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CENTRE FOR DISTANCE AND ONLINE EDUCATION

B. A. Part-III English

Semester - 5 Major Mandatory

Introduction to English Syntax Part-I

Semester - 6 Major Mandatory

Introduction to English Syntax Part -II

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Preface

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Each Unit begins with the section 'Objectives' -

Objectives are directive and indicative of :

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

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

Unit - I

Phrases

Contents:

- 1.0 Objectives
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 - 1.2.7 Section VII: The Adverb Phrases
 - 1.2.8 Section VIII: The Verb Phrases
- 1.3 Summary
- 1.4 Terms to remember
- 1.5 Answers to Check Your Progress
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1.0 Objectives:

This unit aims to :-

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

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

1.1 Introduction:

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

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

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

1.2 Subject Matter

1.2.1 Section I: Classes of Phrases

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

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

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

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

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

- a) the house PP(_p of _d the ^M Aj famous ^H N lady)

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

- b) GP(_d the ^M Aj famous ^H N lady’s) house

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

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

1.2.2 Section II: Main and Subordinate Phrases

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

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

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

^S
[_{NP} (Kavita) ^P_{VP} (buys) ^O_{NP} (many books)].

On the other hand, just observe the following sentence:

^S
[_{NP} (The covers ^M_{PP} (of the books)) ^P_{VP} (are) ^C_{AJP} (as red ^M_{PP} (as blood))].

