A MODERN APPROACH TO ENGLISH GRAMMAR AN INTRODUCTION TO SYSTEMIC GRAMMAR

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CLAUSE AND SENTENCE

DEFINING THE SENTENCE

- There has been considerable debate surrounding the definition of the term ‘sentence’.
- There are well over two hundred definitions of the unit sentence. These fall into various groups or types of definition; each group usually adds to, or contradicts, the others.
- Two things are immediately obvious from this: i) grammarians are unanimous in recognizing the sentence, but ii) the definition of this unit is very difficult.
- Many attempts at definition were found to be unsatisfactory or inadequate because they relied solely on meaning, and attempted to delimit the sentence as being
  ‘a complete thought/meaning/idea’, or even ‘the number of ideas that can be grasped in their relation in one act of attention’. But the necessary pre-definition of ‘thought/ idea’ and so on (whether or not ‘complete’) makes such definitions unworkable.

DEFINING THE SENTENCE

- A second major approach attempts to delimit the sentence by reference to its constituent elements.
  In this type of definition, we are told that the 'secret' of the sentence is to 'name some object or place or person or thing' and then to 'say something about that object or place or person or thing'. Such definitions usually say that we need a subject and a predicator to make a sentence. This means that most commands, exclamations and requests would not be considered sentences.
- The problem with these definitions is that they do not provide reliable criteria for grammatical description.
- There are obvious correlations between many of the definitions and occurring English sentence types. There is good reason for the recurring insistence on completeness, but it is not necessarily a 'thought/idea' that is complete.

DEFINING THE SENTENCE

- There is also good reason for trying to find a universal semantic component in sentences; sentence is typically the unit with which English works in contexts of situation: each language will have such a unit and perhaps this may be called sentence; but the grammatical description of sentence will be redefined for each language.
- The sentence can be described contextually (in terms of meaning), grammatically (in terms of form), phonologically (in terms of intonation) or orthographically (in terms of punctuation). But these are different descriptions, and only after describing these separate levels should we describe their interrelations.
- The orthographic definition is frequently used; **a sentence is defined as a stretch of language which begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark.** This is, in fact, a valid working identification of a sentence, and even many of those who advocate a theoretical definition of sentence work with this definition in practice.

DEFINING THE SENTENCE

- There are also certain correlations in the spoken language with grammatical sentences, certain stress patterns, intonation contours and breaks. Again, this is a fair working guide, but the correlations are not always realised in practice, and it is very often impossible to tell what grammatical division is indicated by intonation patterns.
- The completeness of the sentence has been increasingly recognized as formal completeness. Most linguists have tended to follow Bloomfield's definition:
- **'. . . an independent linguistic form [unit] not included by virtue of any grammatical construction in any longer linguistic form [unit].'**
- This definition does not seem inadequate, and for the present model of grammar may perhaps be paraphrased 'A sentence is that unit which does not operate in the structure of any higher (grammatical) unit.'

DEFINING THE SENTENCE

- **Why is it difficult to define a sentence?**

- The whole difficulty of defining the sentence stems from the fact that it is the highest unit on the rank scale. Other units are identified and defined by their operation at elements of structure in the unit next above; thus, a group is that unit which operates in clause structure, morpheme is that unit which operates in word structure, and so on. But, in the case of sentence, there is no higher grammatical unit, so that sentence cannot be defined syntactically.
- We cannot, therefore, classify sentences according to their operation in the structure of the unit next above; the classification must be effected in a different way from the classification of other units.
  The most obvious way is by morphology; we have taken as a principle that morphology is subsidiary to syntax in grammatical classification, but in the case of sentence there is no syntax.

DEFINING THE SENTENCE

- It seems important to stress that the morphology of the sentence is not the morphology of the clause; numerous grammars talk of the subject (etc.) of the sentence, and exemplify with simple (i.e. one-clause) sentences. But compound sentences may contain a number of clauses, and therefore a number of subjects (etc.), no one of which can be called the subject of the sentence, S, P, C, A are elements of clause structure: it is complete clauses which operate at elements of sentence structure.
- Classification in terms of morphology will yield a primary division into **simple sentences** (containing one clause) and **compound sentences** (containing more than one clause).
- Compound sentences may contain a succession of independent clauses, or may contain an independent and a dependent clause, or may contain a number of independent and a number of dependent clauses. We can name these **compound**, **complex**, and **compound-complex**, respectively.

TYPES OF SENTENCES

Sentence

Simple
one independent clause except in answers, which may have one dependent clause.

Compound
one independent clause plus one or more independent clauses and/or more dependent clauses.
Ind + Ind (Ind ...) (Dep ...) or
Ind + Dep (Ind ...) (Dep ...)

TYPES OF SENTENCES

Simple	• One constituent clause.
Compound	• More than one Ind clause.
Complex	• One Ind and one Dep clause or more.
Compound-complex	• More than one Ind and Dep clause.

TYPES OF SENTENCES

- It is also usual to classify sentences contextually into **statement**, **question** and **command**. There are certain correlations between these contextual classes and punctuation marks:
  . statement
  ? question
  ! command/exclamation

  and with certain intonation contours. They also correlate to a considerable extent with types of response, in that statement is often accompanied by 'continuation signals', command is often followed by action response, and question by oral response or action response.
- It is also true that in the case of the simple sentence, there are correlations with clause classes to a large extent:
  statement declarative
  question interrogative
  command imperative.

TYPES OF SENTENCES

- But the correlations are not one-to-one; there are sentences realised by a declarative clause which may be contextually classified as commands, and so on; in particular minor (and therefore moodless) clauses can usually be assigned to a contextual class of sentence.
- Since the simple sentence is by definition coterminous with the one constituent clause there is little more to say about its structure. Compound sentences consist of more than one clause, and this raises an immediate question of contextual class: Which clause determines the contextual class of the sentences?
- -I came and I saw and I conquered
  -Do this or do that
  -Will you stay here or will you go to Canada?
  The linker and conjoins like items, and therefore, the contextual class of any of the clauses (considered as a simple sentence) will be the contextual class of the sentence.

TYPES OF SENTENCES

- Thus:
  -I came and I saw and I conquered (statement)
  -Do this or do that (command)
  -Will you stay here or will you go away? (question)
- However, in sentences where both independent and dependent clauses are involved. It is only the independent clauses which affect the contextual class of sentence.
- -Tell him to come home when the game's over.
- If we alter the first sentence to Will you tell him to come home when the game's over? the contextual class changes from command to question. If we alter the dependent clause, this does not change the contextual class of sentence:
  Tell him to come home when the game's over (command)
  Tell him to come home if he’s finished (command)

TYPES OF SENTENCES

- There are two elements of sentence structure, one of which is obligatory.
  The obligatory element is distinguished by two criteria:
  i) it can stand alone as a simple sentence;
  ii) it decides the contextual class of the sentence.
- The obligatory element of structure is called alpha (**α**) and the optional element of structure is called beta (**β**).

Examples:

- When he comes, tell him to eat his lunch — structure: **βα**
- He'll be in tomorrow, if he’s free — structure: **αβ**
- I didn't come because he told me — structure: **αβ**
- Harry, who had never been before, didn't know — structure: **α«β»**

INDEPENDENT & DEPENDENT CLAUSES

- It is obvious that independent clauses operate at **α** and dependent clauses at **β**; and that the possible sequence or inclusion of elements of sentence structure is for conditioning dependent clauses, additioning dependent clauses, and reported dependent clauses.

Thus, if we symbolize, **β1** = **conditioning**, **β2** = **additioning**, **β3** = **reported**.

