

LANE 333 -MORPHOLOGY 2012 - Term 1

AN INTRODUCTORY ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Parts of speech: Structure-Classes

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Structure-Classes

Structure-class words, sometimes called function words, are words that signal how the form class words (sometimes referred to as "content words") relate to each other in a sentence.

Structure-Classes

Structure classes have three main characteristics:

- 1- recognized mainly by position, as they rarely change form.
- 2- small in number.
- 3- stable and closed classes.

A. Qualifiers

- The qualifier occurs in the position just before an adjectival or an adverbial as shown:
- > The dinner was very good.
- > She performed rather skillfully.
- The function of a qualifier: is to modify; and
- The modified word: is called the head.

Qualifiers

- You can use a frame sentence to test whether a word is a qualifier:
- > The handsome man seems ____ handsome.
- You can supply very, quite, rather, etc.
- Many qualifiers appear similar to adverbs; however, you will find that they do not pass many of the adverb tests.

Qualifiers

- Qualifiers' position can accept any form class: Nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.
- The table was only inches wide.
- The water is boiling hot.
- My dress seems <u>lighter</u> blue than yours.
- You did <u>fairly</u> well.

Qualifiers

- 1. Some qualifiers are homophones of adjectives: **Pretty** good, **mighty** fine, **jolly** hot, **great** big,...
- Some qualifiers have a limited distribution: brand new, much alive, that good,.....
- 3. Some noun phrases and idiomatic expressions are considered qualifiers due to their positions:
 a lot, kind of, sort of, a bit (of).
- 4. The qualifiers used before a comparative differ from the ones used before the positive degree:
- I feel much better.
- I feel very good.

B. Prepositions

- Prepositions signal that a noun phrase called the object of the preposition follows.
- A noun phrase is any word or group of words for which a noun can be substituted.
- A preposition and its object are together called a prepositional phrase (PP).

Prepositions

- Prepositions are either simple (one-word) or compound (multi-word) prepositions.
- •Prepositions connect the nominal or noun phrases (the object of the preposition) that follow it to the rest of the sentence.

Examples:

- 1. Simple: e.g. about, of, by, since.
- 2. Compound: e.g. next to, by means of, in front of.

Prepositions

Simple Prepositions:

- English has a small group of prepositions:
- 1- one-syllable prepositions, which are frequently used such as *at*, *in*.
- Example: He came with the girl.
- 2-Two-syllable prepositions, such as about, before.
- **Example:** We invested *despite* the risk.

Prepositions

Compound prepositions

two-part

with noun

Examples

- 1. We arrived ahead of time.
- 2. The game was called off on account of rain.

Prepositions

Prepositions are usually followed by a noun, noun phrase, personal pronoun, or noun-substitute called the object of the preposition.

Examples:

- George sat <u>between</u> the two deans.
- George jumped <u>on</u> it.
- George went <u>from</u> this to that.

Prepositions

- Prepositional phrases themselves function as post modifiers of noun phrases or verb phrases in a sentence:
- Adjectival function: 'The voice of the people' (modifies the voice)
- > Adverbial function: 'hurried to the store' (modifies *hurried*)
- Adverbial function: 'sorry for the interruption' (modifies sorry)

Prepositions

Some of these words we have been dealing with can be either prepositions or adverbials.

Compare:

Preposition: She looked *up* the stairs.

Adverbial: She looked up.

cont., Prepositions

- The name Preposition implies that this structure word occupies a preposition.
- Prepositions usually precede their objects.
- Some —ing verb forms may function as prepositions. Example:
- Considering your loss, the bill will not be sent.

Prepositions

- There are cases where prepositions occur at the end of a structure and the object of the preposition was fronted for stylistic purposes:
- 1. Relative clause: The job (that) he worked at.
- 2. Passive: the lock had been tampered with.
- 3. Infinitive: Clay is fun to play with.

Prepositions

- 4. Exclamation: What a mess we got into!
- 5. **QW question**: Which room did you find it in?
- 6. <u>Set expression</u>: The world over, your objection notwithstanding.

C. Determiners

A determiner is a word that patterns with a noun.

It precedes the noun and serves as a signal that a noun is soon to follow.

Example: The gymnasium

If the noun is proceeded by adjectives and nouns, the determiner precedes these modifiers.