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

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

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

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



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

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

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

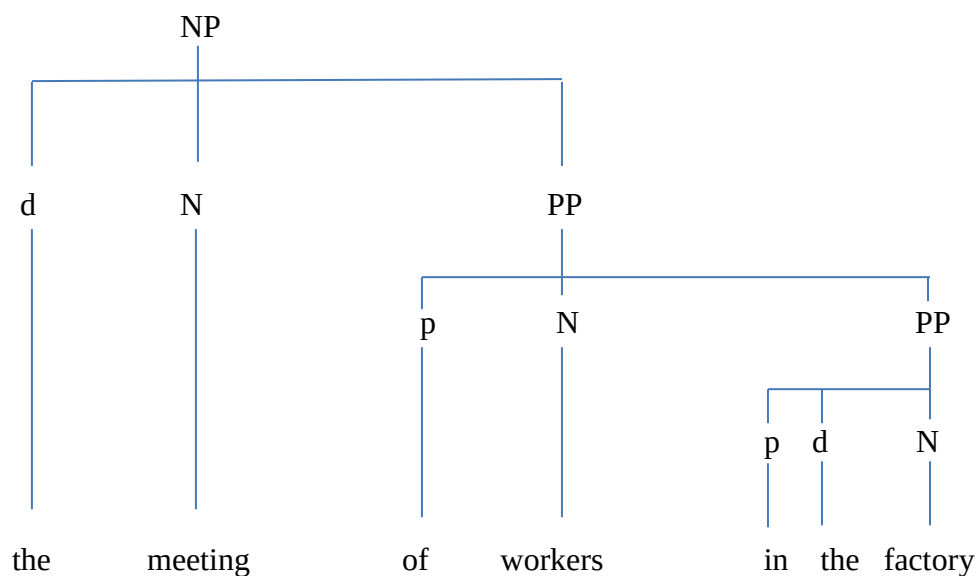


Diagram 1.1

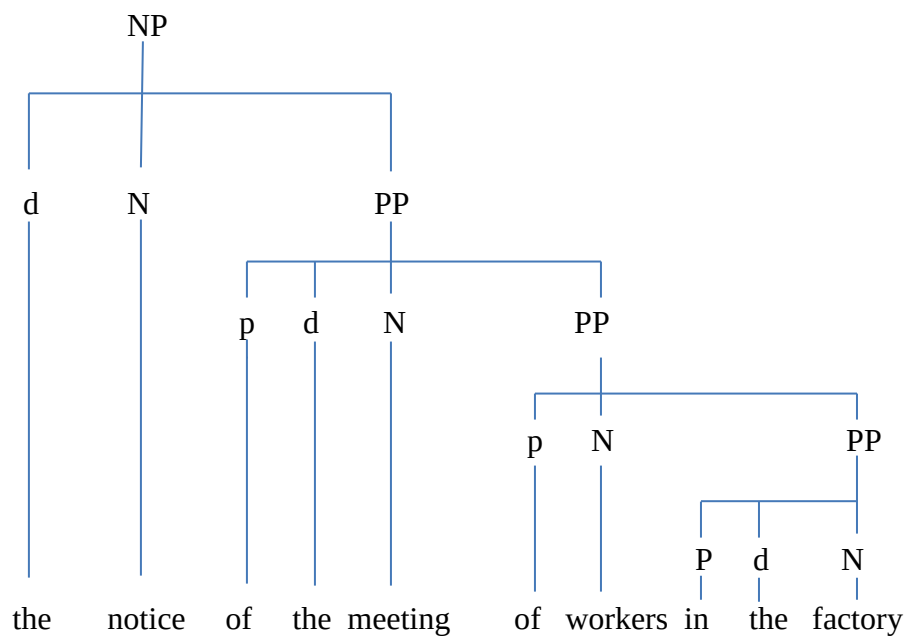


Diagram 1.2

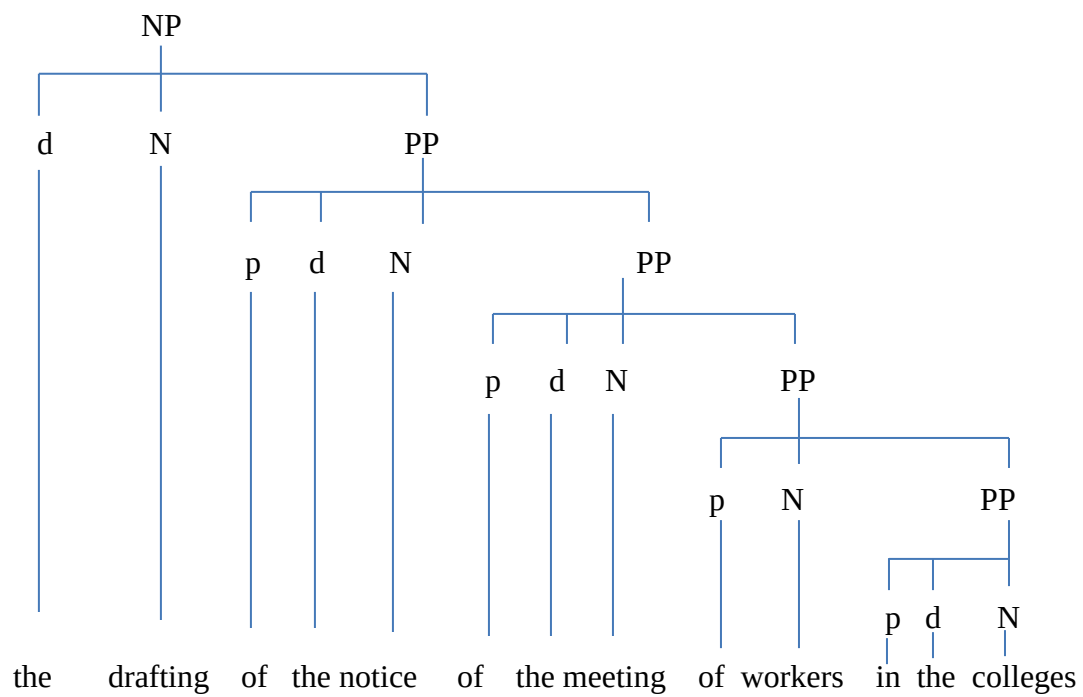


Diagram 1.3

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

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

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

1.2.3 Section III: The Noun Phrases (NP):

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

A) Function

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

a) In the clause NPs can act as:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

a. (^M_d her ^H_N brother, ^M_{NP} (**the versatile teacher**))

- b. ^H_N Manmohan Singh, ^M_{NP} (**the economist**)

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

(B) Structure

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

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

1. a **Noun:** ^M_{NP(d} a ^M_{Aj} good ^H_N **girl**), ^M_{NP(d} the ^M_{Aj} little ^H_N **lamb**), ^H_{NP} (^H_N **Kolhapur**), and others.
2. a **Pronoun:** ^H_{NP} (^H_{pn} **I**), ^H_{NP} (^H_{pn} **he**), ^H_{NP} (^H_{pn} **somebody** _{PP(from Kolhapur)}), and others.
3. an **Adjective:** ^M_{NP(d} the ^H_{Aj} **bold**), ^M_{NP(d} the ^H_{Aj} **beautiful**), ^M_{NP(d} the ^H_{Aj} **poor**), and others.
4. an **Enumerator:** ^M_{NP(d} the ^H_e **three**), ^M_{NP(d} all ^H_e **five**), ^M_{NP(d} the ^H_e **four**), and others.
5. a **Genitive Phrase:** ^H_{NP(GP} (**Mira's**)), ^H_{NP(GP} (**My mother's**)), and others.