❖ **β1** may precede, follow, or be included in **α** :

-When in doubt, shout out. structure: **β1α**

-Shout out when in doubt. structure: **αβ1**

-John, if you ask him nicely, will help. structure: **α«β1 »**

-If you ask him nicely, John will help. structure: **β1α**

-John will help, if you ask him nicely. structure: **αβ1**

INDEPENDENT & DEPENDENT CLAUSES

❖ **β2** may follow or be included in **α**; it may not precede **α** :

-My uncle, who is a sailor, brings presents home. structure: **α«β2»**

-Central Africa, which is very hot, is not for me. structure: **α«β2»**

-I like summer, when the days are long. structure: **αβ2**

-I went to Aberdeen, which is in the North. structure: **αβ2**

❖ **β3** with an introductory adjunct cannot precede **α**; it may precede **α** if it does not have an introductory adjunct; it cannot be included in **α** :

-She said that she would come. structure: **αβ3**

-She said she would come. structure: **αβ3**

-She would come, she said. structure: **β3α**

INDEPENDENT & DEPENDENT CLAUSES

The sentences so far considered have all been two-clause sentences. If we consider sentences with more than two clauses, such as:

(i) I stayed in and read a book because I had nowhere to go and no one to see.

(ii) If Tom comes and I'm not back, tell him to wait.

Sentence (i) contains four clauses, independent + independent + dependent + dependent. But the structure of the sentence is not merely a concatenation of clauses. The two independent clauses are linked by (and) and by the omission of S in the second. What we have is one **α** element consisting of two clauses.

Ind & Ind
I stayed in and read a book structure: **α** (Ind & Ind)

The two dependent clauses are also linked, and there is omission of the binding adverbial group and S in the second.

Dep & Dep
because I had nothing else to do and no one to see structure: **β** (Dep & Dep)

INDEPENDENT & DEPENDENT CLAUSES

Linkage (**coordination**) poses two questions for the analyst: what items are linked? What is the structural status of the linker?

- I don't know, in fact, what he is going to do.
- We could, therefore, keep it going for quite a time.
- We all sent presents, nevertheless.

- The items in fact, therefore, nevertheless link the sentences to what has gone before. These are called **sentence linkers**. Typical realisations are consequently, therefore, finally, however, nevertheless, so, thus, then.

INDEPENDENT & DEPENDENT CLAUSES

There are two important points to be made about them:

(i) their position is not fixed in clause structure:

- However, I don't think we should go on with it.
- I don't think, however, that we should go on with it.
- I don't think we should go on with it, however.

(ii) these linkers do not allow what is usually called 'branching'; this means the formation of a sentence with linked clauses.

- He therefore disagreed.
- Consequently, he disagreed.

Such items can be regarded as realising an adjunct element in clause structure, and if desired can be superscripted **A Link** to distinguish them from other adjuncts.

INDEPENDENT & DEPENDENT CLAUSES

- The second type of linkage, realised by the linkers and, or, but, is quite different.

(i) The position of these linkers is fixed.

(ii) they permit 'branching'.

- I came in and he went out.
- John played well but Mary was off form.

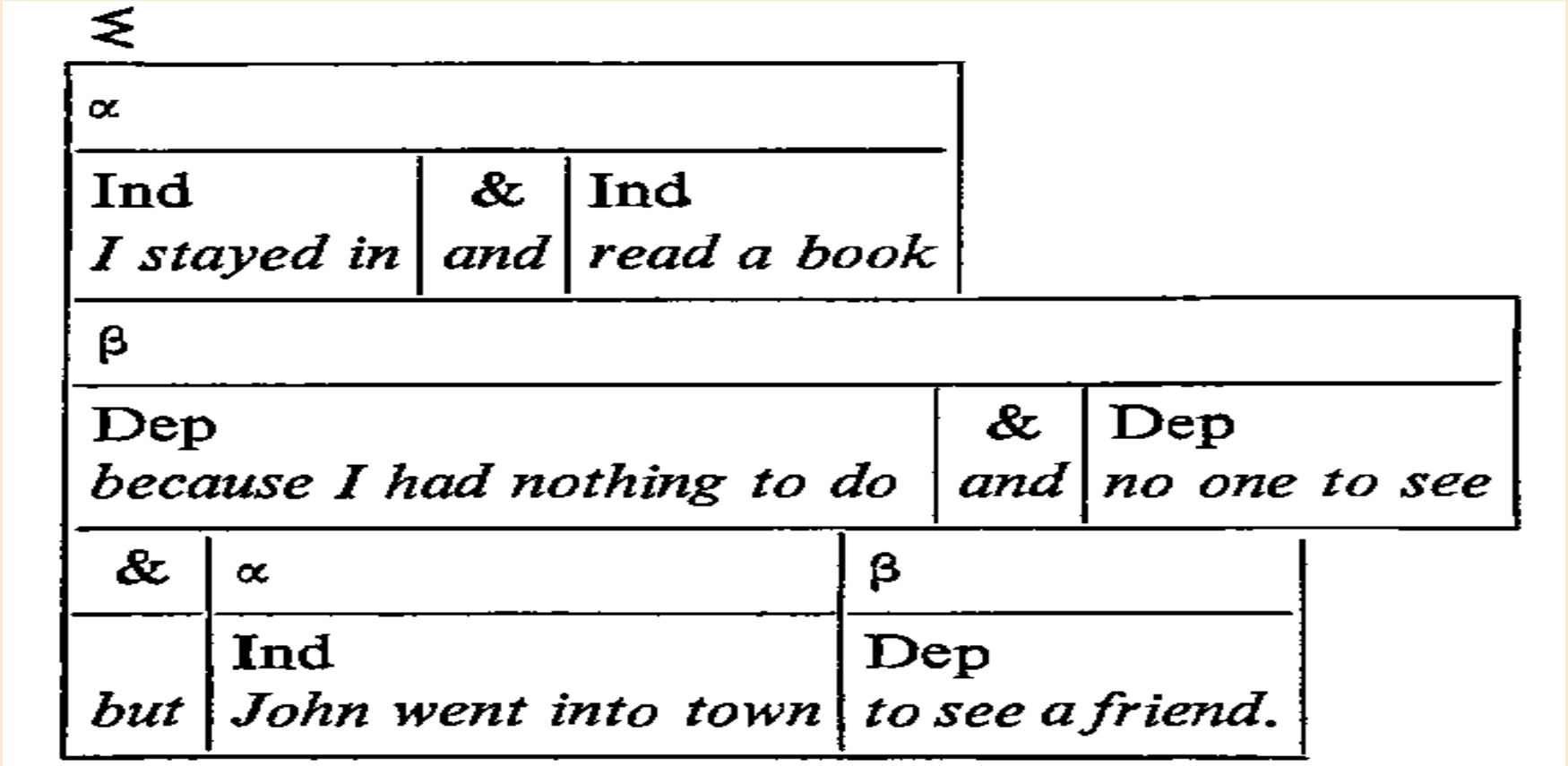
It seems that linkers should not be regarded as constituents in structure at all, but as realisation of a rank-free system of linkage. It means, in this case, that where linkage occurs, this is marked (&) but not accorded constituent status.

I came in and John went out	structure: Ind Cl & Ind Cl
Big fish and little fish	structure: nom grp & nom grp
fresh and bright	structure: epithet & epithet
fish 'n chips	base & base

INDEPENDENT & DEPENDENT CLAUSES

If we now consider a sentence such as:

- I stayed in and read a book because I had nothing to do and no one to see but John went into town to see a friend.
  The analysis is:



THANK YOU

2.3.

Group and Clause.

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1. Introduction

As we move higher in the **rank scale**, the potentiality of structural complexity is increased. This is structurally obvious in three ways:

Flexible Sequence:
(i) Sequence is less determined. Elements of structure are not effectively defined by position alone.

At lower levels like words or groups, elements follow a clear order. For example, **pbf** means **p** comes before **b**, and **f** comes after. Similarly, group structures like **mhq**, **tal**, or **pc** follow set patterns.

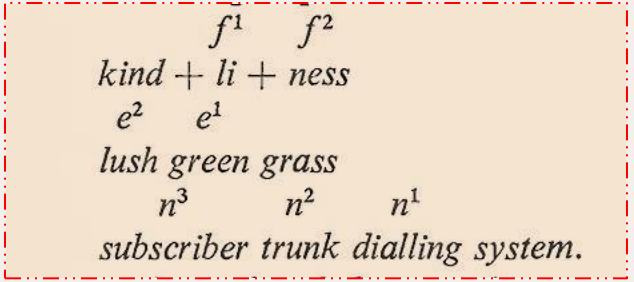
However, in clause structure we will have four elements of structure—**SPCA**— but actual occurring structures will show various combinations and sequences of these—**SAP, PCA, ASPC** and so on.