Examples:

- 1. The new gymnasium
- 2. The brick gymnasium
- 3. The new brick gymnasium.

Determiners

There are five main groups of determiners:

- 1. Articles: a/an, the
- Demonstratives: this, these, that, those
- 3. Possessives:
- Possessive nouns
- Prenominal Possive Pronouns: my, our, your, his, her, its, their,

Determiners

- 4. Indefinites & Quantifiers: some, any, no, every, other, another, many, more, most, enough, few, less, much, either, neither, several, all, both, each
- 5. Numerals:
- Cardinal numbers: one, two, three, four,...
- Ordinal numbers: first, second, third,....last

Determiners

The Ordering of Determiners:

Determiners occur before nouns, and they indicate the kind of reference which the nouns have. Depending on their relative position before a noun, we distinguish three classes of determiners:

- 1. Predeterminer
- 2. Central Determiner
- 3. Postdeterminer

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cont.,
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Determiners

EXAMPLE: 'I met all my many friends.'

I met

Predeterminer:

all

Central Determiner:

my

Postdeterminer:

many

Noun:

friends.

Determiners

- 1. Predeterminers: all, both, fractions (half, one-third), multipliers (double, twice)
- 2. Central determiners:
 - articles: the, a, an
 - demonstratives: this/that; these/those,
 - possessives: my, our, your, his, her, possessives of names
 - wh-determiners: which, whose, whichever
 - negative determiner: no

Determiners

3. Post-determiners:

- ordinal numerals: (first, second, former, latter, last, next)
- Cardinal numerals: (1, 2, 3)
- Quantifiers: (much, many, any, every, few)

Determiners

- The absence of a determiner to signal a following noun will sometimes produce ambiguity. Here is a case from a newspaper headline:
- >Union demands increase
- we do not know how to interpret increase because a signal is absent:
- A determiner would indicate that it is a noun: Union demands an increase
- 2. An auxiliary would indicate that it is a verb: **Union demands** *will increase*

Determiners

Some determiners overlap with noun substitutes (words that can substitute nouns) as in:

- 1. That will be enough
- 2. what can one do with old cars like *these*?
- 3. I can't tell Jim's tennis shoes from *his*.
- 4. I prefer *Elizabeth's*
- All the italic words are noun substitutes forming noun phrases whereas determiners form a constituent of a noun phrase which modifies the head nouns.

D. Auxiliaries

- Auxiliaries are closely associated with the verb and are of three kinds.
- 1. Modal auxiliaries
- 2. Primary auxiliaries: have and be
- 3. The periphrastic auxiliary: do

1. MODAL AUXILIARIES:

• There are ten modal auxiliaries: can, could, may, might, shall, should, will, would, must, ought (to).

Modal Auxiliaries

- The modal auxiliaries are bound together as a group by two characteristics of form:
- (a)The present tense form does not take an-s in the third person singular.
- (b) They do not have participle forms, present or past.

Modal Auxiliaries

- Modal auxiliaries precede verb stems and give the special shades of meaning such as:
- > Futurity

probability

> Volition

- > permission
- possibility
 necessity
- they are sometimes called verb markers because they signal that a verb is about to follow.
- The majority of the modals are said to have
- tense:
- can, could
 Shall, should
- May, might
 Will, would

Modal Auxiliaries

- *Must* and *ought to* do not have a parallel form, like the others. To express past tense of *must*, in the sense of necessity, we use "*had to*", e.g.:
- > This morning I *must* trim the hedge.
- Yesterday I had to trim the hedge.
- To express past tense of *ought to*, in the sense of necessity, we use 'ought to/should have + a past participle', e.g.:
- > You ought to see those strawberries.
- ➤ You *ought to have*/ *should have seen* those strawberries.

Modal Auxiliaries

- The negatives of must and ought (to) are not regular.
- If *must* means "is necessary" then its negative means "is not necessary". This negative meaning is expressed by *do not have to* or *need not*, and NOT by *must not*, which is forbiddance of the action of the following verb. Thus:

AFFIRMATIVE	NEGATIVE	
You must return tomorrow.	You don't have to return tomorrow.	
	You need not return tomorrow.	
You ought to carry that log away.	You ought not to carry that log away. (used in speech only)	
	You hadn't ought to carry that log away. (used in speech only)	
	You shouldn't to carry that log away. (the most common form)	

Primary Auxiliaries

2.The Primary Auxiliaries:

The second kind is the primary auxiliaries: have and be.

