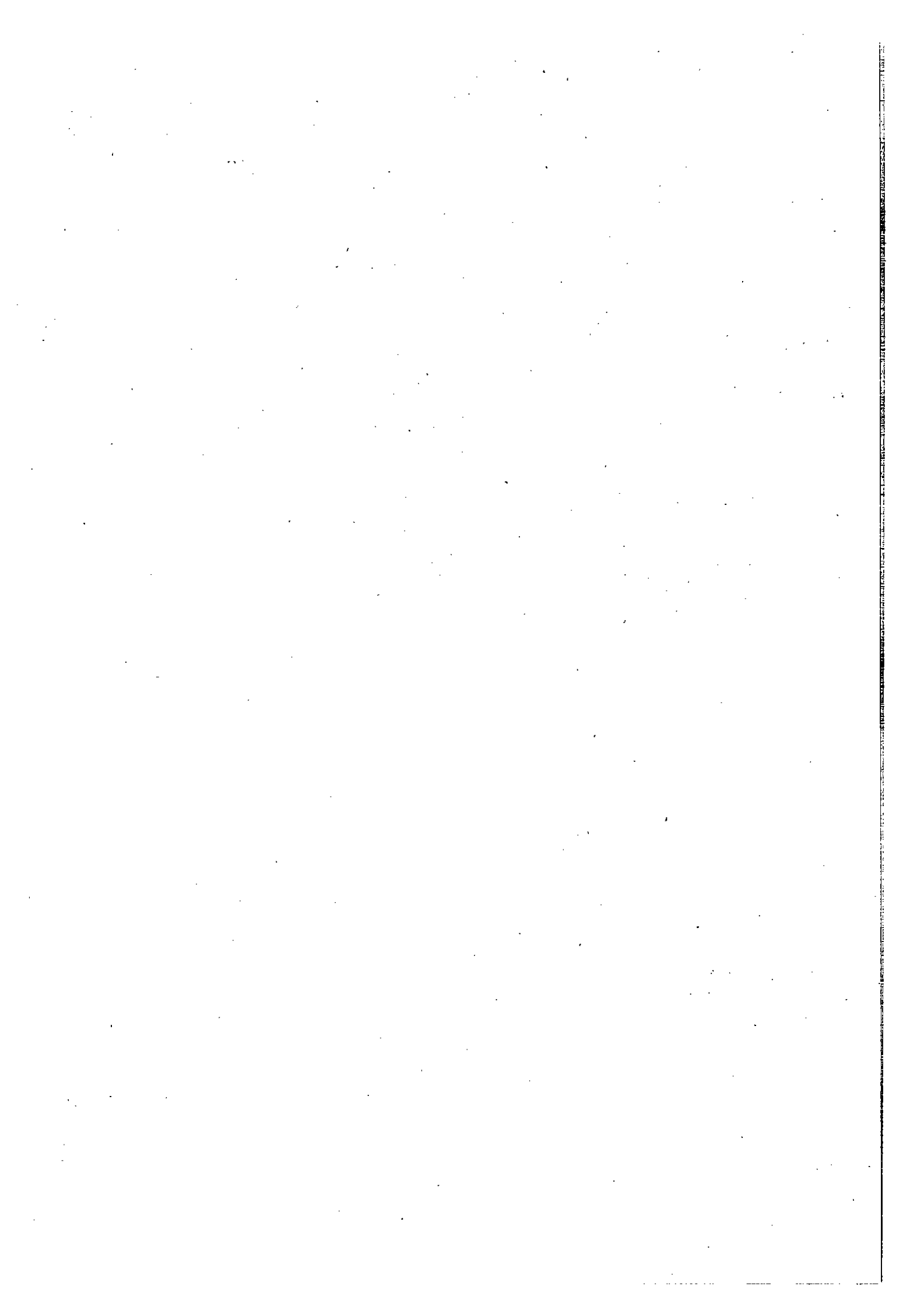
Syntactic Features of Indian English

46

INTRODUCTION TO THE BLOCK

In Block 5 we began our discussion of English syntax by presenting the basic sentence patterns and some of the constituents of sentence structure – the subject, the verb, objects and complements.

In Block 6 we shall take up some other topics connected with sentence structure. We shall discuss adverbials in Unit 26, negatives in Unit 27, questions in Unit 28, and imperatives and exclamations in Unit 29. In Unit 30 we shall take up some syntactic features of Indian English.



UNIT 26 ADVERBIALS

Structure

- 26.0 Objectives
- 26.1 Introduction
- 26.2 Defining Adverbs
- 26.3 Kinds of Adverbs
 - Adverbs of Place
 - Adverbs of Time
 - Adverbs of Manner
- 26.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 26.5 Key Words
- 26.6 Suggested Reading
- Answers

26.0 OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this unit is to show you how adverbials, in the form of words, phrases or clauses, modify the meanings of verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs in sentences. We'll classify adverbials mainly on the basis of the different meanings they can add to sentences. We'll also discuss some of their syntactic properties.

After you have completed this unit, you should be able to identify adverbials in different texts and discuss their nature.

26.1 INTRODUCTION

It should be clear from Unit 25 of Block 5 that adverbials are often not essential to the structure of a sentence. It is not possible to have a sentence without a verb, and 'subject', 'object' and 'complements' are often essential to its structure. But sentences will often remain grammatical even if the adverbials are deleted. Yet it is the use of adverbials which really adds colour to our speech. They help us to reflect the subtle shades of meaning we wish to convey to our interlocutor.

In 26.2, we'll show that the adverbial function of modifying the meanings of verbs, adjectives or other adverbs may be realised by single word adverbs, phrases, or clauses. We'll also discuss some of the most frequently used ways of forming adverbs from other words. The next section i.e. 26.3 is devoted to the discussion of different kinds of adverbs. We notice that adverbs can move around in a sentence far more freely than any other category of words. If we change the place of the adverb in a given sentence, we notice very interesting changes in the meaning of that sentence. It is extremely difficult to neatly classify the overwhelming variety of adverbials in English. The traditional classification in terms of adverbs of place, manner, time, frequency, and degree appears reasonably satisfactory.

We'll often use the terms 'adverb' and 'adverbial' interchangeably. Generally, the former refers to single word adverbs while the latter includes phrases and clauses performing adverbial functions.

26.2 DEFINING ADVERBS

As we noticed in 25.2, adverbials are not closely bound to the sentence structure. As compared to objects and complements, they enjoy a certain amount of freedom and are often optional in the sentence. In fact both adjectives and adverbs are used to expand simple sentences. Adjectives typically modify nouns; adverbs typically modify

verbs. But adverbs can also modify adjectives and other adverbs. As we will see below, they have some other functions as well. In fact, it is not very easy to define adverbials. Some people tend to regard 'adverb' as a 'rag bag', the class of words into which we conveniently put words or phrases which do not seem to belong elsewhere.

What are the different functions of adverbials? We can identify at least the following five:

- a) Modifier of a verb, as in
 - 1) Neeti spoke *softly*.
- b) Modifier of an adjective, as in
 - 2) Meera is *remarkably* tall.
- c) Modifier of another adverb, as in
 - 3) She sang *very* well.
- d) As a peripheral dependent, as in
 - 4) *Frankly*, Mohan is a liar.
where the adverb *frankly* appears like a comment on the sentence.
- e) As a complement in the verb phrase, as in
 - 5) They brought her *ashore*.

Yet the most important function of adverbs is to modify verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Notice that the words which perform the adverbial function in all the above five sentences are single words. But the adverbial function may be realised by a Noun Phrase, a Prepositional Phrase, or a clause. In the following sentences, Noun Phrases and not single word adverbs are used to indicate the adverbial function:

- 6) We met only *last week*.
- 7) She lives *next door*.

Prepositional phrases are used in

- 8) I thank you *for your kindness*.
- 9) The meeting will finish *at seven*.

If you go back to sentences 1 to 7 in 22.2, you will come across such adverbials as *at Delhi University, every year, last night, on the play ground*, etc. We may also use finite and non-finite clauses for adverbial functions. A finite clause has been used in

- 10) You should stay *where it suits you best*.
- 11) Meera was already there *when you arrived*.

A non-finite clause is used in

- 12) They are not playing *to win now*
- 13) *Making a lot of noise*, they celebrated his victory.

We may also point out here that often the same word may be used both as an adjective and an adverb. For example, in

- 14) It is a *daily* newspaper.

'daily' is an adjective modifying the meaning of the noun 'newspaper' but in the sentence

- 15) Newspapers are published *daily*.

'daily' is an adverb indicating the frequency of publication of newspapers.

If you carefully examine all the italicized adverbs in sentences 1 to 5 above, you will realise that the most productive way of forming adverbs in English is simply to add *-ly* to the corresponding adjectives. For example, *soft* is an adjective in

- 16) I like *soft* bread.

If we add *-ly* to *soft*, we get *softly* as in 1 above. Similarly, we have *carefully, recently, frequently, happily, suitably, gently, frankly, remarkably*, etc. Adjectives which end in *-ic* as in *scientific*, normally have *-ally* added to them to make adverbs as in

scientifically, characteristically, fantastically, etc. Still another category of adverbs has *a-* at the beginning, such as *ashore, aside, abreast, afresh, apart, astray, etc.*

It should be clear to you from the above discussion that it is not very easy to define adverbials. They can be formed in a variety of ways. And a variety of linguistic constituents may be used as adverbs. They also perform a variety of functions as in 1 to 5 above. Moreover they do not always share the same grammatical properties. Consider the following:

- 17) Mohan is *very* clever.
- * 18) Mohan ran away *very*.
- 19) Mohan ran away *quickly*.
- * 20) Mohan is *quickly* smart.

Both *very* and *quickly* are adverbs but they cannot be used in similar situations. Whereas 17 and 19 are perfectly grammatical, 18 and 20 are not.

Adverbials do not modify nouns. They are best defined as words, phrases or clauses which modify the meanings of verbs, adjectives and other adverbs.

Check Your Progress 1

1) Identify the adverbs in the following sentences and indicate their function:

- i) Never say die.....
- ii) Mr. Singh spoke clearly.....
- iii) Madhu is extraordinarily brilliant.....
- iv) She did it rather well.....
- v) Surprisingly, he arrived in time.....
- vi) They were talking downstairs.....
- vii) He talked rapidly.....
- viii) She danced extremely well.....
- ix) He put all the books aside.....
- x) We visit Shimla every year.....
- xi) I usually get up at six.....
- xii) He is willing to play.....

2) Identify the adverbials in the following text:

A big fire broke out in the early hours of the morning at a slum colony in north Calcutta. It caused massive devastation allaround. Five persons were burnt alive. The fire brigade personnel struggled for four hours to bring the conflagration under control. The fire broke out in the slum at 4 a.m. Twenty fire engines were pressed into service to control the blaze.

.....

.....

.....

26.3 KINDS OF ADVERBS

We may try to classify adverbs on the basis of their meaning and syntactic function. A very broad classification may be to divide them into two categories, namely, word-modifying and sentence-modifying. For example, in 2 above *remarkably* modifies only *tall* but in 4 *frankly* modifies the whole sentence. Consider the following two well-known examples:

- 21) He did not die *happily*.
- 22) *Happily* he did not die.

The adverb *happily* has different meanings, positions and functions in the two sentences. In 21, it modifies only the verb i.e. *die*, meaning that the person concerned did not die in a state of happiness. In 22, *happily* modifies the whole sentence and means 'fortunately'. As will be clear from 5 above, adverbs may fulfil an essential syntactic function in that the sentence will remain incomplete without them. Consider the following sentences:

23) The bomb exploded *here*.

24) Your pen is *here*.

In both 23 and 24, *here* is an adverb indicating place. Yet it is not essential to have it in 23 while 24 will be incomplete without it.

Traditionally, adverbs are classified into the following five categories: place, time, manner, frequency, and degree. We may first consider adverbs of place.

Adverbs of Place

This category includes words which express not only a fixed place but also motion and direction. These properties may also be indicated by prepositional phrases and clauses. Adverbs of place include words like *above, aboard, ahead, ashore, aside, astray, behind, between, back, up, down, downstairs, overseas, outside, elsewhere*, etc. Notice that adverbs indicating direction can be used only with verbs of motion whereas there is no such restrictions on adverbs indicating only place. For example,

25) He walked *towards me*.

26) We jumped *over the fence*.

only verbs of motion have been used the adverbials indicate the direction of the motion.

Two most commonly used adverbs of place are *here* and *there*. Generally, they indicate a definite place, as in

27) She lives *here*.

28) We'll stay *there* for a week.

But they may often be used in more abstract and idiomatic ways, as in

29) *There* you are (i.e. that's what I meant).

30) *Here* you are (as in a shop when the shopkeeper gives you what you want).

31) I envy his intellectual power: some day I'll also get *there*.

The adverbial function of *there* must be distinguished from its use as a formal preliminary subject to introduce a sentence, as in

32) *There* is a thief in the house.

Adverbs of Time

From the above examples you may have realised that there is a very close relationship between adverbials and the time reference indicated by the tense of the verb in a sentence. Thus, it is grammatical to say

33) He came *last week*.

where the time reference is past, but not

* 34) He'll come *last week*.

where the time reference is future. You can say

35) He'll come *next week*.

where the time reference in both the verb and the adverb is future. Further, it is only the adverbs which can decide the time reference when the verb forms are similar. In

36) He is playing *now*.

the reference is to the present time, whereas in

37) He is playing *tomorrow*.

the reference is to the future time, though the verbs in the two sentences are identical.

As already pointed out, time adverbials may consist of single words, phrases, or clauses.

It may be useful to discuss adverbs of time and frequency together. In fact, we may divide time adverbs into three categories, namely, time *when*, time duration, and time frequency. Time *when* adverbs generally indicate a point of time serving as a response to a *when* question. In

38) He played well *last year*.

if we ask 'when did he play well?', the answer will be *last year*. Other adverbs in this category include *today, yesterday, again, last night, tonight, presently, nowadays, next, originally, now, etc.*

The use of time adverbials indicating duration is illustrated in

39) I have *always* lived in Delhi.

40) We worked *the whole night*.

41) I have been collecting stamps *since my childhood*.

42) I have seen her only *recently*.

Adverbs of frequency normally serve as a response to a *how often* question. Their use is illustrated in

43) We meet *twice a week*.

44) He *normally* goes to bed at nine.

45) Mohan is *perpetually* in debt.

46) We *seldom* go to the movies.

In 43, *twice a week* indicates definite frequency; in 44, *normally* is indicative of what generally happens; in 45, *perpetually* suggests very high frequency, and *seldom* in 46 is indicative of very low frequency. Adverbs of definite frequency include *hourly, daily, monthly, yearly, etc.*, adverbs of usual occurrence include *generally, usually, habitually, commonly, etc.*, adverbs of high frequency include *frequently, often, regularly, etc.*, and adverbs of low or zero frequency include *occasionally, sometimes, off and on, never, etc.*

It is interesting to note that time adverbials appear in a hierarchical relationship in a sentence. If we have only 'time when' adverbs in a sentence then the adverb indicating the largest chunk of time will generally appear at the end. For example,

47) I met her *at six early in the morning on Monday*.

Monday in this sentence represents the largest unit of time and appears at the end of the sentence. If all the three types of time adverbials appear in the same sentence, then the normal order is

time duration — *time frequency* — *time when*

as seen in the following examples:

48) He works *regularly in winters*. (*frequency, when*)

49) I met her *briefly today*. (*duration, when*)

50) I meet her *briefly every week in summers*. (*duration, frequency, when*)

Adverbs of Manner

English has a very rich class of adverbs of manner and it is indeed very difficult to classify them. Most of the adverbs in this category end in *-ly* and add lot of colour to

what is being said. It will include adverbs such as *slowly, quickly, loudly, thoroughly, coldly, exactly, hardly, almost, nearly, slightly, simply, purely, completely, actually, really*, etc. Most manner adverbials will constitute an appropriate response to the question *how*. Consider the following:

- 51) She walks *quickly*.
- 52) He talks *loudly*.
- 53) Meera goes to school *by bus*.
- 54) They broke the news to her *gradually*.

All the italicized words in the above sentences answer the question *how* and appear at the end of the sentence. Normally an adverb should not be placed between a verb and its direct object. It will be unacceptable to say

- 55) She spoke *slowly* English.

However, adverbs of manner can often appear at other places in a sentence and achieve a variety of effects. They may often be used to emphasise the meaning of a word or phrase in a sentence. In such situations they appear closest to what they emphasise, as in

- 56) I *really* like him very much.
- 57) I *honestly* don't believe you.
- 58) He *actually* sat next to his teacher.

They may also be used to amplify or tone down the meaning of a certain part of a sentence. For example, in

- 59) We *completely* agree with you.
- 60) I *fully* understand your problems.

completely and *fully* maximise the meanings of *agree* and *understand* respectively. Other maximisers will include *absolutely, utterly, deeply, intensely, violently*, etc. 'Downtoners' tend to lower the effect of the force of the verb as in

- 61) I can *hardly* walk.
- 62) She may *partly* agree with you.
- 63) I *almost* resigned from my job.

The downtoners or minimisers *hardly, barely, scarcely* and *little* constitute a category by themselves. They are all negative in meaning. It is not possible to use a negative with them. We can't say

- 64) I cannot *hardly* walk.

Notice the negative meaning of these adverbs in

- 65) I *hardly* ever go out (i.e. I rarely go out).
- 66) She is *barely* ten (i.e. she is not yet ten).

Finally, we turn to adverbs of degree. As in the case of adjectives, adverbs also have comparative and superlative forms. In the case of a single syllable adverb, the comparative is generally formed by adding *-er* and the superlative by adding *-est*. In the case of polysyllabic words, the comparative and the superlative are formed by putting *more* and *most* respectively before the adverb. For example,

- 67) She walks *faster* than me.
- 68) Meera danced *more gracefully* than Sudha.
- 69) She is the *most* beautiful woman here.

In 69, *most* is preceded by *the* and serves the purpose of comparison but in

- 70) He was *most* apologetic.

71) Your daughter behaved *most* graciously in the party.

most has the meaning of 'very'. Other adverbs of degree which may modify the meanings of adjectives or other adverbs include *almost*, *nearly*, *quite*, *too*, etc. For example,

72) It was *too* hot to work.

73) The box was *quite* empty.

In 73 *quite* means 'completely'. But if *quite* is used with words or phrases which do not indicate completeness, it has a weakening effect as in

74) He is *quite* good.

which means 'he is just about OK', and is weaker than saying 'he is good'.

As pointed out above, adverbials constitute perhaps the largest and certainly the most diverse category in English. In addition to the kinds of adverbs discussed above, we have several minor groups. For example, there is a small group of adverbs such as *cordially*, *kindly*, etc. which function as markers of politeness and courtesy. They are used very frequently in different domains of activity such as

75) We *cordially* invite you to our seminar.

76) *Kindly* do something about it.

Notice that *kindly* is the only adverb which can appear initially in imperative sentences such as

77) *Kindly* leave the room.

78) *Kindly* put it back.

We may finally introduce the category of conjunctive adverbs. These adverbs perform two functions. Like any other adverbs they modify the meanings of verbs. They also introduce or join clauses and function as conjunctions. This category includes interrogative, relative, demonstrative and indefinite adverbs. Interrogative adverbs include all *wh-* words like *who*, *when*, *where*, *why*, etc. (they also include *how*, which does not begin with *wh-*). For example,

79) Tell us *why* you didn't come for the party.

80) *How* did it happen?

81) *When* did you talk to him last?

82) I asked him *when* the play was likely to start.

The relative use of these *wh-* words may be seen in

83) Tell us the reason *why* you left the party.

84) That is *how* matters stand at present.

85) This is *where* we live.

The adverb of time *then* and the adverb of place *there* may often be used with a demonstrative force as in

86) *Then* there is the problem of finance.

87) *There* now, everything looks fine.

Also notice the demonstrative force of *so* and *that* in

88) He is not *so* stupid.

89) Was he really *that* drunk?

Indefinite adverbs are generally compounds formed with the combination of indefinite pronouns *some*, *any* and interrogative adverbs, such as *somewhere*, *anywhere*, *anyhow*, *however*, *whenever*, *whensoever*, etc. Such compounds make the meaning more indefinite, as in

90) I have left my pen *somewhere*.

91) At the moment I don't want to go *anywhere*.

92) I hate cricket. *However*, I will see this match.

Check Your Progress 2

1) Change the meaning of each of the following sentences by moving the adverbial item.

i) In time we will finish our work.

.....

ii) They agreed on Monday evening to have a party.

.....

iii) She made up her mind to resign immediately.

.....

iv) She kept in the office all the papers she had found.

.....

v) He quickly decided to go over the programme once more.

.....

2) Comment on the nature of adverbials in the following sentences:

i) He has just left.

.....

.....

ii) He left at 8 p.m.

.....

iii) He left quickly.

.....

iv) He left yesterday.

.....

v) He left when he pleased.

.....

vi) He'll leave tomorrow.

.....

.....

vii) He stood quite still where he was.

.....

viii) He prayed quietly while the police searched him.

.....

.....

ix) He played extremely well.

.....

.....

x) She asked me when the train was likely to leave.

.....

3) Examine the following sentences carefully. Each sentence can have two meanings

depending on where you place the adverbial. Write pairs of sentences to make the two meanings clear.

i) Does she intend seriously to join the course?

.....
.....

ii) We decided deliberately to be late.

.....
.....

iii) The small tent failed completely to save us from the rain.

.....
.....

iv) I did not follow your meaning precisely because you talked at such length.

.....
.....

v) Meera agreed cheerfully to cooperate with us.

.....
.....

4) Certain adverbials and parts of adverbials have been deleted from the following newspaper report. First read the text carefully. Fill the blanks while you are reading for the second time. *Several answers are possible.*

New Delhi, December 16: Eighteen persons were hospitalised after inhaling toxic gas emanating from a domestic foundry in the congested..... in north Delhi The gas has not yet been identified. The victims, barring two, are..... The foundry owner, Mr. Suresh Kumar, forges aluminium..... located..... after finishing work, he had left..... waste material..... one of his children poured water into it. It began emanating fumes

26.4 LET US SUM UP

Adverbials are used to modify the meanings of verbs, adjectives and other adverbs. As compared to other parts of sentences they are more mobile. They are normally formed by adding *-ly* or *-ally* to adjectives. The adverbial function may be realised not only by single word adverbs but also by phrases and clauses. Adverbials are generally classified in terms of adverbs of place, adverbs of time and frequency, and adverbs of manner and degree. We noticed that time adverbials appear in a hierarchical order in a sentence. We also noticed how adverbs of manner can be used to minimise or maximise the effect of what we are saying. We finally discussed the nature of conjunctive adverbials i.e. adverbials which serve two functions, namely, join clauses as well as modify the meanings of verbs.

26.5 KEY WORDS

interlocutor: one who speaks in a dialogue
peripheral: not central
hierarchical: organised in terms of successively subordinate grades
conjunctive: serving to join

26.6 SUGGESTED READING

Huddleston, R. 1984. *Introduction to the Grammar of English*. CUP
Quirk, R. et al. 1972. *A Grammar of Contemporary English*. Longman.
Thomson, A.J. and Martinet, A.V. 1960. *A Practical English Grammar*. CUP.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

- 1)
- | | | |
|----------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| i) never | modifies | the verb 'say' |
| ii) clearly | " | the verb 'spoke' |
| iii) extraordinarily | " | the adjective 'brilliant' |
| iv) well rather | " | the verb 'did' |
| | " | the adverb 'well' |
| v) surprisingly | peripheral, | comment on the whole sentence |
| vi) downstairs | as a complement to | 'were talking' |
| vii) rapidly | modifies | the verb 'talked' |
| viii) well extremely | " | the verb 'danced' |
| | " | the adverb 'well' |
| ix) aside | " | the verb 'put' as its complement |
| x) every year | " | the verb 'visit' |
| xi) usually at six | " | the verb 'get up' |
| | " | " " " |
| xii) to play | a non-finite clause used as an | adverbial |
- 2) in the early hours of the morning, at a slum colony in north Calcutta, all round, alive, for four hours, under control, in the slum, at 4 a.m., to control the blaze.

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) i) We will finish our work in time.
ii) They agreed to have a party on Monday evening.
iii) She immediately made up her mind to resign.
iv) She kept all the papers she had found in the office.
v) He decided to go over the programme quickly once more.
- 2) i) *just*, adds to the meaning of recency included in the use of the present perfect 'has left', adverb of time
ii) *at 8 p.m.*, adverbial of time
iii) *quickly*, adverb of manner formed by adding *-ly* to the adjective *quick*
iv) *yesterday*, adverb of time
v) *when he pleased*, a finite clause functioning as an adverbial of time
vi) *tomorrow*, adverb of time, adding to the meaning of future indicated by 'will'
vii) *where he was*, adverbial of place indicated by a clause
viii) *quietly*, adverb of manner modifying the meaning of 'prayed' *while the police searched him* a clause functioning as an adverbial of time
ix) *well*, adverb of manner, modifying the verb 'played' *extremely*, modifying the adverb 'well'
x) *when*, interrogative adverb, conjunctive adverb
- 3) i) Does she seriously intend to join the course?
Does she intend to seriously join the course?
ii) We deliberately decided to be late.
We decided to be late deliberately.
iii) The small tent completely failed to save us from the rain.
The small tent failed to save us completely from the rain.
iv) I did not precisely follow your meaning because you talked at such length.
I did not follow your meaning precisely because you talked at such length.
v) Meera cheerfully agreed to cooperate with us.
Meera agreed to cooperate with us cheerfully.
- 4) Shastri Nagar, this morning, out of danger, in the foundry, in his house, Last night, aside, in a container, This morning, immediately

UNIT 27 NEGATIVES

Structure

- 27.0 Objectives
- 27.1 Introduction
- 27.2 Types of Negation
- 27.3 Explicit Negation Using *Not*
- 27.4 Non-verbal Negation
- 27.5 Ambiguity, Scope and Focus
- 27.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 27.7 Key Words
- 27.8 Suggested Reading
Answers

27.0 OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this unit is to introduce you to the main formal and semantic features of negation in English. We'll talk briefly about different types of negation. You will become familiar with the syntactic properties of sentences which use *not* with their verbs. We'll also introduce you to the various ways of making negatives without using *not*. We'll discuss how the negative element in a sentence can negate different parts of the predicate.

27.1 INTRODUCTION

The most common way of making a negative in English is to attach *not* (or the contracted *-n't*) to the first verbal element of a given sentence. This process will generally give us the opposite of its positive counterpart. From the point of view of form, positive sentences are distinguished from their negative counterparts in that the negative sentences generally take a positive tag-question and vice-versa. The appearance of *not* with the verb generally negates the whole predicate that follows it. Sometimes, when the predicate consists of many constituents, it is not always clear which specific part of the predicate is meant to be negated. In such situations, emphasis plays a crucial role. We talk of clausal negation when the whole predicate is negated; it is sub-clausal negation when only a word or phrase is negated. In the case of affixal negation as in *unkind*, *improper*, etc. only the word has been negated (e.g. 'He's been very unkind in his remarks). Other words which are used for negation and do not involve the verb include *never*, *neither*, *nor*, *seldom*, *barely*, etc.

27.2 TYPES OF NEGATION

Negation in English may be classified into three major types. The first we may call *Explicit Negation*. In

- 1) Neha is happy.
- 2) Neha is not happy.

negation is explicit. Sentence 2 is clearly the opposite of sentence 1. This is the most commonly employed way of making negatives. In these cases, an overt negative element *not* is typically placed after the first verbal element. The overt negative element *not* is often contracted to reflect the patterns of speech in writing. The letter that is omitted in the process of contraction is represented by an apostrophe (') i.e. *not* is written as *-n't* and is joined to the preceding word. For example,

Many other words e.g. *is, am, are, will, has*, etc. also participate in the contraction process. Consider

- 4) *We're* not ready yet.
- 5) We *aren't* ready yet.
- * 6) We're'nt ready yet.

Notice that only one contraction is allowed in a sentence. We'll discuss explicit negation in greater detail in a later section.

The second type of negation may be called *Affixal*. Consider the following sentences.

- 7) Neha is *unhappy*.
- 8) Rahul *disobeyed* my orders.
- 9) She is *insane*.

We often use negative prefixes such as *un-, non-, in-, im-, dis-*, etc. to indicate negative meanings.

We may call the third type of negation *Implicit*. In

- 10) Rita *denied* the story.
- 11) Mohan *rejected* the offer.

the negation is no longer explicitly marked either in terms of using *not* or using a prefix such as *un-*. The negation is implied in the meaning of the verb, *denied* in 10 and *rejected* in 11.

Check Your Progress 1

1) Identify the types of negation in the following extract:

- i) There was an uneasy silence.
.....
- ii) Sudha wished she hadn't left so early.
.....
- iii) She felt like disobeying the leader.
.....
- iv) It was clear to her that the policy of the party was misdirected.
.....
- v) But she couldn't do much about it.
.....
- vi) She was not a leader.
.....
- vii) She had not fasted and she hadn't been to jail.
.....
- viii) Yet, she rejected the party proposal.
.....

27.3 EXPLICIT NEGATION USING NOT

The negative counterparts of the seven sentences in 22.2 (see Block 5, Unit 22) are given below;

- 12) Sudhir isn't now a student at Delhi University.
- 13) The Babus of Nayanjore were not famous landlords.
- 14) Vimla hasn't searched the room carefully.

- 15) They do not make Rahul the captain every year.
- 16) It didn't rain heavily last night.
- 17) Neha didn't give Sanjay a book yesterday.
- 18) My brother isn't playing hockey on the playground.

In each of the above sentences *not* (or the contracted *-n't*) has been introduced after the operator i.e. the first verbal element in the sentence. If, as in the case of sentences 15, 16 and 17 (see sentences 4-6 in 22.2), there is no operator, a dummy *do* is introduced and *not* is attached to it. Notice that this operator also takes away the tense from the main verb. In addition to all the auxiliary verbs, the term operator includes different forms of the main verbs *Be* and *Have*. For example, in 12 above, *is* is the main verb and is a form of *Be*. It functions as the operator and *not* is attached to it. Notice that *not* has to be inserted immediately after the first verbal element. In 14, the verbal group consists of 'has searched'. We insert *not* after 'has' and it will be ungrammatical to say

- * not has searched or
- * has searched not.

How can we distinguish positive and negative sentences syntactically? We notice that positive sentences can be related by *so* or *too*. Corresponding to (1) above, we may have

- 19) Neha is happy and so is Nidhi.
- 20) Neha is happy, and Nidhi is too.

The negative sentences demand the use of *neither*, *nor* or *either* when they are combined. Corresponding to (2) above, we have

- 21) Neha isn't happy and neither is Nidhi.
- 22) Neha isn't happy, nor is Nidhi.
- 23) Neha isn't happy and Nidhi isn't either.

The following sentences in which *so* or *too* is used with negative clauses and *neither* etc. with positive ones are ungrammatical.

- * 24) Neha is happy and neither is Nidhi.
- * 25) Neha is happy, nor is Nidhi.
- * 26) Neha is happy and Nidhi is either.
- * 27) Neha isn't happy and so is Nidhi.
- * 28) Neha isn't happy and Nidhi isn't too.

Another important difference in positive and negative sentences may be seen in the use of tag-questions (see 28.3 in Unit 28). In normal, emotionally neutral communication, tag-questions are used to elicit information. The general rule in such normal situations is that positive clauses take negative tags and vice-versa. For example,

- 29) Neha is happy, isn't she?
- 30) Neha isn't happy, is she?

Thus, we may say that positive clauses can be related by the use of *so* or *too*, whereas combining negative clauses demands the use of *neither*, *nor* or *either*. Further, negative sentences generally take positive tags.

We may notice some more structural properties of negative sentences using *not* in the case of imperatives and negative questions. As we know, imperatives like

- 31) Close the door.
- 32) Go away.

have 'you' as their subject. Since there is no operator, we add the dummy *do* and attach the negative particle *not* to it. The subject 'you' does not appear on the surface

even now. The negatives for sentences e.g. (31) and (32) are made by simply adding *don't* initially as in

33) Don't close the door.

34) Don't go away.

In the case of negative questions the operator is inverted with the subject NP along with the negative element as in

35) Can't you solve this sum?

36) Isn't she ashamed of herself?

Notice that negative questions often involve an element of surprise or disbelief. In (35) the assumption is that 'you' should be able to solve the sum and that the speaker is surprised that you can't. Similarly, in (36) the assumption is that 'she' should be ashamed of herself though she is not

Sometimes you may find that *not* does not appear immediately after the operator. It may be used with non-finite verbs as in

37) He asked me not to go there.

38) You were justified in not inviting her.

Sometimes *not* may be used to replace a *that* clause. For example, (40) and (41) are equally good answers to the question in (39).

39) Can you come tomorrow to the party?

40) I'm afraid that I cannot come.

41) I'm afraid not.

We may finally note the use of *not* in sentences indicating possession through 'have' as in

42) I have a car.

In British English, *have* in (42) is treated as an operator and the negative is

43) I haven't a car.

But in American English, *have* in such sentences is treated as a lexical verb and a dummy *do* is introduced as in

44) I don't have a car.

Check Your Progress 2

1) Make negatives of the following sentences using *not*:

i) Vinay opened the door.

.....

ii) You should reply to her letter.

.....

iii) She is writing a novel these days.

.....

iv) He works every Sunday.

.....

v) Subhash became a dentist.

.....

2) Write two negative sentences for each of the following, treating *have* as an auxiliary in the first and as a verb like *eat*, *go*, etc. in the second:

i) Sudha has time.

.....

ii) He has a cold.

.....

iii) Mohan has a chance of winning this match.

.....

iv) She had the nerve to insult me.

.....

v) Neha has the book.

.....

3) Combine the following sentences using *so* or *neither* appropriately:

i) Usha is a famous dancer. Madhu is also a famous dancer.

.....

ii) Usha is not a famous dancer. Madhu is also not a famous dancer.

.....

4) In the following pairs of sentences, rewrite the second sentence using the clause that has been replaced by *not*:

i) Is he going to inform the police? I hope not.

.....

ii) Will you come to the meeting? I'm afraid not.

.....

iii) Can she play golf? I'm afraid not.

.....

iv) Will it rain again today? I hope not.

.....

v) Will you get here before seven? I'm afraid not.

.....

27.4 NON-VERBAL NEGATION

In addition to the affixal and implicit negation we introduced in 27.2 above, there are many words which contain a negative element in their shape or meaning and which make sentences negative without involving the verb. These words include *nothing*, *nobody*, *no one*, *nowhere*, *none*, *no*, *never*, *neither*, *nor*, *few*, *little*, *rarely*, *seldom*, *barely*, *hardly*, *scarcely*, etc.

For example, *seldom* and *rarely* are adverbs of low frequency meaning 'not often', as in

45) I seldom go to the movies.

46) She rarely comes here.

You are already familiar with the use of *scarcely*, *hardly* (meaning 'almost not') and *barely* (meaning 'only just') as adverbs which function as downtoners. For example,

47) Anna is *barely* ten.

48) They *hardly* ever eat out.

49) I *scarcely* know her.

Notice that in all these sentences the negative import is carried by the italicized words only. There is no change in the verb.

Little and *few* are also adverbs having negative meanings. *Little* means 'not much' and *few* means 'not many'. We may distinguish them here from *a little* and *a few*, which are actually positive in meaning. For example,

50) He has read very few books on Keats.

means that he hasn't read many, whereas

51) He has read a few books on Keats.

means that he has read 'some'. Similarly, notice the contrast between *little* and *a little* in the following sentences:

52) She took little butter.

53) She took only a little butter.

Words such as *nothing*, *nobody*, etc. generally have their positive counterparts. For example,

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Negative</i>
anything	nothing
anybody	nobody
anyone	no one
anywhere	nowhere
any	none/no
ever	never
either	neither

This means that sentences having any one of the above negative words will correspond to a sentence which has the positive counterpart along with verbal negation. For example,

54) There is nothing to read here.

55) There isn't anything to read here.

Notice that both (54) and (55) will take the same tag-question 'is there?'

Similarly, *no* has the meaning 'not any' etc. as in

56) Rahul had no money.

and corresponds to

57) Rahul didn't have any money.

It may also often imply the opposite of the following word as in

58) He's no friend of mine.

The use of *never* as an adverb meaning 'at no time' seen in

59) She has never been abroad.

parallels the use of the positive counterpart *ever* with verbal negation in

60) She hasn't been abroad ever.