1. Introduction

Recursion or Depth:

(ii) Elements occur recursively, or in depth. This was already evident in word and group structure:

Another sign of complexity at the **clause level** is **recursion**, where elements repeat or appear inside each other. Although recursion is seen in words and groups, it becomes more complicated in **clauses** and **sentences**. Examples at the lower levels include:



- **kind-li-ness** (word level)
- **lush green grass** (group level)
- **subscriber trunk dialling system** (complex group layers) In clauses, recursion allows for more depth and nesting, making the structure richer and more complex.

1. Introduction

Inclusion or Discontinuity:

(iii) The occurrence of inclusion or discontinuity.

Inclusion or **discontinuity** happens when a unit appears within another unit's structure but is not fully integrated. This often leads to interruptions in the expected flow. For example, in a **discontinuous predicator**:

- *Is John coming?* → **Is** (part of **p**) is separated from **coming**.
  Or, when a **clause is embedded** within another:
- *John, if you give him a ring, will come over.* → The phrase *if you give him a ring* interrupts the main clause.
  These cases show that elements don't always appear continuously and may include other structures.

Clause Elements (S, P, C, A)

An English clause is made up of four main elements: **Subject (s)**, **Predicator (p)**, **Complement (c)**, and **Adjunct (a)**. Importantly, **no element is strictly required** in every clause. Although many believe **p** is always necessary, there are clauses without it, and similarly, some clauses lack a **subject** without needing to assume it. Based on the presence of **p**, clauses are categorized as:

- **Major clauses**: Contain a **predicator (p)** → *(s) p (c) (a)*
- **Minor clauses**: Do not contain a **p**.
  This difference between **major** and **minor clauses** is essential in understanding clause structure.

Clause Elements (S, P, C, A)

Identifying the Elements (s, p, c, a)

The problem of identifying these elements of structure is somewhat different from that at lower ranks, partly because of the changeability of sequence.

Major clauses consist of specific **structural elements**, including **(S) Subject, P (Predicator), (C) Complement, and (A) Adjunct**. **Not all elements** are obligatory in every clause, but their arrangement and presence determine the clause's function. Identifying the **subject (S)** can be challenging due to **flexible word order**, but the most reliable method is checking **concord (subject-verb agreement)**. A **singular** subject requires the **-s form** of the verb in the **non-past tense**, while a **plural** subject does not.

For example:

- *The bird **sings**.* (✔ Singular subject → **-s** on verb)
- *The birds **sing**.* (✔ Plural subject → No **-s** on verb)
- In **past tense**, subject-verb agreement **is not marked** (e.g., *The bird **sang** / The birds **sang**.*).

Clause Elements (S, P, C, A)

To confirm the **subject**, one can use **pronoun substitution**, checking whether the noun phrase can be replaced by a **gender-bearing pronoun** (***he, she, it***).
In *That man **makes** the suits*, [***that man***] can be replaced with **he**, while *the suits* can only be replaced with **they/them**.

Since the verb ***makes*** carries **-s**, [***that man***] must be **S**.
In contrast, in *Those men **make** the suit*, *the suit* can be replaced by **it**, while *those men* can only be **they/them**. The verb **make** does not take **-s**, meaning *those men* is **S**. Thus, **concord and pronoun substitution** provide a **systematic approach** to identifying the subject in a clause.

Z elements

In English **clause structure**, certain **nominal groups** may **not** be clearly identified as either **Subject (s)** or **Complement (c)** and are referred to as **Z elements**.

There are **three types** of **Z elements** based on their function:

The first type is **Z positive (Z^{pos})**, where the nominal group functions as both **s** and **c** simultaneously, such as *"they want **the boys** to do it"*, where **the boys** is the **c** of *want* and the **s** of *to do*.

The second type is **Z negative (Z^{neg})**, found in **minor clauses** where identification of **s** or **c** is impossible due to the lack of necessary relationships with the **Predicator (p)**, like *"if wet, the show will be cancelled"*, where ***if wet*** contains no identifiable **s** or **c**.

The third type is **Z vocative (Z^{voc})**, where the nominal group serves as a **vocative**—separated by punctuation or intonation and movable within the sentence, as in *"Bill, shoot! / Shoot, Bill!"*, where *Bill* is simply an address and not functioning as **s** or **c**.

Z elements

Thus, the general structure of an English clause includes the five elements: **Subject (s)**, **Predicator (p)**, **Complement (c)**, **Adjunct (a)**, and **z element (z)**. The relations between these elements differ from other grammatical levels, making the **clause** a **unique structural unit**. Identifying a clause depends on **the presence** of any valid combination of **S-P-C-A-Z** relations, not rigid rules like "a clause must have a finite verb or a subject."

For example, both of the following contain two clauses despite one lacking a finite verb:

- *"Having read the book, I won't go to the film"*
- *"For John to take advantage of the offer, all his friends contributed."*
  Here, the first clauses involve **PC** relations and in the second example also **SP**. These non-finite clauses can be replaced by finite ones without changing meaning:
- *"Now that I have read the book, I won't go to the film"*
- *"So that John could take advantage of the offer, all his friends contributed."*
  This flexibility illustrates the complexity and richness of English **clause structures**, which makes it an ideal starting point for analyzing texts.

independent and dependent clauses

A fundamental distinction in English **clause structure** is between **independent** and **dependent clauses**, where the second clause in certain sentences can stand alone as a complete sentence (**independent**), while the first cannot (**dependent**).

- The main criteria for this classification are:

an **independent clause** is characterized by the **absence of a binding adjunct** and the **presence of a finite verbal group** at the **Predicator (P)**, making it capable of standing alone.

Conversely, a **dependent clause** contains a **binding adjunct** like *who, which, what, when, where, how, that, if, because, although,* and often features a **non-finite verbal group** at **P** such as an **infinitive** or **participle**. Examples include:

- **Infinitive:** *"To take part in the game, he came home." / "John was the one to carry it."*

Participle: *"The windows being open, the room was cool." / "Their king captured, the enemy surrendered."*

independent and dependent clauses

Dependent clauses are further classified by their **vector of dependence** into **additioning**, **conditioning**, and **reported clauses**:

- **Additioning clauses** are similar to **non-defining relative clauses** and cannot precede the independent clause but can be inserted within or placed after it, introduced by relative binding adjuncts such as ***who, which, when, where, how***. Examples include:

- *"My young brother, who is very tall, plays the game well."*
- *"I am shorter than my brother, who plays the game well."*
  Importantly, *"that"* does not introduce these clauses but instead introduces **rankshifted (restricted) clauses**.

- **Conditioning clauses**, like **adverbial clauses**, can occur before, within, or after the independent clause, introduced by binding adjuncts such as *if, though, because, after*, or by a **non-finite verbal group**. Examples include:

- *"If you bring them, John will help you."*
- *"John, if you bring them, will help you."*

independent and dependent clauses

Dependent clauses are further classified by their **vector of dependence** into **additioning**, **conditioning**, and **reported clauses**:

- **Reported clauses** resemble **noun clauses** used in indirect speech and typically follow a **reporting clause** that contains verbs like *say, tell, inform, claim*. These can start with **that, whether, if** or appear without any adjunct. Examples are:

- *"He said that it was true."*
- *"He declared it was a fact."*

  This distinction between **independent** and **dependent clauses**, along with their types, is crucial for analyzing complex sentence structures and understanding the syntactic relationships within texts.