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

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

'The smart' and 'all four' in (a) above are the NPs having adjective and enumerator as head respectively. 'The smart' is understood as 'the smart

person/student' and 'all four' refers to 'all four books' as the word, 'books' occurs in the earlier clause in the sentence (a).

➤ **Premodifiers of an NP can be:**

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

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

➤ **Postmodifiers of an NP:**

The postmodifiers of a Noun phrase can be:

1. **Prepositional phrases:** ${}^M_{NP}$ (men ${}^M_{PP}$ (in the room)),
 ${}^M_{NP}$ (the girl ${}^M_{PP}$ (from a village)), ${}^M_{NP}$ (a book ${}^M_{PP}$ (on the table))
2. **Relative clauses:** ${}^M_{NP}$ (the boy ${}^M_{RCI}$ [who loves music])
 ${}^M_{NP}$ (the bike ${}^M_{RCI}$ [which he bought]),
3. **Adverbs:** ${}^M_{NP}$ (the books ${}^M_{Av}$ downstairs), ${}^M_{NP}$ (the girls ${}^M_{Av}$ upstairs),
4. **Adjectives:** ${}^M_{NP}$ (someone ${}^M_{Aj}$ strong), ${}^M_{NP}$ (something ${}^M_{Aj}$ sweet)
5. **Noun phrases (in apposition):** ${}^M_{NP}$ (English, ${}^M_{NP}$ (the global language)),
 ${}^M_{NP}$ (Meena, ${}^M_{NP}$ (the group leader)), ${}^M_{NP}$ (the basil, ${}^M_{NP}$ (a medicinal plant))
6. **Comparative clauses:** They read ${}^M_{NP}$ (more books ${}^M_{CCI}$ [than they can buy books]).
7. **Prepositional clauses:** They had ${}^M_{NP}$ (the idea ${}^M_{PCI}$ [of when corona would start]).

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

${}^M_{NP}$ (${}^M_{Av}$ exactly ${}_d$ the ${}^M_e$ first ${}_e$ two ${}^M_{AjP}$ uncensored ${}^M_{AjP}$ adult ${}^M_{AjP}$ popular ${}_N$ films)

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

A. ${}^M_{NP}$ (${}_d$ the ${}_N$ ball ${}^M_{PP}$ (in the bag ${}^M_{PP}$ (on the table ${}^M_{PP}$ (in the bed room ${}^M_{PP}$ (of my sister))))))

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

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

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

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

➤ A. **Pronouns (pn):**

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

- e. **Wh-pronouns:** who, whom, whose, what, which, whatever, etc.

➤ **B. Determiners (d):**

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

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

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

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

However, the possessive determiners are single words which come in the position of the determiners, so they are treated as determiners. Previously they used to be treated as pronouns.

1.2.4 Section IV: Prepositional Phrases (PP)

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

(A) Function:

Prepositional phrases act as:

A) Adverbials (A) in the clause:

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

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

B) Premodifier in an NP:

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

C) Postmodifier:

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

3. **in an adverb phrase:** $_{AvP}(\text{too slowly } \overset{M}{\underset{PP}{PP}}(\text{for joy}))$

2. **in a prepositional phrase:** $_{PP}(\text{in a room } \overset{M}{\underset{PP}{PP}}(\text{in that house})),$

$_{PP}(\text{under the Jujibe tree } \overset{M}{\underset{PP}{PP}}(\text{behind your bungalow}))$

(B) Structure:

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

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

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

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

(b) (the boy $[_{NP}(\underset{whom}{whom}) \overset{S}{NP}(\overset{P}{she}) \overset{P}{VP}(\text{lives}) (\underset{p}{p}with)])$)

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

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

(a) The players stayed in a room.

(b) The players looked for a room.

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

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

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

1.2.5 Section V: The Genitive Phrase

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

(A) Function

Genitive phrases act as :

(a) premodifiers in NPs:

1. NP (^M_{GP} (**the friend’s**) car), 2. NP (^M_{GP} (**her father’s**) chair),
3. NP (^M_{GP} (**Rohan’s**) medical report)

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

1. NP (^M_{GP} (^M_{GP} (Payal’s) mother’s) ^H_N scooter)
2. NP (^M_{GP} (^M_{GP} (^M_{GP} (^M_{GP} (her teacher’s) wife’s) sister’s) husband’s) ^H_N house)

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

(c) the **head of NP**:

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

(B) **Structure**

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

Check Your Progress I

Identify the main and subordinate phrases in the following sentences.