Never is often fronted for emphasis as in

61) Never have I heard such nonsense!

Check Your Progress 3

1) Rewrite what you understand to be the meaning of each of the following sentences. An example is given below:

He has few friends.

means: 'He doesn't have many friends.' (negative meaning)

i) Mohan has little money.

.....

ii) He is going away for a few days.

.....

iii) Few people live to be a hundred.

.....

iv) Though I am not very social, I do have a few friends here.

.....

v) A little more care would have saved him.

.....

2) Use verbal negation to express the meanings of the following sentences:

i) There was nothing that could save him.

.....

ii) I will never go to that party.

.....

iii) There was nobody who arrived on time.

.....

iv) I've never heard such nonsense.

.....

27.5 AMBIGUITY, SCOPE AND FOCUS

In the case of sentence (13) above, the negative element *not* negates the whole predicate 'famous landlords'. This is the normal situation in English. The general rule is that the scope of negation will extend to the end of the sentence. However, when there are many constituents in a sentence as in (12) above, which is

Sudhir isn't now a student at Delhi University.

different meanings may arise, i.e. the sentence may be ambiguous with respect to the element being negated. For example, if we put the emphasis on *now*, it will mean

Sudhir was a student at Delhi University but is no longer a student there.

If the emphasis is on *a student*, (12) will mean

Sudhir is not a student at Delhi University; he may be a teacher there.

If the emphasis is on *Delhi University*, the meaning will be

Sudhir is not a student at Delhi University; he may be a student at IGNOU.

This extra emphasis on a particular constituent helps us to focus what we wish to

negate and delimits the scope of negation. It also suggests that except the element which receives special emphasis and is therefore focussed, the rest of the sentence may be treated as positive. For example, in

62) Sudhir didn't support the Janata Dal government.

if the stress is on *Sudhir*, we mean

Someone supported the Janata Dal but it wasn't Sudhir; perhaps it was Madhu, etc.

If *support* is emphasised, we mean

Sudhir may have done something to the Janata Dal but he didn't support it.

And if *Janata Dal government* is emphasised, we mean

Sudhir did support some government but it wasn't Janata Dal.

If there is no indication as to the focus of negation and if there are doubts whether it will apply to the whole predicate, it generally applies to the last element in the predicate. For example, if in the case of (14) above, neither *searched* nor *the room* nor *carefully* receive any extra emphasis, the negation will automatically apply to *carefully* i.e. the searching wasn't careful.

Negation may thus apply to a word, a phrase or a whole clause. We may distinguish between clausal and sub-clausal negation. The best examples of sub-clausal negation are of course the cases of what we in the beginning called Affixal negation. The prefixes like *un-*, *in-*, *dis-* etc. as in *unkind*, *inaccurate*, *disloyal* etc. apply only to the words *kind*, *accurate*, *loyal* etc. From the point of view of meaning, there may not be much difference in (63) and (64),

63) He is unhappy.

64) He isn't happy.

In view of form, the first is a positive sentence having a word with affixal negation i.e. *unhappy*: the second is a negative sentence having clausal negation. Do you remember the tag-question test we introduced above? Positive sentences have negative tags and vice-versa. Sentence (63) is positive and the tag is negative i.e. 'isn't he?' Sentence (64) is negative and the tag is positive i.e. 'is he?' Similarly, the tag will be positive for

65) He at no time abused his juniors.

but negative for

66) He in no time completed the drawing.

Notice that (65) is a negative sentence having a positive tag and constitutes a case of clausal negation i.e. *no* negates the whole predicate. In (66) *no* negates only *time* and the rest of the clause is positive. This is a case of sub-clausal negation.

Check Your Progress 4

1) What are the different negative meanings that may be associated with the following sentence depending on which part of the predicate is emphasised?

Vipasha didn't read the newspaper yesterday.

.....
.....
.....

2) Apply the tag-question test to find out whether the negation is clausal or sub-clausal.

i) Sudha suddenly appeared from nowhere.

.....

ii) She is very unkind.

.....
iii) He's not planning to visit us again this summer.

.....
iv) You didn't invite Rahul to your party.

27.6 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have examined the form and meaning of negative sentences in English in some detail. We noticed that adding *not* to the first verbal element in a sentence explicitly negates the sentence and is the most commonly employed way of making negatives. We also noticed that there is a variety of ways in which you can indicate negation without doing anything to the verb. These are cases of non-verbal negation. These include words like *never, nor, no*, etc. as well as cases of affixal and implicit negation. We made a distinction between clausal and sub-clausal negation. Sentences in which the whole predicate is negated are cases of clausal negation and will have a positive tag-question. Sentences with sub-clausal negation will have only negative tag-questions.

27.7 KEY WORDS

affix: a suffix (e.g. *-ly, -able*) or a prefix (e.g. *un-, in-*)

ambiguous: having more than one meaning

explicit: clear, definite

lexical: of the words of a language

operator (in grammar): member of a small subclass of verbs including *be, have, can, may, do*, etc.

27.8 SUGGESTED READING

Huddleston, R. 1988. *English Grammar: An Outline*. Cambridge University Press. (Ch. 10)

Quirk, R. et al. 1972. *A Grammar of Contemporary English*. Longman (Chapter 2 and Chapter 7)

Thomson, A.J. and Martinet, A.V. 1960. *A Practical English Grammar*. Oxford University Press

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

- 1) i) uneasy—affixal
- ii) hadn't—explicit
- iii) disobey—affixal
- iv) misdirected—affixal
- v) couldn't—explicit
- vi) not—explicit
- vii) hadn't—explicit
- viii) rejected—implicit

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) Negatives:
 - i) Vinay didn't open the door.
 - ii) You shouldn't reply to her letter.
 - iii) She isn't writing a novel these days.
 - iv) He doesn't work every Sunday.
 - v) Subhash didn't become a dentist
- 2)
 - i) Sudha hasn't time. Sudha doesn't have time.
 - ii) He hasn't a cold. He doesn't have a cold.
 - iii) Mohan hasn't a chance of winning this match.
Mohan doesn't have a chance of winning this match.
 - iv) She hadn't the nerve to insult me.
She didn't have the nerve to insult me.
 - v) Neha hasn't the book.
Neha doesn't have the book.
- 3)
 - i) Usha is a famous dancer and so is Madhu.
 - ii) Usha is not a famous dancer and neither is Madhu.
- 4)
 - i) I hope he is not.
 - ii) I'm afraid I will not.
 - iii) I'm afraid she can't.
 - iv) I hope it won't.
 - v) I'm afraid I won't.

Check Your Progress 3

- 1)
 - i) Mohan doesn't have much money.
 - ii) He is going away for some days.
 - iii) Not many people live to be a hundred
 - iv) I do have some friends.
 - v) Some more care would have saved him.
- 2)
 - i) There wasn't anything that could save him.
 - ii) I will not go to that party.
 - iii) There wasn't anybody who arrived on time.
 - iv) I haven't ever heard such nonsense.

Check Your Progress 4

- 1) read—may be she just looked at it; she didn't read it.
The newspaper—she perhaps read something else, not the newspaper
yesterday—she perhaps read it only today.
- 2)
 - i) didn't she? sub-clausal
 - ii) isn't she? sub-clausal
 - iii) is he? clausal
 - iv) did you? clausal

UNIT 28 QUESTIONS

Structure

- 28.0 Objectives
- 28.1 Introduction
- 28.2 Types of Questions
- 28.3 Structure of Questions
- 28.4 Functions of Questions
- 28.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 28.6 Key Words
- 28.7 Suggested Reading
- Answers

28.0 OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this unit is to examine the nature of questions in English. We'll discuss the following issues: What are the different types of questions? What are their structural properties? What are their functions? We'll also examine the nature of tag-questions, as well as the structural changes questions undergo in indirect speech.

28.1 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 27 on negatives, we noticed that the 'operator' is the key element in making negative sentences. It is the key element in making questions as well. Both *yes-no* and *wh-* questions (see Section 28.2) involve subject-operator inversion. In the case of *wh-* questions, a *wh-* word is also added at the beginning. Questions are used primarily to seek new information or to confirm our existing views. They can also be used to make requests or give suggestions. Tag-questions and indirect questions also play a very important role in communication.

28.2 TYPES OF QUESTIONS

There are basically two types of questions: open and closed. The open questions are those which can potentially have an infinite number of answers. For example, to the question

- 1) When did you arrive?

the listener can reply: 'just now/yesterday/on Monday/a few minutes ago/around 8.30 p.m.....'; i.e. the number of possible answers is really open. The number of possible answers is limited in the case of closed questions. There are only two answers possible to the question

- 2) Is she alive or dead?

namely,

- 3) She is alive.
- 4) She is dead.

Similarly, to the question

- 5) Are you coming with me?

you can reply by saying *yes* or *no*.

In fact, this is the most common type of closed question. In this case the alternatives are limited to two: *yes* or *no*.

Such questions are therefore frequently called *yes-no* questions. We cannot answer a question like (1) above by saying *yes* or *no*. These questions demand some new information. Since they generally begin with a *wh-* word, they are called *wh-* questions. *Wh-* words include *who*, *what*, *which*, *when*, *where*, *how*, *why*, *whom*, and *whose*. For example,

- 7) Who broke the glass?
- 8) When will you return?
- 9) Where shall we go from here?
- 10) Why is she always complaining?
- 11) What did you buy yesterday?
- 12) How did you repair it?
- 13) Which books have you given her?

Notice that each one of the above questions is related to a corresponding statement containing an indefinite expression, e.g. *somebody*, *sometime*, *somehow*, etc.

Statements 14-20 below correspond to the questions in 7-13 above.

- 14) *Someone* broke the glass.
- 15) You will return *sometime*.
- 16) We'll go *somewhere* from here.
- 17) She is always complaining *for some reason*.
- 18) You bought *something* yesterday.
- 19) You repaired it *somehow*.
- 20) You have given her *some of the books*.

The selection of the particular *wh-* word thus depends upon what you don't know. For example, in the case of (14) above, perhaps you know that *someone* is 'Mohan' but you don't know, say, what he broke. The question then would be like (11) above, i.e.

- 21) What did Mohan break?

Consider the sentence below, which you've come across so often in these units (e.g. in 22.2).

- 22) *They* make *Rahul* the captain every year.

It is possible to make a question corresponding to each one of the constituents italicized in (22). If you do not know the people responsible for making Rahul the captain, you could ask:

- 23) Who makes Rahul the captain every year?

Similarly, we could have the following three questions corresponding to our ignorance about each of the remaining three italicized parts in (22).

- 24) Whom do they make the captain every year?
- 25) What do they make Rahul every year?
- 26) When do they make Rahul the captain? or
How often do they make Rahul the captain?

It is thus possible to elicit information about the subject, object, complement, or an adverbial of a sentence, using a *wh-* word.

On the other hand, *yes-no* questions are used only to seek confirmation (*yes*) or otherwise (*no*) of the entire predicate in a sentence.

In Unit 27, we examined the negatives of the sentences given in 22.2. We give below the *yes-no* questions for these sentences:

- 27) Is Sudhir now a student at Delhi University?
- 28) Were the Babus of Nayanjore famous landlords?
- 29) Has Vimla searched the room carefully?
- 30) Do they make Rahul the captain every year?
- 31) Did it rain heavily last night?
- 32) Did Neha give Sanjay a book yesterday?
- 33) Is my brother playing hockey on the playground?

As in the case of negatives, there is scope for ambiguity here also. If you say *yes* to (27) above, is it a *yes* to everything included in the sentence or only to *Sudhir* or *now* or a *student* or *at Delhi University*? As in the case of negatives, we use extra emphasis to indicate the specific constituent we wish to focus on. We can also use a pattern with *it* to focus a given constituent, as in

- 34) Is it *Sudhir* who is now
- 35) Is it *now* that Sudhir is a student
- 36) Is it *a student* that Sudhir is now at
- 37) Is it *at Delhi University* that Sudhir is now

If the answer to (37) for example is *yes*, it only means one thing: Sudhir is a student at Delhi University and nowhere else. One generally keeps questions short to avoid such ambiguity.

Check Your Progress 1

1) Make *wh-* questions corresponding to the italicized parts in the following sentences:

i) She met *someone*.

.....

ii) You arrived *at 8 p.m.*

.....

iii) Madhu is reading *some* magazine.

.....

iv) Rahul is going *somewhere* tonight.

.....

v) Rohit is drinking *milk*.

.....

vi) He repaired it *somehow*.

.....

vii) Neha gave me *a pen*.

.....

viii) *They* sell books.

.....

ix) We celebrate *Holi* every year.

x) She bought *a new painting*.

2) Use a structure with *it* to focus the italicized parts in the following sentences:

i) Are you buying *a new sari*?

ii) Did you sell your TV *last year*?

iii) Was he reading *this book* last night?

iv) Is *my brother* playing hockey?

v) Is my brother playing *hockey*?

28.3 STRUCTURE OF QUESTIONS

Consider sentences (27) to (33) above. All these are examples of *yes-no* questions. How are these questions formed? As in the case of negatives (see 27.3), we need an operator to form questions. Once the operator has been identified, the simple procedure to form a question is to invert the subject and the operator of a given sentence. In sentences (27), (28), (29), and (33), the operators *is*, *were*, *has* and *is* were already there. These were inverted with the subject NP to form questions. For questions in (30), (31) and (32), a dummy *do* operator had to be introduced because the corresponding statements in 22.2 did not have any operators. For example, for a sentence like

38) He likes apples.

we need to introduce a dummy *do* whether we wish to make a negative as in

39) He doesn't like apples.

or a question as in

40) Does he like apples?

In writing, questions in English are also distinguished by a question-mark (?) at the end (see 21.5). In speech, a *yes-no* question is usually indicated by a rising intonation at the end. *Yes-no* questions thus involve subject-operator inversion and a rising intonation. Sometimes, in colloquial speech, a rising intonation may be used without the subject-operator inversion in a question. In writing, a similar effect may be achieved by just putting a question mark at the end of a statement as in

41) You are leaving?

As in the case of negatives again, *Be* and *Have* may be treated as operators even when no main verb follows. For a sentence such as

42) He has some money.

two question-forms are possible as in

43) Has he some money?

44) Does he have some money?

As in the case of negatives, (43) is more common in Britain and (44) in America.

Yes-no questions are generally neutral with respect to the answer that may be given in response to them. The answer to (5) could be *yes* or *no*. But you can often give a positive or negative orientation to your questions, indicating whether you expect a *yes* or a *no*. The expected answer to

45) Do you live *somewhere* near Karol Bagh?

is *yes*, and the expected answer to

46) Didn't they warn her?

may be *no*. Negative questions may often be used to indicate surprise or disbelief as in

47) Can't you even keep your own room tidy?

One special kind of closed question is the *tag-question*. We've been using the tag-question as a syntactic test in our earlier units. We may here look at its structure in some detail. Any type of sentence which is not a question may be accompanied by a tag, i.e. declaratives, exclamatives, and imperatives may all be accompanied by tags. The most frequent type of tag reverses the subject-operator order of the main clause; secondly, it is generally negative if the main clause is positive and vice-versa. The tone on the tag operator could be rising or falling. We thus have the following four possibilities:

TONES

STATEMENT	RISING	FALLING
Positive	a) He arrived late, / didn't he?	c) He arrived late, / \didn't he?
Negative	b) He didn't arrive late, /did he?	d) He didn't arrive late, /did he?

The structure of the tag, as you can see, is always predictable from the structure of the statement that precedes it. It is (a) and (b) which are used most frequently. In (a) the assumption is positive, i.e. 'he actually arrived late' but the tag is neutral and the response could be *yes* or *no*. In (b), the assumption is negative, i.e. 'he actually didn't arrive late' and the tag is again neutral. Alternatives (c) and (d) with falling tones differ from (a) and (b) in that (c) has a positive expectation (*yes*) and (d) has a negative expectation (*no*).

Sometimes we notice tag-questions which don't follow the rule of reversing the nature of the statement, i.e. making the tag positive when the statement is negative and vice-versa. For example,

48) He arrived late, did he?

49) He didn't arrive late, didn't he?

The normal tags discussed above are used to seek confirmation or otherwise of what's said in the statement. Tags such as those in (48) and (49) generally have an emotive meaning. In (48), there is no doubt that he arrived late and the tag simply indicates strong disapproval of that act. Tags in (a) - (d) above are emotionally neutral; those in (48) and (49) are emotionally charged. In fact, (49) will be used very rarely.

Imperatives allow for a much wider range of tags as in

50) Close the door, will you?
can you?
can't you?
could you? etc.

On the other hand the options in the case of exclamatory sentences are very limited. The exclamatory sentences having tags are generally positive and their tags are negative, as in

51) How gracefully she walks, doesn't she?

Finally, we may consider the special case of questions involving the modal verbs (see 24.2.3) as in

52) May I take this book?

If somebody says:

53) You may take this book.

it means that the *speaker* has the authority to give permission to the *hearer* to take the book. But in the case of (52), the authority is with the *hearer* and not the *speaker*.

We may now turn to *wh*- questions. Consider the sentences (7) to (13) above. What are the structural properties of these sentences? First, in each sentence the *wh*- word is placed at the beginning of the question. Secondly, except in the case of (7), we notice subject-operator inversion in all the questions. In (7), it is the subject which is being questioned and in such sentences the verb follows the *wh*- word and there is no subject-operator inversion. Thus, with the exception of sentences like (7), all questions, whether *yes-no* or *wh*-, are bound by the phenomenon of subject-operator inversion.

Notice that different *wh*- words belong to different parts of speech. *Who* as in (7) is a pronoun; *when* corresponds to an adverbial of time and *where* to an adverbial of place (see 8 and 9); *why* is an adverb of reason; *what* in (11) is also a pronoun and differs from *who* in that it is typically associated with 'non-human' agents or objects; *how* in (12) is an adverb of manner; it may also be used as an adverb of degree; *which* in (13) performs the function of a determiner; it can also be used as a pronoun as in

54) Which is it?

The typical intonation pattern associated with *yes-no* or other closed questions is a 'rising intonation', but it is the 'falling intonation' which is typically associated with open *wh*- questions.

When a question is combined with another (main) clause, it becomes indirect, i.e. it no longer follows the 'subject-operator inversion' rule. In the following pairs of sentences,

55) a) 'When will you return?' he asked her.

b) He asked her when she would return.

56) a) 'Why is she always complaining?' Madhu asked him.

b) Madhu asked him why she was always complaining.

57) a) He said, 'Has Vimla searched the room carefully?'

b) He asked if Vimla had searched the room carefully.

the verb in (b) remains in its normal position. This is true irrespective of whether the question is open or closed. The conversion to indirect questions involves other changes as well. Indirect speech presents the remarks of the speaker as reported by someone else. Pronouns in the reported speech are often in the third person and, if the reporting verb is in the past tense, the verb in the direct speech also changes to past. Notice that in 55 (b), in addition to the normal SV order in 'she would return', *will* changes to *would* and *you* changes to *she*; in 56 (b), *is she* changes to *she was*. We may also add that in indirect speech, all pronouns, adjectives and adverbs denoting *nearness* are usually replaced by the corresponding words denoting *remoteness* i.e. *this* changes to *that*, *these* to *those*, *now* to *then*, *here* to *there*, etc.

We may point out that not all constituents of a sentence will have corresponding *wh*-questions. In the case of (22) above, it was possible to have four *wh*-questions, (23)-(26), corresponding to the four underlined parts in (22). But it is not possible to have a *wh*-question corresponding to the verbal element *make*. Thus,

- What do they Rahul the captain every year?

is ungrammatical in English. Similarly we cannot have a *wh*-question corresponding to the empty subject *it* (see note on p. 12 of Block 5) in
58) It rained heavily last night.

Sentence (59) is therefore ungrammatical.

- 59) What rained heavily last night?

We may finally look at the interaction between questions and their negative forms (see (45) to (47) above). Just as statements can be positive or negative, questions can also be positive or negative. But negative questions are not the opposite of positive questions. (61) is the opposite of (60),

- 60) You can solve this sum.
- 61) You cannot solve this sum.

but (63) is *not* the opposite of (62).

- 62) Can you solve this sum?
- 63) Can't you solve this sum?

As discussed in 27.3, in (63) the assumption is that you should be able to solve the sum and the speaker is surprised that you can't. The question in (63) in a sense neutralises the effect of the negative in (61). The expected answer to (62) could be *yes* or *no*, but the expected answer to (63) is only *no*.

Check Your Progress 2

1) For each of the following sentences, form two sentences—one negative, and the other an interrogative sentence of the *yes-no* type:

- i) We are leaving today.

.....

- ii) They opened the box.

.....

- iii) I should bring your dinner.

.....

- iv) He generally arrives at 7 p.m.

.....

- v) They appointed him secretary.

.....

- vi) She asked me difficult questions.

.....

vii) You can find the ideal position for reading.

.....
.....

viii) We do the work of prophets without their gift.

.....
.....

ix) Every civilization has been haunted by death.

.....
.....

x) I have time for you.

.....
.....

2) From each of the ten sentences above (Exercise 1) one constituent has been selected as indicated below. Make a *wh*-question corresponding to that constituent.

i) today

.....
.....

ii) they

.....
.....

iii) your dinner

.....
.....

iv) at 7 p.m.

.....
.....

v) secretary

.....
.....

vi) she

.....
.....

vii) the ideal position for reading

.....
.....

viii) we

.....
.....

ix) death

.....
.....

confirmation of our views (*yes-no* questions). But we also use the question forms for other purposes. For example, we may use the question-form to make a request, e.g.

64) Could you please close the door?

Yes-no questions are frequently used as requests in situations in which an 'imperative' like

65) Close the door.

would be considered impolite.

Open *wh-* questions are also often used to make suggestions. Instead of saying

66) Go and see a doctor.

one may use the question form

67) Why don't you see a doctor?

A negative *yes-no* question may often be used as an exclamation. In

68) Doesn't she look pretty!

the form is that of a *yes-no* negative question but no question is really being asked. The speaker is sure of his feelings and is simply inviting the hearer to agree with him. A question-form like

69) Aren't you clever!

is really the equivalent of a statement like

70) You are clever.

or an exclamation like

71) How clever you are!

Question-forms may often be used to make forceful statements, e.g.

72) Is there any reason to doubt him?

meaning that 'there is absolutely no reason to doubt him'.

Finally, we may introduce echo-questions. These simply repeat in question-form a part of what has been said earlier in order to clarify or confirm. For example,

73) A) I didn't like the film yesterday.

B) Didn't like the film?

28.5 LET US SUM UP

Both *yes-no* and *wh-* questions involve 'subject-operator' inversion. In *wh-* questions, a *wh-* word e.g. *who*, *what*, *why*, etc. appears at the beginning of the question. Every question (except 'How do you do?') has a corresponding statement to which it is related. If there is no operator available, a dummy *do* is added as in the case of negatives. Tag-questions also have the operator-subject order and generally have a polarity opposite to that of the statements to which they are tagged. The operator-subject order of questions is changed to the normal subject-operator order in indirect speech. Negative questions are not the opposite of positive questions but are often used to express surprise. Questions are also used to make requests and give directives or suggestions.

28.6 KEY WORDS

colloquial: suitable for informal conversation

directive: instruction

emotive: tending to excite emotions

inversion: opposite order, position or arrangement!

28.7 SUGGESTED READING

Roberts, P. 1967. *Modern Grammar*. Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc. (Chs 6 & 7)

Quirk, R. et al. 1972. *A Grammar of Contemporary English*, Longman.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

- 1)
 - i) Who did she meet?
 - ii) When did you arrive?
 - iii) Which magazine is Madhu reading?
 - iv) Where is Rahul going tonight?
 - v) What is Rohit drinking?
 - vi) How did he repair it?
 - vii) What did Neha give me?
 - viii) Who sells books?
 - ix) What do we celebrate every year?
 - x) What did she buy?
- 2)
 - i) Is it a new sari that you are buying?
 - ii) Was it last year that you sold your TV?
 - iii) Was it this book that he was reading last night?
 - iv) Is it my brother who is playing hockey?
 - v) Is it hockey that my brother is playing?

Check Your Progress 2

- 1)
 - i) We aren't leaving today.
Are we leaving today?
 - ii) They didn't open the box.
Did they open the box?
 - iii) I shouldn't bring your dinner.
Should I bring your dinner?
 - iv) He generally doesn't arrive at 7 p.m.
Does he generally arrive at 7 p.m.?
 - v) They didn't appoint him secretary.
Did they appoint him secretary?
 - vi) She didn't ask me difficult questions.
Did she ask me difficult questions?
 - vii) You cannot find the ideal position for reading.
Can you find the ideal position for reading?

- viii) We don't do the work of prophets without their gift.
Do we do the work of prophets without their gift?
- ix) Every civilization hasn't been haunted by death.
Has every civilization been haunted by death?
- x) I haven't time for you.
Have I time for you?
or
I don't have time for you.
Do I have time for you?
- 2) i) When are we leaving?
ii) Who opened the box?
iii) What should I bring?
iv) When does he generally arrive?
v) What did they appoint him?
vi) Who asked me difficult questions?
vii) What can you find?
viii) Who does the work of prophets without their gift?
ix) What has every civilization been haunted by?
x) Who do I have time for?
- 3) i), don't we?
ii), doesn't it?
iii), wasn't he?
iv), could he?
v), wasn't he?
vi), can he?

- 4) The police officer asked the man in a harsh tone who he was and where he came from.

The stranger replied that he was from Bilaspur. He wanted to know why the police officer asked that question.

The officer replied that he was a police officer and that it was his duty to examine strangers. He asked whether there weren't many terrorists around.

The stranger asked the police officer if he looked like a terrorist.

UNIT 29 IMPERATIVES AND EXCLAMATIONS

Structure

- 29.0 Objectives
- 29.1 Introduction
- 29.2 Illocutionary Force
- 29.3 Exclamations
- 29.4 Imperatives
- 29.5 Formulaic Utterances and Block Language
- 29.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 29.7 Key Words
- 29.8 Suggested Reading
- Answers

29.0 OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this unit is to examine in some detail the syntax and semantics of imperative and exclamatory sentences. You'll notice that there isn't any one-to-one correspondence between the grammatical structure of sentences and the functions they perform. For example, a question may be used to make a request. We'll also introduce you briefly to formulaic utterances and the language of newspaper headlines and advertisements.

29.1 INTRODUCTION

As we discussed in 21.5, declarative sentences are used primarily to make statements, interrogative sentences to ask questions, imperative sentences to give orders and make requests, and exclamatory sentences to express strong feelings of joy and sorrow. But as we'll see in 29.2, questions and statements may often be used to make requests; imperatives, on the other hand, may be used to express wishes. Exclamatory sentences generally have *how* or *what* in the beginning. They differ from *wh*- questions in that they do not have subject-operator inversion. Imperatives have 'you' (often deleted) as the subject and use only the finite base form of the verb. Formulaic utterances and block language concentrate on the important content words, often violating the structure of normal English sentences.

29.2 ILLOCUTIONARY FORCE

In Section 21.5 in Block 5, we introduced four major types of sentences, namely, Declarative, Imperative, Interrogative, and Exclamatory. We also noted that their main communicative functions are as follows:

Types of Sentences	Primary Communicative Function
Declarative	Make statements
Imperative	Give commands, directives, etc.
Interrogative	Ask questions
Exclamatory	Express strong feelings

The communicative function that is associated with a given grammatical form is often referred to as its **illocutionary force**. The illocutionary force that is normally associated with positive or negative declarative sentences is to make positive or negative statements. Similarly the illocutionary force of an interrogative sentence is to ask questions. Yet, as must be clear from our discussion of negatives (Unit 27) and questions (Unit 28), there may not always be a one-to-one correspondence between grammatical form and its illocutionary force. Thus questions (interrogative grammatical form) may often be used to make requests (illocutionary force associated with imperatives) as in,

- 1) Would you please close the door?

Similarly declaratives may often be used to make requests, as in

- 2) You are requested to bring your passport with you.

On the other hand imperatives, which are usually associated with commands and requests, may often have the illocutionary force of a wish, as in

- 3) Have a good day.
- 4) Get well soon.

A question like

- 5) What the hell are you doing!

has really the force of an exclamation. Thus, the correlation between the dimension of grammatical form (sentence type) and the dimension of meaning (illocutionary force) is not always one-to-one. Some verbs like *request*, *promise*, *ask*, *congratulate*, etc. are illocutionary by nature, i.e. they bring about the performance of what they stand for, as in

- 6) I *promise* to return the money on Monday.
- 7) I *congratulate* you on your success.

In 6, the 'act of promise' is being actually performed and in 7, the 'act of congratulating' is simultaneous with the utterance. Notice that such illocutionary acts have the following grammatical features: Subject is 1st person, structure is that of a positive declarative sentence, and the tense is present tense. Since the utterance of such sentences is simultaneous with the performance of the act denoted by the utterance, these verbs (used with the above-mentioned grammatical features) are also called *performatives*. The use will not be performative if any one of the above conditions is not met. In

- 8) He promises to return the money.
- 9) I promised to return the money.
- 10) Should I promise to return the money?

the utterance and act are not simultaneous and the use of the verb *promise* is therefore not performative.

Check Your Progress 1

- 1) Identify the sentence type and the illocutionary force for each of the following:

- i) Turn the light off.

.....

- ii) Have a good trip.

.....

- iii) Please pass the salt.

.....

iv) Would you like a cup of tea?

.....

v) Would you mind closing the door?

.....

vi) How foolish I've been!

.....

vii) You are requested to go through the security check.

.....

viii) Take care.

.....

ix) Are you coming home late?

.....

2) What are the grammatical properties of sentences such as

i) I promise to return your car.

ii) I ask you to leave the room at once.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

29.3 EXCLAMATIONS

The illocutionary force normally associated with exclamatory sentences is one of colouring the meaning of the utterance with strong emotive and attitudinal meaning. For example,

11) How ugly she looks!

12) What a wonderful dog it is!

In 11, the meaning is not just that she is ugly but also that she is particularly, unexpectedly ugly, i.e. ordinary women are normally not so ugly. In 12, the dog is really an extraordinary dog; dogs may generally be great, but this one is particularly wonderful. What are the formal properties of exclamatory sentences? Notice that *how* and *what* are used to indicate strong emotions. Only these two *wh*- words are used in exclamatory sentences. *How* generally functions as an intensifier. Consider the following pairs of sentences:

13) (a) She is fat.

(b) How fat she is!

14) (a) I hated Sanskrit.

(b) How I hated Sanskrit!

In 13 (a), *fat* is an adjective which functions as a subject complement (SC). *How* in 13 (b), describes the degree of fatness—i.e. functions as an intensifier suggesting that if fatness were seen on a scale, she is really on the 'extremely fat' end. In 14 (b), again, *how* functions as an adverbial intensifying the meaning of the verb *hate*. For the exclamatory use of *what*, consider the following pairs of sentences:

- 15) (a) It is utter nonsense.
(b) What utter nonsense it is!
- 16) (a) She has been waiting a long time.
(b) What a long time she has been waiting!
- 17) (a) He gave me a nice present.
(b) What a nice present he gave me!

Notice that *what* in the above sentences functions as a determiner. In 16 (b), it acts as a modifier of 'a long time' and in 17 (b), it modifies 'a nice present'. As in the case of questions, *how* and *what* appear initially in exclamatory sentences as well. However, there is one important difference. As you know from Unit 28, subject-operator inversion is obligatory in the case of questions. But as is clear from examples 11-17, subject-operator inversion does not normally take place in the case of exclamatory sentences. Some ambiguity may arise when *how* and *what* constitute a part of the subject NP as in

- 18) How much money is needed to finish this job
- 19) What innocent people end up in jail

Sentence 18 may be interpreted as both—an exclamation and a question. It could mean

- 20) What a lot of money is needed to finish this job!

or it could be a question as in

- 21) What is the amount of money needed to finish this job?

Although 19 can also have two meanings, the possibility of ambiguity is much less in the case of *what*. The moment *what* appears with *a*, it can only have an exclamatory meaning as in

- 22) What a stupid fellow he is!

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) For some of the following sentences, two readings are possible: one as a question, the other as an exclamation. Explain those readings. For those that allow only one reading, give reasons why two readings are not possible. (No punctuation marks have been used.)

- i) How beautiful she is
.....
.....

- ii) How often have I told you to stop smoking
.....
.....
.....
.....

- iii) How they cried
.....

iv) How much money was invested

.....
.....
.....

v) What are you doing tonight

.....

vi) How did you travel

.....

vii) What a match it was

.....

viii) What strange women lived here

.....
.....
.....

29.4 IMPERATIVES

We have frequently turned to imperatives in our previous units to contrast them with statements, negatives or questions. In this section, we'll look at the structure and meaning of imperatives in some detail.

The imperatives we most frequently encounter in day-to-day communication are of the type

23) Go there.

24 Wash your hands.

We immediately notice that these sentences have a verb in the beginning and are yet not questions. What about the subject of these sentences? In Unit 21 (see Block 5), we pointed out that *you* is invariably the subject of such imperative sentences and is normally deleted. How do we know that there is an underlying *you* in 23 and 24? Can we produce any syntactic evidence to prove that there *is* a *you* underlying 23 and 24?

Consider the following sentences:

25) Mohan wrote it himself.

26) Faiza wrote it herself.

27) They wrote it themselves.

Notice that the 'emphatic' pronouns such as *himself*, *herself*, *themselves* etc. have the same reference as the preceding subject NP. It will be ungrammatical to say

* 28) Faiza wrote it themselves.

because *themselves* cannot be co-referential with *Faiza*. What kind of emphatic pronouns are possible in the case of 23 and 24? The only possibility is to say

29) Go there yourself.

30) Wash your hands yourself.

The presence of the pronoun *yourself* subsumes that there is a subject NP *you* which has been deleted:

Another piece of evidence may be seen in the use of tag-questions with imperative

sentences. Among other things, tag-questions copy the subject of the main clause. They can reveal the subject NP even when it is not there. Though imperatives allow a wide range of tags, the subject NP is always *you*, as in

- 31) Go away, will
 won't you?
 can
 can't

Secondly, such imperative sentences can have only one form of the verb—a finite base form. It is not possible to add any markers of tense, aspect, voice or modality to the imperative verb. Thus

- * 32) went there.
- * 33) going there.
- * 34) is/was sent there.
- * 35) can go there.

are ungrammatical as imperatives. 'You went there' is a statement and not a directive. Since commands often sound rude, we try to make them polite by using 'please' or, as we noted earlier, by using a question-form. Thus

- 36) Please go there.

instead of 23 will be communicatively more effective. Since the verbal forms used in the case of imperatives and the simple present used for habitual actions (see 24.2.1 in Block 5) may be identical, ambiguity may sometimes result. For example,

- 37) You wake up at six.

may mean

- 38) You habitually wake up at six.

or

You are *ordered* to wake up at six (tomorrow).

We can sometimes have a third person subject also. But this usage generally includes the 2nd person, i.e. the listener.

- 39) Somebody close the door.
- 40) Everybody open his eyes.

Imperatives are thus distinguished from other sentence types in generally having deleted *you* as the subject and in having the base form of the verb. They are also distinguished in consistently using initial *don't* to make negatives. Corresponding to 23 and 24 we have,

- 41) Don't go there.
- 42) Don't wash your hands.

Sometimes we use *do* to make the imperative particularly persuasive. A sentence such as

- 43) Do come to the party.

means that the speaker is insisting that the hearer should come to the party.

Check Your Progress 3

- 1) Discuss with examples the syntactic tests you can use to show that imperative sentences have *you* as their subject.

.....

.....

2) In addition to having *you* as their subject, what are the syntactic properties of imperative sentences.

29.5 FORMULAIC UTTERANCES AND BLOCK LANGUAGE

As discussed in Section 21.6 in Block 5 not all utterances follow the grammatical structure typically associated with different sentence types. In excerpt D in 21.2, we'd given several examples of what are understood as complete sentences but violate most rules of sentence structure. For example, in

44) Advantage Graf.

what is the subject? What shall be classified as the predicate? Where is the verb? Yet in the context of a tennis match, the above utterance makes perfect sense.