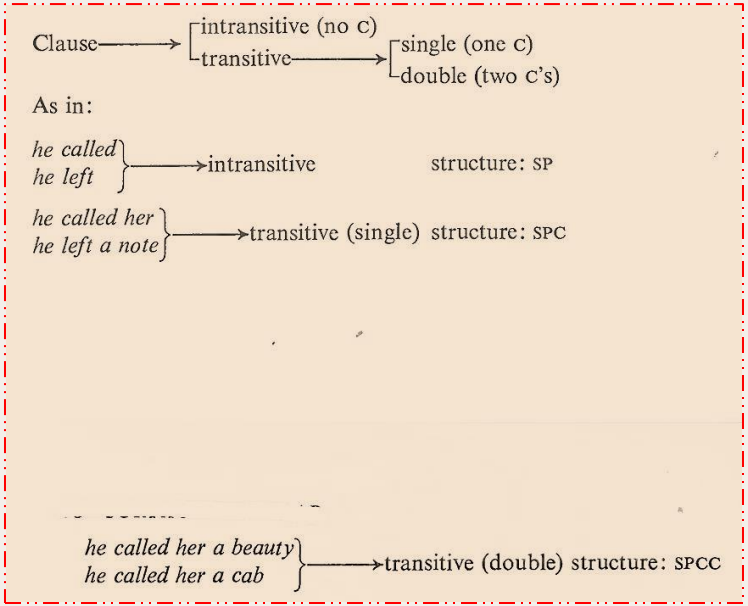
2.3.1 Complements in Clause Structure

In the study of clause structure, a **Complement (C)** refers to the **nominal group(s) that do not serve as the Subject (S)** but instead complete the meaning of the **Predicate (P)**. Complements are crucial in determining the type of clause. Based on whether a Complement is present, clauses are categorized into two main types: **Intransitive clauses** contain **no complement**, consisting only of a **Subject + Predicate (S + P)** structure.

The action is complete without any additional information.

Examples: **Structure(SP)**

- *He called.*
- *He left.*



2.3.1 Complements in Clause Structure

In contrast, **Transitive clauses** require **one or two complements** to complete their meaning, making the clause structurally richer. Transitive clauses are further divided into **Transitive Single** and **Transitive Double**.

A **Transitive Single** clause contains **one complement** and follows the structure **Subject + Predicate + Complement (S + P + C)**. Examples of this type include:

- *He called her.*
- *He left a note.*

  On the other hand, **Transitive Double** clauses involve **two complements** and follow the structure **Subject + Predicate + Complement + Complement (S + P + C + C)**. Examples of such clauses are:

- *He called her a beauty.*
- *He called her a cab.*

2.3.1 Complements in Clause Structure

Although **transitive clauses** contain complements, not all complements function the same way. There is an important distinction between two types of complements: **Extensive (C^E)** and **Intensive (C^I)**. This difference primarily depends on whether the complement is **noun-headed or adjective-headed**. **Noun-headed nominal groups** can function as **either a Subject or a Complement**, while **adjective-headed groups** can serve **only as Complements**, not as Subjects. For example, we can say *in the building* but not *in happy*, showing that **noun-headed groups** can act as prepositional complements, while **adjective-headed groups** cannot. Furthermore, noun-headed groups can be replaced with pronouns:

- *the man → he / him*
- *the trees → they / them*
  However, **adjective-headed groups** cannot be replaced this way, e.g., *very happy* does not transform into a pronoun.

2.3.1 Complements in Clause Structure

The **Extensive Complement (C^E)** is typically **noun-headed** and introduces **new information** different from the Subject. It also allows for **passive transformation** of the clause. For instance:

- *Bill bought a new car.* → *A new car was bought by Bill.*
  This is not the case with the **Intensive Complement (C^I)**, which is often **adjective-headed** and shares the **same referent as the Subject**. It cannot be transformed into passive voice because the meaning refers back to the Subject. For example:
- *Bill felt fine.* → **Incorrect:** *Fine was felt by Bill.*
  While **adjective-headed groups** are always **intensive**, some **noun-headed groups** can also be intensive, depending on their reference. For instance, *Bill felt fit* is intensive but could be rephrased as *Bill felt a fit man*, where *a fit man* is a **noun-headed intensive complement**.

2.3.1 Complements in Clause Structure

An important rule to note is that clauses with an **Extensive Complement** can undergo **passive transformation**, whereas clauses with only an **Intensive Complement** cannot. This structural feature highlights the grammatical difference between the two types. For instance, a double complement clause like *He gave her a shilling* (**S P C^E C^E**) offers two possible passive forms:

- *She was given a shilling (by him). structure:* ***$SPC^E(A)$***
- *A shilling was given her (by him). structure:* ***$SPC^E(A)$***

However, if one of the **complements** is **intensive**, only one passive transformation is possible.
For example, *He called her a beauty* (**S P C^E C^I**) transforms into:

- *She was called a beauty (by him). structure:* ***$SPC^I(A)$***
  but **not** into *A beauty was called her (by him).*

2.3.1 Complements in Clause Structure

Moreover, the **Intensive Complement** can refer **either to the Subject or to another Complement** in the clause. If it refers to the Subject, it is marked as $\mathbf{C^{I(S)}}$; if it refers to another Complement, it is marked as $\mathbf{C^{I(C)}}$.For instance:

- *He called her a beauty.* → **S P C^E $C^{I(C)}$** (*a beauty* intensifies *her*)
- *He made her a good husband.* → **S P C^E $C^{I(S)}$** (*a good husband* intensifies *he*)
  This distinction is crucial in understanding the function and meaning relationships within the clause.

Certain verbs are commonly used with complex complement structures and easily adopt these variations. Examples include **buy, call, consider, make, get, leave, and like**. The verb *make* demonstrates various combinations:

- *She made a good cake.* → **S P C^E**
- *She made a good wife.* → **S P C^I**
- *She made him a good cake.* → **S P C^E C^E**
- *She made him a good husband.* → **S P C^E $C^{I(S)}$**
- *She made him a good wife.* → **S P C^E $C^{I(S)}$**
  These examples showcase how a verb can support multiple complement types, changing the clause's meaning and structure.

(P.59) 2.3.2 Predicators in Clause Structure.

In some verb structures, sequences like ***started to bite*** or ***wanted to bite*** do not follow the typical **auxiliary + lexical verb** pattern. This is because the first verb (*started, wanted*) is **not** an auxiliary verb—they do not take the enclitic negator; (*startedn't to bite* is **incorrect**), nor does it form questions without an auxiliary (*Does he want to bite?* is correct, **but** *Wanted he to bite?* is **not**).

Since these structures contain two lexical verbs, they must consist of **two verbal groups**, meaning there are **two predicators** in the clause. These are called **phased structures** (**phased predicators)**, where one action leads into another.

- **Examples of phased predicators:**
  - *He started to bite* → **spp** (subject + predicator + predicator)
  - *He wanted to eat* → **spp**
  - *He hoped to win the trophy* → **sppc** (subject + predicator + predicator + complement)
  - *He refused to sign the paper* → **sppc**

(P.59) 2.3.2 Predicators in Clause Structure.

In some cases, a **nominal group** (a noun phrase) can appear between the two predicators, acting as a **complement** to the **first predicator** while also serving as the subject of **the second**.

- **Examples of nominal groups in phased structures:**
  - *He wanted **Tom** to do it.*
  - *He asked **the skipper** to turn the ship.*
  - *He begged **the other** to find the jewel.*
  - *He told **the boys** to go.*

In these clauses the nominal groups **Tom**, **the skipper**, **the other**, **the boys**, are complements of the first predicator and **S** of the second predicator.

This is frequently illustrated in a transformational way; given the pairs of sentences:

- He asked John. + John does it.

- He told his elder brother. + His elder brother sold books.

- He begged her. + She returned the book.

(P.59) 2.3.2 Predicators in Clause Structure.

This is frequently illustrated in a transformational way; given the pairs of sentences:

He asked John. + John does it.

He told his elder brother. + His elder brother sold books.

He begged her. + She returned the book.

We can combine them by making the subject of the second sentence the **complement** of the first and turning the second verb into its **non-finite** form:

- *He asked John to do it.*
- *He told his elder brother to sell books.*
- *He begged her to return the book.*

This shows how **phased predicators** can create complex sentence structures while maintaining grammatical clarity.