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

1.2.6 Section VI: The Adjective Phrases (AjP)

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

(A) Function

AjPs function as:

(a) complement (C) in a clause:

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

(b) a premodifier in an NP:

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

(c) a postmodifier in an NP:

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

(B) Structure

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

1. adverbs:

- i. [She has become $\text{AjP} (\text{Av}^{\text{M}} \text{very}^{\text{H}} \text{Aj}^{\text{M}} \text{clever}^{\text{M}} \text{indeed})$].
- ii. [The boy became $\text{AjP} (\text{Aj}^{\text{H}} \text{confident}^{\text{M}} \text{Av}^{\text{M}} \text{enough})$].

2. prepositional phrases:

- i. $\text{AjP} (\text{Av}^{\text{M}} \text{too}^{\text{H}} \text{Aj}^{\text{M}} \text{small}^{\text{M}} \text{pp}^{\text{M}} (\text{for party}))$ ii. $\text{AjP} (\text{Av}^{\text{M}} \text{rather}^{\text{H}} \text{Av}^{\text{M}} \text{very}^{\text{M}} \text{Av}^{\text{H}} \text{too}^{\text{H}} \text{Aj}^{\text{M}} \text{hard}^{\text{M}} \text{pp}^{\text{M}} (\text{for comfort}))$

3. comparative clauses:

- i. [She looks $\text{AjP} (\text{Aj}^{\text{H}} \text{taller}^{\text{M}} \text{CCl}^{\text{M}} [\text{than her mother is}])$].
- ii. [He is $\text{AjP} (\text{Av}^{\text{M}} \text{more}^{\text{H}} \text{Aj}^{\text{M}} \text{handsome}^{\text{M}} \text{CCl}^{\text{M}} [\text{than his father was at his age}])$].

4. prepositional clauses:

- i. [The milk is $\text{AjP} (\text{Av}^{\text{M}} \text{too}^{\text{H}} \text{Aj}^{\text{M}} \text{creamy}^{\text{M}} \text{pCl}^{\text{M}} [\text{for her to consume}])$].
- ii. [The river was $\text{AjP} (\text{Av}^{\text{M}} \text{too}^{\text{H}} \text{Aj}^{\text{M}} \text{shallow}^{\text{M}} \text{pCl}^{\text{M}} [\text{for the swimmers to swim}])$].

1.2.7 Section VII: The Adverb Phrases (AvP)

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

(A) Function

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

- i. [He runs $\text{AvP}^{\text{A}} (\text{rather slowly})$]. ii. [She will reach $\text{AvP}^{\text{A}} (\text{there}) \text{AvP}^{\text{A}} (\text{very soon})$].

(B) Structure

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(c) **a comparative clause**:

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

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

Check Your Progress II

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

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

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

1.2.8 Section VIII: The Verb Phrase (VP)

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

(A) Function

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

- i. [We ^P_{VP} **(have been studying)** English for at least fifteen years].
- ii. [Rahul ^P_{VP} **(works)** here].

(B) Structure

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

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

- i. [They ^P_{VP} (eat) noodles]. : zero auxiliary
- ii. [She ^P_{VP} (has bought) a grammar book].: one auxiliary

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

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

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

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

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

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

Table 1.1

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

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

1.2.8.1 Verb forms:

All the full verbs and primary operator verbs in English have six forms. Let us see some examples of the fixed patterns in which verb phrases are constructed: English verb forms can be TENSED or TENSELESS. Earlier the term, FINITE was used for TENSED and NONFINITE was used for TENSELESS. The forms are: Vo,