What we encounter most frequently are greetings, farewells, toasts, slogans, warnings, and apologies. These do not generally conform to any rules of sentence structure. For example, sentences like

- | | |
|----------------------------|------------|
| 45) Good evening. | (greeting) |
| 46) So long. | (farewell) |
| 47) To your health. | (toast) |
| 48) Down with Narmada dam. | (slogan) |
| 49) Fire! | (warning) |
| 50) Pardon. | (apology) |

cannot be analysed in terms of subject, verb, complements, and adverbs. Similarly formulaic utterances like

- 51) How about tomorrow?
- 52) Why fret?
- 53) How about joining us?

are irregular because some of the elements generally found in *wh*- questions are absent here. A first-meeting greeting,

54) How do you do?

does not have a statement corresponding to it. Nor can it be used as an indirect question like

- 55) She asked him how he did.

Block language which is regularly used in newspaper headlines and advertisements tends to keep only the content words which are of high information value. Most function words, e.g. prepositions, conjunctions, articles, etc. are generally deleted. This process introduces an element of 'punch' in the utterance and also makes it economical to print. For example, in

56) Ceat. Born tough.

the idea really is: 'We manufacture ceat tyres. These tyres are really very strong. You should buy ceat tyres only'. But the process of truncation and focussing leads to 56.

Newspaper headlines do maintain a certain marginal sentence structure. For example,

57) Blast victim dies.

has the structure subject-verb. The headline

58) PM to meet Baba Amte.

has the structure subject-verb-direct object. In

59) Wheat prices now higher than ever before.

we have the structure subject -verb- subject complement. You may examine the headlines of your daily newspaper and see whether these correspond to any of the structures we've discussed in the preceding units.

29.6 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we introduced the concept of illocutionary force i.e. the dimension of meaning associated with different grammatical structures. We also showed that there is no one-to-one correspondence between grammatical structure and different kinds of illocutionary force. For example, declaratives, imperatives and interrogatives can all be used to make requests. We also discussed the structure and meaning of exclamatory and imperative sentences. Exclamatory sentences typically begin with *how* or *what* and do not have subject-operator inversion. Imperative sentences have *you* as their subject and use the base finite form of the verb. We also discussed briefly some of the properties of block language and formulaic greetings.

29.7 KEY WORDS

content words (grammar) : words having meaning

function words (grammar) : words expressing grammatical relationships

emotive : tending to excite

formulaic : made up of fixed expressions

illocutionary force (grammar) : communicative function of an utterance

performatives (grammar) : verbs in which the utterance is simultaneous with the action denoted by them.

29.8 SUGGESTED READING

Huddleston R. 1988. *English Grammar : An Outline*, CUP.

Quirk R. et al. 1972. *A Grammar of Contemporary English*. Longman.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

1) Sentence Type	Illocutionary Force
i) Imperative	directive, command
ii) Imperative	wish
iii) Imperative	request
iv) Interrogative	question
v) Interrogative	request
vi) Exclamatory	strong feeling of regret
vii) Declarative	request
viii) Imperative	wish, advice
ix) Interrogative	question

2) Read 29.2 carefully.

Check Your Progress 2

- i) only an exclamatory reading is possible. There's no subject-operator inversion.
- ii) a) I have told you many times(an exclamatory meaning)
b) How many times have I? (as a question)
- iii) How they cried! (Exclamatory)
- iv) a) What a lot of money was invested!
b) What is the amount of money that was invested?
- v) What are you doing tonight?
- vi) How did you travel?
- vii) What a match it was!
- viii) a) What strange women lived here!
b) Who were the strange women that lived here?

Check Your Progress 3

- 1) Read 29.4 carefully.
- 2) Read 29.4 carefully.

UNIT 30 SYNTACTIC FEATURES OF INDIAN ENGLISH

Structure

- 30.0 Objectives
- 30.1 Introduction
- 30.2 Word Order
- 30.3 Questions
- 30.4 Tense and Aspect
- 30.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 30.6 Key Words
- 30.7 Suggested Reading
Answers

30.0 OBJECTIVES

This is the last unit on the grammatical structure of simple English sentences. In this unit, we propose to discuss some of the syntactic features in which English used in India differs from standard British English. We'll discuss these differences in terms of rules concerning word order, question-formation, and tense and aspect. We'll also try to show that a standard variety is more a socio-political than a linguistic question.

30.1 INTRODUCTION

No speech community is homogeneous, culturally or linguistically. It is not true that the only variety a speech community uses is the one described in grammar books. In the preceding units, we've been discussing the syntactic features of standard English spoken in Britain and the USA. But many other varieties of English are also spoken in these countries. These varieties differ from each other most strikingly at the phonological level; often there are significant differences at the lexical and syntactic levels as well. It is because of a variety of historical, social and political factors that one of these varieties gets standardised and codified in grammars, dictionaries and other reference books. It becomes the medium of instruction and gets associated with higher education, a higher socio-economic class, and prestigious jobs. Notice that there is nothing inherently superior in this variety. From the point of view of grammatical structure, all varieties are equally systematic. They just have different rules. Thus any variety has the potential of being codified and standardised.

Like any other variety of English, Indian English is also not a homogeneous and static phenomenon. Though hardly anyone in India speaks English as his/her first language, there are many people who use it extensively at work as well as at home and among friends. Some of them use a variety which is very close to standard British English. On the other hand, a large number of Indians speak varieties which are heavily influenced by their first languages and are barely intelligible to native speakers of English. But the largest chunk of English-speaking Indians perhaps falls between these two extremes. The English of these generally educated Indians often has a distinct Indian flavour, particularly in pronunciation. It may also be marked by some syntactic features. We've discussed some of the more basic structural patterns of English sentences in the preceding units. In this unit, we'll discuss some of the ways in which Indian English may sometimes deviate from these patterns.

30.2 WORD ORDER

If you turn to the sentences introduced in Section in 22.2 in Block 5 and review the discussion of different structural properties of basic English sentence patterns, you may draw, among others, the following conclusions about the order of constituents in English. (Also see Section 21.3 on Order.) The sentences introduced in 22.2 were

- 1) Sudhir is now a student at Delhi University.
- 2) The Babus of Nayanjore were famous landlords.
- 3) Vimla has searched the room carefully.
- 4) They make Rahul the captain every year.
- 5) It rained heavily last night.
- 6) Neha gave Sanjay a book yesterday.
- 7) My brother is playing hockey on the playground.

We observe that

- a) the subject (e.g. *The Babus of Nayanjore*) always precedes the predicate (e.g. *were famous landlords*);
- b) the adjectives (e.g. *famous*) precede the nouns (e.g. *landlords*) they modify;
- c) like the adjectives, the articles (i.e. *a, an* and *the*) precede the nouns (e.g. *book, playground*) they modify. In fact, this is true of all determiners e.g. *all, some, this, that, etc.*;
- d) In the verbal group, auxiliaries (e.g. *has, is*) precede the main verbs (e.g. *searched, playing*);
- e) the indirect objects (e.g. *Sanjay*) precede the direct objects (e.g. *a book*);
- f) the object complements (e.g. *the captain*) follow the direct objects (e.g. *Rahul*);
- g) the prepositions (e.g. *at, on*) precede the noun phrases (e.g. *Delhi University, the playground*);
- h) the position of the adverbials appears to be more flexible. Generally, they appear at the end (e.g. *carefully, every year, last night, yesterday*). But they could also appear in the middle (e.g. *now*) or before another adverb (e.g. *heavily*).

In general, Indian English does not differ from standard British English in observing these word-order rules. Sometimes you may come across a deviant construction, e.g.

? * My all friends are here.

where the word-order rule that determiners such as *all* should precede possessives or articles is violated.

But in general, there are very few syntactic differences in British and Indian English. The real Indianness of Indian English is to be seen in the areas of pronunciation and coining new words and expressions. In fact, different varieties of English all over the world share a core of syntactic structures.

As already pointed out, the prestige associated with a standard variety is a socio-political and not a linguistic question. When we give examples of deviations from educated Indian English, we'll use the symbols '?*', suggesting that though the sentence may be ungrammatical in British English, its status in Indian English is still not clear. Given favourable conditions, it may gain currency.

It's in the use of adverbials that we notice more striking deviations. Even in British and American English, adverbials have a much greater degree of flexibility than any other constituent. If you turn to the discussion in Section 26.3, you'll notice how a change in the place of an adverb can change the meaning of a given sentence completely. Yet, as the discussion showed, placement of the adverb is not completely random. If an adverb appears at the beginning as in

- 9) *Quietly*, she opened the door.

it sets the scene for the event that follows. If it comes at the end as in

10) She opened the door *quietly*.

the sentence forms an answer to a question.

11) How did she open the door?

When it appears in the middle of the sentence, it modifies only the verb as in

12) She *quietly* opened the door.

In 26.3, we also noticed that there is a certain order in the sequence in which time adverbials can appear in a sentence. There is, in fact, a hierarchical relationship among time adverbials, i.e. the shorter the span of time indicated, the earlier its appearance in a sentence, as in

13) We met them *at seven late in the evening on Monday*.

We also noticed (26.3) that if time adverbs of duration, frequency, and time-when all appear in a sentence, the order normally is

time duration, followed by

time frequency, followed by

time when.

Most Indians often use adverbial sequences which differ from the patterns outlined above. For example,

? 14) She is late *always*.

? 15) I meet her *every week briefly in summers*.

? 16) I met her *on Monday early in the morning at six*.

? 17) He works *in winters regularly*.

are patterns frequently seen in Indian English. Some adverbial sequence in these sentences reflect the native language patterns. Yet, we don't need to take recourse to native language patterns to explain this phenomenon. Once such patterns become stabilised in terms of being used in grammars, newspapers, books, and the speech of parents, teachers and friends, they will become a part of standard Indian English. At the moment, the situation is fluid. Some Indians never use them and follow the British patterns. On the other hand, a considerable population sometimes uses one pattern and sometimes the other.

Check Your Progress 1

1) Rewrite the following sentences changing the placement and/or sequence of adverbials according to the rules for British English:

i) *Never you would guess what I saw.

.....

ii) *He has arrived on time rarely.

.....

iii) *She quickly walks.

.....

iv) *Neha comes here every week in winters for a short spell.

.....

.....

v) *Since last year I've spoken to her hardly.

.....

.....

30.3 QUESTIONS

In Unit 28, we discussed the rules concerning question and tag-question formation in British English. Indian English often deviates from these rules. The subject-operator inversion, which is so central to the processes of question formation, may often be missing in Indian English. Sentences such as

?*18) Where you are going?

?*19) How she is feeling?

?*20) What you are doing?

may sometimes be found even in the speech and writing of highly educated Indians. The subject-operator inversion, which is obligatory in standard British English, has not been applied here. On the other hand, subject-operator inversion is not required when a question is embedded into another sentence. For example the question in 21

21) Where does he work?

loses the subject-operator inversion when embedded as in

22) I asked him where he worked.

But in Indian English, *some* speakers retain subject-operator inversion in embedded questions as in

?*23) I asked him where does he work.

One of the most interesting areas in which Indian English differs from British English is that of tag-questions. Indian English often simplifies the complex network of rules for tag-questions (see Unit 28). Irrespective of what precedes, some speakers simply add *isn't it* or *no* to form tag-questions. For some speakers of Indian English (and perhaps some other varieties of English as well), the following sentences are perfectly normal.

?*24) You are coming with me, isn't it?

?*25) He arrived late, isn't it?

?*26) We differ from others in being rational, isn't it?

?*27) He couldn't stop, isn't it?

Notice that we are not calling these deviations errors or mistakes. These are patterns which we frequently observe in Indian English. They are different from their counterparts in British English. In Britain the patterns that we've discussed in the preceding units have been formalised into a standard variety. In India, a standard variety is still in the making. There are very strong pressures to maintain the British model. There are equally strong pressures to evolve a native idiom.

30.4 TENSE AND ASPECT

As discussed in Section 24.2 in Block 5 the structural pattern of a sentence depends considerably on how a speaker views the event he's going to talk about and at what point in time the event is to be located. His perception of the nature of the event determines its aspect—perfective/non-perfective and progressive/non-progressive. In standard British English, the present perfect is generally used for an action that started in the past but which is still relevant at the present moment. It is adverbs such as *just*, *now*, *at present*, etc. that are used with the present perfect as in

28) I've *just* had breakfast.

29) I've finished two chapters *at present*.

Some Indians use the present perfect even when it is clear that the event took place in the past and has no immediate relevance. We may often hear or read

?*30) He has died last year.

?*31) We have visited Bombay last summer.

In standard British English, simple past is obligatorily used when an adverb clearly shows that the event took place in the past.

The use of the present perfect progressive tense also shows some deviations. As in 32 below,

32) She has been working here since 1985.

the use of this tense suggests that an action which started at some point in the past is still continuing—it expresses the duration of an action. Many Indians use the present progressive in these contexts as in

?*33) Madhu is working here for the last ten years.

As stated in the beginning, we'd like to emphasise that, like any other variety of English, Indian English is also heterogeneous. Some people show no traces of the deviations noted above.

Check Your Progress 2

1) Change the following into indirect (reported) speech:

Robert said to the steward, "What do you mean by saying that there are no eggs?"

The steward replied, "Sir, what can I do? I cannot lay eggs. It's the act of God".

Robert: "Why do you blame your Maker for your follies?"

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

2) Rewrite the following sentences as they will be said in British English:

i) *She's married, isn't it?

.....

ii) *The Babus of Nayanjore were famous landlords, isn't it?

.....

iii) *I've left Bombay last year.

.....

iv) *Sudha is teaching at this college for the last 15 years.

.....

v) *He was noted for his courage, isn't it?

.....

30.5 LET US SUM UP

We have shown that there are some important syntactic differences between standard British English and the way some Indians use the language. These Indians often have different rules for placing adverbs in a sentence and for forming questions and tag-questions. There are some differences in the use of tense and aspect as well.

30.6 KEY WORDS

heterogeneous: made up of different kinds

homogeneous: formed of the same kind

30.7 SUGGESTED READING

Close, R.A. 1962. *English as a Foreign Language*, George Allen & Unwin.

Verma, S.K., 1978. 'Syntactic Irregularities in Indian English', in Mohan, R. ed. *Indian Writing in English*, New Delhi: Orient Longman.

Sahgal, A. and Agnihotri, R.K. 'Syntax—the Common Bond: Acceptability of Syntactic Deviances in Indian English.' *English Worldwide* 6.1:117-129

Kachru, B.B. 1983. *The Indianization of English*, Delhi: OUP.

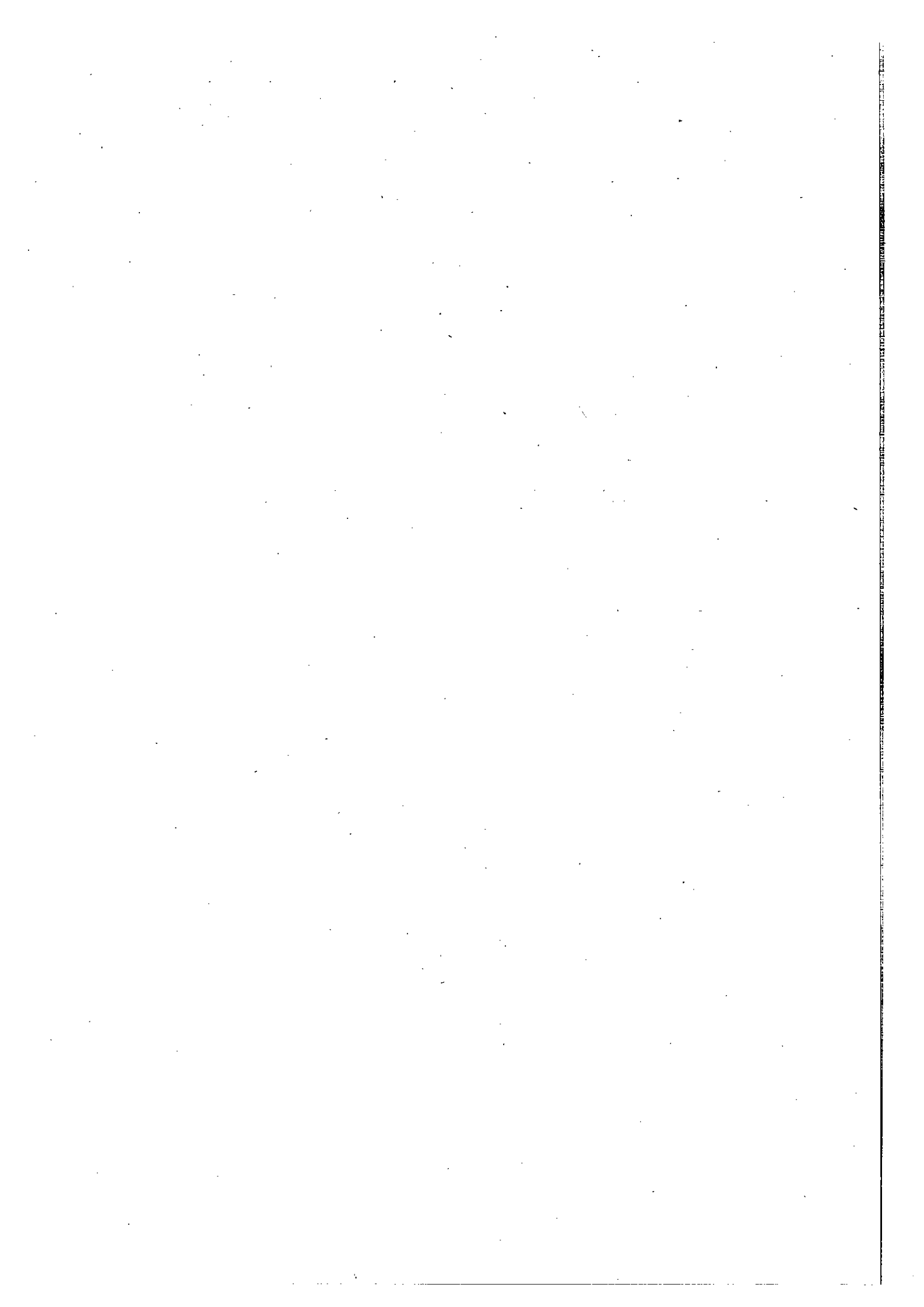
ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

- 1) i) You'd never guess what I saw.
- ii) He's rarely arrived on time.
- iii) She walks quickly.
- iv) Neha comes here for a short spell every week in winters.
- v) I've hardly spoken to her since last year.

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) Robert asked the steward what he meant by saying that there were no eggs. The steward asked respectfully what he could do and added that he could not lay eggs and that that was the act of God. Robert asked him why he blamed his Maker for his follies.
- 2) i) She's married, isn't she?
- ii) The Babus of Nayanjore were famous landlords, weren't they?
- iii) I left Bombay last year.
- iv) Sudha has been teaching at this college for the last 15 years.
- v) He was noted for his courage, wasn't he?





UTTAR PRADESH
RAJARSHI TANDON OPEN UNIVERSITY

UGEN-02 The Structure of Modern English

Block

7

SYNTAX-3 : THE NOUN PHRASE AND THE VERB PHRASE

UNIT 31	The Noun Phrase-1 The Head; Pre-modification	5
UNIT 32	The Noun Phrase-2 Post-modification : The Relative Clause	26
UNIT 33	The Noun Phrase-3 Post-modification : The Prepositional Phrase	38
UNIT 34	The Verb Phrase-1 Lexical, Auxiliary, and Phrasal Verbs	48
UNIT 35	The Verb Phrase-2 Tense; Aspect; Modality	60

INTRODUCTION TO THE BLOCK

Having discussed sentence structure in Blocks 5 & 6, we shall now study the structure of two of the most important constituents of a sentence—the noun phrase and the verb phrase.

Units 31-33 deal with the noun phrase and Units 34-35 with the verb phrase.

For permission to reproduce copyright materials included in Block 7, we are grateful to the following:

1. Curtis Brown Ltd., London for 23 extracts from C.P. Snow: *Public Affairs*; Copyright C.P. Snow, 1971.
2. *New Scientist*, London, for five passages from the issues dated 12 August, 1988, 18 August, 1988, and 16 September, 1989.
3. Faber and Faber Limited, London for four passages from William Golding : *Lord of the Flies*.
4. *New Statesman and Society*, London, for two passages from the issue dated 18 November, 1988.
5. Century Hutchinson Publishing Group Ltd., London for four passages from P.G. Wodehouse : *A Few Quick Ones*, Coronet edition.
6. *The Times Higher Education Supplement*, London for the passage from the issue dated 2 June, 1989.
7. Century Hutchinson Ltd., London for two passages from P.G. Wodehouse : *Much Obligated, Jeeves*.

UNIT 31 THE NOUN PHRASE - 1

THE HEAD: PRE-MODIFICATION

Structure

- 31.0 Objectives
- 31.1 Introduction
- 31.2 Nouns.
 - 31.2.1 Number
 - 31.2.2 Gender
 - 31.2.3 Case
- 31.3 Pre-modification
 - The Articles
 - The Article with Countable Nouns
 - The Article with Uncountable Nouns
 - The Article with Proper Nouns
- 31.4 Pronouns
 - 31.4.1 Personal Pronouns
 - 31.4.2 Possessive Pronouns
 - 31.4.3 Reflexive and Reciprocal Pronouns
 - 31.4.4 Demonstrative Pronouns
 - 31.4.5 Indefinite Pronouns
- 31.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 31.6 Suggestions for Further Study
- Answers

31.0 OBJECTIVES

In this unit we shall begin our description of the noun phrase. We shall discuss the concept of the head and how certain modifiers can be placed before it.

After completing the study of this unit, you should be able to recognise noun phrases and analyse their structure in terms of 'pre-modifier', 'head', and 'postmodifier'.

31.1 INTRODUCTION

A noun phrase (NP) is a group in which the most important (or leading) word is a noun. In the sentence: **The man hit the ball**, we have two NPs (**the man**, **the ball**). As you can see, the leading words here are **man**, **ball**. The grammatical term for the leading word is 'head'. An NP, then, is a group with a noun as its head.

Noun phrases can be quite complex. Consider the following:

all the best students of this school

Here we have **all the best** preceding the 'head' (**students**), and we can call it a 'pre-head modifier'; **of this school** follows the head and we can call it a 'post-head modifier'. Very broadly, we can set down the structure of this NP as:

premodifier + head + postmodifier.

(The premodifier groups and the postmodifier groups have their own internal structure.)

The ability to have pre- (or post-) modifier depends on the head of the NP. The head of an NP can be:

a noun (**boy**, **Ram**,)

a pronoun ('**you** said it')

an adjective ('the **poor** are always with us')

a gerund, that is, a verbal noun ('**Smoking** is injurious to health')

Only nouns, common nouns in particular, exhibit the full range of the complex structure of NPs. But even in cases like

You said it.

John is an Englishman.

You, it and John are NPs. These are NPs with just the heads and no further structure.

31.2.1 Number

Number Classes

In respect of number English nouns can be grouped as under:

- 1) Nouns which have different forms for the singular and the plural (e.g. **boy—boys**).
- 2) Nouns which have the same form in both the singular and the plural (e.g. **one sheep/ twenty sheep**).
- 3) Nouns which are normally used in the plural only (e.g. **gallows, trousers, cattle, police**).
- 4) Nouns which are normally used in the singular only (e.g. **gold, air, courage**).

We shall now examine each of these sub-classes in some detail.

- 1) Nouns having a singular form and a plural form fall into two groups: (a) those having a regular plural form as shown below (the vast majority); (b) those having irregular plural forms (a small group).

- a) The regular plural is formed by the suffix **-s**; **horse—horses, size—sizes, boy—boys** (on the pronunciation of this suffix, see Section 13.3.4 in Block 3).

There are some spelling changes to be noted in the formation of the regular plurals.

- i) The plural is spelt **es** after nouns ending in a sibilant: e.g. **gas—gases; box—boxes; bush—bushes**. But when the noun ends with a silent **e**, only **s** is added: **size—sizes**.
- ii) The **y** after a consonant sound is changed into **ie** in the plural (**spy—spies**); otherwise **y** remains unchanged and only **s** is added (**day—days**). **y** remains unchanged at the end of proper nouns also (**Germany—Germanys**).

- b) The following are the chief sub-groups of irregular plurals:

- i) plural formed by an internal vowel change:
tooth—teeth; man—men; foot—feet; mouse—mice.
- ii) plural formed by **en**: **ox—oxen; child—children**.
- iii) cases where the final voiceless consonant of the singular undergoes voicing:
bath—baths/z/; calf—calves/vz/; house—houses/zlz/
- iv) Some foreign plurals:
Some words of Greek and Latin origin retain their original plural forms: e.g. **bacillus—bacilli; stimulus—stimuli; larva—larvae; criterion—criteria**.

- 2) Nouns having the same form in the singular and plural consist, chiefly, of:

- a) certain names of animals:
sheep, deer, mouse, salmon
- b) a few nouns ending in **s**:
headquarters (The headquarters is/are....)
gallows (They have erected a/two gallows.)
means: Every means has been tried.
All possible means have been tried.
- c) Numeral nouns like **hundred, thousand** and **million** have a plural form only when not preceded by any modifier.
Thousands of people attended the car festival.
The police took into custody two hundred agitators.

- 3) Nouns normally used as plurals only broadly fall into three classes.

- a) Nouns referring to objects which consist of two equal parts that are joined:
scissors, shears, glasses (=spectacles), bellows, trousers, pants, pyjamas.
- b) Some collective nouns:
cattle, people, police
- c) Certain nouns ending in **s**:

amends, bowels, brains, arms (in the sense of weapons), arrears, earnings, fireworks, goods, lodgings, looks ('appearance'), manners, odds, outskirts, pains (to take pains), particulars, premises, regards, riches, spirits (in high spirits), thanks. The nouns discussed under types 1 and 2 above all refer to objects which can be (and usually are) counted in daily life: **two girls and three boys; a dozen oranges**. It is an accident of English that a noun like **sheep** has the same form in the singular and the plural. But it is as much a countable noun as **boy** or **girl**.

As for the nouns under type 3 above, those under (a) are countable, but even when one specimen is thought of, the construction has to be in the plural because of the nature of things (**bellows, scissors, etc.**). Those in (b) are also countable but cannot refer to one item (**cattle**). But with the nouns in (c) the very notion of countability is inappropriate. These nouns are uncountables although they end in **s** and are treated as plurals.

- 4) Uncountables generally appear in the singular form and convey no sense of plurality. They include
- a) Proper nouns—both personal names (**Henry, James, Randolph**) and geographic names (**India, Russia, Paris**).
 - b) abstract nouns: **courage, despair, happiness, music**;
 - c) 'mass' nouns: **gold, oxygen, furniture, butter, bread**;
 - d) certain nouns in **-s**:
names of subjects: **economics, mathematics, etc.**;
names of diseases: **measles, mumps, etc.**;
some names of games; **bowls, billiards**;
and the noun **news**. (**What's the news?**)

Leaving out the nouns in (d) above—a small, accidental group—the bulk of the uncountables fall into three well-defined groups—proper nouns, abstract nouns and mass nouns. The notion of counting, as already noted, is quite inappropriate with these nouns:

Thus the distinction between countable and uncountable nouns is one based on common sense but not entirely. It turns out that some nouns which express an idea countable in other languages are uncountable in English. Among these are: **equipment, luggage, information, news, imagery, scenery, poetry, stationery, behaviour, homework**.

Although the notion of counting is quite inappropriate in the case of these nouns and they are generally used in the singular form only, the language does allow a plural construction with some of them; also some notion of countability (more exactly measurability) can be imposed on mass nouns with the help of 'partitives':

a grain of sand/a bucket of sand; a drop of water/ a glass of water/some drops of water.

31.2.2 Gender

- 1) Gender in English is a fairly straightforward matter. Nouns referring to males are 'masculine'; nouns referring to females are 'feminine'; and other nouns—those referring to inanimate objects (**book, box, stone, ...**) and objects whose sex is not a matter of general interest (**plant, tree, flower, ...**) are 'neuter'.

The gender distinction is of significance primarily for the choice of the referring pronoun: masculine nouns are referred to in the singular by **he**; feminine nouns by **she**; and neuter nouns by **it**. In the plural all the genders have only one referring pronoun, **they**.

- 2) A few nouns referring to persons have paired masculine and feminine forms.
- | | | | |
|------------|-------------|--------|------------|
| man | — woman; | boy | — girl; |
| brother | — sister; | father | — mother; |
| bridegroom | — bride; | host | — hostess; |
| waiter | — waitress. | | |

In most cases the noun is not marked for the male-female distinction:
cook, doctor, artist, musician, neighbour, parent, teacher, student.

The tendency to do away with gender-marked forms is on the rise. Thus **author** (unmarked) is supplanting **authoress**. Similarly with **poet**—**poetess**. Thus also with **chairman**, which is being replaced by **chairperson**.

Collective nouns (**army, committee, government, crowd, jury, family, flock, gang, the public, the intelligentsia, ...**) do not distinguish gender. The referring pronoun can be **it** or **they** (depending on whether the group is thought of as a whole or attention is drawn to the members constituting the group).

The government has/have withdrawn the bill. It hopes (they hope) there will be a wider public debate.

- 3) In the case of nouns denoting the higher animals there is usually a marked form to indicate the female (**lioness, bitch, tigress**). When this form is chosen, naturally the referring pronoun will have to be **she**. Otherwise the unmarked form can be used indifferently, regardless of the sex of the animal. The referring pronoun will be **it** (singular), **they** (plural).
- 4) In literary usage nouns denoting inanimate objects may be treated as masculine or feminine depending on the qualities usually associated with them. Thus **the sun** will be masculine; **the moon** feminine.

31.2.3 Case

- 1) English has a fairly rich system of case forms only in respect of pronouns. As for nouns, they are marked only for the genitive case (also called the possessive case). This is sometimes expressed by saying that English nouns have only two cases—a common case (**boy**) and a genitive case (**boy's**).
- 2) a) In the singular the genitive is formed by adding an apostrophe and **s** (**the boy's books**), whose pronunciation follows the same rules as for the plural inflection.
b) In the plural, when the plural noun does not end in a sibilant, the genitive is formed by adding **'s**.
 children's toys, men's wear, women's organizations.
c) When the plural noun ends in a sibilant, the genitive is formed by adding the apostrophe only (in writing).
 my clients' interests, the spies' companions, the students' union.
- 3) The genitive case (formed with **'s** or just the apostrophe) is referred to as the 's-genitive'. It is usually restricted to nouns referring to persons and higher animals: Shakespeare's plays; my sister's toys; the lion's mane.

Nouns referring to objects which essentially involve associations of persons can also appear in the s-genitive:

a nation's honour; the city's greatness; Bombay's history, the government's shortcomings, the State's supremacy...

In other cases, especially with nouns referring to inanimate objects, the meaning of the genitive is expressed through a construction with **of**—the 'of-adjunct':

the legs of the table (*the table's legs)
the colour of the walls (*the walls' colour)
the point of the nib (*the nib's point)
(*indicates an unacceptable form)

This last remark has a number of exceptions: e.g.

tomorrow's news; a moment's reflection, at day's end.
at a yard's distance;
a ten miles' walk.
for conscience' sake; for goodness' sake;
at arm's length;
at a stone's throw.

- 4) In an expression like **my sister's toys** the noun in the genitive (**sister's**) is followed by the head (**toys**). The genitive is used here attributively. This is, by far, the most frequent use of the genitive.

In certain constructions, however, the noun in the genitive appears without a head.

I am dining at my uncle's tonight.

The 'understood head' of the genitive is always a place (e.g. my uncle's = my uncle's house). The usage is limited to nouns of close family relationship (father, mother, brother, etc.) The construction is also found with names of well-known shops, professional establishments, etc: at Greatway's, at Narula's, at my dentist's...

The head is also left out in constructions where it can be recovered (by being mentioned elsewhere in the sentence).

My house is smaller than my brother's.

I have read most of the novels of Dickens and some of Thackeray's.

Finally, note that in some constructions the genitive may follow the head: a friend of Mary's. The head friend has two modifiers: the article a and the genitive expressed by the phrase of Mary's. Since we cannot have: a Mary's friend, the structure becomes a friend of Mary's. Cf. also: a poem of Tagore's, a raincoat of my brother's, a painting of Hussain's.

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) Nouns ending in -o form the plural by just adding -s: studios, radios. But there are some cases where the plural has -oes. Give five examples.

.....
.....
.....

- 2) Compound nouns may show the plural suffix
i) on the first element (e.g. notaries public),
ii) on the second element (e.g. assistant professors), or
iii) on both (e.g. men servants).

Arrange the following into the three groups indicated above.

boy friend; air hostess; brother-in-law, spoonful; woman doctor; breakthrough; grant-in-aid, gentleman player; stand-by; close-up.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

- 3) Give the plurals of the following. In which of these is the final consonant of the singular form voiced in the plural?

birth, earth, youth, handkerchief, knife, leaf, self, half, cloth, moth, oath, truth, shelf, thief.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

- 4) Foreign words may have
i) the regular plural (e.g. genius: geniuses),
ii) the original foreign plural (e.g. bacillus: bacilli) or,
iii) both (syllabus: syllabuses, syllabi).

Classify the following into the three groups given above:

focus, fungus, bonus, genus, dilemma, era, antenna, terminus, radius, nucleus, album, forum, analysis, basis, hypothesis, synopsis, museum, medium, criterion, phenomenon, bureau, apex, index, appendix, electron.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

5) The central meaning expressed by the singular-plural contrast is the distinction between 'one and more than one', a numerical meaning. But consider the following:

- i) put some *coal* on the fire.
- ii) His *hair* is turning grey.
- iii) We had *fruit* at breakfast.
- iv) the *waters* of the Nile
- v) the *sands* of the desert
- vi) the *wines* of France
- vii) the *teas* of Assam.

What meanings are expressed by the forms of the nouns italicized in these sentences.

.....
.....
.....
.....

31.3 PRE-MODIFICATION

As already noted in section 31.1 the noun phrase in English can show a fairly complex structure with both pre- and post-modification. In the phrase **both the first two guests to arrive** we have **both** preceding **the**; the ordinal **first** and the cardinal **two** follow **the**. Supposing we assume that the article is a member of a larger class, determiner (Det.), then we can see that the structure of the pre-modifying phrase is:

1) Pre-Det. + Det. + Post-Det.

In the post-determiner position we find ordinals (like **first, second, etc.**), cardinals (like **one, two, etc.**) and adjectives (in that order): e.g.,

- the first two smart girls to turn up
- the next three Russian gymnasts to perform

Since every noun phrase need not have pre-determiners and post-determiners we will re-write (1) as (2).

2) (Pre-Det) Det. (Post-Det).

Now what about determiners? The only determiners illustrated till now have been articles. Other determiners include demonstratives: **this book, those girls**, possessives: **his father, your neighbour**; and many so-called indefinite pronouns: **each boy, all men, some books...**

The Articles

English has two articles: **a** (pronounced **an** before a vowel sound) and **the**. It will be convenient to speak of a 'zero' article in certain constructions. While **a** can be used only

with singular nouns, **the** can be used with either singular or plural nouns. The articles do not distinguish gender.

The main function of the article in English is to help establish the reference of the noun phrase; i.e. to help determine what it is that the noun phrase refers to.

The Article with Countable Nouns

A countable noun may refer either (a) to the whole class represented by the noun, or (b) to one or more specimens of the class.

Examples:

- a) Books are expensive.
- b) I borrowed a book from the library yesterday.

Sentence (a) is a statement about the whole-class of books; sentence (b) about one particular specimen of the class.

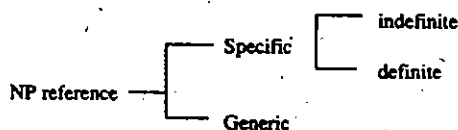
Where the reference is to one or more members of a class, we shall say the reference is **specific**; otherwise the reference is **generic**, particularly, when the reference is to a whole class. Consider now some sentences involving noun phrases with a specific reference.

A cheetah and a bear escaped from the zoo yesterday. The cheetah has been caught, but the bear is still missing.

A cheetah in the first sentence (as also a bear) refers to a particular cheetah. Quite possibly there were several cheetahs in the zoo and one of them escaped; the reader has no idea which one it was. But in the second sentence the cheetah can only refer to the cheetah mentioned earlier. The reader can identify it as the cheetah which had escaped.

From the point of view of the reader (or hearer), a noun may refer to something which he can identify (in the context of the discourse) or cannot. If he cannot, we say that the reference of the noun phrase is **indefinite**; if he can, the reference is **definite**.

We have now distinguished three types of reference. They may be set out schematically as follows:



How are these types of reference achieved in the language? This is the question we have now to ask.

Looking back at the examples discussed you will see that

- i) a singular countable preceded by **a** can have indefinite reference;
- ii) a countable preceded by **the** can have definite reference;
- iii) a plural countable with no article (or zero article) has generic reference.