Nominal Groups as Z Elements in Clause Structure

When a **nominal group** functions as both the **complement (c)** of the first predicator and the **subject (s)** of the second predicator, it is referred to as a **z element** (more precisely, a **Z^{pos} element**). This is seen in sentences like:

- *He asked John to do it.* → **SPZPC**
- *He told his elder brother to sell books.* → **SPZPC**
- *He begged her to return the book.* → **SPZPC**

However, when the **intervening nominal group** is an **intensive complement**, the structure changes. In sentences like:

- *He was **eager** to swim.*
- *He seemed **content** to remain.*
- *He became **anxious** to find her.*

The **nominal groups** (**eager, content, anxious**) do **not** function as the subject of the second predicator. Instead, they remain **intensive complements**, similar to a structure like *I want to eat*, where the same subject performs both actions. These are analyzed as:

- *He was eager to swim.* → **$SPC^{I}P$**

Nominal Groups as Z Elements in Clause Structure

In English we **do not** have two nominal groups contrasted to introduce a second ‘ **actor-action** ’ sequence in a phased construction, i.e. we do not find:

- *I am eager John to do it
- *I am anxious Mary to come

A different structure occurs when there are **two distinct “actors”** in the sentence.
So we must introduce the preposition **"for"** before the second actor:

- *I am eager for **John** to do it.*
- *I was anxious for **Mary** to come.*

Since we cannot say *I am eager John to do it*, the **"for + nominal group"** is analyzed as a **Z element** after an intensive complement, resulting in:

- *I am keen for John to attend.* → **SPC^{I}ZP**

Types of Phased Structures

These structures can be categorized into **four main types**, based on whether there is **one** or **two actors**:

One actor:

- ***I** hope to attend.* → **SPP**
- ***I** am keen to attend.* → **SPC^{I}P**

Two actors:

- ***I** asked **John** to attend.* → **SPZP**
- ***I** am keen for **John** to attend.* → **SPC^{I}ZP**

Phased structures often involve **linking or catenative verbs**, which can repeat in more complex forms. For example:

- *I asked **Bill** to come early.* → **SPZPA** (2 predicators)
- *I wanted **John** to invite **Mary** to come.* → **SPZPZP** (3 predicators)
- *I told **John** to ask **Mary** to tell **her brother** to come.* → **SPZPZPZP** (4 predicators)

Non-Finite Forms in Phased Predicators (which are non-initial):

The **second predicator** in a **phased structure** always takes a **non-finite form**, which can be:

To-infinitive (t-inf.) – **Base form** – **-ing form**.

Different verbs require different non-finite forms:

- **Only "to-infinitive"**: *seem, offer, expect*
- **Only "-ing"**: *relish, enjoy, deny*
- **Both "to-infinitive" and "-ing" (with meaning differences)**: *stand, feel, start*
  - *He stood watching the race.* (**continuous action**)
  - *He stood to win a packet.* (**purpose or result**)

Distinguishing Between Dependent Clauses and Phased Predicators

Since **dependent clauses** can occur with **non-finite predicators**, it is essential to differentiate between sentences that contain **two clauses** (an independent clause and a dependent clause) and those that consist of **a single clause with phased predicators**.

Main Differences:

A **two-clause sentence** includes an **intonation break** (in speech) or a **comma** (in writing), making the sequence of clauses flexible. This means that the dependent clause can be moved to the beginning of the sentence without affecting its meaning. Examples include:

- *I refused, to let him know my stand in the matter.*
- *John continued, to give them the chance.*
- *I agreed, to avoid a clash in the office.*
- **Alternative order:** *To let him know my stand in the matter, I refused.*

Distinguishing Between Dependent Clauses and Phased Predicators

On the other hand, a **one-clause sentence** contains **phased predicators**, where the **non-finite verb must follow the finite verb in a fixed sequence**, with no possibility of an **intonation break** or **comma**. These sentences **do not allow** reordering of elements. Examples include:

- *I refused to let him know my stand in the matter.*
- *John continued to give them the chance.*
- *I agreed to avoid a clash in the office.*
- **Incorrect reordering:**
  - *To do it he asked them.* **X**
  - *To give them the chance he continued.* **X**

Using Binding Adverbial Groups to Identify Structures

A helpful way to distinguish between **two-clause** sentences and **phased predicator** structures is by inserting an adverbial phrase at the beginning. If the sentence remains meaningful, it consists of **two clauses**; otherwise, it is a **single clause with phased predicators**.

✔- **Two-Clause Example (Flexible Structure):**

- *He began, asking for their help.*
- *After asking for their help, he began.* (Reordering possible)

X- **One-Clause Example (Fixed Structure):**

- *He began asking for their help.* (**Cannot** be reordered)

(P.63) 2.3.3 Adjuncts in Clause Structure.

In clause structure, the number and position of **subject (S), predicator (P), and complement (C)** are relatively **fixed**, allowing for **phased structures**. However, **adjuncts**—which provide additional information—have **no theoretical limit** in number and display **greater positional flexibility**. Their placement, however, is **restricted by the type of adjunct**.

Types of Adjuncts and Their Positions:

1. Grammatical or Binding Adjuncts (Position 1)

- These adjuncts **bind dependent clauses to independent clauses** and always occur at the **beginning** of a sentence.
- Their position is **fixed**:
  - **Structure: A_1 S P C "Because it was raining,** we stayed inside."

(P.63) 2.3.3 Adjuncts in Clause Structure.

2. Semi-Negative Adverbs (Position 2)

These adjuncts appear **between the subject (S) and predicator (P)** and include **semi-negative** adverbs like: *never, usually, seldom, hardly, nearly, even, just, merely, only, quite, always.*

- *He never managed to do it.*
- *I usually go to the Christmas service.*
- *I seldom find much of interest in his books.*

When the **verbal group at P** includes an **auxiliary verb**, the adjunct occurs **between the auxiliary and the main verb**:

- *He* **did** *manage to do it.*
- *I* **don't** *usually go to the Christmas service.*
- *I* **would** *seldom find much of interest in his books.*

- **Structure: S A_2 P C**

(P.63) 2.3.3 Adjuncts in Clause Structure.

3. Lexical Adjuncts (Position 3)

These adjuncts, including **adverbial groups ending in -ly**, occur **at the end of the clause**.

- **Examples:**
  - *He crashed the car into the wall.*
  - *He crashed the car violently.*
- **Structure: S P C A_3**

(P.63) 2.3.3 Adjuncts in Clause Structure.

Order of Multiple Adjuncts:

Further **problems** concerning adjuncts are in identifying different types of adjuncts, usually into adjuncts of **time**, **place**, **manner**, and deciding which sequence of these occurs if more than one is present in clause structure.
So when multiple adjuncts (e.g., **time, place, manner**) appear in a clause, English typically follows a **preferred sequence**:

✔- **Preferred order: Place → Time → Manner**

- *He sent her **to the shop immediately.*** (✔)

X- **Less preferred order: Time → Place**

- *He sent her **immediately to the shop.*** (X)

However, **this sequence is not fixed**, as different **English varieties** may follow **different patterns**, and adjunct placement can be used **stylistically** to create emphasis or shift focus.

References:

Muir James (1972) A modern approach to English grammar: an Introduction to systemic grammar. London: BT. Batsford

2.2 Word and Group

2.2.1 Nominal Group

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Surface Grammar

2.2. Word and Group

- This chapter focuses on the **syntax of the word** and **the morphology of the group**—essentially how words combine to form groups (phrases) in English.

Types of Groups in English

- A **group (phrase)** is a collection of words that function together within a clause. Unlike words, which follow predictable structures across different types, groups vary significantly.
- English has three primary types of groups:

1. **Nominal Group (NG)** – Functions as **Subject** or **Complement**, and structured as {(**m**), **h**, (**q**)} ….. **m** = **modifier**, **h** = **headword**, and **q** = **qualifier**.
    - *The big dog barked.* (NG: *The big dog*)
    - *She met a famous scientist.* (NG: *a famous scientist*)

2. **Verbal Group (VG)** – Functions as **Predicator**, and **structured** as {(a), (n), l} …. a = auxiliary verb, n = negation, and l = lexical verb.
   - *She <u>has been studying</u> all day.* (VG: *has been studying*)
   - *He <u>will go</u> to the market.* (VG: *will go*)

3. **Adverbial Group (AG)** – Functions as **Adjunct**, and structured as (t), a, l/pc – t = time, a = adverb, l = lexical, and pc = prepositional complement.
   - *She left **very quickly**.* (AG: *very quickly*)
   - *They arrived **in the morning**.* (AG: *in the morning*)

Let’s have a look at clause structure

- In the clause, ***the big dog will bite the little man in the arm/deeply*** there are four elements of structure:

Subject (S) Predicator (P) Complement (C) Adjunct (A)

- ***(the big dog) (will bite) (the little man) (in the arm/deeply)***
- This concludes that:
  - **Nominal Groups** operate at **Subject/Complement** in clause structure.
  - **Verbal Groups** operate at **Predicator** in clause structure.
  - **Adverbial Groups** operate at **Adjunct** in clause structure.