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

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

Table 1.2

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

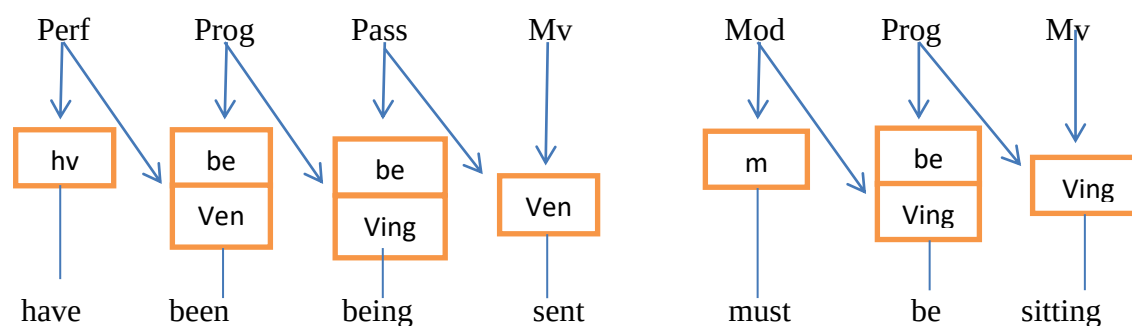
as in ‘She wants *to study* English.’ Vo, Vs, Ved and Vi forms of full verbs and primary verbs can occur independently in a clause and function as the main verb in a verb phrase.

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

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

Table 1.3

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



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

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

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

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

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

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

1.2.8.2 The dummy operator ‘do’

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Check Your Progress III

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

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

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

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

1.3 Summary

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

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

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

1.4 Terms to remember

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

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

1.5 Answers to check your progress

Answers to check your progress –I

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

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

Answers to check your progress –II

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

Answers to check your progress –III

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

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

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

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

1.6 Exercises

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

II. Distinguish between:

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

III. Write short notes on the following:

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

IV. Analyse the following phrases using tree-diagram:

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

1.7 References for further study

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Unit- II

Clauses

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2.0 Objectives:

After studying this unit you will be able to

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

2.1 Introduction:

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

2.2 Subject Matter-I

2.2.1 Clause

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

Let us glance at the following examples:

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

3. Although he still has his old one, Rajesh now has a new car.(one sentence two clauses)

6.2.2. Elements of the Clause

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

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

The five elements are illustrated in the following example.

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

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

Now let us study each of the elements in depth.

1. Predicator (P)

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

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

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

2. Subject (S)

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

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

[^S(Children) ^P(love) chocolates. = [^S(They) ^P(love) chocolates.

3. Object (O)

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

[^S(He) ^P(bought) ^O(a new computer)] = Direct Object

[^S(Mymother) ^P(give) ^{O_i}(me) ^{O_d}(a new dress)] = me-Indirect Object a new dress-Direct Object

[^S(He) ^P(served) ^{O_i}(her)] = Indirect Object

4. Complement (C)

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

[^S(She) ^P(is) ^{C_s}(smart).] = Subject Complement

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

[^S(The judge) ^P(declared) ^O(him) ^{C_o}(guilty).] = Object Complement

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

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

5. Adverbials (A)

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

[^A(Actually), ^S(she) ^P(works) ^A(at home) ^A(very rarely) ^A(these days).]

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

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

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

[^S(She) ^P(works) ^A(at home) ^A(very rarely.)] → [(She) (works).]

There are various types of adverbials based on the kind of meaning they convey:

Adverbial Type	Eliciting Question	Example
Place	Where?	[The book is ^A (on the table).]
Direction	Where to/ From?	[He threw the key ^A (at him).]
Time	When?	[I go to college ^A (in the morning).]
Duration	How long?	[They were in Pune ^A (for three years).]
Frequency	How often?	I visit the orphanage ^A (every Sunday).]
Manner	How?	[She speaks French ^A (fluently).]
Agency	By whom?	[The ball was caught ^A (by him).]
Reason	Why?	[I missed the train ^A (because I was late)]
Condition	In what circumstances?	[^A (If he comes) I will leave the hall]
Degree	How far/How much?	[You come ^A (too late).]
Sentence Adverbial	--	[^A (Luckily), I got the key.]

6.2.2 Basic Clause Patterns:

Elements of clause are organised in particular patterns or word orders. These patterns show how ideas are related to each other. In clause pattern Subject and Predicator are always obligatory but whether Object, Complement and Adverbial are obligatory or even possible, specifically, depends on the nature of the main verb.

Let us see what are the eight major basic clause patterns enlisted by G. N. Leech, and et.al:

1. [SP] [Birds fly.]
2. [SPOd] [He likes coffee.]

- | | |
|-------------|----------------------------------|
| 3. [SPOi] | [Grandma told her] |
| 4. [SPOiOd] | [He gave me a book] |
| 5. [SPC] | [My father is an engineer] |
| 6. [SPOdC] | [I proved her wrong] |
| 7. [SPA] | [She lives in Pune] |
| 8. [SPOdA] | [He puts the paper on the table] |

These clause patterns can be extended using additional optional clause elements.