Besides these facts of structure, there are certain discourse considerations to be noted. A singular countable, in its first occurrence, can only have indefinite reference. Therefore it has to be preceded by **a**. But its second or subsequent mention must be with **the**, as the reader (or hearer) will now be in a position to identify it (as the one mentioned earlier) and so the reference will be definite.

These discourse restrictions do not apply to the generic reference: a noun with a generic reference can be introduced at any point in a discourse.

It is not the case that in every instance a countable noun becomes definite only after first being introduced with indefinite reference. Definiteness can be achieved in the very first instance.

The study of Mathematics is gaining importance.

The banks of the Ganga should be kept clean.

The nouns **study**, **banks** have post-modifying phrases which make clear the reference of these nouns. Without such post-modification these nouns could not have been used with **the** in the very first occurrence.

Another case where a noun phrase can have definite reference in the very first occurrence is where the reference is unambiguously clear from the situation. Standing in a room and looking up I can say: **The ceiling is damp** (meaning 'the ceiling of the room in which I am standing'). Similarly, in a school a boy may say: **The Headmaster is on leave today**, meaning 'the Headmaster of the school'.

The generic reference was illustrated earlier with the structure 'Zero article + plural countable' as in (a) below. But in fact the generic reference is possible with other articles also as in (b) and (c) below.

- a) Tigers are ferocious animals.
- b) A tiger is a ferocious animal.
- c) The tiger is a ferocious animal.

But not all countable nouns can enter into all the three constructions exemplified here for generic reference: Zero article+plural noun; a + singular noun; the + singular noun.

Look at the following sentences:

- a) *A boy is mischievous.
- b) The boy is mischievous.
- c) Boys are mischievous.

a) is ungrammatical and (b) has specific reference. Only in (c), where the noun phrase has the structure Zero article + plural noun, do we have generic reference.

The only construction freely available for generic reference with all count nouns is: Zero article + plural noun. The other two constructions are restricted to particular classes of nouns.

The Article with Uncountable Nouns

- 1) Uncountable nouns (mass nouns, abstract nouns) are normally used in the singular with zero article. The sense is generic.

Water is heavier than air.

Never lose hope.

Beauty is only skin deep.

- 2) But if required, the sense can be made definite with a preceding the and a post-modifying phrase.

The water in this town doesn't agree with me.

Cf. also: the beauty of the snow-covered peaks; the gold I bought in Muscat.

- 3) Mass nouns cannot be directly preceded by a. But they can have indefinite reference when used with a partitive: a piece of gold, a grain of sand.
- 4) Abstract uncountable nouns can be directly preceded by a but they need to be qualified by an adjective (a rare wisdom, a strange beauty) or be followed by a post-modifier: a wisdom beyond his years, a courage rarely found in one so young. The indefinite article has a classifying function here.
- 5) Some countable nouns can be used in an uncountable sense with no article preceding them. Among these are:
 - i) school, bed, market, jail, hospital, church and one or two others.
School begins at half-past nine.
Sunil is in hospital for cardiac treatment.
I go to bed rather late.

The nouns hospital, school, bed, etc. in this usage refer to the activities associated with such places and not to the buildings/objects themselves. In the latter sense an article will be needed.

There is a cinema theatre right next to the school.

They are planning an annexe to the hospital.

- ii) names of meals:

Dinner is at eight.

Can you join us at lunch tomorrow?

The Article with Proper Nouns

- 1) a) Personal proper nouns normally appear without any article. The reference is not only definite but unique. In formal situations they are preceded by the appropriate titles.

Dr. Johnson; President Kennedy; Lord Mountbatten; Bishop Berkley; Mr. Armstrong; Professor Quirk.

The article **the** with the surname in plural indicates the family: **the Kennedys**.

- b) The indefinite article can be used with a personal proper noun in the sense of 'some person with the name of—whom I do not know': **A certain Mr Williams was on the phone.**
- c) Personal nouns can be used with **a** in a classifying sense.
Bernard Shaw fancied himself a later day Shakespeare.
Every young cricketer should not imagine himself to be a Gavaskar.
- d) Proper nouns can also be used with the definite article **the** as in:
Kalidasa is often referred to as **the Shakespeare of India.**
The proper noun (Shakespeare) is used here as a common noun: the reference of the phrase is definite.

- 2) Common nouns, especially nouns indicating close family relations are used with no article like proper names.

Father rang up from the office.

Mother is out shopping.

The usage is extended to **Doctor, nurse** and a few others.

Nouns like **Heaven, Hell, Parliament, Congress, Fortune, Fate** are also often used as proper names without any article.

Parliament has been adjourned sine die.

Fortune favours the brave.

Also names of subjects and languages.

Mathematics is the queen of sciences.

Everyone wants to study English.

The same usage—of being used without an article as a proper noun—is extended to the days of the week, names of months and seasons.

Summer follows winter.

December is a gloomy month.

(Cf. Fagin sat brooding.)

Monday begins the week.

- 3) Geographical names fall into two groups: (a) those without an article; (b) those with **the**.

- a) The great majority of names of cities, countries and continents are used without an article exactly like proper names: **England, India, France, Africa, Berlin, Delhi.**

And as with proper names some of these are used with their 'titles'. **Mt. Everest; Lake Ontario, Cape Comorin.**

Exceptions to the general pattern are: **the Hague, the Bahamas, the Sudan, the Netherlands.**

The article in the **U.S.A., the U.K.** becomes intelligible when we see that they are only descriptive proper names: **the United States of America; the United Kingdom.**

- b) Names of mountains, rivers, oceans and seas generally have **the**: **the Himalayas, the Alps, the Ganges, the Thames, the Atlantic Ocean, the Pacific Ocean, the Indian Ocean, the Mediterranean Sea.**

- 4) Nationality words can be used like other count nouns with **a** in the singular: **a Russian, a Chinese**; or with an appropriate numeral or **some** when the reference is to more than one person: **two Chinese, some Russians.**

Check Your Progress 3

- 1) In certain contexts the articles have a meaning of their own, e.g.,
I bought a (one) tie and a (one) dozen oranges.

What are the meanings in the following sentences?

- i) Apples are selling at Rs. 10/- a kilo.

- ii) To be taken twice a day after meals.
- iii) I'm busy at the moment.

.....
.....

2) Omission of the article should be distinguished from zero article. In **Gold is a precious metal**, the subject has zero article (as is the case with uncountable nouns in general). But in **He rose to the rank of Brigadier** we have an instance of the omission of **a** (in the prep. phrase).

Which of these are instances of zero article and which of article omitted?

- i) a study of Nehru as statesman and thinker
- ii) Don't lose heart.
- iii) August 15th, 1947
- iv) I came by bus.
- v) an essay on Shaw as dramatist and social reformer
- vi) to send word
- vii) to take offence
- viii) face to face
- ix) under cover of darkness
- x) by day.

.....
.....

Explain the use/non-use of the article with the italicized NPs in the following sentences:

- i) *Science¹* is cumulative and embodies its past. (from C.P. Snow: *Public Affairs*, MacMillan)
- ii) *No scientist²*, or student of science need ever read *an original work³ of the past⁴*. (*ibid*, p. 94)
- iii) *By the industrial revolution⁵*, I mean *the gradual use⁶* of machines, the employment of men and women in *factories⁷*, the change from a population mainly of *agricultural labourers⁸* to a population mainly employed in making things and distributing them. (*ibid*, p. 30)
- iv) The growing awareness of our dependence on rain forests is reflected in a new exhibition at the London Ecology Centre. *The exhibition⁹* is of paintings by artists who specialize in *the subject¹⁰*. (from *New Scientist*, London, 18 Aug. 1988, p.59)
- v) *A silver of moon¹¹* rose over *the horizon¹²*, hardly large enough to make a path of light even when it sat right down on *the water¹³* but there were other lights *in the sky¹⁴*. (from William Golding: *Lord of the Flies*. P. 104, reprinted by permission of Faber & Faber Ltd.)

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

4) Fill in the blanks in the following with suitable articles (a/the/zero)

i)(1).... scientists are now beginning to worry about(2)..... contamination of(3)..... entire solar system by(4)..... debris from(5)..... Earth.(6)..... group of planetary scientists is studying(7)..... ways to minimise(8)..... effects that(9)..... spacecraft may have on(10)..... future scientific studies of(11).... objects such as(12).... asteroids and.....(13).... moons.(14).... group is headed by Iwan Williams, of Queen Mary's College, London.
(from *New Scientist*, London, 18th Aug. 1988, p. 25)

ii)(15).... people often say that(16).... writer's life is unimportant, and all that matters is in(17).... books. That is usually(18).... exaggeration.(19).... books are(20).... point, but(21).... lives are illuminating, too.
(from *New Statesman and society*, Vol. 1, No. 24, 18th Nov., 1988, p.11)

iii) I found I couldn't use my key. I just couldn't find myself to put it in(22).... lock. Instead I just pushed(23).... handle down and(24).... kitchen door opened.
(*ibid*, p.36)

31.4 PRONOUNS

Pronouns are elements which can replace noun phrases. In the sentences: **The brilliant actor came on the stage. He received a thunderous ovation, he** refers not just to actor but the NP: **the brilliant actor**. (The noun phrase to which the pronoun refers is called its **antecedent**.)

Depending on their grammatical function pronouns may be grouped into the following classes: personal pronouns, possessive pronouns, compound personal pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, interrogative pronouns, relative pronouns and indefinite pronouns.

31.4.1 Personal Pronouns

English has three classes of personal pronouns. The grammatical notion of **person**, which distinguishes these classes, may be explained as follows:

First Person: the speaker (and others, if any, associated with him)

Second Person: the person(s) spoken to

Third Person: all others.

(Note: Nouns are always in the third person.)

The first person pronouns show number and case distinctions. They are not marked for gender.

	Nominative	Objective
Singular	I	me
Plural	We	us

First Person Pronouns

There is only one second person pronoun: **you**. It can be used to refer to one or more persons (i.e., it does not distinguish number), male or female (i.e., it does not distinguish gender) and it has the same form in the subject and object position (i.e., it does not distinguish case).

The third person pronouns are marked for number, distinguish gender in the singular form and (except in the neuter gender) are marked for case.

		Subject	Object
Singular	Mas.	he	him
	Fem.	she	her
	Neut.	it	
Plural		they	them

Third Person Pronouns

The normal use of the personal pronouns is as indicated by their features given above. Note these special points of usage:

a) Reference

The editor of a newspaper may use **we** even when the reference is to a single person:

We can't accept the Press Defamation Bill.

An author may use **we** to include the writer and his reader:

We shall now examine the relation between poverty and population growth.

The second person pronoun (**you**) may be used by a speaker/writer when he is talking about himself, when what is being described can be thought of as happening to anyone:

My God! Do I know how life is in Bombay. You get up at 6 in the morning, get ready by 7 and then dash off, to get a foothold on the suburban train.

They may be used with a vague reference to people in general:

They say that China will be a superpower in the 21st century.

It

Besides its use with nouns referring to inanimate objects and nouns referring to objects whose sex can be ignored, it can also refer to a word group in a sentence:

It is surprising *that he has offered to resign*.

It was not easy *to get a taxi*.

(The word groups referred to by **it** are italicized.)

It can also function as a 'formal' subject (=an empty, grammatical word filling the subject position):

It was raining. It was very cold.

And as a formal object:

I take it that you are coming.

I would appreciate it if you could send an early reply.

b) Case: The nominative form is used when the pronoun is the subject; in the object position (object of a verb/ preposition) the object form is used.

However, in certain constructions (especially in spoken English) the object form is used even when the correct form is **I**.

It's me. (instead of **I**)

That's him. (instead of **he**)

31.4.2 Possessive Pronouns

Parallel to the personal pronouns there are two sets of possessive pronouns in English.

Personal Pronouns	Possessive Pronouns	
	A	B
I	my	mine
we	our	ours
you	your	yours
he	his	his
she	her	hers
it	its	
they	their	theirs

Possessive Pronouns

The forms under A are used only attributively, that is, as prehead modifiers of nouns; those under B as heads only. Cf. **This is my book/ This book is mine.**

The two forms of the possessive pronouns are not synonymous in all contexts. **This is our house** merely states a fact; **This house is ours** makes an assertion.

31.4.3 Reflexive and Reciprocal Pronouns

Corresponding to the personal pronouns English has a number of forms in **-self** called reflexive pronouns.

	Singular	Plural
First Person	myself	ourselves
Second Person	yourself	yourselves
Third Person	himself herself itself	themselves

Reflexive Pronouns

In a sentence like

John hurt him.

him cannot refer to **John**; it must be someone other than **John**.

Co-reference in the same clause between an NP (the antecedent) and a pronoun is achieved by using a reflexive pronoun.

John hurt himself.

Mary blames herself for the accident.

The men admire themselves.

A personal pronoun can have an antecedent only outside its clause; a reflexive (usually) only within its own clause.

John told Mary that Bill hated him (=John, not Bill).

John told Mary that Bill hated himself (=Bill, not John).

However, in certain prepositional phrases a pronoun can have an antecedent in the same clause.

John saw a snake near him.

Have you any money on you?

This is also the case when a pronoun is used as a genitive modifier:

John scolded his son.

Mary called up her mother.

The forms in **-self** are also used emphatically:

I myself did it. (=I and nobody else)

The Prime Minister himself has said ... (=no less a person than the Prime Minister)

The reciprocal pronouns (**each other/one another**) express a two-way relation. This can be between two noun phrases:

John and Mary like each other.

(=John likes Mary and Mary likes John)

or between/among the members of a group:

The men shot each other.

The speakers praised each other.

31.4.4 Demonstrative Pronouns

The demonstrative pronouns are: **this**, plural **these**, and **that**, plural **those**. They can be used either attributively (=as determiners) or as heads.

They can be used to point out something not mentioned before. (This is their 'deictic' use.)

Look at **this** flower!

Who is **that** man over there?

In this use, **this** refers to what is near, **that** to what is far away. But these notions, 'near' and 'far' should be taken in a relative sense:

Look at **this** star. Isn't it brighter than **that** one?

The object referred to by **that** is farther away from the speaker (or appears so) than the one referred to by **this**.

Depending on the context, the demonstratives can convey emotional overtones in their deictic use.

Stop **that** racket, will you?

Do you expect me to believe **this** story of yours?

The demonstratives can also be used to refer to something mentioned before (=anaphoric use).

Demand pushes up prices; **this** is a basic law of economics.

In the anaphoric use the demonstratives may be followed by an **of**- adjunct:

My house is next to **that** (=the house) of your aunt.

Bernard Shaw thought that his plays would compare well with **those** (=the plays) of Shakespeare.

When used as heads, the demonstratives refer to things:

When did you buy **this**?

What made him say **that**?

But in sentences with **be** they can refer to persons also:

This is my father.

Are these your classmates?

31.4.5 Indefinite Pronouns

The last class of pronouns to be examined here is that of the so-called indefinite pronouns. The chief among them are: **some**, **any**, **every**, **each**, **all**, **both**, **either**, **neither**, **none**, **one** and **no**. Besides these there are a few other items, less complex in their usage: **many**, **much**, **few**, **a few**, **little**, **a little**.

With the exception of one or two, all the indefinite pronouns have both an attributive and a substantive use, that is, they can be used as prehead modifiers of nouns, and also as 'heads' of noun phrases.

Some

Attributively **some** can have these meanings:

i) an unspecified or unknown person or thing:

I must have met her at **some** party or other.

I remember reading that poem in **some** recent anthology.

ii) an unspecified (but small) amount:

Will you have **some** coffee?

Can you wait for **some** time?

iii) an indefinite number (not large):

I was at UCLA **some** years ago.

Some friends of mine are coming for dinner.

As a head it has the meaning of 'a certain number, not all'.

Some voted for the bill but most of the members opposed it.

Some of the goods were damaged.

Some are wise; **some** otherwise.

Any

The usage of **any** is best understood in connection with **some**. While **some** is generally found in affirmative sentences (see above), in negative, interrogative and conditional sentences it is replaced by **any**. Parallel to the examples with **some** under (i) above we can have:

I don't think I have met her at any party.
I don't remember reading that poem in any recent anthology.

Questions with **some** (see the sentence at (ii) above) have a positive suggestion; with **any** there is a strong negative meaning:

Is there any coffee left?
(Suggestion: Perhaps there is nothing left.)
Did you wait for any time at all?
(Suggestion: Perhaps you did not really wait.)

In conditional sentences **any** can have a nearly complete negative meaning:

If you have any sense, you will keep away from him.
or it may indicate just a possibility:

Let me know if you want any of us.
If there is any message, let me know.

In affirmative sentences **any** is equivalent to **a** with the added suggestion of: 'doesn't matter which'.

You can buy stamps at any post office.
They are all priced the same. You can pick any of them.

Every, Each

Every is used only attributively. The meaning may be equivalent to **all**

England expects every man to do his duty.
With every good wish for a happy New Year.

With nouns denoting time or space, **every** has the sense of recurrence, of something being repeated:

He would stop every few yards to admire the landscape.
to be taken every three hours (of medicine).

In constructions like the following **every** has an emphatic meaning.

I have every reason to be satisfied.
We enjoyed every minute of the play.

Every can be used only when there are more than two persons or things; **each** can be used with reference to two or more. (Apart from this, there is a difference in meaning which can be brought out by these sentences:

- 1) Every student will be given a copy of the dictionary.
- 2) Each student will be given a copy of the dictionary.

Sentence (1) lays more emphasis on the idea that no student will be left out. Sentence (2) draws attention to the fact that one copy per student will be made available. In other words, the distributive idea is more prominent with **each**.

Finally, unlike **every**, **each** can be used as a head:

Each of the girls got a prize.

All

Used with countables **all** means 'without exception':

All books must be returned by 15th April.
All documents must be submitted in triplicate.

With uncountables, the sense is equivalent to 'the whole of':

I have spent all my money.
You are complaining all the time.

As a head, the meaning of **all** is close to **everybody**, **everything**:

All agree that he is brilliant.

All is over.

The difference in meaning between **all** and the groups with **every** is: **all** refers to the group as a whole without drawing attention to the members constituting the group.

Note also: unlike **every**, **all** can be followed by a possessive pronoun or a demonstrative: **all his friends**, **all this time**.

Both, Either, Neither

These can only be used when the reference is to two persons or things:

Both (the) candidates were rejected.

We have both been invited.

Note these parallel constructions: **we both** = both of us; **they both** = both of them.

Either can indicate a possible choice between two persons or things:

Either of you can go (but not both).

Either of these volunteers will do.

In this sense **either** is like **any**, the only difference being that **any** is used of more than two persons or things.

Either can also be used in the sense of **both**:

There are shops on either side.

Both refers to the group as a whole; **either** draws attention to the two members of the group:

Both the candidates were rejected. We didn't like either of them.

In constructions like:

My friend didn't like the movie; I didn't like it either.

either is used adverbially. If the sense were positive, **too** would be used:

My friend liked the movie; I liked it, too.

Neither is the negative of **either**. **I don't like either of them** is the same as **I like neither of them**. Hence it can also be viewed as the negative of **both**:

Both accounts are false.

Neither account is true.

None

The meaning of a negative sentence with **any** can be paraphrased by an affirmative sentence with **none**.

I don't like any of them.

I like none of them.

Naturally the reference must be to more than two:

None of these books are of any use to me.

I met none of the people I wanted to meet.

None is used only as a head. The verb may be singular or plural depending on the sense.

None of them is the man I want.

None of them are of any use to me.

No

While **not** is a sentence negator, **no** is used to negate phrases.

There won't be (= will not be) any difficulty.

There will be no difficulty.

There wasn't any disturbance.

There was no disturbance.

This use of **no** should be distinguished from cases, more or less idiomatic, like the following: **no doubt** (= of course), **in no time** (= quickly), **no wonder** (it is not surprising that . . .).

No is also used in constructions where the meaning is the opposite of what is expressed by the word following **no**.

He is no fool. (=He is a very clever fellow.)

Similarly:

Sue is no angel.

He is no saint.

It is no problem

One

The usage of **one** is fairly complex. In many constructions **one** has a strictly numerical meaning.

You can make one more try.

Pick one at a time.

This meaning can merge with a sense of 'indefiniteness' as in: **one evening** (= on a certain evening).

a) The numerical sense may also merge with other meanings as in:

It is the one way (= the only way) to do it.

The unrest is not restricted to any one (= single) student group.

b) **One** can be substituted for a noun phrase mentioned earlier.

Gandhiji's life was one of (= a life of) great simplicity.

I am looking for a light pullover. Can you show me some good ones?

c) Often (as in the last example) **one** is preceded by an adjective. In this function it is called a 'prop-word', as the adjective cannot stand by itself. Cf. also:

The difference between a good writer and a bad one is

The prop-word is also found after a demonstrative (and some other words).

Few authors are as dull as this one.

d) In all the uses described above **one** can refer to persons or things. There are also usages where it refers exclusively to persons, chief among these are cases where **one** has a generic sense, referring to persons in general.

One should know one's limitations.

One has to do one's best.

(Notice that the repeated pronoun is also **one**; it is not usual to say: *One has to do his best.)

Compound Indefinite Pronouns

The compound indefinite pronouns are:

somebody	someone	something
anybody	anyone	anything
everybody	everyone	everything
nobody	no one	nothing

The forms with **body** and **thing** should be distinguished from cases where **some/any/every/no** function as determiners.

Somebody called.

The police have recovered some bodies from the well.

The distinction between the forms with **some** and the forms with **any** are the same as the distinction between **some** and **any** noted earlier.

Someone came looking for you.

Did anyone come looking for me?

Check Your Progress 4

1) Fill in the blanks with suitable pronouns.

- a) First about the scientists' optimism.⁽¹⁾ is an accusation which has been made so often that⁽²⁾ has become a platitude.⁽³⁾ has been made by⁽⁴⁾ of the acutest non-scientific minds of the day. But⁽⁵⁾ depends

upon a confusion between the individual condition of man and(6).... social condition.(7).... of the scientists I have known will have felt that the individual condition of(8).... of us is tragic.(9).... of us is alone. (from C.P. Snow: *Public Affairs*, Macmillan p.16)

.....
.....

- b)(1).... has been said of the original lecture that(2).... is oblivious of politics. (*ibid*, p. 75)
 - c)(1).... is probably too early to speak of a third culture already in existence. (*ibid*, p. 58)
 - d) I do not know the answer.(1).... would be a satisfaction to know(2).... (*ibid*, p. 75)
 - e) Let me say at once that I have(1).... easy answers at all. If there were(2).... they would have been found by now. The whole problem is an intractable(3).... (*ibid*, p. 137)
 - f) One looks outside(1).... to other lives, to which(2).... is bound by love, affection, loyalty, obligation:(3).... of those lives has the same irremediable components as(4).... own. (*ibid*, p. 62)
 - g) The scientific process has two motives:(1).... is to understand the natural world, the(2).... to control it.(3).... of these motives may be dominant in(4).... individual scientist; fields of science may draw(5).... original impulse from(6).... or the(7).... (*ibid*, p. 56)
-
.....

2) Classify the different functions of it in the passages a—d above.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

3) The indefinite pronouns can be classified (in respect of their attributive behaviour) into these classes:

- a) those going with countables only
- b) those going with uncountables only
- c) those that can be used with countables or uncountables.

Arrange the following into the three classes given above:

each, every, all, both, some, few, a few, much, most, no, little, a little, either, neither, a lot of, several, many, another.

.....
.....
.....
.....

31.5 LET US SUM UP

NOUNS and PRONOUNS are among the most important elements that function as HEADS of NOUN PHRASES. Pronouns differ from nouns in that they can replace noun phrases; otherwise a pronoun shows all the characteristic FEATURES of nouns: NUMBER, GENDER, PERSON and CASE.

A noun phrase can have such SYNTACTIC FUNCTIONS as: SUBJECT, OBJECT, OBJECT of a PREPOSITION and COMPLEMENT.

The STRUCTURE of a noun phrase can be represented as PREMODIFIER + HEAD + POSTMODIFIER. Among Premodifiers are DETERMINERS, which include ARTICLES, DEMONSTRATIVES, POSSESSIVES and some INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

The articles are primarily concerned with establishing the REFERENCE of noun phrases. The reference of a noun phrase can be SPECIFIC or GENERIC; if specific, it can be INDEFINITE or DEFINITE.

31.6 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

- 1) On 'Number' see Quirk et al: *A University Grammar of English* 4.31-57.
- 2) On 'Gender' see Zandvoort: *A Handbook of English Grammar* sections 364-376.
- 3) On the use of the articles with names, especially geographical and nationality names, see Quirk et al. : *A University Grammar of English* 4.27-30.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

- 1) Both nouns and pronouns share such features as **number, gender, and case**; both can have such functions as subject, object, complement.
- 2) **The rich people, the poor people.** The noun in this case should have an implied notion of plurality and be human.
- 3) **No scientist:** Premodifier + head
student of science: head + postmodifier
an original work of the past: Premodifier + head + postmodifier
a general rule: premodifier + head
he: head
Rutherford: head
one of the greatest of experimental physicists: head (one) + postmodifier.
no nuclear scientist: premodifier + head
his researches of fifty years ago: premodifier + head (**researches**) + postmodifier
their substance: premodifier + head
the textbooks: premodifier + head

Check Your Progress 2

Questions (1)–(4) Check your answers with Quirk, et al. : *A University Grammar of English* (henceforth UGE), or consult *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (OALD)* or *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDCE)*.

- 5) (i), (iii) material (ii) collective (iv), (v) great quantity, extent, (vi), (vii) kinds.

Check Your Progress 3

- 1) (i) **per**, (ii) **every**, (iii) **this**.
- 2) Omission: (i), (iii), (v), (ix), and (x). Zero in the remaining cases.
- 3) 1) zero article conveying generic sense
2) as in (1)
3) first mention of a singular countable, indefinite sense with a.
4) definite NP.
5) NP made definite by the modifier 'industrial'.
6) NP made definite by a postmodifying phrase.

- 7) zero + plural countable; generic sense
8) as in (7)
9) anaphoric the (reference to a noun mentioned earlier)
10) as in (9)
11) a in a classifying function
12-14) NPs made definite situationally.
- 4) 1) zero 2) the 3) the 4) the
5) zero 6) a 7) zero 8) the
9) zero 10) zero 11) zero 12) zero
13) zero 14) the 15) zero 16) the
17) the 18) an 19) zero 20) the
21) zero 22) the 23) the 24) the

Check Your Progress 4

- 1) a) (1) it (2) it (3) it (4) some (5) it (6) one's (7) most (8) all (9) each
b) (1) it (2) it
c) (1) it
d) (1) it (2) it
e) (1) no (2) any (3) one
f) (1) oneself (2) one (3) each (4) one's
g) (1) one (2) other (3) either (4) any (5) their (6) one (7) other.
- 2) a) All occurrences anaphoric: referring to 'scientists' optimism'.
b) (1) formal subject
(2) anaphoric (lecture)
c) anticipatory, referring to the infinitive 'to speak of a third culture
d) (1) anticipatory
(2) anaphoric (answer)
- 3) Check your answer with the OALD/LDCE.

UNIT 32 THE NOUN PHRASE-2

POST-MODIFICATION : THE RELATIVE CLAUSE

Structure

- 32.0 Objectives
- 32.1 Introduction
- 32.2 Relative Clauses and Appositive Clauses
- 32.3 Restrictive and Non-restrictive Relative Clauses
- 32.4 Restrictive Relative Clauses
 - 32.4.1 Structure and Formation
 - 32.4.2 The Relative Pronoun
 - 32.4.3 Adverbial Relatives
 - 32.4.4 Headless Relative Clauses
 - 32.4.5 Reduced Relative Clauses
- 32.5 Non-restrictive Relative Clauses
- 32.6 Let Us Sum Up
- Answers

32.0 OBJECTIVES

In this unit we shall take up post-modification of the noun head, that is, the modifiers placed after the head in a noun phrase. We shall begin with the relative clause used as a post-head modifier, and study the structure of relative clauses and their function.

After completing your study of this unit, you should be able to recognise the structure and function of relative clauses used as post-head modifiers.

32.1 INTRODUCTION

As already pointed out (in Section 31.1 of Unit 31) the structure of a Noun Phrase (NP) can be stated as pre-modifier + head + postmodifier. The postmodification may be by a relative clause (e.g. **the boy who stood on the burning deck**) or by a prepositional phrase (e.g. **the victims of aggression**). Often, instead of a full relative clause we find what might be regarded as reduced relative clause structures (e.g. **the man who is in the garden** can be reduced to **the man in the garden**). Finally, in the postmodifier position there may be more than one clause or prepositional phrase.

In this unit we shall examine postmodification by relative clauses and associated structures. In Section 32.2, we'll show you how relative clauses are to be distinguished from certain other clauses which superficially resemble them. In Section 32.3 we'll show you that there are two types of relative clauses, restrictive and non-restrictive. In Section 32.4, we shall examine how relative clauses are formed. We shall also examine certain variations on relative clauses. The concluding section (32.5) analyses non-restrictive clauses and shows some important ways in which they differ from restrictive relative clauses.

32.2 RELATIVE CLAUSES AND APPOSITIVE CLAUSES

Consider (1) and (2).

- (1) the news that you brought
- (2) the news that the government has fallen

The two structures look remarkably alike: in both cases the head NP (pre-modifier + head), **the news**, is modified by a following clause. The clauses, too, seem to be similar, both introduced by the word **that**. Nevertheless the two structures are different. In (1) we have a postmodifying relative clause and in (2) a postmodifying appositive clause.

That the two clauses are not alike will become apparent on a closer examination. In (1) we have a transitive verb (**brought**) but the object is missing. However, the word introducing

the clause (**that**) is understood as somehow representing the missing object. In fact, **that** is interpreted as meaning 'the news'. This is not the case in (2). There is nothing missing in the clause; the word introducing the clause (**that**) is not interpreted as standing for anything else; in particular, it is not understood as 'the news'.

Further, in (1) the word **that** can be replaced by a **wh**-word, **which** (the news which you brought). Such a replacement is not possible in (2) (*the news which the government has fallen).

Finally, in (1) there need be no word introducing the clause (the news you brought). The absence of the 'clause introducer' would make (2) ungrammatical (*the news the government has fallen).

We see, then, that the two clauses differ in a number of ways. These can be summarized as under:

The clause in (1)

- i) has a 'gap', a missing element (the object of the transitive verb brought);
- ii) the clause introducer (**that**) is understood as filling this gap, as representing the missing element.
- iii) which is identified with the noun phrase (**the news**) that is modified;
- iv) the clause introducer (**that**) can be replaced by a suitable **wh**-word, or
- v) be entirely left out.

The clause in (2)

- i) has no missing element (no gap);
- ii) the clause introducer (**that**) is not understood as replacing anything in the clause (for there is nothing missing);
- iii) the clause introducer cannot be replaced by a **wh**-word;
- iv) nor can it be left out.

The clause in (1) is a relative clause; the clause in (2) an appositional clause.

What we are now calling a Relative Clause is sometimes called (in certain school grammars) an Adjective Clause. The only justification for this terminology is that the clause, in some sense, 'qualifies' the head noun. But needless to say, there is no syntactic property of adjectives shared by these clauses.

Appositional (or appositive) clauses are also known as 'content' clauses: they explicate the content of the head NP. Thus in (2) the content of the head NP (**the news**) is that the government has fallen.

Any noun can be followed by a relative clause but not all nouns admit appositional clauses. The number of nouns which can be followed by appositional clauses is extremely limited (**news, report, suggestion, fact, proposal**, among others).

Check Your Progress 1

- 1) a) On what grounds will you distinguish a relative clause from an appositive (= content) clause?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

-
.....
.....
- b) Many of the nouns which take appositive clauses have a parallel construction where the noun has been replaced by a corresponding verb. In such a case are the two clauses grammatically the same?
-
.....
.....
.....
.....

32.3 RESTRICTIVE AND NON-RESTRICTIVE RELATIVE CLAUSES

Relative clauses can be of two types: restrictive or non-restrictive.

A noun-like **boy** can stand for any of a countless number of boys. But in (3)

- 3) the boy who stood on the burning deck

the reference is to a particular boy, namely, the one who stood on the burning deck (of a ship). Thus the clause has the function of limiting the reference of the head NP (**the boy**). It is a restrictive clause.

A non-restrictive clause does not limit the reference of the head. It only gives some additional information about the head.

- 4) my mother, who lives in Mysore.

By its very nature an NP like **my mother** can only have a unique reference. There is, then, no question of limiting its reference. The relative clause in (4) only gives additional information about **my mother**.

Unique noun phrases like **the Vedas, the Bible** can only be followed by non-restrictive clauses. Naturally, proper nouns, too, admit of only non-restrictive clauses.

Dr. Johnson, who was a tremendous conversationalist, dominated any company he found himself in.

Professor Chomsky, who teaches at MIT, is the most famous linguist today.

This does not mean that NPs with common nouns as heads cannot be followed by non-restrictive clauses. Once a noun has been identified independently of the following clause, the clause will be non-restrictive.

The seductive typist, who had a way with the manager, did not care much for work.

The man, who was obviously in some hurry, did not wait to pick up his bag.

In these cases we take it that the identity of the nouns (**typist, man**) has been already established so that the reader knows who it is that is being talked about.

The question, then, of whether a relative clause is restrictive or non-restrictive depends on whether the specific reference of the NP head which the clause modifies has been already established or not.

Since the reference of the head has been independently established in the case of non-restrictive clauses, the information provided by the clause is of a parenthetical nature. This is reflected in writing by setting off the clause by commas. No such punctuation appears with restrictive clauses.

In view of this typographical convention, (5) is absurd, and (6) suggests that the man has more than one wife.

- 5) my mother who left yesterday for Delhi
- 6) my wife who lives in Bombay.

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) Which of the relative clauses in the following sentences are non-restrictive?
 - i) There are some mental exercises which become effectively impossible in later life. (C.P. Snow: *Public Affairs*, p. 92)
 - ii) Administrators are by temperament active men. Their tendency, which is strengthened by the nature of their job, is to live in the short-term, to become masters of the short-term solution. (C.P. Snow, *ibid*, p. 147)
 - iii) Most of us are private citizens, who can only do little things. (C.P. Snow, *ibid*, p. 219)
 - iv) A short time ago I wrote a novel in which the story hinged on a case of scientific fraud. (C.P. Snow, *ibid*, p. 191)
 - v) The way in which a scientist tries to find the truth imposes on him a constant moral discipline. (C.P. Snow, *ibid*, p. 192)

- 2) In spite of what is said in the unit there are cases where a 'proper' noun is followed by a restrictive clause. Give an example and explain the construction.
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

32.4 RESTRICTIVE RELATIVE CLAUSES

32.4.1 Structure and Formation

The structural facts about relative clauses noted in 32.2 (you will now see that the example discussed there (the news that you brought) had a restrictive relative clause) become intelligible if we assume that there is a close relation between the missing element in the relative clause (the 'gap'), the element introducing the clause and the head NP modified by the clause (= the 'antecedent' of the clause). Thus in

7) the book which I read—yesterday
the gap (indicated by a dash) is understood as being filled by **which** (= the clause introducer) and this in turn is understood as meaning (in this case) **the book**.

Consider (8):

8) The book which I read yesterday was very interesting.
Suppose we assume that (8) is in fact made up of two sentences. These two sentences are, obviously:

- 9) a. The book was very interesting.
- b. I read the book yesterday.

When you compare these two sentences with (8) you will notice the following points:

- i) both sentences in (9) contain an identical noun phrase (**the book**);
- ii) In (8) the second sentence (9b) has become part of the first sentence (9a): it is now part of the subject NP of (9a): **the book which I read yesterday**;
- iii) the identical noun phrase in (9b)—**the book** has been replaced by the **wh-word which**;
- iv) and this **wh-word (which)** now appears in the front position, that is, the beginning of its own clause (now the relative clause);

- v) leaving a gap in its original position (i.e., the object of the transitive verb **read** is missing).

These facts may be explained by assuming that in the formation of every relative clause there are two 'rules': (1) a rule which replaces an identical noun phrase by a suitable **wh**-word (call this rule **wh**-substitution); (2) a rule which moves the **wh**-word so substituted to the front position of its own clause (call this rule **wh**-fronting). These assumptions explain the relation already noted between the **gap**, the **wh**-word, and the head NP modified by the relative clause (also called the 'antecedent').