2.2.1 Nominal Group (Noun Phrase)

- A **nominal group** may consist of three key components:

- **Headword (h)** → The headword is the **core element** of a nominal group. It is typically a noun or pronoun and is the only **obligatory element** in the group. Without a headword, the group cannot function as a nominal group. Example: In the nominal group ***Cows eat grass***, the headword is ***Cows***.
- **Modifier (m)** → Modifiers are **optional elements** that precede the headword. They provide additional information about the headword, such as quantity, quality, or specificity. Modifiers can be single words (e.g., ***the***) or groups of words (e.g., ***the big***, ***the very big***).
- **Qualifier (q)** → Qualifiers are **optional elements** that follow the headword. They provide additional information about the headword, often in the form of prepositional phrases or relative clauses. Qualifiers help to specify or restrict the meaning of the headword. Example: In the nominal group ***Boys with red hair***, the qualifier is ***with red hair***.

2.2.1 Nominal Group (Noun Phrase)

Basic Nominal Group Patterns

(i) Headword Only (h)

- ***Cows eat grass.*** (***h: Cows***)
- ***Fish swim.*** (***h: Fish***)
- ***He was pale.*** (***h: He***)

(ii) Modifier + Headword (mh)

- ***The boy.*** (**m: The**, **h: boy**)
- ***The big boy***. (**m: The big**, **h: boy**)
- ***The very big boy***. (**m: The very big**, **h: boy**)
- ***All the other big American boys***. (**m: All the other big American**, **h: boy**)

(iii) Headword + Qualifier (hq)

- ***Boys with red hair are nice***. (***h: boys***, ***q: with red hair are nice***)
- ***Houses in the country were fashionable then.*** (***h: Houses***, ***q: in the country***)
- ***Cars that break down are a nuisance***. (***h: Cars***, ***q: that break down***)

2.2.1 Nominal Group (Noun Phrase)

Basic Nominal Group Patterns

(iv) Modifier + Headword + Qualifier (mhq)

- ***The big boy with red hair scored the first goal.*** (***m: The big***, ***h: boy***, ***q: with the red hair***)
- ***The old car that I sold is still going strong.*** (***m: The old***, ***h: car***, ***q: that I sold***)
- ***He bought a nice house in the country.*** (***m: a nice***, ***h: house***, ***q: in the country***)

2.2.1 Nominal Group (Noun Phrase)

Nominal groups with (mhq) can be either complex as in:

- ***All the other ten very worn school (m) books (h) in the library (q).***

Or relatively simple as in:

- ***The (m) man (h) himself (q).***

When nominal groups consist of only a headword, it is called **substantive**, and the words operating at h in the following are therefore **substantives**:

- ***Horses run races.***
- ***I live in Glasgow.***
- ***He sings songs.***
- ***Running is fun.***
- ***Training is good for you.***

2.2.1 Nominal Group (Noun Phrase)

Subcategories of Headwords in Nominal Groups

- The **headword (h)** in a **nominal group** can belong to different word classes, each with distinct characteristics.

i. Nouns as Headwords

- Can be modified by **demonstratives**, **adjectives**, **articles**, and **numbers**.
- Can take qualifiers in the form of **relative clauses** or **prepositional phrases**.
- Can't be modified by the sub modifiers: ***very***, ***rather***, ***quite***.

Examples:

- *These **boys** are superb **examples**. (h: boys, examples)*
- *The **bath** I had was very refreshing. (h: bath)*
- *All the **books** that I read on holiday belonged to my **brother**. (h: book, brother)*
- *The **spot** where the river bends is tricky to negotiate. (h: spot)*

2.2.1 Nominal Group (Noun Phrase)

Subcategories of Headwords in Nominal Groups

ii. Pronouns as Headword

- Are not usually modified.
- Can be qualified, and their qualifiers are complete clauses or groups of somewhat restricted types.
- Examples:
  - ***Nobody*** in the room would admit to ***it***.
  - ***Anyone who is an artist*** *will tell* ***you***. (***h: Anyone***, ***q: who is an artist***)
  - ***They all*** *went up the hill.* (***h: They***)
  - ***They both*** *play very well.* ***(h: They)***

2.2.1 Nominal Group (Noun Phrase)

Subcategories of Headwords in Nominal Groups

ii. Pronouns as Headword

Some pronouns occur with other qualifiers:

a) Indefinite pronouns (h) that occur with "else" (q)

- Everyone
- No one
- Someone
- Somebody
- Nobody

} else

b) Plural pronouns(h) occur with "both" (q)

- They
-
- We

} both

2.2.1 Nominal Group (Noun Phrase)

Subcategories of Headwords in Nominal Groups

iii. Proper Nouns as Headwords

- Typically, **can not be modified** or **qualified**.

Examples:

- ***London*** *is the capital.* (*h: London*)
- *Come to* ***Canada****.* (*h: Canada*)
- ***Matthews*** *won the cup for* ***Blackpoll.*** (h: Matthews, Blackpoll)

2.2.1 Nominal Group (Noun Phrase)

Subcategories of Headwords in Nominal Groups

iv. Adjectives as Headwords

- Have restricted range of modifiers and quantifiers; they can be qualified by **enough**, **indeed**, or by complete clause or groups of restricted types.
- Unlike nouns, adjectives can't be modified by articles or demonstratives; but they can be modified by submodifiers ***very***, ***rather***, ***quite***, etc.

Examples:

- He is ***older than Harry***. (**h: older**, **q: that Harry**)
- He kept himself **as fit *as possible*.** (**m: as, h: fit, *q: as possible***)

2.2.1 Nominal Group (Noun Phrase)

Secondary Structure of Modifiers:

- The modifier (m) can be further broken down into secondary elements: **deictic (d)**, **numerative (n)**, **epithet (e)**, and **classifier (c)**.

Example: In the group **all the other ten very worn American school *books***, the modifier ***all the other ten very worn American*** can be segmented into:

- **Deictic (d)** operates at word-class **determiner:** *all the other*
- **Numerative (n)** operates at word-class **numeral:** *ten*
- **Epithet (e)** operates at word-class **adjectives:** *very worn American*
- **Classifier (c)** operates at word-class **as at (n):** *school.*

2.2.1 Nominal Group (Noun Phrase)

Secondary Structure of Modifiers:

Sequence of Items:

- The order of modifiers and qualifiers is **not random**. There are specific rules governing the sequence of elements in a nominal group.

d	o	e	n	(h)
all the other	ten	very worn American	school	(*books*)

Example:

all houses
all the houses
all the same houses
are acceptable, but
****the all houses***
****all houses the***
****same all the houses***
are not.

2.2.1 Nominal Group (Noun Phrase)

Secondary Structure of Modifiers:

Modifiers (**m**) have internal structure and follow specific **sequence constraints**:

1. Deictic (d) – Specifies Reference

- *The, this, my, all, both, half, several, a lot of*
- **Example:** *All the other ten books* (*d: all, the, other*)

2. Numerative (o) – Expresses Number

- *One, five, first, second, last*
- **Example:** *The first five houses* (*o: first five*)

3. Epithet (e) – Descriptive Adjectives

- *Big, old, nice, red, intelligent*
- **Example:** *A **very old** house* (***e: very old***)

4. Classifier (n) – Defines Subtypes

- *School books, passenger vehicles, stone wall*
- **Example:** *A **stone** bridge* (***n: stone***)

2.2.1 Nominal Group (Noun Phrase)

Secondary Structure of Modifiers:

1. Deictic (d) – Specifies Reference

There are three distinct places at d:

D1 (predeictic) all, both, half

D2 (deictic) the, this, that; his, its, John's, mother's, my; a, any, another, no, neither, every, several

D3 (post-deictic) other, same.