Forms of Primary Auxiliaries					
STEM	HAVE	BE			
Present tense	has/have	am/is/are			
Present Participle	having	being			
Past Tense	had	was/were			
Past participle	had	been			

Have and Be

• When auxiliaries are employed in groups of two or three, they must follow the sequence: modal + have + be

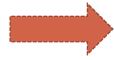
EXAMPLES					
	MODAL	HAVE	BE	{-ING vb}/{-D pp}	
Ι	might	have	been	fishing/shot	
George	may	1	be	reading/startled	
They	-	had	been	sleeping/seen	
She	must	have	-	quit	

- With have only one form is used in main-verb sequences.
- but be may be doubled, as in: "He was being punished."

<u>Do</u>

Auxiliary do has three main functions:

- 1. The formation of questions and tag questions in sentences which do not contain an auxiliary:
- Sally studies chemistry. Does Sally study chemistry?
- Sally studied chemistry. Did Sally study chemistry?
- Sally studies chemistry, doesn't she?
- Sally studied chemistry, didn't she?
- 2. The formation of negatives in sentences which do not contain an auxiliary:
- Sally studies chemistry. > Sally doesn't study chemistry?
- Sally studied chemistry. Sally didn't study chemistry?
- 3. The formation of emphatic sentences:
- I do like that one.



<u>Do</u>

- Do may also function as a main verb.
 Its general meaning is something "to perform" or "to cause":
- > I'll do it.
- It'll do you good.
- As a main verb, do may also get its meaning from another verb, as in:
- We want it more than they do. (i.e. 'want it').

Primary Auxiliaries

- It is important to note that primary auxiliaries can be main verbs in structures such as:
- > He did the dishes.
- We have a dog.
- She is a nice girl.

Auxiliaries in Questions and Negation

1. In forming questions:

The first auxiliary is placed in front of the subject:

- ➤ The dog should be licensed. →
 Should the dog be licensed?
- ➤They are happy. → Are they happy?
- ➤ Jim is teaching history. →
 Is Jim teaching history?

2. Negatives:

Placing the word 'not' after the first auxiliary:

>The dog should be licensed. →

The dog shouldn't be licensed



cont., Auxiliaries in Questions and Negation

- ➤They are happy → They aren't happy.

3. Tag questions:

Locate the first auxiliary of the utterance and repeat it in a subsequent tag

- >The dog should be licensed, shouldn't it?
- >The dog should be licensed, should it?
- >They are happy, aren't they?
- >They aren't happy, are they?
- >Jim is teaching history, isn't he?
- Jim isn't teaching history, is he?

Auxiliaries

- The behaviour and patterning of auxiliaries differ from those of verbs in several respects:
- an auxiliary verb is not used as a full verb. It may be used, however, as a substitute verb or in reference to a previously mentioned verb, as in:
- He ate an orange and so did I.
- > I can drive and so can he.
- > A: "Are you going to the play?"
 - B: "Yes, I am."

Auxiliaries

- 2. The negative of a verb phrase that has a verb only is different from a one that has an auxiliary verb.
- 3. Forming a question with an auxiliary is different than forming a question with a verb.
 - ➤ Affim." He has been attending." → Neg." He has not been attending."
 - ➤ Affim. "He attends" → Neg. "He doesn't attend."

E. Pronouns: Personal, Interrogative, Relative

- **Pronouns are** substitutes for noun phrases. This is clear if you perform a simple substitution test on the sentence:
- > That old torn hat is lying here.
 - * That old torn it is lying here.
 It is lying here.
- Of course, the forms of pronouns don't refer specifically to the noun phrase they are substituting.
- •The referent of a pronoun is called an antecedent:
- >A: You know that **hammer** we lost?
 - B: It is lying there.

Personal Pronouns

A personal pronoun is the most basic type used to substitute for a noun phrase. The forms of personal pronouns are determined by three different characteristics: person (1st, 2nd, or 3rd), number (singular or plural) and gender (masculine, feminine, or neuter).