There are some interesting points to note when the relativized NP (that is, the identical noun phrase which undergoes **wh**-substitution) is in a prepositional phrase. Suppose we want to combine the sentences

- 11) the man is here
- 12) we were talking about the man yesterday.

The identical NP in the second sentence is contained in a prepositional phrase (**about the man**). After **wh**-substitution, under **wh**-fronting the entire prepositional phrase can move. we would then get

- 13) The man about whom we were talking yesterday is here.

Or, only the **wh**-word can move:

- 14) The man who we were talking about yesterday is here.

Notice that when the preposition is also moved the form **whom** is required. In current English, especially in speech, **whom** is not much favoured. So the construction with the preposition left behind (14) is preferred. Even more common is the construction where **who** is also dropped: **The man we were talking about yesterday is here.** (The deletion of the relative pronoun is discussed in Section 32.4.2.)

32.4.2 The Relative Pronoun

It should be clear by now that the choice of the **wh**-word (also called relative pronoun) depends on (i) the antecedent, and (ii) the syntactic function of the 'relativized NP'. In respect of the antecedent, English makes a distinction between **human** and **non-human** nouns. NPs with human nouns as heads are referred to by **who**, regardless of gender. Thus **the man, the girl, the boy, the woman** will all be replaced by **who**. NPs with non-human nouns as heads are referred to by **which**, regardless of whether the head noun is animate or inanimate (**the tiger which escaped from the zoo/the book which you gave me**).

As regards the syntactic function of the relativized NP: in subject, an NP with a human noun as head is replaced by **who**; in object by **whom** (in very 'correct' English). But, as already noted, the form **whom** is not much in favour. So even in the object position a relativized NP will appear as **who**.

- 15) the girl who you met yesterday.

Only when the relativized NP is in a prepositional phrase and the preposition is also moved (along with the **wh**-word) do we get the form **whom**. (See Section 32.4.1)

When the relativized NP appears in a genitive modifier position, English makes a distinction between animate and inanimate nouns.

- 16) a) the boy whose father was a distinguished scientist
- b) the tiger whose forepaw has turned septic
- c) the divan one leg of which was broken

The form **whose** is used in connection with animate nouns.

To summarize: the choice of **wh**-words in a relative clause is as follows:

- who** : with human nouns in subject NPs
whom : with human nouns in object NPs (with some reservations)
whose : with animate nouns functioning as genitive modifiers
which : in all other cases

These distinctions, observed in the case of **wh**-words, are considerably neutralized in the case of **that**. **That** can be used with all nouns and in all functions except the genitive.

- 17) a) the man that set his own house on fire
- b) the dog that chased the cat
- c) the girl that he loves
- d) the cat that the dog chased

The relative pronoun can sometimes be left out ('deleted')

- 18) the book which you gave me
 the book you gave me

But this is not always possible. Consider (19)

- 19) the boy who stood on the burning deck
 *the boy stood on the burning deck

Why is it we can drop the relative pronoun in (18) but not in (19)?

One important difference between (18) and (19) is that in (19) — but not in (18) — the relative pronoun is the subject of the relative clause. We may conclude that the relative pronoun cannot be dropped when it is the subject.

32.4.3 Adverbial Relatives

English places no restriction on what NP can be relativized. Even NPs appearing in prepositional phrases with an adverbial function can be relativized.

- 20) the time at which the plane landed
 (cf. The plane landed at that time.)
 the college at which I teach
 (cf. I teach at that college.)
 the day on which we remember our martyrs
 (cf. We remember our martyrs on that day.)

In these constructions the preposition + relative pronoun can be replaced by **when**, **where**.

- 21) the time when the plane landed
 the college where I teach
 the day when we remember our martyrs

This is the preferred construction.

32.4.4 Headless Relative Clauses

The head of a relative clause can often be omitted: the clause will then appear without an antecedent. A classic example is:

- 22) who steals my purse steals trash

Notice that **who** here is understood as **he who**. Some more examples:

- He eats what she cooks.
(= He eats that which she cooks)

- Quality is what counts most.
(= Quality is that which counts most)

There are restrictions on this construction. Instead of the simple forms (**who**, **which**, **what** ...) the emphatic forms (**whoever**, **whichever**, **whatever**...) are usually found.

- 23) Whoever told you so misled you.
 You can give whatever excuse you like.
 We will support whichever party wins the elections.

32.4.5 Reduced Relative Clauses

In the sentence:

- 24) *The man standing in the corner* is a vendor of stamps

the italicized phrase is understood as: **the man who is standing in the corner**. Generally speaking, a participial phrase modifying an NP can be interpreted as a relative clause.

- the dividend declared last year
(= which was declared last year)

the news reported yesterday
(= which was reported yesterday)

the man distributing sweets
(= who is distributing sweets)

A similar interpretation in terms of a reduced relative clause is also possible for infinitival phrases modifying an NP.

a man to watch (= a man who should be watched)
a plan to boost exports (= a plan which is meant to boost exports)
a time to dance (= a time which is right for us to dance)

Check Your Progress 3

1) In standard English the following is ungrammatical. Why?

*The parcel which you sent it was lost in transit.

.....
.....
.....
.....

2) In the following sentences identify the relative clauses without an expressed antecedent.

- i) Any of us who were working in science before 1933 can remember what the atmosphere was like.
(C.P. Snow: *Public Affairs*, p. 193)
- ii) Scientists have a moral responsibility to say what they know.
(C.P. Snow, *ibid.*, p. 197)
- iii) He had a proper pride in what he had achieved and a proper rancour for the way he had been treated.
(C.P. Snow, *ibid.*, p. 124)
- iv) Social justice is a great value and we shall be judged by how much of it we can achieve. But we shall also be judged by what we add to the world's mental life: and that depends on what opportunities we can make for our gifted.
(C.P. Snow, *ibid.*, p. 91)
- v) The only thing he was known to grumble about was his pension.
(C.P. Snow, *ibid.*, p. 129)

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

3) Which of the following phrases can be considered 'reduced' versions of relative clauses?

- i) the girl in the front row
- ii) the window of the house
- iii) the notification by the Ministry
- iv) the worker in the garden
- v) the voice of authority
- vi) the destruction of the city

.....
.....

4) a) With structures interpretable as reduced relative clauses, quite a few elements may

be omitted. Reconstruct the omitted elements in the following and give the full versions of the modifying clauses:

i) the point to consider

ii) the proposal discussed at the last meeting

iii) a man to do the job

b) Give five examples each of reduced relative clauses beginning with *-ing* and *-ed* participles.

32.5 NON-RESTRICTIVE RELATIVE CLAUSES

In 32.3 restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses were distinguished on semantic grounds: the relative clause defines the reference of the head; the non-restrictive clause gives additional information about the head. In this section we shall look at some syntactic differences between the two types of clauses.

a) the relative pronoun

i) In a non-restrictive clause the **wh**-word cannot be replaced by **that**.
The book, which (*that) was widely advertised, was a flop.

ii) The relative word cannot be dropped in a non-restrictive clause.
the man, whom I had earlier met at a conference,....
not
*the man, I had earlier met at a conference,....

b) the antecedent

Non-restrictive clauses can have sentential heads; i.e. the antecedent of a non-restrictive clause can be a sentence.

The doctor had advised him rest, which was exactly what he was hoping for.
She seems to admire John, which is what I cannot understand.

c) the structure

Although non-restrictive relative clauses also involve **wh**-substitution and **wh**-fronting, the relation between the relative clause and the head is not the same. With restrictive clauses there is a relation of subordination; there seems to be no such relation of subordination in the case of non-restrictive clauses. Often, there is a relation of co-ordination.

My brother, who is an engineer, lives in Bombay.
= My brother is an engineer and he lives in Bombay.

Check Your Progress 4

1) Convert the following pairs of sentences into structures with a relative clause.

i) The sun is more than 90 million miles away. It supports life on the earth.
.....
.....

ii) The stars shine like glow-worms in the sky. Actually they are tremendously large masses of burning material in a gaseous state.
.....
.....

iii) A cheetah escaped from the zoo yesterday. It was caught this morning.
.....
.....

iv) I went to a party yesterday. I met a lot of faceless men but some very charming women.
.....
.....

v) Harvey discovered the circulation of blood in the body. He lived during the time of Elizabeth I.
.....
.....

vi) Some state lotteries have become quite a scandal. Government should ban them.
.....
.....

vii) I found a man moving suspiciously round my house last night. I handed him over to the police.
.....
.....

viii) Quite a few people live in glass houses. Still they insist on throwing stones.
.....
.....

ix) Dr. Chandrashekhari proposed the theory of black holes. He teaches at the University of Chicago.
.....
.....

32.6 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have looked at one type of postmodification of noun phrases, namely, postmodification by relative clauses. Relative clauses (which should be distinguished from appositive clauses) are of two types — restrictive and non-restrictive. Both types of clauses modify a head NP, the antecedent. A restrictive relative clause defines or specifies the reference of the head; a non-restrictive relative clause gives additional information about the head. There are also important syntactic differences between the two types of clauses: e.g. the non-restrictive relative clause (but not the restrictive) can be paraphrased as a coordinate sentence.

The structure of the restrictive relative clause is best understood if we assume that the relative clause contains an NP identical with the antecedent or head NP. This identical NP is replaced by a suitable wh-word, which is then moved to the front of the clause. Wh-substitution and wh-movement are two important operations in the formation of a restrictive relative clause.

Non-restrictive relative clauses also share these two operations but there are differences; e.g

the antecedent may be a sentence. In that case the clause will contain not an identical NP but a pronoun referring back to the sentential antecedent.

The **wh**-word connects the clause with the head. This **wh**-word may be a relative pronoun or a relative adverb. The choice of the **wh**-word depends on the nature of the antecedent and the syntactic function of the relativized NP in its own clause.

With restrictive relative clauses the relative pronoun can be dropped, under certain conditions. In some cases even the antecedent may be missing (Headless Relative Clauses). Further, the relative clause may be 'reduced' by leaving out various elements of the verbal group in the clause. We then have a reduced relative clause.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

1) a) The following features distinguish a relative clause from an appositive clause:

- i) Some constituent of a relative clause is sometimes missing.
- ii) This missing constituent can be represented by a suitable **wh**-word placed at the beginning of the clause; e.g.
The TV film *which we saw yesterday*.

(In the italicized clause above, the object of **saw** is missing; this missing object is represented by **which**; this **wh**-word is at the beginning of the relative clause.)

- iii) The **wh**-word can be replaced by **that**:
The TV film *that we saw yesterday*.

- iv) or left out:
The TV film *we saw yesterday*.

The appositive clause shows none of these features: e.g.,

The suggestion *that all school children be given free meals*.

In the italicized clause above, no constituent is missing. The initial word **that** does not stand for any element in the clause. Also, this initial word cannot be replaced by a **wh**-word or dropped. The following are ungrammatical.

- * The suggestion *which all school children be given free meals*
- * The suggestion *all school children be given free meals*

b) Relative clauses (with their antecedents)

- 1) (men) who throw parties for blondes when their wives are away.
- 2) (the thing) that acts as a skeleton... goose pimples when the revelry is at its height.
- 3) (this thought) that now.... wolf
- 4) (the timber wolf) whose name.... Spenlow

Appositive clauses

- 1) (the fact) *that they can never.... their activities*
- 2) (the possibility) *that these wives.... their activities*.

Note: The second clause is contained in the first.

2) a) rumour, idea, statement, possibility, conviction.
the rumour *that the Minister has resigned*
the idea *that all men are equal*
the statement *that there is no largest number*
the possibility *that there will be a Third World War*
his conviction *that the truth will be found out*

- b) a) the proposal *that we adjourn*
- b) we propose *that we adjourn*

As can be seen, these two clauses (italicized) are not the same grammatically. In (a) we have an appositive clause; in (b) an object clause.

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) The relative clauses in (ii) and (iii) are non-restrictive.
- 2) The Raman whom we all admire is the scientist, not the administrator.

In this construction attention is drawn to a particular aspect of the man. In effect this is one way of using a proper noun as a common noun.

Check Your Progress 3

- 1) In a relative clause the initial **wh**-word 'stands for' some missing constituent in the clause. In the sentence given, the missing element ('the parcel') has been doubly represented: by **which** and **it**.
- 2) The following sentences contain relative clauses with unexpressed antecedents. (The clauses have been italicized.)
 - ii)to say *what they know*
 - iii)a proper pride in *what he had achieved*
 - iv) We shall also be judged by *what we add to the world's mental life*.
- 3)
 - i) the girl in the front row (= who is in the front row)
 - ii) the worker in the garden (= who is in the garden)
- 4)
 - a)
 - i) the point that we have to consider
 - ii) the proposal which was discussed at the last meeting.
 - iii) a man who can do the job.
 - b) **Reduced clauses with -ing participles**
the man working in the garden
the girl sitting in the front row
the train now steaming into the station
the proposal being considered by the Committee
the dog chasing the cat
Reduced clauses with -ed participles
the matter discussed yesterday
the proposal mooted at the last meeting
the books reviewed in this journal
the announcement made over the radio.
the agitators taken into custody

Check Your Progress 4

- 1)
 - i) The sun, which is more than 90 million miles away, supports life on the earth.
 - ii) The stars, which shine like glow-worms in the sky,
 - iii) The cheetah which escaped from the zoo yesterday.....
 - iv) I went to a party yesterday, where I met a lot of faceless men.
 - v) Harvey, who discovered the circulation of blood in the body, lived during the time of Elizabeth I.
 - vi) State lotteries which have become quite a scandal should be banned by the government.
 - vii) I handed over to the police a man found moving suspiciously round my house.
 - viii) Quite a few people who live in glass houses still insist on throwing stones.
 - ix) Dr. Chandrashekhar, who proposed the theory of black holes, teaches at the University of Chicago.

UNIT 33 THE NOUN PHRASE-3

POST-MODIFICATION: THE PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

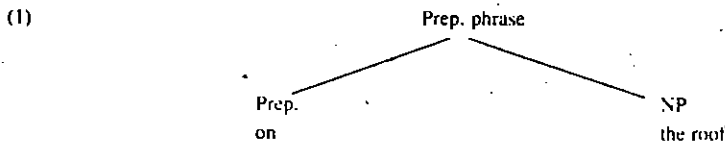
Structure

- 33.1 Introduction
 - 33.2 The Range of Prepositional Phrase Modification
 - 33.3 The Preposition in the Prepositional Phrase
 - 33.4 The Interpretation of Post-modifying Prepositional Phrases
 - 33.5 Multiple Modification
 - 33.6 Let Us Sum Up
- Answers

33.1 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 32 you studied one important type of post-modification of Noun Phrases, namely by relative clauses. In this unit we shall study another type of post-modification of Noun Phrases, namely by prepositional phrases.

A prepositional phrase is a structure of the type 'preposition + NP', where the preposition is the head of the phrase (e.g. **on the roof, in the cupboard, at the party**). We may represent the structure of a prepositional phrase diagrammatically as in (1).



Prepositional phrases serve a variety of functions in English. They can be complements to verbs (**I agree with you, you can depend on me**), complements to adjectives (**I am sorry for you. She is anxious about her mother**), adjuncts (**I met her at a party. The train left at 10 p.m.**), or postmodifiers of noun phrases (**the man with the red beard, a matter of honour**). Postmodification of a noun by a prepositional phrase is far more common than by other structures. This is the topic of this unit.

In Section 33.2 we'll show you that the full range of prepositional phrases can appear in the post-modifying function. In Section 33.3 we shall examine what relationship there is between the preposition in the prepositional phrase and the head of the noun phrase. In 33.4 we'll see how the post-modifying prepositional phrase is interpreted in respect of the noun phrase it modifies. In Section 33.5 we shall analyse some complex structures involving more than one post-modifying phrase.

33.2 THE RANGE OF PREPOSITIONAL-PHRASE MODIFICATION

Prepositions may be broadly grouped into two classes: simple prepositions (**in, on, at, by, with, for, from...**) and complex prepositions (**away from, out of, owing to, due to, in case of, by means of, etc.**). Prepositional phrases with either of these can occur as postmodifiers of noun phrases. To illustrate this with a few specimen cases:

- 2) a) Prepositional phrases with a simple preposition:
- in** : the lion **in** the cage
 - into** : a descent **into** the volcano.
 - on** : the cottage **on** the hill
 - at** : the meeting **at** the university
 - an adventure **at** dawn
 - for** : a gift **for** Mary
 - above** : a roof **above** us

- below : the valleys below us
behind : the car behind us
before : the building before you

- b) Prepositional phrases with complex prepositions:
measures *in view of* the emergency
action *in the light of* these developments
delays *owing to* unforeseen circumstances
treatment *by means of* counselling
a note *by way of* explanation
success *by dint of* hard work
a home *away from* home
progress *in spite of* illiteracy

(The complex prepositions in these examples have been italicized. In the first example, for instance, the complex preposition is *in view of*. This has its own complement, the emergency. The entire prepositional phrase, *in view of the emergency*, is a postmodifier of measures, which is the head of the NP: measures in view of the emergency.)

'Participial' prepositions (e.g. *pending, concerning, regarding...*) are, perhaps, best regarded as 'simple' prepositions. As can be seen from the examples below, they can also occur in post-modifier groups.

- 3) a delay *pending* further inquiry
the report *concerning* yesterday's incidents
the difficulty *regarding* this proposal

It must be admitted, however, that these participial prepositions occur more often in adjunct phrases rather than as NP modifiers.

The simple prepositions have both a 'local' and a figurative or metaphorical meaning.

The local meanings express relations in space and time. Thus movement towards an object is expressed by *to* (*He went to the station*); movement away from an object by *from* (*He returned from the office*); position (in space or time) by *at* (*My house is at the intersection of 7th Main and 10th cross; the show begins at 6 p.m.*); position in terms of surface is expressed by *on* (*the tower on the hill*), *above* (*the sky above us*), *below* (*the valley below us*); *on*, *above*, *below* express vertical distinctions; horizontally, we have *before*, *behind*, *next to*, ... in respect of an object. In respect of a three-dimensional object a further relation of *in*, *into* can be recognized. And so on.

These local meanings should be distinguished from a non-local, often figurative or metaphorical meaning. The distinction can best be appreciated by studying paired examples involving the two meanings.

- 4) a) The cheetah is hiding in that cave.
b) I am in a fix.
a) The cat is on the roof.
b) The house is on fire.
a) You can go through the tunnel.
b) I have gone through this book.
a) I was at her place yesterday.
b) She was at a loss for words.
a) The cat fell into the pond.
b) The man jumped into the fray.

The (a) sentences illustrate the local meanings; the (b) sentences the figurative meanings. This distinction — between a local meaning and a figurative meaning — carries over to prepositional phrases used as postmodifiers of nouns. In the examples given above the prepositional phrases were complements of verbs, or adjuncts. Here are some examples with PPs used as postmodifiers of noun phrases.

- 5) a) the dinner at the Taj
b) the point at issue
a) a gift for Mary
b) a man for all seasons

Other cases admit of an interpretation with **have** as the verb in the expanded structure: **the man with the scar = the man who has a scar**. Similarly with: **the girl with the pigtail, a room with Venetian blinds, the sailor with bow-legs**, etc. In these cases there is a more intimate connection between the two NPs (the head noun of the whole phrase and the noun in the PP), the connection often bordering on the intrinsic. Notice also that the preposition is **with**.

Other examples may be interpreted as equivalent to a sentence with **be**: **democracy as a way of life (= democracy is a way of life)**. The phrase is also interpretable with **regard** as the verb: **democracy regarded as a way of life**. Similarly with: **education as an instrument of social change, the President as the First Citizen, Parliament as a forum of the people, Peace as an interlude in War**.

With head nouns of the type **rumour, hope, belief...** (i.e., nouns which can take an appositive clause), the prepositional modifier is naturally interpreted as an appositive clause, the subject and verbal elements depending on the rest of the sentence.

The hope of securing the first rank drove John to great efforts.
(= The hope that he would/should secure the first rank. . .)

The belief in the immortality of the soul
(= the belief that the soul is immortal)

At this point attention should be drawn to the distinction between **interpretation and grammatical structure**. The fact that a certain phrase admits of an interpretation where it is equivalent to some type of clause does not mean that the phrase and clause are structurally related. The clearest cases where an actual relation between an underlying clause and the prepositional phrase can be assumed are cases where the phrase is interpretable as a relative clause involving a form of **be**.

Hence in examples like **the destruction of the city**, although, depending on the full context, one may interpret the phrase as 'the city was destroyed' (or 'was to be destroyed'), there is really no need to assume such fuller structures. We may regard **destruction** as requiring (to complete its meaning) an object that is destroyed, an agent that does the destruction, and also the means by which the destruction, has to be brought about. Given these we get (as one realization) the phrase:

The destruction of the city by the enemy with rockets.

Thus the phrase may be understood as a phrase without being related to any sentence.

Finally we must mention cases where no sentence equivalent can possibly exist: **the attention of the members** (*the members have attention), **the turn of the century, the proof of the pudding, a group of tourists**, etc.

In conclusion it must be pointed out that where a sentence equivalent **does** exist, the structure with a postmodifying PP is a more compact expression.

Check Your Progress 3

- 1) Which of the PP modifiers in the following have plausible sentence equivalents?

It was the photograph of an elderly man in a bathing suit; an elderly man who, a glance was enough to tell, had been overdoing it on the starchy foods since early childhood; an elderly man so rotund, so obese, so bulging in every direction that Shakespeare, had he beheld him, would have muttered to himself 'Upon what meat doth this our Horace feed that he is grown so great?' One wondered how any bathing suit built by human hands could contain so stupendous an amount of uncle without parting at the seams.

(P.G. Wodehouse, *A Few Quick Ones*. Coronet Books (1978) p. 56).

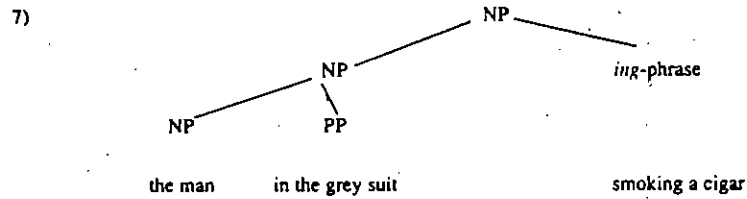
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

33.5 MULTIPLE MODIFICATION

Consider (6)

6) *The man in the grey suit smoking a cigar* is my uncle.

The italicized structure is a multiply modified NP functioning as the subject of the sentence. The prepositional phrase (*in the grey suit*) immediately modifies **the man**; the participial phrase (*smoking a cigar*) modifies **the man in the grey suit**. Schematically we may represent the structure as in (7):



You see, then, that where there is multiple modification, there is a hierarchy among these modifiers.

A similar analysis obtains for

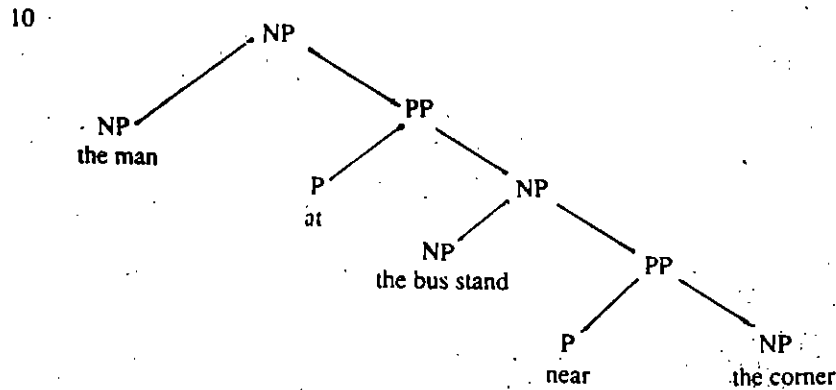
8) the destruction of the city by the enemy with rockets
(a) (b) (c)

In these examples the modifiers were progressively 'higher' in rank: in (8) above (b) modifies 'head NP + (a)'; (c) modifies 'head NP + (a+b)'.

But it is also possible to have phrases where the modifiers are in a descending order.

9) The man at the bus-stand near the corner.

The meaning of this phrase is 'the man is at the bus-stand which is near the corner'. So the phrase **near the corner** modifies only **the bus-stand**. Schematically this may be shown as in (10).



Here is a longer phrase of the same type: **the hotel near the bus-stand at the intersection of 11th Main and 7th Cross in Jayanagar Extension.**

Needless to say, different types of structures might occur in the postmodifier position under multiple modification: in particular, it is quite common to find prepositional phrases and relative clauses (together).

Example:

11) the girl in the front row whose father you met yesterday

In principle there is no limit to the number of modifiers, but practical considerations (of clarity, ease of understanding) impose a restriction. Also, unless care is exercised there can be ambiguity, as in

12) the boy with the girl whose father is a famous dentist,
or unintended humour;

13) the girl in the swim-suit that was on display at Jenson's.

Check Your Progress 4

In the following passages identify cases of multiple modification. Give the structure in each case.

a) There is no built-in progress in the humanist culture. There are changes, but not progress, no increase of agreement. Ask yourself, was Van Eyck a worse painter than Cezanne? The answer is, he was different. Sometimes in the history of art, particularly in the visual arts, one can identify periods of what can, without absurdity, be called technical progress. But there is nothing ultimately cumulative about this passage through time.

(C.P. Snow, *Public Affairs*, Macmillan, 1971, p. 95)

.....
.....
.....

b) A devout expression had come into the face of the young man in plus fours who sat with the Oldest Member on the terrace overlooking the ninth green.
(P.G. Wodehouse, *A Few Quick Ones*, Coronet Books, p. 116)

.....
.....
.....

c) Among the names on the list of candidates up for election at the Drones Club, there appeared, proposed by R.F. Little and seconded by an influential crumpet, that of LITTLE, ALGERNON AUBREY.

(P.G. Wodehouse, *A Few Quick Ones*, Coronet Books, p. 86)

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

33.6 LET US SUM UP

Prepositional phrases can be complements of verbs and adjectives; they can be adjuncts. They can also be postmodifiers of Noun Phrases. Practically all the prepositions, both simple and complex, can be used in this function. As in other cases, the preposition may have a 'local' or a figurative meaning.

The preposition in a prep. phrase (PP) can have a distinct meaning of its own and be independent of both the head noun preceding it and the noun in its complement. This is so where the preposition is used in its local meaning. In other cases the preposition may be controlled by either the noun in its complement or the preceding head noun. Numerous nouns, verbs and adjectives are followed by specific prepositions only.

The prepositional phrase modifying an NP has often an equivalent in the form of a relative clause or a sentence usually with *be* or *have*. But in many cases no such expansion is possible.

Noun phrases often show multiple post-modification — there may be more than one PP or clause. In such cases there will be a hierarchical structure, either ascending or descending.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

- 1) **Prepositional Phrase**
- | | |
|---|---|
| 1) from a common ancestor that... land
to the water
from the land | Function
complement to the verb evolved
adjunct to the verb returned
adjunct to the verb returned |
| (Note. 'Complements' complete the meanings of the verbs with which they occur.
'Adjuncts' are adverbial expressions, usually optional). | |
| 2) of the flippers

to each other

to any terrestrial animal

for the entire group | post-modifier of the NP
the bones
complement to the adjective
similar
complement to the adjective
similar
adjunct modifies the non-finite
VP implying a unique origin |
| 3) to molecular phylogenists

by examining...molecules
of molecules | complement to the noun
surprise
adjunct to the verb study
post-modifier of the NP
the structure |
| 4) of the University...at Berkeley,

of California

at Berkeley

on the basis of their
protein structure

of their protein structure | postmodifier of the NP Vince Sarich

postmodifier of the NP the University
University

postmodifier of the NP the University of California

adjunct to the verb said

complement to the NP the basis |
| 5) at a seal....walrus | complement to the verb glance |
| 6) To them | modifies the sentence |
| 7) among the three main groups
of pinnipeds
of pinnipeds

of convergent evolution | postmodifier of the NP the manifest similarities.
postmodifier of the NP

the three main groups
postmodifier of the NP the result |
| 8) in the water

to a shared problem

in the water

of a shared ancestry | adjunct to the verb live

postmodifier of the NP
solutions
postmodifier of the NP life

postmodifier of the NP echoes |
- 2) (Figures in brackets refer to blanks in the passage.)
(1) of (2) at (3) of (4) of (5) from (6) of (7) by (8) out of (9) of (10)
(11) with (12) for (13) among (14) of (15) by (16) on (17) in (18) of
(19) under (20) of (21) at

Check Your Progress 2

We make no apology for this detailed presentation.
You can claim compensation for damages.
There is no comparison between them.

UNIT 34 THE VERB PHRASE - 1

LEXICAL, AUXILIARY, AND PHRASAL VERBS

Structure

- 34.0 Objective
- 34.1 Introduction
- 34.2 Lexical Verbs
- 34.3 Auxiliary Verbs
- 34.4 Phrasal Verbs
- 34.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 34.6 Suggested Reading
- Answers

34.0 OBJECTIVE

In this unit we shall identify the elements of the verbal group (or verb phrase) and note their properties.

34.1 INTRODUCTION

The verb is, in one sense, the most important element of a sentence: the structure of a sentence depends largely on the verb: the difference between **He laughed/He built a house** is mainly due to the fact that the first sentence has the verb **laugh**, which needs nothing more to complete its meaning, but the second sentence has **build**, which requires an object to complete its meaning: what did he build?—A house. The difference between **laugh** and **build** is a **lexical** difference — i.e. the two words have different meanings and represent different activities in the real world.

Now look at the sentence: **He is building a house**. We have once again the item **build** but it is now preceded by **is** (a form of **be**). As you can see the meanings of the two sentences

- 1) He is building a house.
- 2) He has built a house.

are not the same, though they represent the same activity. The difference is a grammatical one, represented by the structure of the verbal group in the two sentences. We shall say that the difference in the meaning of the two sentences is a difference arising from the **auxiliaries** and the forms of the verbs in the two sentences. To the extent that they have a common shared meaning, it is due to the choice of the same lexical verb, **build**.

Thus we can distinguish two elements in the verbal group; the **auxiliary** and the **lexical verb**.

A special class of lexical verbs is seen in

- 3) We shall back you up in your efforts.

Compare this with

- 4) We shall support you in your efforts.

You will notice that the two sentences mean the same; the only difference is that while (4) has the lexical verb **support**, (3) has the combination **back up**, which means much the same as **support**. Combinations like **back up** (where the verbal meaning is given by a combination of more than one element) are called **phrasal verbs**.

This unit is organized as follows: in Section 34.2 we shall take a brief look at lexical verbs; in 34.3 we shall study the auxiliaries, and in 34.4 phrasal verbs.

34.2 LEXICAL VERBS

Lexical verbs are items like **build, write, laugh, sleep**, etc. They normally indicate various types of activities. A verbal group must have a lexical verb: without a lexical verb no verbal

group is possible; cf. the difference between **has been** and **has been writing/reading/talking**, etc. **Write, read, talk** are all lexical verbs. Notice also that in the verbal group the lexical verb comes last.

Some lexical verbs require nothing more to complete their meanings. These are the intransitive verbs (**cry, laugh, sleep, snore**, etc.). Others must be followed by some noun phrase to complete their meanings: **He wrote a novel**. These are the transitive verbs. There are literally thousands of transitive verbs.

Among transitive verbs, some require two noun phrases to complete their meanings: **give Mary a book**. Usually these verbs have an alternative construction where one of the noun phrases appears as a prepositional phrase (**give a book to Mary**). The preposition may be **to** or **for**, depending on the verb. (**She made John a cup of tea/She made a cup of tea for John**).

Yet some other verbs are immediately followed by a prepositional phrase: **I agree with you; You can depend on John; Congratulations on your success**.

Some of the verbs which are followed by a noun phrase can also be followed by a clause:

I know John.

I know that he is coming.

I am expecting Mary.

I expect that Mary will come.

The most important (at least the most frequent) lexical verb in the language (it is also an auxiliary, as we shall see) is **be**. Strictly speaking it is neither transitive nor intransitive. Unlike intransitive verbs it can be followed by a noun phrase but there is a difference. A sentence with a transitive verb as in

Tagore wrote Gitanjali.

has an alternative construction as in

Gitanjali was written by Tagore.

(This alternative construction is said to be a passive.) But no passive is possible with a sentence containing **be**.

He is a surgeon.

*A surgeon is been by him.

There are other properties of **be** which make it quite different from all other verbs. Similar is the case with **have** (which is also both a lexical and an auxiliary verb).

The properties distinguished till now are properties in respect of what can follow a verb. As for the verb itself, the lexical verb in English has six forms. We illustrate this with the verb **wait**.

4) 1) Stem	wait
2) Stem + s	waits
3) Stem + ing	waiting
4) Stem + ed	waited
5) Stem + en	waited
6) to + stem	to wait

The stem form is also called the 'base' or 'dictionary' form. (It is the form in which the verb is entered in the dictionary.) The stem + s form is the present tense form (in the third person singular). The stem + **ing** form is also known as the 'present participle' form. The stem + **ed** is the form of the verb in the past tense. (A majority of the verbs have this form in the past tense.) Hence '-ed' is used as a symbol for the past tense. Actually a few verbs have the base form for the past also (e.g. **cut, put, cost**) or show a different pattern of change (**write—wrote, go—went, speak—spoke**, etc.). The stem + **en** form is also called the 'past participle' form. (Here again verbs like **cut** and **put** show no change; **wait** itself shows the same form as in the past.) But again the majority of verbs do have this form: **speak—spoken, write—written**. (On verb morphology, see Unit 15 in Block 3. The last form (**to + stem**) is the infinitival form (on this, see below). Here again, sometimes the base form is used for the infinitive. (e.g. **I helped her to wash the clothes/I helped her wash the clothes**.)

Lexical verbs generally, have these six forms, but not all the auxiliaries, as we shall see. Phrasal verbs (being a sub-class of lexical verbs) also generally have all the six forms.

Finite and Non-finite

Of the forms of the verb, some are called **finite** and some **non-finite**. Finite forms are those which make **predication**: that is, a statement about a subject e.g. **wait here/Time waits for none/I waited for you at the station**. The forms *waiting, to wait* cannot make predication: **to wait for the bus/waiting for the bus**. These expressions require some other finite verb to make predication.

I have to wait for Mary/We were waiting outside the hall.

Have, were are finite forms and help make the sentences complete in meaning.

Forms which cannot, in themselves, make predication are called non-finite forms. The non-finite forms are: the infinitive (e.g. **to wait**), the present participle (e.g. **waiting**) and the past participle (e.g. **waited**). Since the past form of **wait** is the same as its past participle, take a verb like **break** to see that the past participle is a non-finite form and cannot make predication.

He broke the chair.

*He broken the chair.

The finite form of the verb can make predication because it contains tense: either present or past. In contrast the non-finite forms do not contain tense. (See the example above.)

Finally, the finite form shows 'agreement' with the subject. This can be seen in

I **am** learning French.

We **are** learning Spanish.

He **is** learning English.

learning (a non-finite form) remains the same in all the three sentences. But the forms of **be** are different in each sentence, depending on the subject. Only the forms **am, are, is** show 'agreement' with the subject.

The finite form always comes first in the verbal group. The rest of the verbal elements, if any, are all non-finite.

5) He has been working on a research project.

(**Has** is the only finite verb here: it is the third person singular form in the present tense of the verb **have**; **been** = **be** + **en** (past participle); **working** = **work** + **ing** (present participle)); both are non-finite forms.

Check Your Progress 1

1) In the following passage list all the finite lexical verbs.

(1) With some positive action before them, a little of the tension died. (2) Ralph said no more, did nothing, stood looking down at the ashes round his feet. (3) Jack was loud and active. (4) He gave orders, sang, whistled, threw remarks at the silent Ralph — remarks that did not need an answer, and therefore could not invite a snub; and still Ralph was silent; (5) No one, not even Jack, would ask him to move and in the end they had to build the fire three yards away and in a place not really as convenient. (6) So Ralph asserted his chieftainship and could not have chosen a better way if he had thought for days. (7) Against this weapon, so indefinable and so effective, Jack was powerless and raged without knowing why. (8) By the time the pile was built, they were on different sides of a high barrier.

(William Golding: *Lord of the Flies*, reprinted by permission of Faber and Faber Ltd.)

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

.....
.....
.....
.....

2) Identify and classify all the lexical non-finite verbs in the following passage.

(1) Most astronomers believe that the galaxies have changed little from the time they were formed, quite soon after the big bang that created the Universe. (2) The amount of matter that formed determined the mass of each galaxy and — barring accidents like a collision with another galaxy — that mass has remained constant.