- The occurrence of items at **d** is not entirely independent of other items at m, as might appear from the segmentation of m given above.
- The occurrence of items at **d** is related to the occurrence of items at **o**.

2. Numerative (o) – Expresses Number

At o the two types of **numerals operate** (**cardinal and ordinal**).

- **Five horses**
- **His first horse**

2.2.1 Nominal Group (Noun Phrase)

Secondary Structure of Modifiers:

Notes:

- When we use **cardinal numerals,** they can be selected independently of determiners. Groups such as:

  o n o n d2 o n d2 d3 o n

  one horse, five horses, the five horses, the same five horses

- Number concord is required between **numerals** and **headwords**; i.e. the cardinal ***one*** requires a **singular headword**, and other **cardinals** require a **plural headword**.
- A **determiner** is required when using **ordinal numerals** for '**identification**':
  - **His first opportunity.** **His first attempts**
  - **John's third bicycle.** **Her third trials**
  - **My ninth birthday.** **Their ninth birthdays**
- These examples show that **ordinal numerals** require a **determiner**, but also that they do not require **number concord** with the headword, **since the same numerals occur in the second column with plural headwords as occurred in the first column with singular headwords.**

2.2.1 Nominal Group (Noun Phrase)

Secondary Structure of Modifiers:

3. Epithet (e) – Descriptive Adjectives

At the element **e** the word-class adjective operates (it has already been shown that this class can operate at **h** also), and the number of items in this class is very great.

Notes:

- There can be **multiple adjectives at e** in the **modifier (m) position**.

Example: ***A very big old house*** (m: A very big old, h: house)

- Adjective order is **preferred** rather than **prescribed**

The arrangement of adjectives follows a pattern, but it is not strictly fixed.

Example: ***A big blue car*** (preferred), ***A blue big car*** (unusual but possible with emphasis)

2.2.1 Nominal Group (Noun Phrase)

Secondary Structure of Modifiers:

3. Epithet (e) – Descriptive Adjectives

1. Adjectives Expressing Comparison or Degree (e1)

Some adjectives are **gradable** and can express degree or intensity. **These adjectives typically appear first in the sequence**. They include:

Adjectives that take **-er / -est** inflections (bigger, smallest).

Adjectives that can be preceded by "**more**" or "**most**" (**more beautiful, most expensive**).

Adjectives that are submodified by words like very, ***rather, quite, terribly, unbearably,*** etc.

Examples:

- ***The ten nicest men. (e1: nicest)***
- ***A very lovely landscape. (e1: lovely)*** ***The fifteen best American sprinters***
- ***The cleverer brown dog.*** ***The rather elegant man.*** ***The more graceful blue car .***

2.2.1 Nominal Group (Noun Phrase)

Secondary Structure of Modifiers:

3. Epithet (e) – Descriptive Adjectives

1. Adjectives Expressing Comparison or Degree (e1)

- It can be seen from these examples that such adjectives precede other adjectives such as **blue**, **American**, **wooden**.
- It can also be seen that there are two points to note when superlative adjectives occur at e1:

i) the presence of a superlative in this position requires a determiner at d, a relation similar to that obtaining between ordinal numerals and determiners. Thus:

The best chair. ***His most polished performance.*** ***The sheerest silk***

ii) a superlative almost always points forward to a **q** (qualifier) in the nominal group. Thus:

e1 h q **e1 h q**

The best chair [in the room]. The most graceful animal [in the world]

2.2.1 Nominal Group (Noun Phrase)

Secondary Structure of Modifiers:

3. Epithet (e) – Descriptive Adjectives

1. Adjectives Expressing Comparison or Degree (e1)

- *Place orderings within e1 itself can be distinguished. In **first place** occurs the '**size-shape**' group, in **second place** the '**quality**' **group**, in **third place** the ' **age** ' group. Thus:*

size ⇒	***shape*** ⇒	***quality*** ⇒	***age***
big	*fat*	*fine*	*young*
tall	*thin*	*graceful*	*old*
large	*slim*	*scraggy*	*new*
huge	*square*	*precious*	*year-old*

- *We rarely have groups with a member from each group present, but smaller groupings suggest this sequence. That is, we find:*

*"**The tall scraggy (too thin) man**" rather than "**The scraggy tall man**"*
*"**A large square object** " rather than "**A square large object**"*
*"**A tall young man**" rather than "**A young tall man**"*
*"**A precious young thing**" rather than "**A young precious thing.**"*

2.2.1 Nominal Group (Noun Phrase)

Secondary Structure of Modifiers:

3. Epithet (e) – Descriptive Adjectives

2. Color Adjectives (e2)

- *Color adjectives follow degree and comparison adjectives at **e1** and are less readily submodified, and have a range of submodifiers with which they typically occur. Thus:*

- *salmon **pink***
- *emerald **green***
- *royal **blue***
- *dark **blue***
- *bottle **green***

3. Derived Adjectives (e3)

*These adjectives are formally derived from other word-classes, so they are usually compound in structure. These adjectives follow color adjective at **e2** and they do not regularly take comparison. This type of adjectives include words such as wooden, silken, American, strategic, etc. That is, Thus:*

e1 e2 e3

- ***The** large blue American carpet*

e1 e2 e3

- ***The** huge old wooden trunk*

4. Classifier (n) – Defines Subtypes

- **Element *n* in Nominal Groups**

- At the element *n*, the same word-class operates as at *h* (headword) in the nominal group.
- A noun in this position is often said to be "acting as an adjective" and could be considered an exponent of *e*.

- **Differences Between Adjectives at *m* and Nouns at *m***

- There are both **formal** and **semantic** differences between adjectives at *m* and nouns at *m*.

- **Semantic Differences:**

- **Adjectives at *e***: Denote **accidental properties** of the headword.
  - Example: *a stony path (*The path has stones on or in it, but this is not an essential feature).
- **Nouns at *n***: Denote **inherent properties** of the headword.
  - Example: *a stone path (*The path is made of stone, and the "stoniness" is an inherent property).

- **Formal Differences:**

- **Adjectives at *e***: Can be compared (e.g., *stony*, *stonier*, *stoniest*).
- **Nouns at *n***: Cannot be compared (e.g., *stone* cannot be modified like an adjective).

- **Combining Adjectives and Nouns at *m*:**

- It is possible (though unlikely) to have both an adjective and a noun at *m* in the same nominal group.
  - Example: *a stony stone path* (acceptable).

2.2.1 Nominal Group (Noun Phrase)

Secondary Structure of Modifiers:

4. Classifier (n) Nouns as classifiers– Defines Subtypes

- *At the element **n** operates the same word-class as operates at **h** in the nominal group. It is often said that a noun in this position is '**acting as an adjective**', and should presumably be considered as an exponent of **e.***
- *There are, however, both formal and semantic differences between **adjectives** at **m** and **nouns** at **m**.*
- *In the most general terms, items which operate at **e** **denote accidental properties of the headword**, but items which operate at **n** **denote inherent properties of the headword:** thus, **a stony path** is not the same as **a stone path**; **a stony path** is presumably **a path which has stones on or in it**, but this is not an essential feature and does not contribute to the inherent nature of the path; **a stone path**, on the other hand, is presumably **a path made of stone**, and **the 'stoneness' is an inherent property of the path**.*
- *Formally, stony may be compared like other adjectives, but stone may not; it is possible (if unlikely) that **a stony stone path** may occur, but not **a stone stony path**.*

2.2.1 Nominal Group (Noun Phrase)

Secondary Structure of Modifiers:

4. Classifier (n) Nouns as classifiers– Defines Subtypes

- **To sum up what has been said:**
  - Nouns can function as classifiers in nominal groups, categorizing the headword by denoting inherent properties.
    Example: *stone path* (Here, *stone* is a noun functioning as a classifier, indicating that the path is made of stone).