Passive Clause Patterns :

Generally, a clause pattern with an object can be changed into a passive clause pattern. The object functions as subject with the same verb phrase, and the tense remains the same. For example, if the verb is in present tense it remains the same in the passive clause; the subject is changed into a Prepositional Phrase, hence it becomes an optional element of the clause. In the same way, for the [SPOi] and [SPOiOd] patterns, more commonly [Oi] becomes the subject. The predicator in the active voice is added with the passive participle or passive aspect (a form of BE+Ven). The object of the active clause becomes the subject of the passive clause. The subject in the active voice is both logical and grammatical but in the passive voice it becomes the Adverbial of agency (a PP beginning with the proposition, 'by'). In fact, in the passive voice clause the active voice clause subject is made passive and the focus is shifted to the object. The expression is made impersonal in which who did what is less important than what is done. See the following examples:

1. [SPO]→[SP]
 $[^S(\text{He}) ^P(\text{writes}) ^O(\text{a letter}) \rightarrow$
 $[^S(\text{A letter}) ^P(\text{is written}) \{^A(\text{by him})\}]$
2. [SPOiOd] →[SPA]/[SPOd]
 $[^S(\text{She}) ^P(\text{gave}) ^{O_i}(\text{me}) ^{O_d}(\text{a sari})] \rightarrow$
 $[^S(\text{A sari}) ^P(\text{was given}) ^A(\text{to me}) \{^A(\text{by her})\}] /$
 $[^S(\text{I}) ^P(\text{was given}) ^{O_d}(\text{a saree}) \{^A(\text{by her})\}]$
3. [SPOC] →[SPC]
 $[^S(\text{He}) ^P(\text{made}) ^O(\text{her}) ^C(\text{a secretary}) \rightarrow$

[^S(She) ^P(was made) ^C(a secretary) {^A(by him)}]

4. [SPOA] → [SPA]

[^S(He) ^P(puts) ^O(his paper) ^A(on the table)] →

[^S(His paper) ^P(was put) ^A(on the table) {^A(by him)}.]

Check your Progress I

I. Answer the following questions in one word/phrase/sentence:

1. What is a clause?
2. How many principal elements are there in a clause?
3. Which element denotes an action or state of being in the clause?
4. Which test is used to identify the phrase in subject position?
5. Which element is free and mobile in the clause?

II. Identify the clause elements underlined in the following sentences in terms of S,P,O,C,A:

1. Airmen fly aeroplanes.
2. John and Tom are very good friends.
3. They fed their dogs biscuits.
4. She looks very smart.
5. He drives the car very fast.

2.3 Subject matter II

2.3.1 Classes of Clauses

There are two types of clauses:

1. A Main Clause (MCI): a clause that stands alone as a sentence.
2. A Subordinate Clause (SCI): a clause which is usually a supporting part of a sentence and it cannot form a complete sentence.

Subordinating conjunctions link a subordinate clause to a main clause.

[They will learn a lot [_{cj} if they come to me]]

So far as the main clauses are concerned, there are three major forms of clauses in English: Declarative clause, Interrogative clause and Imperative clause. Let us have a look on these forms:

2.3.1.1 Declarative Clauses:

Declarative clause is the most basic form of the clause. It is generally used to make statement. They declarative clauses are used to give information. So all statements are declarative clauses. They have a usual pattern SPO/C/A.

They can be affirmative or negative.

[^S(He) ^P(Speaks) ^O(English) ^A(confidently)] – Affirmative

[^S(He) ^P(does not run) ^A(fast)] – Negative

2.3.1.2 Interrogative Clauses

There are two types of interrogatives: Yes/No Interrogative and WH–Interrogative.

Yes/No Interrogatives

The Yes/No Interrogatives ask for Yes/No answer. They are self-explanatory and are formed by placing the tensed operator verb of the verb phrase before the subject:

The form of Yes/No Interrogative-

[Has ^S (he) completed his work?] (P= v---V)

[Hasn't ^S(he) completed his work?] (P= v---V)

But in some cases if there is no operator, a suitable form of dummy operator, 'do' is used followed by an infinitive.

A tensed form of 'do' (do, does or did) is used in agreement with the subject.