(3) But now some researchers are beginning to challenge the orthodox view. (4) There is evidence that a heavy “rain” of gas is falling into many galaxies from the supposedly empty space around them. (5) This gas apparently condenses into a large collection of very small stars — little larger than the planet Jupiter — which vastly outnumber the other stars in the galaxy. (6) The amount of “intergalactic rainfall” into some galaxies is enough to double their mass during the time since the big bang.

(First appeared in *New Scientist Magazine*, London, the weekly review of science and technology, 12 August 1988, p.48)

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

34.3 AUXILIARY VERBS

English has a few auxiliary verbs which may be conveniently grouped into two classes:

- a) Primary auxiliaries: BE, HAVE, DO
- b) Modal auxiliaries:
can, may, shall, will
could, might, should, would
must, ought to, used to
need, dare

The auxiliaries as a whole have certain properties which distinguish them from lexical verbs. Questions, negations and emphatic statements can be directly formed with them, without the use of other verbs. We illustrate this with **be** and **have** (which share this property of auxiliaries even when they are used as lexical verbs), and the auxiliary **can**.

- 6) a) He is a teacher.
He is not a teacher.
Is he a teacher?
He IS a teacher.
 - b) He is writing a letter.
He is not writing a letter.
Is he writing a letter?
He IS writing a letter.
- 7) a) He has a Persian carpet.

He hasn't any carpet.
Has he a Persian carpet?
He HAS a Persian carpet.

b) He has written to me.
He has not written to me.
Has he written to me?
He HAS written to me.

8) John can speak Italian.
John cannot speak Italian.
Can John speak Italian?
John CAN speak Italian.

Note 1: The negative (not) can be contracted and joined to the auxiliary.

Note 2: Capitalization, e.g. 'IS', indicates main stress on the auxiliary (which is not normally stressed) for emphasis.

These constructions (questions, negations, emphatic statements) are not possible with lexical verbs unless the verbal group contains an auxiliary.

He speaks Russian.
*Speaks he Russian?
*He speaks not Russian.
*He SPEAKS Russian.

But:

He is learning Russian.
Is he learning Russian?
He is not learning Russian.
He IS learning Russian.

The presence of *is* (a form of *be*) in the verbal group helps form the required constructions. When no auxiliary is present, we need *do* to form these constructions:

Does he speak Russian?
He does not speak Russian.
He DOES speak Russian.

There is one more construction which distinguishes the auxiliaries from the lexical verbs. A 'question tag' can be directly formed with an auxiliary.

9) He has come, *hasn't he?*
You are leaving tomorrow, *aren't you?*
You can fix it, *can't you?*

(The question tags have been italicized.)

But lexical verbs need the support of *do*.

He wrote that letter, *didn't he?*
She left yesterday, *didn't she?*

The lexical verbs need the auxiliary verbs not merely to form the constructions indicated above: they need the auxiliaries to form complex tense forms also.

Only the simple tenses (present, past) can be directly indicated by the lexical verb: *Sarala lives in Delhi. Suresh went to Bombay.* To indicate the progressive tenses and the perfect tenses, the auxiliaries *be* and *have* are needed. *Be* is needed to form the progressive (or continuous) tense.

I am writing a novel.

The telephone was ringing all through the night.

Have is needed to form the perfect tenses:

I have completed my assignment.

I had told John to meet you.

We shall now look a little more closely at the various auxiliary verbs.

Be. This verb, the most frequently used verb in the language, has the largest number of forms. It distinguishes number, person, and tense, and can be used both as a lexical verb and as an auxiliary.

10)		Present		Past	
		Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
	First person	am	are	was	were
	Second person	are	are	were	were
	Third person	is	are	was	were

These are the finite forms. The verb **be** has three non-finite forms:

11) **to be, being, been**

Examples:

- a) as lexical verbs **To be** or not to be, that is the question.
You are **being** stupid.
Oh, I have **been** here before.
- b) as auxiliary verbs **To be** born blind is a misfortune.
You are **being** taken to Delhi.
I have **been** cheated.

As already pointed out, **be** can be used both as an auxiliary and as a lexical verb. In the sentence:

12) Mary is a nurse.

is (the present, singular, 3rd person form of **be**) is the only verb. Every sentence must have a lexical verb. Since **is** is the only verb in the sentence, it is a lexical verb. But it behaves like an auxiliary also, because unlike lexical verbs, it can directly enter into the structures for questions, negations, emphasis, and tag questions. (**Is Mary a nurse?/Mary is not a nurse/Mary IS a nurse/Mary is a nurse, isn't she?**)

In (12) **be** is a lexical verb but retains some of the properties of an auxiliary. In (13) it is used only as an auxiliary to help form the present progressive tense form of **write**.

13) My friend is writing a novel.

Have

Have, like **be**, can be both an auxiliary and a full (lexical) verb. In **I have a Premier Padmini**, **have** is used as a lexical verb, but, like an auxiliary it can directly form questions: **Have you a Premier Padmini?**, negatives: **I haven't a Premier Padmini**, take the stress to indicate emphasis: **I HAVE a Premier Padmini**, form question tags: **He has a Premier Padmini, hasn't he?** In **I have been to many western countries**, **have** is used only as an auxiliary to form the present perfect tense form of **be**.

This double nature of **have** has resulted in an interesting development (unlike with **be**). We can say: **Have you a pen?** (with **have** being treated as a lexical verb which behaves like an auxiliary); we can also say: **Do you have a pen?** (with **have** being treated only as a lexical verb).

Have distinguishes tense but, except for the 3rd person singular, it shows no number/person distinctions.

14)	present		past	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
First person	have	have	had	had
Second person	have	have	had	had
Third person	has	have	had	had

So there are only three finite forms (**have, has, had**). The non-finite forms are:

15) infinitive : to have

present participle: having

past participle : had

Examples: as lexical verbs

She expects to **have** the baby next month.

We are **having** some problems with the new machine.

I have **had** enough.

as auxiliary verbs:

To **have** worked with him was a valuable experience.

Having resigned the job in a huff, he found himself penniless.

The 'modal' auxiliaries express such meanings as 'possibility', (**It may rain**), 'permission' (**You may go**), 'ability' (**I can do it**), etc. These are 'modal' meanings.

Only three of the modal auxiliaries have matching present-past forms: **shall —should; will—would; can—could; may —might**. The others have only one form. Even with **shall**,

will, can, and may the corresponding 'past' forms are not, strictly speaking: past tense forms. They don't necessarily (or always) indicate a 'past' meaning. The paired **shall — should, may—might**, etc. have their own distinctive meanings.

Also, these auxiliaries have no participle forms: ***maying, *mighting; *mayen, *mighten...**; nor any infinitive form: ***to shall, *to may**. In short, the modal auxiliaries are always finite. They are verbs with a finite form only.

Do

Do as an auxiliary should be distinguished from **do** as a lexical verb. In

John did it.

we have only the lexical verb **do**. This is clear from the fact that when the sentence is turned into a question, we get

Did John do it?

The lexical verb **do** is in its own place. The auxiliary **do** has been brought in to help form the question. In this **do** is different from **be** and **have**, which have the properties of both auxiliaries and lexical verbs. Given **Mary is a nurse**, we can form the question **Is Mary a nurse?** by simply moving **is** to the front position. No other verb is needed to help form the question. But given **John did it** we can't have ***Did John it?**

Lexical verbs need an auxiliary to help form structures like questions, negations, emphatic sentences and question tags. The auxiliary may be a modal, a form of **be** or a form of **have**. When the sentence has none of these, then the auxiliary **do** is required.

The auxiliary **do** has the following forms:

16) present : **do**
 does (third person singular)
past : **did**

As can be seen, only in the third person singular (present tense) is there a form distinguishing number and person. Otherwise there is just one form for the present and one for the past. There are no non-finite forms of the auxiliary **do**.

(The lexical verb **do** also has the forms: **do, does, did**; further, it has the non-finite forms **to do** (infinitive); **doing** (present participle), and **done** (past participle).

Of the four types of auxiliaries distinguished till now, three (Modal, **have** and **be**) can co-occur, in that order:

17) She **may have been studying** in the library.

To summarize: the auxiliaries are a special class of verbs which can directly enter into certain constructions (questions, negations, emphatic, statements and question tags). One of them, **do**, helps form these constructions with the lexical verbs when there is no other auxiliary present. Further, the auxiliaries **be** and **have** help form the progressive and perfective tense forms of the verbs. The modal auxiliaries are not needed to form any complex tense forms. They are needed to indicate certain modal meanings. They have only one form — always finite — unlike the other (= primary auxiliaries) which have both finite and non-finite forms.

Check Your Progress 2

In the following passage

- i) identify and list separately all finite and non-finite auxiliaries;
- ii) make a list of the finite lexical verbs.

(1) This is the characteristic of science which distinguishes it in kind from the other way of knowing. (2) No scientist, or student of science, need ever read an original work of the past. (3) As a general rule, he does not think of doing so. (4) Rutherford was one of the greatest of experimental physicists, but no nuclear scientist today would study his researches of fifty years ago. (5) Their substance has all been infused into the common agreement, the textbooks, the contemporary papers, the living present.

(6) This ability to incorporate the past gives the sharpest diagnostic tool, if one asks whether a body of knowledge is a science or not. (7) Do present practitioners have to go back to an original work of the past? (8) Or has it been incorporated?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

34.4 PHRASAL VERBS

Phrasal verbs are a special class of lexical verbs. While lexical verbs are one-word items, phrasal verbs are verbs which are made up of more than one word:

- 18) *Look up* this word in a dictionary.
- Turn off* the tap.
- Put on* your coat.
- Call up* the man.

The italicized expressions are phrasal verbs.

Phrasal verbs should be distinguished from 'verb + prepositional phrase' structure. In **I agree with you**, the phrase **with you** is a prepositional phrase and the preposition (**with**) is the head of this phrase. The preposition, although selected by the verb **agree**, does not belong to it. This can be seen by the fact that the verb and the prepositional phrase can be separated by, for example, an adverbial: **I agree entirely with you**. With a phrasal verb an adverb cannot intervene in this fashion: **turn off the tap quickly**/***turn quickly off the tap**.

With a transitive phrasal verb the particle following the verb can normally occur in two positions:

- 19) Look up this word,
- Look this word up.

That is, the particle can either immediately follow the verb or appear after the object noun phrase. In the 'verb + prepositional phrase' structure, however, the preposition, being the head of its own phrase, has only one position. It must appear immediately after the verb. (**I agree with your proposal**/***I agree your proposal with**.)

Although phrasal verbs are really two-part verbs (usually), it is the first element alone that shows change in form for tense and agreement: **Call him up**/**We have called him up**, etc. This is because the particle in English (as in many languages) has only one form.

Check Your Progress 3

Identify the phrasal verbs in the following set.

- find out, catch on, call on, comply with, turn up, take off, make up (a story), part with, refer to, consent to, put across (an idea).

For each item selected, give one syntactic test to justify your selection.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

34.5 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have identified two elements of the **VERBAL GROUP**, namely the **AUXILIARY** and the **LEXICAL VERB**. A sub-class of lexical verbs, the **PHRASAL VERB** has also been identified. Within the class of auxiliaries we have distinguished between **PRIMARY** and **MODAL AUXILIARIES**.

Lexical Verbs have usually six forms: **STEM**, **STEM + s**, **STEM + ing**, **STEM +ed**, **STEM + en** and **to + STEM**. Some forms are **FINITE**; others **NON-FINITE**. The non-finite forms are: **INFINITIVE ((to)+ stem)**, **PRESENT PARTICIPLE (stem + ing)**, and the **PAST PARTICIPLE (stem + en)**.

The auxiliaries are needed to form certain constructions: **QUESTIONS**, **NEGATIONS**, **EMPHATIC SENTENCES**, and **QUESTION TAGS**. **BE** and **HAVE** are also needed to form certain **COMPLEX TENSE** forms (the **PROGRESSIVE** with **BE**, and the **PERFECTIVE** with **HAVE**).

The modal auxiliaries do not help form complex tense forms. They are needed to convey certain meanings called **MODAL** meanings (e.g. **POSSIBILITY**, **PERMISSION**, **ABILITY**, etc.)

Among the auxiliaries, **BE** and **HAVE** have a dual nature: they are both lexical and auxiliary, although, at certain times they function only as auxiliaries. **DO** is only an auxiliary. The lexical **do** should be distinguished from the auxiliary **DO**.

Phrasal verbs are generally two-part expressions (**VERB + PARTICLE**) where the particle, although separable, is needed to complete the meaning of the verb.

34.6 SUGGESTED READING

A.S. Hornby. *Guide to Patterns and Usage in English*, pages 1-12.

Quirk and Greenbaum. *A University Grammar of English* (Chapter 3)

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

1) Lexical finite verbs.

(be used as a lexical verb has been included in this list).

Sentence	finite lexical verbs
1)	died
2)	said, did, stood
3)	was
4)	gave, sang, whistled, threw, was
5)	—
6)	asserted
7)	was, raged
8)	were

2) Sentence lexical non-finite verbs

1)	changed (past participle)
	formed (past participle)
2)	remained (past participle)
3)	beginning (present participle)
	to challenge (infinitive)
4)	falling (present participle)
5)	—
6)	to double (infinitive)

Check Your Progress 2

(be and have as lexical verbs are not included in this list.)

- | i) Sentence | Auxiliaries |
|-------------|----------------------|
| 1) | — |
| 2) | need (finite) |
| 3) | does (finite) |
| 4) | would (finite) |
| 5) | has (finite) |
| | been (non-finite) |
| 6) | — |
| 7) | do (finite) |
| | have to (non-finite) |
| 8) | has (finite) |
| 9) | been (non-finite) |
| | has (finite) |
| | has (finite) |
| 10) | — |
| 11) | must (finite) |
| 12) | — |
| 13) | should (finite) |
| | has (finite) |
| | has to (finite) |
| | were (finite) |
| 14) | have (finite) |
| | cannot (finite) |
| 15) | cannot (finite) |
| | can (finite) |
| | be (non-finite) |
| 16) | have to (finite) |
| | be (non-finite) |
| 17) | will (finite) |
-
- | ii) Sentence | finite lexical verbs (including be) |
|--------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1) | is |
| | distinguishes |
| 2) | — |
| 3) | — |
| 4) | was |
| 5) | — |
| 6) | gives |
| | asks |
| | is |
| 7) | — |
| 8) | — |
| 9) | — |
| 10) | is |
| | embodies |
| 11) | has |
| 12) | take |
| 13) | — |
| 14) | — |
| 15) | is |
| 16) | stand |
| 17) | reads |

Check Your Progress 3

The phrasal verbs in the list are:

find out, catch on, turn up, take off, make up, put across

- Test :
1. In the case of transitive phrasal verbs, the object noun phrase can come between the verb and the particle. e.g.
find the truth out, take your coat off,
make the story up, put the idea across

- 2). In the case of intransitive phrasal verbs, an adverbial cannot intervene between the verb and the participle : e.g.
caught on quickly (but not *caught quickly on).
turned up suddenly (but not *turned suddenly up).

UNIT 35 THE VERB PHRASE -2

TENSE; ASPECT; MODALITY

Structure

- 35.0 Objectives
- 35.1 Introduction
- 35.2 Tense
 - 35.2.1 Present
 - 35.2.2 Past
 - 35.2.3 Ways of Indicating Future Events
- 35.3 Aspect
 - 35.3.1 The Progressive
 - 35.3.2 The Perfect
 - 35.3.3 The Perfect Progressive
- 35.4 Modality
 - 35.4.1 Can
 - 35.4.2 Could
 - 35.4.3 May
 - 35.4.4 Might
 - 35.4.5 Shall
 - 35.4.6 Should
 - 35.4.7 Will
 - 35.4.8 Would
 - 35.4.9 Must
 - 35.4.10 Ought to
- 35.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 35.6 Suggested Reading
- Answers

35.0 OBJECTIVES

In this unit we shall study the meanings expressed by the verbal group in English, in particular those associated with tense, aspect, and modality.

35.1 INTRODUCTION

Tense should be distinguished from time. Time is a category of the real world; tense, a category of grammar. Tense refers to the **form** of the verb. Although tense forms do refer to time, there is no one-to-one correspondence. The same form may refer to present time in one context and future time in another context.

English has only two tenses—a form called the present tense and a form called the past tense. The present tense is the stem form of the verb, except in the third person singular where the suffix **-s** is added to the stem. The past tense is formed by adding **-ed** to the stem. (Cf. 34.2)

The fact that English has only two tenses (present, past) does not mean that English has no way of indicating future events. All that is meant is that there is no form of the English verb to express future reference. However English has a variety of devices to indicate future time.

Besides the two tense forms (the verb is finite in these cases), there are two other forms—a form in **-ing** and a form in **-en**—which are used in conjunction with the auxiliaries **be** and **have**: **ing** with **be**, **en** with **have**. Traditionally these forms are also labelled as 'tenses': in **He is writing a letter** the verb is said to be in the present progressive (or continuous) tense, and in **He has written a letter**, in the present perfect tense. In keeping with current linguistic analysis we shall not call them 'tenses' although we shall keep the terms 'progressive' and 'perfective'. These forms indicate **aspect**, the state of the action—whether completed or incomplete and its significance for the present moment.

This unit is organized as follows: in 35.2 we shall discuss tense; in 35.3 aspect; and in 35.4 modality (the meanings expressed by the modals).

35.2 TENSE

35.2.1 Present

The present tense is used to refer to

- i) scientific and geographical truths as in:
 - Water boils at 100°C.
 - Molecular weight is twice the vapour density.
 - Fire burns.
 - The Ganges rises in the Himalayas, flows through the plains of North India and joins the Bay of Bengal.
- ii) facts of personal taste, preference, and attitudes, facts of personal accomplishment:
 - I love mangoes.
 - I hate bananas.
 - I enjoy doing crossword puzzles.
 - My wife knows German.
 - Mr. Narayan writes novels.
 - These days young people prefer pop to classical music.
- iii) habitual activities
 - I get up at 6 in the morning, and go to bed at 10 in the night.
 - In summer, I visit my mother at Mysore.
 - On Wednesdays and Fridays we have toast, coffee and fruit for breakfast.
- iv) actions which are felt as true at the moment of speaking
 - a) I love/hate you.
I think he is right.
 - b) I see what you mean.
I believe he has tendered his resignation.
I smell something burning.
I hear a noise outside.
The box contains books.
I own this building.

There are also some other contexts for the use of the present tense (on the use of the present tense to refer to future events, see below) but we need not go into them here. Reviewing the situations where the present tense is used, you will see that they all have this in common: the event, activity, state or situation is not thought of as coming to an end: either it is something which is necessarily true (the world being what it is (i)) or it is true of an individual (or groups of individuals), being part of his/her/their nature ((ii), (iii)).

The examples at (iv) indicate what is sometimes called the 'actual' present. Those under (a) are statements which, in the eyes of the speaker, are true **at the moment of speaking**, although there is no guarantee that they will hold good always. (Love may die; what you hate today you may come to like tomorrow; my belief may turn out to be ill-founded. . .) The difference between the examples under (iva) and those under (ii) is: the examples under (ii) reflect a more permanent state constituting part of the personality of the persons in question. Not so the examples under (iva): they are true at the moment of speaking with no further commitment.

The examples under (ivb) refer to states, actions and events **taking place at the moment of speaking**. With other verbs the progressive form would be used in these cases:

- It is raining.
- My sister is playing the veena.
- The dog is chasing the cat.

The question then arises: which are the verbs which, even when they denote an activity 'going on' at the time of speaking, are not used in the progressive (=ing) form?

Generally speaking these are verbs which refer to perception—mental, physical; i.e. verbs like **see, hear, feel, smell, taste, believe, think**, etc.; or which indicate a relation: **own, contain, consist**, etc.

35.2.2 Past

The past tense indicates an activity that took place in the past. The past time reference can be made quite clear by suitable adverbials.

I visited my uncle last week.

The A.P. Express from Delhi arrived four hours late yesterday.

The first man landed on the moon more than twenty years ago.

Where the past action extended over a length of time in the past (as, for example, in the case of habitual actions), *used to* is used.

I used to smoke as a young man.

I used to worry a lot in those days.

35.2.3 Ways of Indicating Future Events

English has no future tense form (as already noted) but it has several devices to indicate future events:

i) with *will/shall*

We shall meet again next week.

I will tell Mary that you called.

Of the two forms *will* and *shall*, *will* (or the contracted form 'll e.g. I'll see you later) is the one generally used. In Standard British English there is a preference for the use of *shall* with first person subjects:

I shall come later.

We shall take it up at the next meeting.

ii) with the simple present

When referring to plans, programmes, schedules the simple present is commonly used:

a) The train leaves at 10 in the night.

b) The President arrives next Sunday.

The contexts indicated by these two examples are not identical. With the second one, the progressive may alternate with the present (*The President is arriving next Sunday*. See below for discussion.) But with the first one the progressive would not be used: unless, for example, the regular schedule had been upset: *The track has been restored. The train is now leaving at midnight.*

With fixed (and often unalterable) schedules, then, the simple present is the normal form to refer to future events:

When is the solar eclipse?

What time is the meeting?

What day is the 3rd of June?

iii) with the present progressive

I am taking the children to the zoo next Saturday.

My sister is leaving for Bombay tomorrow.

This context can be characterized as 'future event anticipated in the present.'

Recall now the example at (iib) above where we could have either the simple present or the present progressive. In such an alternation possible here?

The simple present is correctly used only in respect of future events which are part of a more complex plan or schedule. We could, for example, continue (ii b) in this way.

The President arrives next Sunday. He unveils a portrait of Rajaji at the Jubilee Hall the same afternoon. In the evening he presides over a function at the Sangeet Natak Academy. Later in the evening he leaves for Madras.

With the examples under (iii) no such schedule is suggested or expected. Therefore the simple present would not be used in these cases.

There are some other constructions available to indicate future events. These involve certain modal meanings as well and do not just indicate 'future'.

iv) *Be going to* + infinitive

This construction expresses a present intention about a future event.

We are going to get married next month.

I'm going to see the Principal about my son's admission.

In other cases it may refer to an action or event likely to take place in the immediate future:

It is going to rain.

That wall is going to collapse.

- v) The verb **be** may be directly followed by a 'to-infinitive' expressing an arrangement or command in the future:

Sheila and I are to meet at the Zoo this afternoon.

We are to be married in May.

I am to see the Principal at 3 p.m.

Check Your Progress 1

- 1) a) Fill in the blanks in the following with the correct forms of the verbs given in brackets.

- 1) When a pollen grain (land) on a flower, fertilization (do) not always follow.
- 2) No news (be) good news.
- 3) Three times ten (be) thirty.
- 4) Civility (cost) nothing.
- 5) Research in artificial intelligence really (begin) 40 years ago when Alan Turing (propose) a test for deciding whether a computer (be) intelligent.
- 6) I (believe) our education system still (produce) as many brilliant students as it (do) three decades ago.

- b) What use(s) of the present tense are illustrated in the above examples?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

- c) What uses, discussed in the unit, are not exemplified in 1(a) above. For the uses not exemplified, give two examples each of your own.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

- 2) Consider the following:

She is charming.

They are zebras.

You are mistaken.

We/I went to a party yesterday.

I was held up at a meeting.
We were held up at a meeting.
We speak Hindi.
He speaks Chinese.
You appear depressed.
She seems to be enjoying herself.

a) What is the correct statement about 'Agreement' in English?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

b) Fill in the blanks using the correct forms of the verbs given in brackets.

- 1) Each of the candidates (be) asked to speak for 5 minutes.
- 2) Is there life after death? No one..... (know) for sure.
- 3) Neither the Chairman nor the Secretary (be) able to answer the points raised by the members.
- 4) Either you or she..... (be) to blame.
- 5) The Secretary and Treasurer..... (be) charged with embezzlement.

3) Fill in the blanks in the following passage with the correct forms of the verbs in brackets.

He(1)..... (jump) down from the terrace. The sand(2)..... (be) thick over his black shoes and the heat(3)..... (hit) him. He(4)..... (become) conscious of the weight of his clothes,(5)..... (kick) his shoes off fiercely and(6)..... (rip) off each stocking with its elastic garter in a simple movement. Then he(7)..... (leap) back on the terrace,(8)..... (pull) off his shirt, and(9)..... (stand) there among the still-like coconuts with green shadows from the palms and the forest sliding over his skin. He(10)..... (undo) the snake-clamp of his belt,(11)..... (lug) off his shorts and pants, and(12)..... (stand) there naked, looking at the dazzling beach and the water. (William Golding: *Lord of the Flies*, reproduce by permission of Faber and Faber Ltd.)

4) Fill in the blanks in the following with the correct forms of verbs given in brackets. In some cases an auxiliary may be needed.

- 1) If I drop the piece of chalk, it..... (break).
- 2) We..... (go) to a cinema this afternoon.
- 3) Your train (leave) at 10 p.m.
- 4) I (be) about to drop the letter in the pillar box when I noticed that it had not been stamped.
- 5) The teacher said: 'Boys, listen carefully, I (be) going to tell you a story.
- 6) All his friends (be) there to greet him when he (arrive) next Monday.
- 7) The programme usually (last) for 30 minutes.

35.3 ASPECT

English distinguishes two 'aspects' in the verb phrase, the **progressive** (expressed by a form of **be** followed by a verb in **-ing**) and the **perfective** (expressed by a form of **have** followed by a verb in **-en**).

35.3.1 The Progressive

The progressive (or continuous) aspect is exemplified by the following:

The telephone is ringing.

The boys are playing in the field.

It is raining heavily.

The essential point about the progressive aspect is that it denotes an activity which is going on at the time of speaking and is viewed as of limited duration: it will come to an end, sooner or later.

With certain types of activity it is not necessary that the activity should be actually going on at the time of speaking. **I am writing a novel** does not mean that I am doing so at the present moment. Similarly with:

I am learning to play the veena.

I am practising typewriting.

Here also the essential meaning of the progressive ('limited duration') can be seen. Quite clearly these activities are not intended to go on for ever.

In some (very limited) contexts the progressive can indicate annoyance, disgust.

You are always complaining.

She is always nagging her husband.

The past progressive is generally used to indicate the attendant context or situation when some other activity took place.

I was typing a letter when the doorbell rang.

We were trekking up the mountain when a snowstorm suddenly burst upon us.

35.3.2 The Perfect

The most important meaning conveyed by the perfective aspect is that an action which began in the past has some significance at the moment of speaking. The action may have been completed or be still going on.

I have applied for the post of Income Tax Inspector.

(present significance: I am expecting something to happen: I may be called for an interview.)

I have finished my work.

(Therefore I can now relax.)

I have arranged for your stay in Hyderabad.

(So you don't have to worry about accommodation when you come here.)

Notice that when no present consequence is to be expected from a past action, the perfect would not be used but the simple past. Supposing that I came to know that the posts of Income Tax Inspectors had been filled and I was not even called for the interview, I would then say: **I applied for the post but nothing happened.**

Even when the past action has yet some present significance (as viewed by the speaker), the present perfect cannot be used with adverbials of definite past.

*I have applied for the post last Monday.

*I have seen him yesterday.

Adverbials of definite past can only go with the past tense: i.e. with activities which are merely mentioned as having taken place in the past, with no suggestion of any present consequence.

I applied for the post last Monday.

(This could be in answer to a question: When did you apply for the post?)

However, the present perfect can go with time expressions which connect the past with the present.

I have seen him this week.

Since this week is not yet over the past event is presented in a present time frame. The result of the past action can yet be expected or its significance drawn attention to.

The meaning of the perfect explicator above may be termed 'resultative'.

There are some other meanings associated with the perfect. We shall not describe them here. We shall only note one more use of the perfect as in

The clock has just struck twelve.

He has just gone out.

In these cases the present perfect is used to indicate an event which took place in the immediate past.

The past perfect is much less frequently used than the present perfect.

Supposing two actions took place in the past and the earlier of them has some significance at the moment of speaking. Then the earlier action is put in the past perfect.

When I went to the station at 7 this morning, the train had already left.

As you can see, there are two actions here (my going to the station, and the departure of the train), of which the departure of the train took place earlier. If the speaker is being questioned as to why he did not catch the train, he would answer as indicated above, putting the departure of the train in the past perfect as that event has some significance now. It explains why he could not catch the train.

Some more examples:

The culprits had made good their escape by the time the police reached the scene.

When I entered the auditorium, the concert had just begun.

When I last saw her, Mary had filed divorce proceedings against her husband.

Often the past perfect can be replaced by the simple past if there are other ways of indicating the sequence of actions in the past:

The culprits made good their escape before the police arrived on the scene.

35.3.3 The Perfect Progressive

The two aspects, the perfective and the progressive, can be combined in that order.

I have been working on a novel.

If we analyze **been** as **be-en**, then we have here **have-en** (representing the perfect) and **be-ing** (representing the progressive). In traditional terminology the verb (**work**) would be said to be in the present perfect progressive tense. We will say that it is in the present tense with the verb in the perfect-progressive aspect.

With the present perfect two types of adverbials are possible.

I have been working on a novel since May last year.

I have been working on a novel for the last two years.

The phrase with **since** indicates the 'point of time' when the activity in question began; the phrase with **for** indicates how long the activity has been going on ('period of time').

Notice now that it is incorrect to use the non-perfect form when such time expressions are included.

*I am waiting here since 8 a.m.

*I am waiting here for the last two years.

That is, where an activity in progress is mentioned with an indication of when it began or how long it has been going on, the perfect form must be used.

The past perfect progressive refers to an activity which had been in progress upto a certain point of time in the past.

I had been planning to visit Agra for quite some time when suddenly this invitation came from the university.

Finally it must be pointed out that the past perfect is a very infrequent construction; the past perfect progressive even more so.

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) a) Fill in the blanks in the following passage with the correct forms of the verbs in brackets, and insert auxiliaries as needed.

University officials in the United States are beginning to worry about a shortage of qualified faculty to fill academic posts. It's a potential crisis that could shape the contours of American higher education for years to come.

After enjoying for decades an abundant supply of Ph.Ds, there is now growing evidence that the talent pool(1)..... (dry up). At the most prestigious universities competition for top scholars is still fierce, but other institutions(2)..... (have) trouble(3)..... (attract) qualified students. Following World War II, during the 'golden age' of higher education, campuses(4)..... (be) built at the rate of one-a-week. Administrators(5)..... (scramble) to fill new positions and freshly minted Ph.Ds easily(6)..... (find) jobs. But by mid-1970s, construction.....(7)..... (slow), budgets(8)..... (cut), enrolments(9)..... (peak), and as the number of tenured faculty(10)..... (grow) employment prospects for young scholars(11)..... (decline).

Now, the tide(12)..... (turn). Faculty positions, once again,(13)..... (begin) to open up. In the decade of the 1980s, student enrolment in higher education(14)..... (project) to increase—and at least 100,000 ageing professors will, through retirement,(15)..... (leave) the profession. Donald Hood, Vice-President for arts and sciences at Columbia University(16)..... (describe) the situation in this way: "We(17)..... (talk) about the retirement of an entire generation of scholars."

(The Times Higher Education Supplement, June 2, 1989. p. 17. 'Ph D drought dries up talent pool')

- b) Are there any places in the above passage where the present perfect could be used? What difference in meaning would that make?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

- 2) Fill in the blanks in the following passage with the correct forms of the verbs in brackets; supply auxiliaries as needed.

Brazilian officials(1)..... (abort) an international expedition to study the canopy of the Amazon rain forest from a giant airship. Adrian Bell, a British member of the expedition who just(2)..... (return), said no one was certain about the reason for the hitch. He thinks that it may(3)..... (be) because a Japanese film crew lacked a permit to fly a helicopter in the Amazon.

The government of Brazil now(4)..... (ask) the members of the expedition to leave the country and to re-apply from scratch. However, key members of the team now(5)..... (try) to reorganise the expedition in French Guiana.

The aim of the expedition was to provide an international team of 60 scientists from different disciplines (including about 30 from Brazil) with a mobile research station.

An inflatable raft suspended beneath the airship would give them a unique chance to study the canopy of the rain forest.

After months of negotiations with the Brazilian government, the team(6)..... (import) the raft and the airship into Brazil. By the end of August it(7)..... (secure) scientific and aeronautical permits. A Japanese film company(8)..... (fund) the expedition in return for exclusive film rights.

But things began to go badly when the Japanese(9)..... (refuse) a Brazilian film crew permission to film the expedition. Within days the airship(10)..... (snag) on

bureaucratic red tape, apparently because the Japanese ...(!!)..... (have) no permit to fly their film crew's helicopter.

(First appeared in *New Scientist Magazine*, London, the weekly review of science and technology, September 16, 1989 p. 26)

- 3) a) Fill in the blanks in the following with suitable adverbials:
- 1) I have seen him
 - 2) I saw the movie.....
 - 3) Space exploration has progressed very fast
 - 4) It was raining heavily at this time.....
 - 5) He had already left his office.....
- b) Fill in the blanks with suitable prepositions/prepositional phrases:
- 1) I have been waiting here
 - 2) He has been working on that book 2 years
 - 3) I was in London in 1981. I haven't been there again
 - 4) The lecturer went on speaking

35.4 MODALITY

In its narrow sense the term 'mood' is used to capture the distinction between

- a) He practises yoga.
- b) I suggest that he practise yoga.

In (a) the verb shows agreement with the subject but not the verb **practise** in (b). This difference in the form of the verb correlates with another difference: (a) is a statement of fact; the subordinate clause in (b) is not a statement of fact. In grammatical terminology sentence (a) is in the **indicative mood** and the subordinate clause in sentence (b) in the **subjunctive mood**.

The subjunctive has a very limited use in current English. It is seen chiefly in such stock expressions as:

God save the queen!
Be that as it may,
Suffice it to say,
Come what may,

A more frequent use is in **that-clauses** (as in the (b) example above).

It is necessary that everyone prepare himself.
I thank you for your suggestion that I come over.

Another case where there is no agreement between the subject and the verb and the distinction corresponds to a distinction between 'fact' and 'non-fact' is in the use of the past tense as in the following:

I wish I were a millionaire.
If I were you, I should cancel the engagement.

This use of the past tense to express a state of affairs contrary to fact is a more frequent construction than the subjunctive. The past form in these cases is called a **modal preterite**. It is especially common after expressions like **I wish**, as if:

I wish I knew her name.
He acts as if he owned the place.

In current terminology the term **modality** is used to cover not only the meanings of the subjunctive and the modal preterite but all the meanings of the modal auxiliaries also (with the exception of the indication of 'pure' or 'colourless' future with **will/shall**).

We shall now list the main meanings of the modals with illustrative examples.

35.4.1 Can

- 1) Ability

I can swim. (=know how to)

I can swim across this river. (=physical ability)

2) Permission

Can you spare me a few minutes?

(=Are you willing to... Asking for permission)

You can turn in your assignment next Monday.

(=You are allowed to... Giving permission)

3) Theoretical possibility

Such things can happen.

There can be a drought next year.

35.4.2 Could

1) Ability (or its absence) in the past

I'm sorry I couldn't meet you yesterday.

I could run a mile as a young man.

2) Conditional ability

I could do it if I tried.

Often the condition is not (or cannot be) realized and so the ability expressed is unreal.

If we had wings, we could fly.

3) Present possibility

We could do several things—go to a movie, attend a concert, or just sit around and talk.

35.4.3 May

1) Permission

May I come in? (More formal than: Can I come in?)

You may go now.

2) Possibility

He may arrive by the evening train.

It may rain this evening.

35.4.4 Might

1) Possibility

It might rain this evening.

You might win a lottery.

The possibility indicated by **might** is more remote than the one by **may**.

35.4.5 Shall

1) 'used with I and we to express the simple future; e.g.

I shall finish my work by 4 o'clock.

2) 'used with the second and third persons to express

a) a promise or strong intention, e.g.

He shall be rewarded.

It shall be done as you wish.

b) 'What will certainly be or happen,' e.g.

That day shall come.

c) 'a command or what must be done', e.g.

This law shall have effect from 1st April.

3) 'used in questions or offers, especially with I and we, asking the hearer to decide, e.g.

'Shall we go?'

'Yes, let's.'

'Shall I get you a chair?'

'Yes, please.'

35.4.6 *Should*

1) Obligation

You should obey your parents.
We should be considerate towards the disabled.

2) Logical necessity

He should be home by now.
Now that the battery is re-charged, the engine should start firing.