Singular								
Person	Gender	Subject	Object	Prenominal Possessive	Possessive Pronoun			
1 st		I	Me	my	Mine			
2 nd		You	You	Your	Yours			
3 rd	M	Не	Him	his	His			
	F	She	Her	Her	Hers			
	N	It	its	Its	Its			

Pronouns

Plural						
Person	Subject	Object	Prenominal Possessive	Possessive Pronoun		
1 st	we	us	our	ours		
2 nd	you	you	your	yours		
3^{rd}	they	them	their	theirs		
Interrogative & Relative Pronoun						
	who	whom	whose	whose		

Pronouns

Examples:

- 1. They are going to the ballet.
- 2. It was she who missed the test.
- 3. We saw her in the car.
- 4. I gave her the letter yesterday.
- A package came from him.
- 6. That lawn mower is ours.
- 7. Yours was the best.

Relative Pronouns

- who, whom, whose, which, and that. These are called relative pronouns because they relate a dependent clause to an independent clause.
 - The woman who married Rusty is an aerospace engineer.
- Here the word who modifies a noun phrase, the woman. In fact, the woman is the antecedent of the relative pronoun. Since who modifies a noun phrase, it is functioning adjectivally. Adjectival clauses which use relative pronouns are called relative clauses.

- The woman whom Rusty married is an aerospace engineer.
- Why the change to whom? It is because the relative pronoun is functioning as the object of married, rather than the subject, as in the first sentence.
- •The form whose is a relative pronoun that functions as a possessive determiner within the relative clause.
 - The bicyclist whose helmet fell of kept writing.

- The pronouns who, whom, and whose are all used for human antecedents, and sometimes for animals.
- For nonhuman antecedents, a single form that is used.
 - The trip that intrigues me most visits the Copper Canyon in Mexico.
- The form that is also frequently used for human antecedents.
- However, the who forms tend to be preferred by more educated speakers and in standard English

- •The pronoun which has antecedents that are things, animals, and sometimes a general idea expressed by the rest of the sentence. It is never used for humans.
 - Those apple trees, which belong to our neighbour, bear beautiful fruit.
 - Carlo read all of War and Peace in one day, which astounded us.

- In the second sentence, the entire main clause is the antecedent of which.
- Sometimes whose is used as the possessive of that and which:
- >He tossed aside the lock whose key was missing.
- However, prepositional phrases are also frequently used:
 - > the lock to/for which the key was missing.

Interrogative Pronouns

- We use interrogative pronouns to ask questions.
- •The interrogative pronoun represents the thing that we don't know (what we are asking the question about).
- •There are four main interrogative pronouns: who, whom, what, which.
- Notice that the possessive pronoun whose can also be an interrogative pronoun (an interrogative possessive pronoun).

cont., Interrogative Pronouns

	subject	object	
person	who	whom	
thing	what		
person/thing	which		
person	whose		(possessive)

cont., Interrogative Pronouns

Notice that **whom** is the correct form when the pronoun is the object of the verb, as in "**Whom** did you see?" ("I saw **John**.")

However, in normal, spoken English we rarely use **whom**. Most native speakers would say (or even write): "**Who** did you see?"

Interrogative Pronouns

Examples

question	answer	
Who told you?	John told me.	subject
Whom did you tell?	I told Mary.	object
What's happened?	An accident's happened.	subject
What do you want?	I want coffee.	object
Which came first?	The Porsche 911 came first.	subject
Which will the doctor see first?	The doctor will see the patient in blue first.	object
There's one car missing. Whose hasn't arrived?	John's (car) hasn't arrived.	subject
We've found everyone's keys. Whose did you find?	I found John's (keys).	object

cont., Interrogative Pronouns

- •When we add "-ever", we get the pronouns (whoever, whatever, whichever).
- we use it for emphasis, often to show confusion or surprise. Examples:
 - Whoever would want to do such a nasty thing?
 - ➤ Whatever did he say to make her cry like that?
 - ➤ They're all fantastic! Whichever will you choose?

Conclusion

- Structure classes have relatively few and fixed members.
- they are closed classes as they rarely admit new members.
- they are recognized by position.
- they do not carry a heavy semantic load, but they are very important in what they signal and how the structure of a sentence is to be interpreted.