[^S(He) ^P(won) ^O(the first prize)] P=V

[Did ^S(he) win the first prize] P= v---V

WH – Interrogatives

The WH – Interrogatives ask for information. They ask about one of the clause elements S, O, C or A using a WH- word. The types of WH-words are :

WH– Determiners– what, which

WH– Pronouns– who, whose, which, whom, what

WH– Adverbs– when, where, why, how

In a WH-Interrogative the finite operator is normally placed before subject. WH-word is so placed before the operator for the focus of attention.

WH-Questions begin with WH- words. Hence, the structure of WH-Interrogative can be: [WH - word + Aux + S + MV].

What are you doing? [WH - word + Aux + S + MV].

2.3.1.3.The Imperative Clauses:

The Imperative Clause has the tenseless predicator [Infinitive verb form –(Vi)] and no subject.

Most Imperative Clauses are in the second person. They are used to express command, order, request, instructions etc..

[^S(You) ^P(will close) ^O(the window).]

[Close the window.] Here subject ‘You’ is implied.

2.3.2 Active and Passive Clause:

The Active Voice is the basic and unmarked form of the clause. In this clause, Subject, that is, the ‘doer’ of the action is important.

[^S(Mohan) ^P(eats) ^O(a mango)]

[^S(He) ^P(taught) ^O(French) ^A(in a college)]

The Passive Voice is the more marked form of the clause. In this clause Subject remains inactive i.e. passive. This happens only when there is transitive verb. Here importance is given to object.

[^S(A mango) ^P(is eaten) {^A(by Mohan)}]

[^S(French) ^P(was taught) ^A(in a college) {^A(by him)}]

It is to be noted that while changing the voice, the Subject of the corresponding Active clause becomes an optional Adverbial of Agency in the Passive clause and it is marked with the preposition ‘by’. Many times, it can be omitted.

[^S(We) ^P(saw) ^O(three films)] → Active

[^S(Three films) ^P(were seen) ^A(by us)] → Passive

[^S(Three films) ^P(were seen)] → Passive

Check the progress II

Answer the following questions in one word/phrase/sentence:

1. What are the three major forms of main clause?
2. Which is the usual pattern of the declarative clause?
3. Which are the two types of interrogative clause?
4. What is the function of imperative clause?
5. Which is the basic and unmarked form of the clause?

2.4 Subject Matter III

2.4.1 Complex Sentences:

So far we have discussed simple sentences which comprise only a main clause (MCI). It is a clause that can stand alone as a simple sentence.

Se MCI [^S(She) ^P(works) ^A(in a factory)]

However, we often come across complex sentences in the texts. Let us study complex sentences. Which may comprise multiple clauses, that is, Main clauses and Subordinate clauses

Main clauses (Matrix clauses, Independent clauses) are those that can stand alone as a sentence. Subordinate clauses (Embedded clauses, Dependent clauses) are those that would be incomplete if they were alone. Complex sentences consist of more than one clause in them and additional clauses in them are joined either by coordination or subordination.

In coordination two clauses of equal rank or status are joined together with the help of coordinating conjunction such as and, or, but etc.

Se MCI[[You support your colleagues] and MCL[they will support you.]]

In subordination there are two clauses. One is Main clause and the other is a subordinal clause. This additional subordinate clause is joined to the Main clause with the help of a subordinating conjunction. The subordinate clause doesn't have any independent meaning unless it is linked to the Main clause.

Se MCI [^A_{SCI} [If you work hard] ^S_{NP} (you) ^P_{VP} (will get) ^A_{NP} (good marks)]

A subordinate clause is grammatically subordinate because it is a part of another clause. It is either an element (S, O, C or A) in a clause or a post modifier (M) in a phrase within a clause.

Se MCl^A_[SCI] [If you support your team-mates] ^S_{NP} (they) ^P_{VP} (will support) ^O_{NP} (you)]

Se MCl^S_[NP] (^H_N Players ^M_{SCI} [who support their team-mates]) ^P_{VP} (are supported) ^A_{PP} (in turn) ^A_{PP} (by them)].

2.4.2 Tensed and Tenseless Clauses:

In the previous unit we have studied Tensed (Finite) Verb Phrases containing a tensed verb form which shows tense (past or present) and subject-predicator concord (for person and number) or modality aspects. A tensed verb can be either an operator verb or a full verb.

Tensed clauses have tensed verb phrases which begin with a tensed verb form (Vs, Vo or Ved) i.e. Third person singular subject present tense form (Vs) Base form (Vo) and past tense form (Ved).