3) Contingent use

I should be delighted to be at the party
(if I...)
I should have thought (if...)

In these structures **should** appears in the main clause. What is expressed in the main clause is dependent on some condition (usually not fulfilled) given in the subordinate clause.

35.4.7 *Will*

1) in polite requests

Will you have some cake?
Will you (please) come in?

2) willingness (with the first person); often contracted to 'll.

I'll send you the money as soon as I can.
We'll send you the contract in a week's time.

3) insistence (full form only, with stress)

Boys 'will be boys.
I 'will not stay here a minute longer.

4) To indicate (i) probability, (ii) certainty, or (iii) habitual activity.

i) That will be the postman.
The meeting will be over by now.

ii) Water will flow from a higher to a lower level.
The tallest building will one day crumble down.

iii) He will sit in a corner and talk for hours.
No matter what the issue, he will get up and make a speech.

35.4.8 *Would*

1) Willingness

Would you mind closing the window?
(extremely polite); meaning: 'Are you willing to close the window?'

2) Habitual or characteristic activity

In those days, every morning I would go jogging.
I am not surprised at what he said. That's what he would say.

3) Probability

That would be the postman.
She would be around fifty, I thought.

4) In main clauses where the main clause event depends on a condition in a subordinate clause

He would take to drugs if we did not keep an eye on him.
She would marry him, if he could find a job.

35.4.9 *Must*

1) Obligation

One must pay one's taxes.
We must respect our traditions.

2) Necessity

I must be back in Delhi next Sunday.
You must write to him immediately.

In the past tense **had to** is used:

I had to be back in Delhi by the following Sunday.

Note the negatives:

You needn't be back by next Sunday.
(=You don't have to be back; you are not obliged to be back.)

You mustn't be back by Sunday.
(=You should not be back; it is imperative that you don't come back by next Sunday.)

3) Logical necessity

There must be a way out.
That must be the postman.

35.4.10 Ought to

This expresses the same meanings of obligation/logical necessity as **must**; only **must** is a stronger form.

We ought to leave at once.

A less forceful expression would be:

We had better leave at once.

[On the use of the marginal modal auxiliaries **dare**, **need**, and **used to** consult the OALD (*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*)]

Check Your Progress 3

Explain the meanings of the modals in the following passages.

a) [Wooster is very much interested in seeing that Ginger wins the election at Market Snodsbury. Unfortunately Ginger had a past, duly recorded in the Junior Ganymede Club book. Wooster is relieved to hear that there is little chance of this book falling into the hands of Ginger's opponents though the possibility of their coming to know of the contents can't be ruled out. (Passage A). But finally his worst fears are realized. Aunt Dhalia and he discuss what is to be done. (Passage B).]

A) Sipping my whisky and s. I brought the conversation round again to Ginger and his election, which was naturally the front page stuff of the day.

'Do you think he has a chance, Jeeves?'

He weighed the question for a moment, as if dubious as to where he would place his money.

'It is difficult to say, sir. Market Snodsbury, like so many English country towns, might be described as strait-laced. It sets a high value on respectability.'

'Well, Ginger's respectable enough.'

'True, sir, but, as you are aware, he has had a Past.'

'Not much of one.'

'Sufficient, however, to prejudice the voters, should they learn of it.'

'Which they can't possibly do. I suppose he's in the club book—'

'Eleven pages, sir.'

'—But you assure me that the contents of the club book will never be revealed.'

'Never, sir, Mr Winship has nothing to fear from that quarter.'

His words made me breathe more freely.

35.5 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have examined the notions of TENSE, ASPECT and MODALITY expressed by the verbal group in English. Tense has to do with the form of the verb, the verbal inflection. In this sense English has only two tenses, the PRESENT and the PAST. But English has a variety of constructions to indicate future events.

Aspect indicates the state of the action, whether it is completed or is still going on, and in either case whether it has any relevance at the moment of speaking. English has two aspects—the PERFECT and the PROGRESSIVE. These two can be combined in that order.

MODALITY refers to the meanings expressed by the MODAL AUXILIARIES: such meanings as possibility, permission, prohibition, insistence, willingness, etc.

35.6 SUGGESTED READING

Zandvoort, R.W. *A Handbook of English Grammar*: Chapter Two, especially, Sections 75-90, on the progressive; Chapter Four on the present and past tenses and the perfective; Chapter Five on the auxiliaries (the modal auxiliaries). Zandvoort's terminology differs slightly from the terminology used here, but this is not a serious matter.

Consult also Quirk and Greenbaum, *A University Grammar of English*, Chapter Three, sections 3.26-3.55.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

- 1) a) 1) lands, does
2) is
3) is
4) costs
5) began, proposed, is
6) believe, produces, did
- b) i) The sentences illustrate the use of the present tense in scientific truths (1,3) and statements which are believed to be true (by the speaker) at the moment of speaking ((6): I believe...)
ii) The notion 'scientific truth' can be generalized to include statements of a general nature in other fields also: (4).
iii) 'Whether a computer is intelligent' is a question about a presumed scientific truth.

Nos. (ii) and (iii) above are not explicitly mentioned in the unit.

- c) Of the uses mentioned in the unit the following have not been illustrated in Exercise 1 (a) above
- i) to express habitual activities:
I usually take a nap in the afternoon.
On Saturday evenings we watch the TV movie.
- ii) to express facts of personal taste, preference, etc.
I can't stand bus journeys.
I collect Third World stamps.
- 2) a) With the exception of *be*, the English verb shows agreement only in the present tense with a third person singular subject (We speak Hindi vs. He speaks Hindi.) In the present tense the verb *be* shows agreement with the subject in the first and third persons, as follows: I am/ We are; He is/ They are.
Unlike other verbs, there is agreement in the past tense also, with distinct forms for the plural as against the singular subject:
I was/We were
He was/They were
The distinction of number is lost in the second person.
The present and past forms of *be* here are:

You are/you were.

b) 1) was 2) knows 3) was 4) is 5) was.

3) (Numbers refer to the blanks.)

1) jumped 2) was 3) hit 4) became 5) kicked 6) ripped 7) leapt
8) pulled 9) stood 10) undid 11) lugged 12) stood

4) (Numbers refer to sentences) ..

1) will break 2) are going 3) leaves 4) was 5) am 6) will be, arriv
7) lasts.

Check Your Progress 2

1) a) (Numbers refer to blanks.)

1) is drying up 2) are having 3) attracting 4) were 5) scrambled
6) found 7) slowed 8) were cut 9) peaked 10) grew 11) declined
12) is turning 13) are beginning 14) is projected 15) be leaving
16) described 17) are talking.

b) yes: in (12) we could have 'has turned'; also in (13) 'have begun'. The present perfect in (12) would suggest a completion of the process (the change regarding faculty vacancies), while the present progressive suggests that the change is slowly taking shape. No such change in meaning in (13).

2) (Numbers refer to blanks.)

1) have aborted 2) has returned 3) have been 4) has asked 5) are trying 6) imported
7) had secured 8) is funding 9) refused 10) was snagged 11) had.

3) a) 1) this morning (or some other expression which includes the moment of speaking)

2) yesterday (or some other adverbial of the past)

3) in this decade (see comment at (1))

4) last year (see comment at (2))

5) when I called on him

b) 1) since 9 a.m. (or some other expression indicating when the action began)

2) for

3) since then

4) from 4 to 6 p.m. (or some other expression of the type from—to)

Check Your Progress 3

A) 'dubious as to where he would place his money': indicating future; also 'willingness'.

might be described: possibility

should they learn of it: to express a condition

Which they can't possibly do; won't be able to

the contents of the club book will never be revealed: prediction

I would not say that: I am not willing to go so far and say that.

Mr. Winship must have had companions: logical necessity.

It is certain that Mr Winship had some companions...

they might make some reference: possibility. It is possible that...

would get into gossip columns: future; likelihood

B) will be enough: future

they might excuse him : possibility

they won't be worrying: negative probability

that would have struck: future in the past

We must act.

You must act.

You must go to this man

} immediate necessity

... **would** listen to reason; future in the past: willingness

What **shall** I say? asking about the hearer's intention.

You'll know what to say: future

Oh, **shall** I? : future

We ought to spare his feelings: It is our duty to. . . .

ought not to be in existence: prohibition; should not have been.....

it **couldn't** possibly fall into the wrong hands:

absence of possibility; unlikelihood.

it **could** have fallen into: possibility (in the past)

will be frightful : future

I **shouldn't** wonder: contingent use in the main clause, that is, contingent on what is expressed in the dependent clause.

if he **might** not swoon: probability

I **can't** face him: negative ability (be unable to)

You'll have to tell him

Yes, I'll do it

I will

} future



UTTAR PRADESH
RAJARSHI TANDON OPEN UNIVERSITY

UGEN-02 The Structure of Modern English

Block

8

SYNTAX - 4: COMPOUND AND COMPLEX SENTENCES

UNIT 36

Clause Types and Sentence 5

UNIT 37

Compound Sentences 1

UNIT 38

Complex Sentences - 1 20

UNIT 39

Complex Sentences - 2 28

UNIT 40

Complex Sentences - 3 8

INTRODUCTION TO THE BLOCK

We began our study of English syntax in Block 5 and took up basic sentence patterns and the constituents of what are called 'simple' sentences — Subject, Verb, Objects and Complements (in Block 5), and adverbials (in Block 6).

In Block 7 we studied the structure of two important constituents of a sentence — the noun phrase and the verb phrase.

In this block we shall take up the structure of what are called 'compound' and 'complex' sentences. In Unit 36 we shall talk about different kinds of clauses and sentence based on their combinations. In Unit 37 we shall discuss 'compound' sentences, and Units 38–40 we shall take up 'complex' sentences.

UNIT 36 CLAUSE TYPES AND SENTENCE TYPES

Structure

- 36.0 Objectives
- 36.1 Introduction
- 36.2 Independent and Dependent Clauses
- 36.3 Types of Dependent Clauses
- 36.4 Sentence Types
- 36.5 Let Us Sum Up-
Answers

36.0 OBJECTIVES

With the help of this unit, you will be able to learn about

- the different types of clauses, and
- the classification of sentence types on the basis of the clauses they contain.

36.1 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 21 of Block 5 we tried to answer the question: 'What is a sentence?', and defined a sentence as follows:

'A sentence is an ordered string of words which expresses a complete thought. It generally consists of a subject and a predicate, and the verb in the predicate agrees with the subject. Every sentence, when it is written, begins with a capital letter'.

We also pointed out that a sentence could be a statement, a question, a command, or an exclamation.

Examples:

- Birds sing. (statement)
- Who sang at the concert last night? } (questions)
- Did he sing at the concert? }
- Sing us a song. (command or request)
- How well he sings! (exclamation)

In Unit 22 we described five basic sentence patterns and the elements which made up these patterns—Subject (S), Verb (V), Object (O), Complement (C), and Adverbials (A). Objects could be direct (DO) or indirect (IO), and complements could be subject complements (SC) or object complements (OC).

So far we have been talking mainly about what are generally known as 'simple' sentences, that is, sentences having only one 'part' (called a 'clause') and only one 'verb' each. We shall now take up sentences that can be looked upon as combinations of one or more 'parts' (or 'clauses').

36.2 INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT CLAUSES

Read the following sentences:

1. She is baking a cake today.
2. The dog came up to me when I whistled.

What is the obvious difference between these two sentences? (1) has a subject and a predicate. What about (2)? It consists of two distinct parts, each with a subject and a predicate of its own. The obvious difference between the two sentences, then, is that sentence (2) contains two clauses, unlike sentence (1), which has only one clause.

A clause is a group of words which has a subject and a predicate (with a finite verb) of its own. In this sense, a 'simple' sentence (one subject and one predicate) can also be called a clause. The conventional way of looking at a clause, though, is to treat it as part of a larger sentence.

Read the following sentences. Each of them has more than one clause.

1. I stopped smoking because everybody seemed to dislike it intensely.
2. You had better hurry up if you want to catch the 5.30 train.
3. Kindly look through the paper carefully before you sign it, as it will be produced before the higher authorities.
4. I was hoping that they would accept my suggestions, but for some reason they turned down all of them and put up their own.

In sentences other than the simple ones (those of a single clause structure), two types of clauses can be identified:

- (i) independent clause (also called 'main clause')
- (ii) dependent clause (also called 'subordinate clause')

An independent clause constitutes the principal part of the sentence. It is independent in the literal sense that it does not have to depend on the rest of the sentence to make a complete statement.

The dog came up to me when I whistled.
He is saving now so that he can relax after retirement.

The *italicized* clauses in the above sentences are independent clauses. Each consists of a subject and a predicate, and expresses a complete idea.

A dependent clause is one that cannot stand by itself and depends on the main clause for it to be meaningful. '... when I whistled' or '... so that he can relax after retirement' are incomplete except when they are read or heard as parts of the longer sentences. They are both dependent clauses.

Check Your Progress I

1. Indicate the number of clauses in each of the following sentences.
 - (i) You are an old friend of mine.
 - (ii) It is obvious that you are an old friend of mine.
 - (iii) I reached the station when most passengers had occupied their seats and the train had started moving.
 - (iv) They and their relatives do not get along very well.
 - (v) I am not sure what you want or why you come round so often.
2. Identify the 'main' (or independent) clauses in the following sentences:
 - (i) He passed the examination because he worked very hard last year.
.....
 - (ii) If you come to my house, I will show you my new books.
.....
 - (iii) It is said that he who can control himself can control others.
.....
 - (iv) You did it because you had no choice in the matter.
.....
 - (v) Although he is poor, he is honest.
.....
3. Rewrite the following sentences using the word/words given against each. Make each sentence a single clause type (a 'simple' sentence) as in the example:
Example: He is successful because he works very hard. (because of)
He is successful because of hard work.

(i) He is well-known because he is very honest. (for)

.....
.....

(ii) He was declared not guilty as there wasn't enough evidence against him. (for lack of)

.....
.....

(iii) He is a true friend though he has many shortcomings. (in spite of)

.....
.....

(iv) The college will remain closed on Tuesday because it is a national holiday. (on account of)

.....
.....

(v) He showed up when I needed him most. (in my hour of)

.....
.....

36.3 TYPES OF DEPENDENT CLAUSES

A dependent clause, as has been printed out, depends upon the main or independent clause to form a sentence. Very often it does the work of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. Look at the following:

noun { He told me *a story*.
He told me *what I wanted to hear*.

adjective { *the old man*.....
the man who is old.....

adverb { He reached *late*.
He reached *when he was not expected*.

Notice in the examples above that dependent clauses have taken the place of single words — nouns, adjectives, and adverbs. In (1), the direct object 'a story', which is a noun phrase, has been replaced by 'what I wanted to hear', which is a clause functioning as a noun, i.e. as the object of the verb 'told'. In (2), 'old' has been replaced by 'who is old' — a clause modifying the noun phrase the 'man', like an adjective. In (3), the adverb 'late' has been replaced by a clause 'when he was not expected', functioning as an adverbial.

A dependent clause is sometimes named after the 'part of speech' whose function it assumes in the sentence. A clause which does the work of a noun is called a noun clause. The same is true of the other two types also. We can, therefore, classify dependent clauses as:

1. Noun clauses
2. Adjective clauses
3. Adverb clauses

A noun clause may occur in a place where a noun can be used. To take three common instances, it can be (a) the subject of a verb, (b) the object of a verb, and (c) the object of a preposition.

Examples:

1. *The report* is doubtful.
Whatever he says is doubtful.
(subject)

2. Complete the following, using clauses as indicated:

- (i) I asked him (noun clause)
- (ii) The story is not convincing. (adjective clause)
- (iii) I work hard (adverb clause)
- (iv) I believe in (noun clause)
- (v), he is honest. (adverb clause)
- (vi) Have you finished the book? (adjective clause)

36.4 SENTENCE TYPES

We can look at sentences in different ways. One way is to classify them according to function and according to the arrangement of their constituent elements. In Unit 21 of Block 5 we referred to declaratory, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory sentences. They all had different functions and different grammatical structures. We can also consider whether a sentence consists of only one clause or more than one clause; and, if it has more than one clause, whether the clauses are all independent of each other or any one of them is a dependent clause.

On this basis we can recognize four types of sentences.

1. A simple sentence
2. A complex sentence
3. A compound sentence
4. A compound-complex sentence.

A **simple sentence** is one which contains only one subject and one predicate, such as the following:

She likes tea.

Now let's rewrite it as below:

- She and her sister like tea.
- She likes tea as well as coffee.
- She and her sister like tea, coffee and milk.

Would you call the above as simple sentences? Structurally, the answer is 'yes'. Each has one subject and one predicate. Whether the subject, or the predicate, contains one or more than one element is immaterial, so long as it functions as a single connected group.

Another way of describing a simple sentence is to say it is a sentence which consists of one independent clause.

Examples:

- My brother is an athlete.
- My brother and I are athletes.
- Mohan, his sister, and their cousin Meena are at the same school.

A **complex sentence** is one which contains one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses:

Examples:

1. Everybody knows *that the earth is round*.
2. He is the one *whom I like most*.
3. *If we don't meet tomorrow*, we shall postpone our discussion till next week.

A **compound sentence** is one which contains two or more independent clauses joined together by a 'coordinating conjunction' like 'and', 'or', 'but', etc. Each clause is independent of the other, and makes a complete statement

Examples:

1. You can go by train or you can take a bus.
2. I believe in democracy but I don't believe in a total lack of control.
3. I like poetry, and I don't dislike prose, but I can't appreciate some modern specimens of either.

A **compound-complex sentence** is a combination of a compound sentence and a complex sentence. Such a sentence contains two or more independent and one or more dependent clauses.

Example:

I had nothing against him when I met him last, but I have found out since that most of what he says is untrue, and he says it so convincingly.

Check Your Progress 3

Taking each sentence in the following paragraph, say whether it is a simple, a complex, a compound, or a compound-complex sentence.

- (1) The wind and the sun were good friends but sometimes they quarrelled with each other.
- (2) Both were strong in their own way, but they always fought about who was stronger.
- (3) The sun grew hotter and hotter when he argued, and the wind grew rougher and wilder when he argued.
- (4) One day they started quarrelling over the same point again.
- (5) The point which had been discussed a thousand times already was taken up again as if it was a new one.

- (1) (2) (3)
(4) (5)

36.5 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have discussed independent and dependent clauses in sentences, and how dependent clauses can be classified. We have also presented various types of sentences from the point of view of the clauses they contain.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

1. (i) 1
(ii) 2
(iii) 3
(iv) 1
(v) 3
2. (i) He passed the examination
(ii) I will show you my new books
(iii) It is said
(iv) You did it
(v) He is honest
3. (i) He is well-known for his honesty.
(ii) He was declared not guilty for lack of enough evidence against him.
(iii) He is a true friend in spite of many shortcomings.
(iv) The college will remain closed on Tuesday on account of a national holiday.
(v) He showed up in my hour of need.

Check Your Progress 2

1. where I wish to stay (adjective clause)
why I should choose to live there at all. (noun clause, object of 'ask')

because it will be far from the madding crowd. (adverb clause, reason)
 which very few businessmen will want to visit. (adjective clause)
 If it was a popular point of view. (adverb clause, condition)
 what no one seems to like very much. (noun clause, object of 'in')
 where I can meditation. (adjective clause)
 what I am looking for? (noun clause, object of 'to')

2. Here are a few samples.

- (i) where he lived.
- (ii) (that) you have just told me.
- (iii) because I want to get the first position in the class.
- (iv) what you have told me.
- (v) Although he is poor,.....
- (vi) (that) I lent you yesterday.

Check Your Progress 3

- (1) compound
- (2) compound-complex
- (3) compound-complex
- (4) simple
- (5) complex

UNIT 37 COMPOUND SENTENCES

Structure

- 37.0 Objectives
 - 37.1 Introduction
 - 37.2 Relationship of Meaning between Coordinate Clauses
 - 37.3 Coordinating Conjunctions
 - 37.4 Linking of Units Smaller than Clauses
 - 37.5 Shortened Forms of Compound Sentences
 - 37.6 Let Us Sum Up
- Answers

37.0 OBJECTIVES

With the help of this unit, you will be able to learn about

- coordination as a linking device;
- different coordinators (coordinating conjunctions) used to link clauses as well as units smaller than clauses; and
- compound sentences that we come across in speech and writing.

37.1 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 36, we referred to sentence types from the point of view of the number and types of clauses they have. One of the types, we said, was a compound sentence defined as follows: "A compound sentence is one which contains two or more independent clauses joined together by a coordinating conjunction like 'and', 'or', 'but', etc. Each clause is independent of the other and makes a complete statement."

We'll now refer briefly to two important devices — those of coordination and subordination — used to join clauses of equal rank or different ranks. We'll be concerned here mainly with coordination. Subordination will form the subject matter of Units 38 and 39.

As we said, both coordination and subordination involve the linking of units. The main difference between the two is that in coordination the units are of the same level or rank whereas in subordination they are at different levels. Indicators of coordination ('and', 'but', 'or') are called coordinating conjunctions, and those of subordination (e.g. 'that', 'if', 'why') are called subordination conjunctions.

Sometimes the order in certain sets of coordinated units can be reversed without a change of meaning.

Ram teaches at a school and Sita works at a factory.
Sita works at a factory and Ram teaches at a school

But this reordering is not possible if a cause-result relationship exists between the units.

He passed away yesterday and they cremated the body on the bank of the river Yamuna.
*They cremated the body on the bank of the river Yamuna and he passed away yesterday.

'Rank' refers to the status of the clause. Clauses, as we already know, can be either dependent or independent. An independent clause is a 'free' grammatical clause and is capable of constituting a simple sentence. A dependent clause is a 'bound' clause, which makes up a grammatical sentence only in combination with another clause, which is the main or independent clause.

He is a good man. (Grammatical, independent)
* Because he is a good man. (Ungrammatical, dependent clause)

I like him because he is a good man. (Independent clause followed by a dependent clause)

An independent clause may also be negatively defined as a clause which is not subordinated to any other clause. Independent clauses may be coordinated to form a compound sentence.

- a. It was a clear day.
- b. A strong wind was blowing from the east.

It was a clear day and a strong wind was blowing from the east.

- a. He went to the station.
- b. He bought a ticket.
- c. He boarded the train.

He went to the station, bought a ticket, and boarded the train.

37.2 RELATIONSHIP OF MEANING BETWEEN CO-ORDINATE CLAUSES

It is true that every compound sentence is a combination of two or more clauses of equal rank held together by a coordinator. Yet it is possible to perceive a relationship of meaning between the coordinated units. Independent clauses within the same sentence may be related to each other in one of the following four ways:

- (i) **Harmony or Agreement:** Two or more like statements may be put together to form a compound sentence with or without a coordinator. This may be done by

- (a) **Addition:** The coordinators used are 'and', 'moreover', 'besides', etc.

The mob set fire to the building *and* the firemen spent two hours putting it out.

You will have to report for duty next Monday; *likewise*, your colleagues will also be required to do the same.

Your story is uninteresting; *besides*, it isn't true.

- (b) **General statement and explanation:** Generally no coordinator is used in this case. The punctuation mark used is either a colon (:) or a semicolon (;).

He did his duty: he looked after his neighbours like his own kith and kin.

You have done the right thing: you have taken action against the inefficient members of the party.

The house is new; no tenant has ever occupied it.

Note: The explanation may be in the form of a specific example.

Sometimes a single idea is enough to make a man great: Gandhi achieved greatness through non-violence.

A great novelist may write only one novel to become immortal: Emily Bronte did it.

- (c) **Mussed detail:** This means giving a number of details producing one effect.

The old man had a wierd appearance; his clothes were tattered; his hands were coarse; his feet were bare.

I can't trust you; you are always late; you never keep your word; you don't care about others.

- (ii) **Contrast:** The conjunction used is 'but', Conjunctive adverbs like 'yet', 'nevertheless', 'on the contrary' may also be used.

The search party went round and round in the forest. *but* no trace of the missing hunter was found.

Coordinate clauses are independent of each other, *yet* there is a relationship of meaning between them within the sentence.

- (iii) **Alternation or Choice:** The conjunctions used are 'or', 'nor', 'either-or', etc.

Either I did not make point clear *or* you did not pay attention to my remark.

He is not entirely truthful, *nor* is he particularly friendly.

I should get a better deal this time, *or* I am born unlucky.

- (iv) **Consequence or Inference:** This implies a cause-result relationship between the two parts of the sentence. The second clause can be drawn as a result of the statement made in the first clause. The coordinators commonly used are conjunctive adverbs such as 'therefore', 'thus', 'hence', 'consequently', etc.

The job was utterly boring; *therefore*, I did it half-heartedly.

They have successfully completed their mission; *hence*, there is a general celebration.

He was obliged to his employers in many ways; *consequently*, he had to agree to their plan.

In this section, we have discussed the linking of independent clauses within a sentence from the point of view of meaning. The relationship between the two units may be one of harmony or agreement, contrast, alternation or choice, and lastly consequence or inference. We have also given examples of coordinators commonly used to indicate any of these relationships.

Check Your Progress 1.

1. Name the relationship ('agreement', 'contrast', 'choice', or 'consequence') that exists between the independent clauses in each of the following sentences:

i. I have already written to him; therefore, I expect a reply soon.

.....

ii. It's a lovely evening; the moon is up; the breeze is blowing.

.....

iii. He worked very hard; nevertheless, he couldn't achieve his purpose.

.....

iv. Write a few sentences and comment on their types.

.....

v. You are not permitted to accompany us; besides, you haven't finished your homework yet.

.....

vi. They hoped to reach here by the morning express; on the contrary, they arrived by the evening passenger.

.....

vii. He was true to his word; he lent me two hundred rupees.

.....

viii. He is lazy, yet he gets the highest marks in the group.

.....

ix. You can keep this job or you can find a new one.

.....

x. This piece of land is fertile; therefore we have paid such a high price for it.

.....

2. Write five compound sentences using 'and', 'but', 'or', 'therefore', and 'consequently'. Take your cues from the examples given in the unit so far.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

3. Fill in the blanks with appropriate conjunctions:

- (i) "Come, live with me be my love", is the opening line of a famous poem by Marlowe.
- (ii) He could not catch the train, was he able to go by air:
- (iii) Either he is gifted he is too hardworking: it is difficult to say.
- (iv) He is poor, he is honest.
- (v) I have already explained everything;; it is worthwhile going over some of the points again.

37.3 CO-ORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

So far, the point has been made that words known as conjunctions often perform the function of linking simple sentences or clauses to form compound sentences. Now we'll look at the various types of these coordinating conjunctions. We can tentatively divide them into three categories:

1. conjunctions (also known as 'pure' conjunctions) such as 'and', 'but', 'or', etc.
2. correlated groups such as 'not only — but also', 'either — or', 'neither—nor', etc.
3. connective adverbs such as 'however', 'yet', etc.

Let us now look at the ways in which these coordinating conjunctions are used in sentences.

and, but, or

Take the sweets *and* share them out.

He did 'nt prepare for the examination, *but* he passed it with a respectable percentage.

You can sit with me in this room *or* you can go for a walk out on the lawn.

Note: Notice that these conjunctions always occur between the elements which they link.

not only — but (also), either — or, neither — nor

Not only did he help his neighbours morally, *but he also* accommodated them in his house for a month.

Either you have not understood my point, *or* you don't believe in me.

Neither did I ask him to see me, *nor* was he looking forward to it.

Note: Notice the subject verb inversion with the use of 'not only — but (also)' and 'neither—nor'

however, so

I have already told you the whole story; *however*, I am prepared to repeat parts of it.

I couldn't wait there for ever, *so* I decided to leave.

Note: the first example can be rewritten as follows:

I have already told you the truth; I am, *however*, prepared.....

Check Your Progress 2

1. Correct the following sentences:

- (i) He is neither friendly or dependable.

.....

- (ii) Neither it is possible nor it is desirable.

.....

- (iii) He both won a scholarship and gold medal.

.....

- (iv) Not only we met him but also his brother.

.....

- (v) Either it was his good luck or a fluke.

.....

2. Complete the following sentences:

- (i) I don't hope to do much but
-
- (ii) I will try and see you tomorrow, however,
-
- (iii) He is neither a friend.....
-
- (iv) It's not only first rate
-
- (v) Whether you agree with me or not,.....
-
- (vi) My boss is both
-
- (vii) This summer I will visit not only
-

37.4 LINKING OF UNITS SMALLER THAN CLAUSES

Coordinating conjunctions connect not only clauses but also elements smaller than clauses. The point to remember, however, is that they connect sentence elements which are usually of the same grammatical class: nouns with nouns, adjectives with adjectives, adverbs with adverbs, and phrases with phrases.

Look at the following:

Nouns: *Jack and Jill* went up the hill.
They visited *the bookshop and the exhibition*.

Verbs: You may *accept or reject* it.
You can *sing and dance and make merry*.

Adverbs: He always works *slowly but efficiently*.
Slowly and silently, now the moon
Walks the night in her silver shoon.

Prepositional phrases: They went *across the road and into the garden*.
Look *to your right and to your left* before crossing the street.

Clauses: *Who said it or why it was said* is not my concern.

Correlative conjunctions such as 'either—or' and 'neither—nor' also perform the same function. They can be used clause initially or word phrase-initially.

Examples:

- Either he should come here or he should give up the programme.
- He is either simple, or foolish, or both.
- He is neither ambitious nor lucky.

Check Your Progress 3

1. Rewrite each of the following pairs of sentences as a single sentence. Use the conjunction given in brackets. Make changes in your sentences, wherever necessary.

- (i) He has got *a telephone*
He has also got *a car*. (and)
-
- (ii) You won't do *this*
You won't do *that*. (neither—nor)
-

There can be many more examples of the deletion of the conjunction.

They laughed, they danced, they sang for joy.

- When the linked clauses have a common subject, it is omitted from all the clauses except the first.

I wrote the letter, sealed it, put it in a special cover, and sent it through a special messenger.

The hunter picked up the gun and fired at the roaring tiger.

My mother-in-law arrives tomorrow and plans to spend the rest of her life with us.

- When the clauses have a common predicate the verb appears only in the first clause.

Some people laughed loudly and others in their sleeves.

As I stood up to speak, one threw a tomato and another a rotten egg.

I play chess but my wife doesn't.

37.6 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have discussed coordination as a linking device to form compound sentences. We have also discussed the relationship of meaning between coordinate clauses within a sentence.

And lastly, we have identified some commonly used coordinating conjunctions which link clauses as well as units smaller than clauses.

We hope you will now be able to recognize a compound sentence in a written text, and use coordinating conjunctions effectively in your speech and writing.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

1. (i) consequence
(ii) agreement: general statement and explanation, or massed detail
(iii) contrast
(iv) agreement: addition
(v) agreement: addition
(vi) contrast
(vii) agreement: general statement and explanation
(viii) contrast
(ix) choice
(x) consequence.
2. Try it independently. Make sure that every sentence you write is a compound sentence consisting of two or more independent clauses.
3. (i) and
(ii) nor
(iii) or
(iv) yet
(v) however/nevertheless

Check Your Progress 2

1. (i) nor dependable.
(ii) It is neither possible nor desirable. or
Neither is it possible nor (is it) desirable.
(iii) He won both a scholarship and a gold medal.
(iv) We met not only him but also his brother.
(v) It was either his good luck or a fluke.
(The original sentence can also be treated as correct. Read it as: Either it was his good luck or (it was) a fluke).
2. (i) I promise to stand by you through thick and thin.
(ii) I may have to change my mind.

- (iii) nor an enemy.
- (iv) but also reasonably good.
- (v) I have decided to get on with the project.
- (vi) educated and cultured.
- (vii) Dehradun but also Mussorie.

Check Your Progress 3

1. (i) ...a telephone and a car.
 (ii) You'll do neither this nor that.
 (iii) He either forgot my name or pretended not to remember it.
 (iv) You may choose this course or that course.
 (v) Both my wife and I like music.
 (It is polite to put the first person singular 'I' at the end in such coordinated phrases.)
2. (i) The coordinating conjunctions are *italicized* in the following phrases and clauses: *and* precision;
 correctness
writing and speaking;
and has to be studied;
Therefore, it does require.....,
 the time *or* energy;
 business *or* exercise;
 in gossip *and* entertainment;
 tea *and* coffee;
 will suffice *and* produce results;
 pleasure *and* profit;
and become....;
 speaker *and* writer.
- (ii) nouns: correctness and precision
 verbs: will suffice and produce results
 prepositional phrases: in gossip and on entertainment.
 clauses: Grammar is difficult and has to be studied as a whole.

UNIT 38 COMPLEX SENTENCES — 1

Structure

- 38.0 Objectives
- 38.1 Introduction
- 38.2 Subordination as a Linking Device
- 38.3 Subordinating Conjunctions
- 38.4 Noun Clauses
- 38.5 Let Us Sum Up
- Answers

38.0 OBJECTIVES

With the help of this unit, you will be able to learn about

- subordination as a linking device;
- subordinating conjunctions and their uses; and
- one type of subordinate clause, namely the noun clause.

38.1 INTRODUCTION

We have already made a distinction between compound and complex sentences. A compound sentence, we have maintained, represents a linking together of two or more simple sentences or clauses of equal rank held together by a coordinating conjunction. A complex sentence, on the other hand, is one which has one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses. In other words, when a clause with a subject and predicate of its own is 'downgraded' and made to function as a noun, or an adjective, or an adverb, and is subordinated to another clause (the main clause) within the sentence, a complex sentence is formed. A complex sentence, then, contains clauses of unequal rank and function.

Remember that a complex sentence has one main clause. The other clauses are dependent clauses. A dependent clause can be subordinated to another dependent clause so that there is a hierarchy of clauses in the sentence. Let us exemplify this hierarchy of clauses. Look at the following:

1. He said that he lived in a far-off place.

In this sentence, 'He said' is the main clause and 'that he lived in a far-off place' is the dependent clause. It is a fairly elementary example of a complex sentence with only two clauses. But look at this one:

2. He said that he lived in a far-off place which was miles away from anywhere.

Here, after the main clause, there are two dependent clauses:

(i) that he lived in a far-off place

(ii) which was miles away from anywhere.

(ii) is a dependent clause and it is subordinated to and both (i) and (ii) are subordinated to 'He said', which is the main clause.

Now look at the third example:

3. He said that he lived in a far-off place which was miles away from the house which I occupied last year.

This sentence has four clauses. Look at the last clause 'which I occupied last year'. It is a relative clause modifying 'the house'. This and the relative clause preceding it, 'which was miles away from the house' together modify 'a far-off place'. Both these clauses are thus subordinated to the clause 'that he lived in a far-off place', which is a noun clause. All these three clauses as one connected group are subordinated to the main clause 'He said'. Such a clausal hierarchy is fairly common in written English. In speech, however, coordination seems to be a more commonly used linking device.

38.2 SUBORDINATION AS A LINKING DEVICE

One might ask why simple sentences are linked together at all through coordination or subordination. One reason, perhaps, is that it is not always possible, or desirable, to express one's thoughts only in simple sentences. The language provides other sentence types also, and the complexity or inter-related ideas is reflected in the complexity of sentence structure. The other reason is that linking up sentences and clauses helps us avoid repetition to a fairly large extent. It helps us to be brief and concise in the expression of our ideas and feelings.

We have seen how coordination functions as a device for linking together two or more units of equal status. Subordination should be distinguished as the linking of two units or elements by means of a subordinating conjunction. The relationship that holds between two clauses (call them X and Y, X being the main clause) in a complex sentence is such that Y is like a constituent or part of X. The dependent clause becomes a substitute for a noun or an adjective or an adverb, and performs the function of that part of speech. Thus, subordination may be seen "as the downgrading of a clause to the status of a sub-clausal unit".

Look at these sentences:

1. I told him *what he wanted to know*.
2. I told him *the truth*.
3. I told him *that*.

In (1) above, 'what he wanted to know' can be seen as a clause with a subject and a predicate and, in functional terms, as the direct object of the verb 'told'. It can be replaced by the noun phrase 'the truth' as in (2), or its equivalent pronoun 'that' in (3). To put it differently, in complex sentences clauses can be analysed both in terms of their own constituent parts and in terms of their overall function in sentence structure — those functions being subject, object, complement, etc.

The other important thing about subordination is the hierarchy of clauses within the sentence, which has been briefly discussed in 38.1.