  - Classifiers denote **inherent properties** of the headword, while adjectives denote **accidental properties**.
    Example: *a stony path* (accidental property: the path has stones on or in it) vs. *a stone path* (inherent property: the path is made of stone).

  - **Classifiers cannot be compared** (e.g., *stone* cannot become **stoner* or **stonest*), whereas adjectives can (e.g., *stony* can become *stonier*, *stoniest*).
    Example: *a stony stone path* is possible, but *a stone stony path* is not.

Compound headwords

***Compound headwords often function as single lexical units.**

1. **Stress Patterns:** The **headword (h)** in a nominal group typically contains the **final stressed syllable**.
    1. Examples:
        1. *the white **house*** (stress on *house*).
        2. *the black **bird*** (stress on *bird*).
        3. *the old **book*** (stress on *book*).
2. **Compound Headwords:** Compound headwords can be identified by the fact that the **first base element** carries the **stressed syllable**, while the **second element** does not.
    1. Example: *the **Whitehouse*** (stress on *White*, unstressed *house*).
    2. *the **blackbird*** (stress on *black*).
3. **Intonation and Hyphenation:** In spoken language, **intonation** helps identify these structures, while in written language, **hyphenation** is used, though inconsistently.

- **Difficulty of Interpretation:**
- Ambiguity or difficulty in interpretation can arise when:
    - There is more than one **exponent of n** (e.g., multiple classifiers).
    - The structure **nh** involves compound elements (e.g., *time-table commitments* or *school sum-book*).

1. **Structure nh (n compound):**

   In nominal groups with the structure **nh**, where **n** is compound, there is typically a stressed syllable on the **first base element of n** and an **intonation break** between **n** and **h**.

   1. *time-table/commitments* (stress on *time*, intonation break after *time-table*).
   2. *bank-rate/rise* (stress on *bank*, intonation break after *bank-rate*).

2. **Structure nh (h compound):**

   In nominal groups with the structure **nh**, where **h** is compound, there is typically a stressed syllable on **n** and on the **first base element of h**, with an **intonation break** between **n** and **h**.

   1. *school/sum-book* (stress on *school* and *sum*, intonation break after *school*).
   2. *London/road-map* (stress on *London* and *road*, intonation break after *London*).

3. **Structure nnh**

- This structure is less common but not unusual.
  - "subscriber trunk dialling"
  - "subscriber trunk dialling system"
  - "subscriber trunk dialling all-number system"
  - "subscriber trunk dialling all-number system fault“
  - n n h
  - "subscriber trunk dialling all-number system fault engineer"

- Rankshifting
- Rankshifting occurs when a clause or group operates within the structure of a lower unit (e.g., a nominal group) rather than at its typical rank in the sentence structure.

the man I visited in town

Here, I visited in town is a rankshifted clause operating within the nominal group.

- Clauses at Qualifier (q)

Clauses can operate at the qualifier (q) position in nominal groups, providing additional information about the headword.

the man I visited in town. Headword (h): man. Qualifier (q): I visited in town (rankshifted clause)

the man who came to dinner stayed a month. Headword (h): man. Qualifier (q): who came to dinner (rankshifted clause)

Rankshifting

Groups at Qualifier (q)

Groups can also operate at the qualifier (q) position in nominal groups, adding complexity to the group's structure.

a car that price

Headword (h): car

Qualifier (q): that price (rankshifted group)

shoes this size

Headword (h): shoes

Qualifier (q): this size (rankshifted group)

Ambiguity in Rankshifting

Rankshifting can sometimes lead to ambiguity in the interpretation of nominal groups.

he decided on the house in the country

Interpretation 1: the house which was in the country (rankshifted adverbial group at q).

Interpretation 2: while in the country, he made up his mind about the house (adjunct in clause structure).

Rankshifting

Adverbial Groups at q

Adverbial groups, which typically function as adjuncts in clause structure, can also operate at the qualifier (q) position in nominal groups.

a house in the city

Headword (h): house. Qualifier (q): in the city (adverbial group)

the snow on the hill

Headword (h): snow. Qualifier (q): on the hill (adverbial group)

Complexity at q

The qualifier (q) position can become complex due to recursion, where one qualifier contains another qualifier within it.

I found him in the house in the main street

(h): him . (q): in the house in the main street

Qualifier within Qualifier: in the main street qualifies the house, which in turn qualifies him.

Recursion in Qualifiers

Recursion occurs when a qualifier itself contains another qualifier, adding layers of complexity to the nominal group.

the books with leather bindings.

(h): books

(q): with leather bindings (adverbial group)

the car that price

(h): car. (q): that price (adverbial group)

Ambiguity in Structure

- Ambiguity arises when a nominal group can be interpreted in two different ways:
  - **Rankshifted Interpretation**: A clause or group operates at the qualifier (q) position within the nominal group.
  - **Adjunct Interpretation**: The clause or group operates as an adjunct in clause structure, providing additional information about the action.
  - *he decided on the house in the country*
    - **Interpretation 1 (Rankshifted)**: *the house which was in the country*. **(h)**: *house*. **(q)**: *in the country* (rankshifted adverbial group)
    - **Interpretation 2 (Adjunct)**: *while in the country, he made up his mind about the house*. **Adjunct (a)**: *in the country* (adjunct in clause structure)

Rankshifted Interpretation

- In the rankshifted interpretation, the clause or group operates within the nominal group, providing additional information about the headword.
  - *the house in the country.* **(h)**: *house.* **(q)**: *in the country* (rankshifted adverbial group)
  - *the snow on the hill was deep* **. (h)**: *snow* **. (q)**: *on the hill* (rankshifted adverbial group)

Sub-modifiers and Superlative Adjectives

Sub-modifiers

- Sub-modifiers are words like *only*, *just*, and *even* that can initiate group structure when a pre-deictic is present.
  - *only all the other boys*. **Sub-modifier**: *only*. **Deictic (d)**: *all the other*. **Headword (h)**: *boys*
  - *just all the other boys*. **Sub-modifier**: *just*. **Deictic (d)**: *all the other*. **Headword (h)**: *boys*

Superlative Adjectives

- Superlative adjectives (e.g., *best*, *most graceful*) often require a determiner and can be initiated by items like *much* or *quite*.
  - *much the best*. **Initiator**: *much*. **Superlative Adjective**: *best*
  - *quite the best*. **Initiator**: *quite*. **Superlative Adjective**: *best*

Special Cases (Deictic-like Items)

- Certain groups containing the item *of* (e.g., *a lot of*, *both of*) can operate like deictics, initiating group structure.
  - *a lot of the men*. **Deictic (d1)**: *a lot of*. *the d2*. **Headword (h)**: *men*
  - *both of the men*. **Deictic (d1)**: *both of*. *the d2*. **Headword (h)**: *men*

- **Adjectives Following Nouns**:
  - Adjectives typically precede nouns but can follow them for **conventional**, **stylistic**, or **appositional** reasons.
- **Conventional Reasons:**
  - Some constructions, historically modelled on French, place adjectives after the noun.
    - *fee simple*
    - *court martial*
    - *body politic*
    - *Postmaster General*
- **Stylistic Reasons:**
  - Adjectives may follow the noun for stylistic effect, especially in literary or poetic contexts.
    - *a leer menacing and horrible*
    - *thoughts dear and tender*
- **Sub-modified Adjectives:**
  - Adjectives may follow the noun when they are sub-modified.
    - *a talent so great*
    - *a joy too divine*
    - *a laugh so infectious*
- **Appositional Relationship:**
  - Adjectives may follow the noun to create an appositional relationship, providing additional information about the noun.
  - Examples:
    - *a man, cruel beyond belief*
    - *the woman, beautiful and clever*

- **Proper Nouns:**

- Proper nouns can present unique challenges.
- They can be pluralized (e.g., *the Alps*, *the Antipodes*).
- Homonyms of unique names may follow ordinary noun patterns (e.g., *the Joneses*, *a John Smith*, *the young Matthews*).

THANKS
FOR LISTENING