Check Your Progress 1

1. Explain the difference between coordination and subordination.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

2. Write 'C' for coordination and 'S' for subordination against each of the following to indicate which device has been used in linking together clauses in each sentence.
 - i. I like him and he likes me.
 - ii. I like him as much as he likes me.
 - iii. I like him because he likes me.
 - iv. I like him but he doesn't like me.
 - v. I don't know if I like him.

3. Identify main and dependent clauses in the following paragraph. Write each clause separately and say what type it is.

(1) The recent killing of 13 labourers who were woken up from their sleep and shot dead is a slur on all of us. (2) We should be ashamed of the fact that we have not been able to protect those who contribute towards meeting the state's food requirements.

(3) It is our duty, who are in the majority, to protect the lives of those who are dependent on us.

(Adapted from *The Times of India*, June 4, 1990.)

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

38.3 SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

Subordinating conjunctions are formal signals or indicators of subordination of one clause to another. The indicator is contained in the subordinate rather than the main clause.

Some commonly used subordinating conjunctions are:

after

He reached *after* the meeting had ended.

The train left *after* everybody had been given a seat.

though

Though he is a good man, he is rather selfish.

or

A good man *though* he is, he is rather selfish.

because

I like him *because* he likes me.

or

Because he likes me I like him too.

before

The patient had died *before* the doctor arrived.

if

If you like, I will accompany you to the market.

or

I will accompany you to the market, *if* you like.

when

You will know the value of a refrigerator *when* you have had one of your own.

(‘When’ is almost the same as ‘once’ here.)

You will know the value of a refrigerator *once* you have had one of your own.

that

I know *that* he is in the wrong.

(It is possible to rewrite this sentence without using ‘that’.)

till

I won’t leave the house *till* you come.

unless

You won’t be successful *unless* you work really hard.

where

You can go *where* you like.

while

I was working *while* he was cooking.

In addition to these, there are some compound subordinators ending with 'that':

in that, so that, etc.

He is unfortunate *in that* he is often misunderstood.

He came here *so that* he could make your acquaintance.

Then, there are some compound subordinators which may or may not take the final 'that':

provided (that), granting (that), etc.

I will see you at ten o'clock on Monday *provided* (that) it doesn't rain.

Granting (that) you have done your best, I think you could still do a shade better.

Apart from the above, the following are some other indicators of subordination in complex sentences:

(i) *wh*- words like 'where', 'when', 'why', 'whether', 'how', etc.

Examples:

I shall come when I can.	} <i>wh</i> - words introducing adverbial clauses.
I live where no one else does.	

(ii) 'that' as a relative pronoun should be distinguished from the subordinating conjunction 'that'.

The train *that* I boarded was a special one. (relative pronoun)

He said *that* it was a special train.
(subordinating conjunction)

(iii) Subject-verb inversion also functions as a marker of subordination in conditional clauses where the verb is the auxiliary 'had', or 'should', or the main verb 'were'.

Had I known this, I wouldn't have come.

Were I to know this, I would decline the offer.

Should you ever come to a conclusion, do let me know.

Check Your Progress 2

1. Fill in the blanks using 'if', 'because', 'what', 'so that', and 'when'.

(i) He came here he wanted to see me.

(ii) I went there I could meet all the members of his family.

(iii) He asked me I would help him in his hour of need.

(iv) The time the accident took place is not known.

(v) Do you want to hear he said about you?

2. Rewrite the following sentences using subject-verb inversion in the first part and the correct form of the verb in the second part. Follow the example below:

If I had known this, I (not come).

Had I known this, I would't have come.

(i) If you had done better at the interview, you (get) the job.

.....

(ii) If you hadn't reached the station at 9.20, you (miss) even the last train.

.....

(iii) If he had been a sensitive person, he (not behave) in this manner.

.....

(iv) If I had known it earlier, I (stop) his coming into town.

.....

(v) If I had done my homework properly, I (not regret) attending the morning class.

Complete each of the following in your own way.

- (i) Granting that
I think you can still improve a lot.
 - (ii) He is a delightful companion except that
 - (iii) He doesn't make a fuss provided that
4. The following sentences contain certain errors of usage. Correct them.
- (i) Unless you do not work hard, you won't pass the test.
.....
 - (ii) Though I am quite handsome, but she refuses to marry me.
.....
 - (iii) Mohan is more industrious but not so intelligent as Ashok.
.....
 - (iv) Take care lest you do not fall.
.....

38.4 NOUN CLAUSES

We have already mentioned in Unit 36 how dependent clauses are classified and named. We have said that a dependent clause is named after the part of speech whose function it assumes in sentence structure. Therefore, a clause that approximates to the function of a noun is called a noun clause. Let us now examine the occurrence of noun clauses in complex sentences. The following are its important uses:

1. subject of a verb
Whatever he says can be easily believed.
That light travels at the speed of about 300,000 km. per second is now an established fact.
2. direct object of a verb
 He asked me *what my name was*.
 He gave me *whatever was due to me*.
 Note: A noun clause functioning as the indirect object of a verb is very uncommon and often awkward.
 He gave *whoever came to the party* whatever was available.
 Change it into a simple sentence, and it will read like this:
 He gave *every guest* a gift.
3. object of a preposition
 Your success depends upon *whether you have the will to succeed*.
4. delayed subject with introductory 'it'.
 It is true *that he is no longer my friend*.
 It is unlikely *that he will use his influence for our benefit*.
5. as a subject complement
 The fact is *that he was never fond of you*.
 The marvel is *that man has got the better of nature*.
6. object complement.
 They made him *what he had always wanted to be*.
7. in apposition to the subject
 The idea *that man is a social animal* is as old as Socrates.
 The saying *that old is gold* is not valid in present-day society.
8. in apposition to the object
 He likes the suggestion *that I should stay with him*.
 They approve of the idea *that we should form a union*.

9. object of an infinitive verb
 He came here to see *if I was all right*.
 He has the ability to hide *what he most truly feels*.

Check Your Progress 3

1. Complete the following by adding noun clauses:
 - (i) Can you tell me
 - (ii) It is unlikely
 - (iii) Can he deny the fact
 - (iv) will not change my opinion of you.
 - (v) Do you know

2. Replace the italicized words by noun clauses.
 - (i) He told me *an interesting story*.

 - (ii) *It is true*.

 - (iii) He came here to do *something*.

 - (iv) The truth is *this*.

 - (v) He is obliged to *me*.

3. Complete the following sentences:
 - (i) It is not easy to decide what
 - (ii) I cannot explain how
 - (iii) Can you find out when
 - (iv) I wasn't sure whether
 - (v) Do you remember where

4. Use 'What you like most' in sentences of your own exemplifying its function as
 - (i) subject of a verb

 - (ii) object of a verb

 - (iii) object of a preposition

 - (iv) object of infinitive verb

 - (v) subject complement

38.5 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have discussed subordination as a device for linking together dependent and independent clauses in complex sentences. We have also presented and exemplified some important subordinating conjunctions. And lastly, we have talked about important uses of the noun clause.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

1. They are devices used for linking together units of equal and unequal rank. Coordination refers to the joining of units of equal rank, whereas subordination refers to the joining of units of unequal rank. Coordination of clauses gives us a compound sentence while subordination of one or more clauses gives us a complex sentence.
2. (i) C
(ii) S
(iii) S
(iv) C
(v) S
3. (1) The recent killing of 13 labourers is a slur on all of us. (Main clause)
who were woken up from their sleep (dependent clause) and (who were) shot dead (dependent clause)
(2) We should be ashamed of the fact (Main Clause)
that we have not been able to protect those (dependent clause) who contribute requirements. (dependent clause)
(3) It is our duty to protect the lives of those (Main clause)
who are in the majority (dependent clause)
who are dependent on us (dependent clause)

Check Your Progress 2

1. (i) because
(ii) so that
(iii) if
(iv) when
(v) what
2. (i) Had you done better would have got
(ii) Had you not reached would have missed
(iii) Had he been would not have behaved.....
(iv) Had I known would have stopped
(v) Had I done would not have regretted
3. Possible answers. You may think of different ones.
(i) you have done better than before.
(ii) he is not always truthful.
(iii) he gets what he wants.
4. (i) delete 'not'
(ii) use 'yet' instead of 'but'.
(iii) Mohan is more industrious than Ashok, but not so intelligent.
(iv) you fall/you should fall.

Check Your Progress 3

1. (i) why you are always late?
(ii) that he will be found out.
(iii) that he is in serious trouble?
(iv) Whatever you say or do
(v) what has happened?
2. (i) what I wanted to know.
(ii) What you have said
(iii) what he had always wanted to (do).
(iv) that he is good for nothing.
(v) whoever has helped him.
3. (i) one needs to be happy in life.
(ii) the accident took place.
(iii) the meeting is likely to take place?
(iv) I should have gone with him.
(v) you were born?

4. (i) is not easily available.
(ii) I don't know
(iii) Your selection of a gift will depend upon
(iv) It'll be difficult for you to say
(v) This is

UNIT 39 COMPLEX SENTENCES — 2

Structure

- 39.0 Objectives
- 39.1 Introduction
- 39.2 The Defining Relative Clause
- 39.3 The Non-defining Relative Clause
- 39.4 The Sentential Relative Clause
- 39.5 Let Us Sum Up
- Answers

39.0 OBJECTIVES

With the help of this unit, you will be able to learn about

- relative clauses — defining, non-defining, and sentential, and
- the relative pronouns used to introduce these clauses in complex sentences.

39.1 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 36 we classified the dependent clauses occurring in complex sentences into three categories:

1. Noun clause
2. Adjective clause
3. Adverb clause

The point that we have made about these clauses is that each of these clause types performs the function of the part of speech whose role it takes in sentence structure. An *adjective clause*, also known as the relative clause, functions like an adjective. It modifies a noun or a pronoun, which is called its *antecedent*.

1. He owns a *big* house.
2. He owns a house *that is big enough to hold a very large family*.

The italicized part in sentence (2) has the same function as the adjective 'big' in sentence (1). It modifies the noun phrase 'a house', which is its antecedent. Compare the following sentences:

1. Yesterday I saw a very *old* man.
2. Yesterday I saw a man *who was very old*.

OR

1. He told me a *funny* story.
2. He told me a story *which was very funny*.

There are two ways in which the italicized part of sentence (2) in each pair can be looked at. One is to treat it as a dependent clause in that it contains the elements of a clause — subject (in our examples the relative pronouns 'who', 'which', 'that') and a finite verb, and each is subordinated to the main clause. The other is to treat the dependent clause as an integral part of the noun phrase, functioning as object of the verb 'owns', 'saw', or 'told'. We can analyse one of the sentences like this:

<i>Yesterday</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>saw</i>	<i>a man who was very old.</i>
adjunct	subject	verb	object

The object is a noun phrase containing three elements:

- (i) pre-modifier (*a*)
- (ii) head-word (*man*)
- (iii) post-modifier (*who was very old*)

The post-modifying element happens to be a clause. In Block 7, Units 32-33, you have studied pre- and post-modification in noun phrases in great detail. It should, therefore, not be difficult for you to recognise clausal elements functioning as post-modifiers in complex noun phrases. Just to recapitulate, remember that in a complex noun phrase the elements that precede the head-word are usually determiners and adjectives:

a girl
the girl
the pretty girl

and the elements that come after the head-word are prepositional phrases, participial phrases (sometimes called non-finite clauses), and relative clauses.

the girl in the room
the girl sitting in the room
the girl who was sitting in the room.

For our purposes, in this unit, we shall maintain that in a complex sentence a dependent clause doing the work of an adjective is a relative clause, and it is introduced by a relative pronoun, 'that', 'who', 'which', or a relative adverb, 'when', 'where'.

39.2 THE DEFINING RELATIVE CLAUSE

Read the following:

A doctor is a person *who cures patients.*
The teacher is a person *who educates boys and girls.*
A carpenter is a person *who makes furniture.*

If the italicized parts of these sentences are omitted, what we learn about a doctor, a teacher and a carpenter is that each of them is a person. Such an explanation, though grammatically correct, will be found unsatisfactory by all. In order to make our definitions of a doctor, a teacher and a carpenter meaningful we need to say more about them than that they are persons. In other words, we should define 'the person'.

A doctor is a person *who cures patients.*

Here the word 'person' has been defined in relation to the doctor and thus distinguished from 'teacher' or 'carpenter'. This defining has been done by the clause 'who cures patients' in our example. It is a defining relative clause modifying the noun phrase 'a person'. The relative clause is an essential part of all such definitions, and cannot be dropped if the sentence as a whole is to remain meaningful.

At the same time, you should not get the impression that a defining relative clause is used only in definitions.

Read the following:

The man *who came to my house yesterday evening* is a musician.
The book *that you lent me* is very exciting.

These are not definitions of 'man' or 'book'. The relative clause in each of these cases provides specific information about its antecedent without which the sentences will not be quite meaningful.

The man is a musician. (Who?)
The book is very exciting. (Which?)

The defining relative clauses tell us something more about 'the man' and the 'book', and thus answer the questions, *who?* and *which?* about them.

Thus, the defining relative clause gives specific information about its antecedent. It is introduced by a relative pronoun — 'that', 'who', or 'which'.

Examples:

The thing *that I like most* is walking alone in the evening.
The boy *who was here a minute ago* is a student of mine.
The man *who is knocking at the door* is a relative of mine.
The book *that you gave me yesterday* is very interesting.

'That' is generally independent of the personal or non-personal character of the

antecedent. 'Who' is used for persons and 'which' for inanimate objects and things. 'That' and 'which' are used almost interchangeably to introduce defining relative clauses. However, the following points should be kept in mind:

'That' is normally preferred to 'which' when the antecedent is

- (i) an indefinite pronoun:
I promise to do *all* that I can to help you.
- (ii) modified by a superlative:
That's *the silliest book* that was ever published.
- (iii) qualified by an ordinal:
The first thing that comes to my mind is how to catch him.

Now look at the following:

- The thing (that) I like most is walking alone at night.
- The book (that) you gave me is boring.

Notice that the use of the relative pronoun is optional in these sentences. The relative pronoun can be omitted when it is *not* the subject of the relative clause.

Compare these sentences:

1. The man whom I accidentally met yesterday is an old friend.
2. The man who came to me yesterday is an old friend.

In sentence (1) 'whom' is not the subject of the relative clause. We can therefore omit it.
The man I accidentally met

In sentence (2) 'who' is the subject of the relative clause. Omit it, and you get an ungrammatical sentence:
*The man came to me yesterday is an old friend.

Check Your Progress 1

1. Define each of the following in your own way. Wherever possible, give an unconventional definition, but use the same structure as in the example.

(a doctor

A doctor is a person who cures patients.

or

A doctor is a person who is at his best when the patient is at his worst.)

an ornithologist

.....
.....

a writer

.....
.....

a musician

.....
.....

an actor

.....
.....

an agnostic

.....
.....

an optimist

.....
.....

a barber

a gardener

2. Fill in the blanks using 'who', 'which' or 'that':

- (i) You are telling me something I can't believe.
- (ii) Teacher generally like students are punctual and hardworking.
- (iii) The first thing you should attempt is self-control.
- (iv) The gentleman is coming to see us is on a short visit to Delhi.
- (v) The policy the government has adopted will surely create employment.
- (vi) This is the funniest story was ever written.
- (vii) I have a neighbour is always fighting with her husband.
- (viii) The film I saw last night on TV was a detective one.

3. Join each pair into a single sentence using a relative pronoun in place of the word italicized.

- (i) The aunt is my mother's youngest sister. *She* came to see us last month.
.....
.....
- (ii) This area doesn't have the kind of house. I want to live in *it*.
.....
.....
- (iii) Can I ever ignore a friend?
He has been so kind to me.
.....
.....
- (iv) Say something.
It would make everyone laugh.
.....
.....
- (v) The bat will fetch thousands at the auction.
It was used by the star cricketer.
.....
.....
- (vi) Show me a rider.
He has never fallen off his horse.
.....
.....
- (vii) Here is a little something.
You should accept *it* as a gift.
.....
.....

- (viii) Why do you dislike the man?
He is your only friend.

Complete the following by adding suitable relative clauses.

You may or may not use the relative pronoun.

- (i) Is that all?
.....?
- (ii) Do you like the examples?
.....?
- (iii) A poet likes anyone
.....
- (iv) Did you post the letter?
.....?
- (v) I have yet to find someone?
.....?

Rewrite each pair as a single sentence, changing the second sentence in the pair into a relative clause modifying the italicized noun phrase in the first sentence.

- (i) One of the things is to save time.
The computer can do it.
.....
.....
- (ii) The number of problems is mind-boggling.
One faces the problems these days.
.....
.....
- (iii) The storm caused plenty of damage.
It swept across Delhi last night
.....
.....
- (iv) I happen to know the person
He is fit for this job.
.....
.....
- (v) Fundamentalism is an important issue.
It is the primary concern of all political parties these days.
.....
.....

39.3 THE NON-DEFINING RELATIVE CLAUSE

Read the following sentences:

- (i) Mahatama Gandhi who was a lawyer by profession spent several years in South Africa.
- (ii) My wife who works in an embassy, speaks Arabic as her first language.
- (iii) The Calcutta Metro, which was opened a few years ago. Is India's first underground network of trains.

Even if we omit the relative clauses in each of the above examples, we shall still be left with complete, meaningful statements.

- Mahatma Gandhi spent several years in South Africa.
- My wife speaks Arabic as her first language.
- The Calcutta Metro is India's first underground network of trains.

What are the relative clauses doing in these examples, if they are not defining or specifying their antecedents? Unlike defining relative clauses, they can be omitted without change or loss of meaning. Very appropriately, therefore, they are called *non-defining relative clauses*.

Usually there is a comma before a non-defining relative clause, and also at the end of it if it comes in the middle of the sentence.

In what sense does a non-defining relative clause give *additional* information about its antecedent? Look at this sentence again:

My wife, who works in an embassy, speaks Arabic as her first language.

Here the clause 'who works in an embassy' does not 'define' the noun 'wife', because I have only one wife. It only gives additional information about her. So 'who works in an embassy' is a non-defining relative clause. Notice a comma before and after the clause.

Compare these two sentences:

- (i) I have a brother who lives in Karachi.
- (ii) I have a brother, who teaches Physics at a college

The absence of a comma after brother in sentence (i) implies that I have more than one brother, and that one of them is being particularly referred to here — the one who lives in Karachi.

A comma after 'brother' in sentence (ii) implies that I have only one brother. If you wish to know more about him, I can tell you that he teaches Physics at a college. Sentence (i) has a defining relative clause, while sentence (ii) has a non-defining one.

The choice of a relative pronoun introducing non-defining relative clauses is restricted practically to 'who' and 'which' as subject:

Here is a letter from Alok, who wants to do a course at IGNOU.

He lost his way in Old Delhi, which is known for its blind alleys.

and to 'whom' and 'which' as object of verb or preposition:

Here is a letter from Alok, whom you have met once.

He lost his way in Old Delhi, which he was visiting for the first time.

It is not possible to omit the relative pronoun from non-defining relative clauses.

Here is a letter from Alok, who wants to do a course at IGNOU.

* Here is a letter from Alok, wants to do a course at IGNOU.

Here is a letter from Alok, whom you have met once.

* Here is a letter from Alok, you have met once.

Check Your Progress 2

1. Join each pair as a single sentence, changing the second sentence in each pair into a non-defining relative clause.

- (i) Dom Moraes published his first book of poems at the age of 20.
It is entitled "A Beginning".
.....
.....

- (ii) His latest book is also a collection of poems entitled "Serendip".
It appeared this year.
.....
.....

- (iii) Foreign tourists have many complimentary things to say about our dance and music.

They are interested in cultural programmes.

(iv) This year's mango crop has been rather disappointing.
I looked promising in the beginning.

(v) Doordarshan now has over 300 relay stations.
They form part of the national network.

(vi) Some Indian scientists live in foreign countries.
They are very well known for their skill and expertise.

(vii) The engineers' strike has now been called off. It disrupted important work
for a number of weeks.

Rewrite the following sentences, adding non-defining relative clauses relating to the italicized words. Use the clues given in brackets against each sentence.

Example: *My neighbour* was once a keen social worker. (retired and lonely)

My neighbour, who is now retired and lonely, was once a keen social worker.

or

....., who now leads a retired and lonely life.

(i) *My health* doesn't permit me to play lawn tennis any more. (indifferent health)

(ii) This year's *cyclone* damaged property worth crores of rupees. (fierce and sudden)

(iii) *Rex Harrison* passed away in June, 1990.
(famous role as Professor Higgins in 'My Fair Lady')

(iv) *Trams* are still used in Calcutta.
(do not run in Delhi now)

(v) Last week's *meeting* failed to finalise any common plan of action. (all the political groups attended)

(vi) *Joseph Conrad* wrote all his novels in English. (first language Polish)

(vii) *G.B. Shaw* died in 1950 (famous Irish playwright)

.....

.....

(viii) The *Prime Minister* held a press conference at the airport. (Reporters besieged him on his return)

.....

.....

3. Complete the following, using non-defining relative clauses:

- (i) Few people were able to follow the speaker,
-
- (ii) We didn't like his behaviour,
- (iii) His latest book,, is likely to sell very well.
- (iv) Spring flowers,, are everybody's delight.
- (v) His father,, has now offered him a partnership.

39.4 THE SENTENTIAL RELATIVE CLAUSE

So far we have made the point that a relative clause, whether defining or non-defining, can be treated either as a clause type or as part of a complex noun phrase, and it has a noun or a pronoun as its antecedent. We shall now look at a different type of relative clause which does not have a noun or pronoun as its antecedent. It is called a sentential relative clause. It refers back to a whole clause or sentence, or even to a whole series of events.

After that things changed remarkably, *which surprised everyone*.

He likes me but not my friends, *which saddens me*.

The italicized parts of the sentences above are sentential relative clauses. In these cases, that which causes surprise or sadness, the antecedent, is the whole of the event described in the main clause. It is also possible to have a number of events referred to by a sentential relative clause. Retell Kipling's story, 'How the Elephant Got His Trunk' step by step and at the end wind it up by saying:

'which is how the elephant got his trunk.

'which' here does not refer to a single noun or pronoun, nor to an isolated event, but to the entire sequence of events narrated.

A sentential relative clause always comes at the end of the sentence or clause to which it relates. In terms of meaning, it is a comment on what has preceded it, but structurally it is relative because it is generally introduced by 'which'. It also has, as antecedent, a clause or a group of clauses. A sentential relative clause is fairly common in both speech and writing. It forms a close parallel to a coordinate clause. Compare the following pairs:

- (i) He is not available on the phone, *which makes it very difficult for us to contact him*.
He is not available on the phone, *and that makes it*
- (ii) He like me but not my friends, *which saddens me*.
He likes me but not my friends, *and this*
- (iii) He wouldn't lend me the books, *which made me very angry*.
He wouldn't lend me the books, *and that made*
- (iv) He gave up school, *which was a disappointment to his parents*.
He gave up school, *and that was*

39.5 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have discussed relative clauses — defining, non-defining, and sentential, and have tried to show how they are used in complex sentences. If you can now

recognise relative clauses in a written text and use them in your own speech and writing. the purpose of this unit will have been served.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

1. Possible answers:

An ornithologist is a person who specialises in the study of birds.

or

An ornithologist is a person whose ambition in life is to resemble late Mr Salim Ali.

A writer is a person who writes short stories, plays, poems, articles, etc. to make a living.

A musician is a person who is trained to sing or play a musical instrument.

An actor is a person who is always trying to look like someone else.

An agnostic is a person who is doubtful about the existence of God.

An optimist is a person who always hopes for the better.

A barber is a person who would starve if everybody decided to grow long hair and a beard.

A gardener is a person who looks upon plants, trees and flowers as members of his own family.

2. (i) that/which
(ii) who
(iii) that
(iv) who
(v) that/which
(vi) that
(vii) who
(viii) that

3. (i) The aunt who came to see us last month is
(ii) This area doesn't that I want to live in.
(iii) Can I who has been?
(iv) Say something that would
(v) The bat which was used will fetch.....
(vi) Show me a rider who has
(vii) Here..... that you should accept.....
(viii) Why who is your.....?

4. (i) you were expected to do?
(ii) that I give to illustrate my points?
(iii) who is willing to listen to his poems.
(iv) I gave you this morning?
(v) who is absolutely at peace with himself.

5. (i) One of the things the computer can do is to.....
(ii) The number of problems one faces these days is
(iii) The storm that swept..... caused.....
(iv) I happen..... who is
(v) Fundamentalism issue which is.....

Check Your Progress 2

1. (i) his first book of poems, which is entitled *A Beginning*,.....
(ii) book, which appeared this year,
(iii) tourists, who are programmes,
(iv) crop, which looked beginning,
(v) relay stations, which form,
(vi) scientists, who expertise,
(vii) strike, which weeks,.....

2. (i) My health, which has lately been indifferent,
- (ii) cyclone, which was fierce and sudden,
- (iii) Rex Harrison, who became famous for his role as Professor Higgins in 'My Fair Lady'
- (iv) Trams, which do not run in Delhi now,
- (v) meeting, which was attended by all the political groups,
- (vi) Joseph Conrad, who spoke Polish as his first language.
- (vii) G.B. Shaw, who was a famous Irish playwright,
- (viii) The Prime Minister, who was besieged by reporters on his return,
3. (i), who spoke very fast.
- (ii), which we found rather snobbish.
- (iii), which is about environment,
- (iv), which have a beauty of their own,
- (v), who owns a big business house,

UNIT 40 COMPLEX SENTENCES — 3

Structure

- 40.0 Objectives
- 40.1 Introduction
- 40.2 Classification of Adverbial Clauses
 - 40.2.1 Time
 - 40.2.2 Place
 - 40.2.3 Purpose and Result
 - 40.2.4 Reason
 - 40.2.5 Condition
 - 40.2.6 Concession and Contrast
 - 40.2.7 Manner
 - 40.2.8 Comparison
- 40.3 Let Us Sum Up
- Answers

40.0 OBJECTIVES

In this unit we shall discuss another type of subordinate clause — the adverbial clause. We shall look at different kinds of adverbial clauses primarily from the point of view of the meaning relationships that they bear in a sentence, i.e. relationships with regard to time, place, purpose and result, reason, condition, concession and contrast, and manner and comparison.

After you have read this unit and completed the exercises, you will be able to understand the various functions of adverbial clauses. You will also be able to use them correctly in your writing.

40.1 INTRODUCTION

In Units 38 & 39 we discussed noun clauses and adjective clauses. In this unit, we shall look at adverbial clauses.

As we said in Unit 36, an adverbial clause broadly fulfils the same function in a sentence as an adverb or an adverbial phrase. For example, *time* may be expressed as follows:

Ravi left *early*. (adverb)

Ravi left *after lunch*. (prepositional phrase)

Ravi left soon after he had finished his lunch. (adverbial clause)

Again, adverbial clauses, like adverbials in general, are capable of occurring in the initial, medial, and final positions (although in the medial position they are rare). In other words, they can precede or follow the main clause.

Examples:

In the initial position:

Yesterday, I met Adesh. (adverb)

As soon as I entered the room, I saw Adesh. (adverbial clause).

In the final position:

They went *out*. (adverb)

They went *wherever they could find work*. (adverbial clause)

In the medial position:

My mother, *once all of us had arrived*, was able to relax.

40.2 CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

In this unit we have classified adverbial clauses on the basis of the meaning relationships they bear in a sentence (e.g. time, place, reason, and so on). You will notice in the course of the unit that some subordinators appear under more than one category.

40.2.1 Time

Adverbial clauses of time are introduced by subordinators such as *after, as, before, immediately, once, since, till, until, when, whenever, while, now (that), as/so long as, as soon as*. They answer the question *when?* and can occur in the *front, mid* and *end* positions.

Look at some of the examples given below:

As he grew older, he became more childlike.

He walked in the park, till it was dark.

He looked after my dog while I was on vacation.

All suggestions, whenever they are received, are dealt with promptly.

Check Your Progress 1

Fill in the blanks with the clauses given below:

When I saw you last; once they saw the mood I was in; once you make a promise; as long as he has strength; while I was asleep; as soon as you reach the station; till he arrived;

1. Buy your ticket
2. you lived in Delhi.
3. My family,, left me completely alone.
4., I dreamed about you.
5., you should keep it.
6. He'll continue working
7. We knew that nothing could be done

40.2.2 Place

Adverbial clauses of place are introduced mainly by *where* or *wherever*. These clauses can indicate both position at a place and movement to a place.

Examples:

There was a lot of blood *where the crash occurred*. (position)

The banjaras went *wherever they could find work*. (to any place where.....)

You must also note that *where* refers to a specific place, while *wherever* generally refers to a nonspecific one.

Check Your Progress 2

Make 2 sentences each, using *where* and *wherever*.

.....

.....

.....

.....

40.2.3 Purpose and Result

The subordinators used to indicate purpose include *so that, in order that, in case, for fear that*.

The subordinators used to indicate result include *so/such.... that*

Examples:

He bought a bigger house *so that he could have more space for his animals* (purpose)

We ate *so much food that* we burst. (result)

In *result* clauses, *so* and *that* can be separated (*so* + adjective/adverb in the main clause, and *that* introducing the subordinate clause).

Example:

It rained *so hard* yesterday *that* hundreds of trees were uprooted.

With nouns the pattern is *such* noun + *that*.

Example:

It was *such* a good book *that* I couldn't put it down.

Check Your Progress 3

Combine the following pairs of sentences, using *so* *that* or *such* *that*.

1. It was a boring film. I fell asleep in the middle of it.

.....

2. I was very excited about going away. I couldn't sleep.

.....

3. The road is very narrow. It is difficult for two cars to pass each other.

.....

4. She speaks Hindi very well. You would think it was her mother tongue.

.....

5. She's a very good singer. Everybody wants her in their films.

.....

6. We had a very good time in Kashmir. We felt sad at leaving the place.

.....

7. He is very poor in biology. He can't do well in medicine.

.....

40.2.4 Reason

The adverbial clause of reason answers the question *why?* in relation to the situation described in the main clause. Generally, we use the subordinators *because*, *as*, or *since* to form adverbial clauses of reason. The clause with *as* and *since* are usually put at the beginning of a sentence. As you are already aware, these subordinators also occur with clauses of time. Some examples of clauses of reason:

1. *As he left no will*, there were bound to be lawsuits.

2. Some years ago people were afraid to go to the Andamans *because it was a penal settlement*.

Check Your Progress 4

1. Complete the sentences below by adding adverbial clauses of reason. The first one is done for you.

As we hadn't any money, we couldn't buy anything to eat.

.....

1. The flowers are growing so well.....

2. I won't be able to go to office tomorrow.

3. the game will be held as planned.

4. I was late for class, ...

5. I'm sure you'll help me.....

2. Make sentences, using *as* and *since* in adverbial clauses of time and reason.

.....

40.2.5 Condition

Adverbial clauses of condition are introduced mainly by the subordinators *if* (positive condition) and *unless* (negative condition).

Other subordinators include *provided (that)*, *providing (that)*, *on condition that*, *suppose*, *supposing that*, *as/so long as*.

Examples:

If I was offered the job, I think I would take it.

Unless the strike is called off, there will be no buses tomorrow.

You can buy a Picasso, *provided you have the money*.

I can lend you the money, *on condition that you return it within a month*.

The clauses italicized in the above sentences state the condition that must be fulfilled before the statement in the main clause becomes true. Hence, these clauses are called *conditional clauses*.

Conditional clauses are of several types. They have different verb patterns to convey different meanings. For example,

If I go to Bombay, I shall see my brother.

Here, we are talking about a possible event which will take place in the future, if a certain condition is met.

The pattern of the verb forms is:

If + simple present..... (conditional clause),
 simple future (main clause).

Take another sentence:

If I had gone to Bombay, I would have seen my brother.

Here, we are talking about an event which did not take place, because a certain condition was not fulfilled.

The pattern of the verb forms here is:

If + past perfect..... (conditional clause),
would have + past participle (main clause).

Now, look at this sentence;

If I had wings, I would fly.

Here we are talking about an event which can take place only if a certain condition, which is very improbable, is fulfilled.

The pattern of the verb forms is:

If + simple past (conditional clause),
would + simple (infinitive) form of verb (main clause).

Check Your Progress 5

1. Complete the following sentences by inserting the correct verb phrases, using the verbs given in brackets.

1. Many people would be out of work if that factory..... (close) down.
2. If I was offered the job, I think I..... (take) it.
3. If she sold her house now, she (not get) much money for it.
4. I (not buy) the coat if I were you.

5. If Ravi (miss) the train, he would have been late for his interview.
 6. I'd have sent you a postcard while I was on holiday if I (have) your address.
 7. If I (have) the money, I would have bought a car this year.
 8. If you (not tell) me, I'll be disappointed.
2. Complete the sentences below by adding subordinate clauses to the main clauses. You may use subordinators *if, unless, provided (that)*.
1., we shall have a good crop this year.
 2. You could buy one,
 3., they will die.

40.2.6 Concession and Contrast

Look at the sentences below:

1. *Although it rained a lot*, we enjoyed our holiday.
2. *Whereas Radha seems stupid*, her brother is clever.

In the sentences above, a strong contrast is expressed between the idea in the main clause, and the idea in the adverbial clause. In other words, the idea expressed in the main clause is surprising in the light of the dependent clause. These clauses are called adverbial clauses of *concession* or *concessive clauses*. The subordinators which introduce these clauses are : *although, though, while, whilst, whereas, even though, even if, no matter*.

The first one is done for you.

A	B
1. Although I had never seen him before,	1. I could not get any sleep.
2. I was really tired,	2. you will enjoy this concert.
3. you dislike music,	3. I found his work impressive.
4. I do not really like modern art,	4. I recognized him from the photographs.
5. how angry you are,	5. you can't do what you like.
6. he was in a no-parking area,	6. many artists die in poverty and obscurity.
7. He was rich and famous in his lifetime,	7. he got out and left the car.

40.2.7 Manner

Adverbial clauses of manner are introduced by *as, as if, (in) the way*. They roughly answer the question 'how', 'in what way?' As a rule these clauses follow the main clauses, although in a few cases they also precede the main clauses. Let's look at some examples.

- He lived life *as only he could*.
- As he had wished*, his property went to the nation.
- He rides a horse *as if he were made of wood*.
- Please read the poem *(in) the way I shall now demonstrate*.

Check Your Progress 7

Taking your cue from the examples given above, make sentences with *as, as if, (in) the way*.

.....

.....

40.2.8 Comparison

Clauses of comparison compare two or more people or things for equality or inequality. They generally use correlatives (e.g., *as rich as*), as they need a comparison element in the main clause. Clauses of comparison follow the main clauses, and the patterns are as follows:

Adj/Adv + *er* *than* *more* Adj/Adv *than*

<i>less</i> Adj/Adv	<i>than</i>	<i>more</i> N	<i>than</i>
<i>as</i> Adj/Adv	<i>as</i>	<i>fewer</i> countable N	<i>than</i>
<i>not/so/as</i> Adj/Adv	<i>as</i>	<i>less</i> uncountable N	<i>than</i>

Examples:

He runs *faster than* I do.

I can't run *as fast as* he can.

She makes *more* money in a week *than* I make in a month.

In clauses of comparison, the auxiliary verb from the main clause (or the appropriate form of *do*) may either be repeated or left out, as you wish. If it is left out, the style is more colloquial; if it is left in, it is more formal.

Examples:

She *is* taller than her brother (*is*).

Ravi drove more carefully than Sunita (*did*).

Check Your Progress 8

Fill in the blanks with the following. These items may occur more than once.

more.....than; fewer..... than; as.....as; faster. than; less..... than.

A computer can work..... a human being (can). It also makes..... mistakes..... a man (does). But no machine is ingenious the human brain (is).

A computer has keys a typewriter. But a typewriter costs money a computer. Working with a computer is interesting working with a typewriter.

40.3 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have introduced you to adverbial clauses. We have looked at these clauses mainly from the point of view of the meaning relations that they bear in a sentence, i.e. with reference to time, place, reason, purpose, and so on.

We give below an overview of the subordinators and the type of adverbial clause that they introduce.

Subordinators	Type of adverb clause
after, as soon as, before, since, when, whenever, while, until/till	Time
where, wherever	Place
so that, in order that, in case	Purpose
so that, so/such.....that	Result
as, because, since	Reason
if, unless	Condition
although/though, whereas, while, even if, no matter	Contrast
as, as if, (in) the way	Manner

ANSWERS**Check Your Progress 1**

- as soon as you reach the station.
- When I saw you last
-, once they saw the mood I was in,
- While I was asleep,
- Once you make a promise,

Notes