There are also tenseless verb phrases which begin with a tenseless verb form (Vi =Infinitive, Ving=present participle, or Ven=past participle) and are made of only tenseless verb forms. A tenseless verb does not show any particular tense. Moreover, it does not show the subject-predicator concord or modality aspect. The particle, 'to' is always followed by an infinitive (Vi).

Clauses having tenseless verb phrases are called Tenseless Clauses. The following table shows the structure of both the tensed and tenseless Verb phrases:

Tensed VP	Structure	Tenseless VP	Structure
Wrote	Mv	writing	Mv
	Ved		Ving
will write	AuxO Mv	to write	Mv
	^{mod} Vi		Vi
is written	Aux Mv	be written	Aux Mv
	vsVen		viVen

have been written	Aux Aux Mv	having been written	Aux Aux Mv
	vbvenVing		vingvenVen

Now see the examples of tensed and tenseless clauses:

1. [It would be nice _{SCI}[if you ^r_{VP} (^{MV}_{Ved} write) a letter]] [Tensed _{SCI}]
[It would be nice _{SCI}[if you ^P_{VP} (to ^{Mv}_{Vi} write) a letter]] [Tenseless _{SCI}]
2. [_{SCI}[The girl _{SCI}[who ^P_{VP} (^{Mv}_{vs} has) green eyes] is surprising] [Tensed _{SCI}]
[That girl _{SCI} [_{VP} (^P_{ving} ^{Mv} having) green eyes] is surprising] [Tenseless _{SCI}]

Check Your Progress III

State whether the following statements are true or false:

1. Complex sentence comprises only one clause in it.
2. In subordination two clauses of equal rank are joined together.
3. The subordinate clause cannot stand alone as a complete sentence.
4. The tenseless clause has no subject.
5. A tenseless verb shows tense and subject concord.

2.5 Summary

A Clause is the central unit of a language. It is a unit higher in rank than a phrase and lower in rank than a sentence. The clause consists of five principal elements namely Subject(S), Predicate (P), Object (O), Complement(C) and Adverbial (A). The basic clause patterns are based on these elements. There are basically two types of clause: Main (independent) or Subordinate (dependent). Main clauses are declarative, Interrogative and Imperative. Besides, there are Active and Passive clauses. Active voice is the basic and unmarked form of the clause whereas passive voice is more marked form of the clause. The complex sentence consists of more than one clause. If

these clauses are equal in status there is coordination and if the clauses joined together are not of the same rank then there is subordination.

2.6 Terms to Remember

- Concord: Agreement between subject and predicator
- Tensed clause: A clause containing the 'P' having a tensed verb form in the beginning.
- Tenseless clause: A clause containing the 'P' having a tenseless verb form in the beginning.
- Declarative: Making statement
- Interrogative: Asking questions
- Imperative: Giving orders, commands, making request
- Subordination: A unit of grammar occurring as an element of another unit of the equal rank or lower rank.
- Coordination: Two or more independent units of equal rank and status are joined together using coordinating conjunctions like 'but, or, and'.

2.7 Answers to check your progress

Check Your Progress I

- I.
 1. A clause is a group of words that comprises both the subject and the verb.
 2. Five
 3. Predicator
 4. A substitution test
 5. Adverbial
- II.
 1. Object
 2. Complement to subject
 3. Object direct
 4. Subject
 5. Adverbial

Check your Progress II

1. Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative
2. S V O /C/ A
3. 1 Yes/ No interrogative, WH-Interrogative
4. To express command, order, request, instruction
5. Active voice

Check Your Progress III

1. False
2. False
3. True
4. True
5. False

6.8 Exercises

I. Identify the clause elements in the following sentences in terms of S, P, O, C, A

1. I broke my pen yesterday.
2. A thief had entered the house.
3. My cousin may become a doctor.
4. They were told the whole story.
5. My wife always has a good cry over a wedding.
6. The court released him from jail.
7. His father went to school to visit the principal.
8. Mahesh will finish his work today.
9. You can't teach an old dog new tricks.
10. He sold his car yesterday

II. Write short notes on the following:

- 1) Basic elements of clause

- 2) Declarative and imperative clauses
- 3) Interrogative clauses
- 4) Active and passive clauses
- 5) Complex sentences
- 6) Finite and non-finite clauses
- 7) Basic clause patterns

2.9 References

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Unit - I

Subordination and Coordination

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1.0 Objectives

After studying this unit you will be able to:-

- i) understand the concepts of subordination and coordination.
- ii) know the types, structure, form, and function of subordinate clauses.
- iii) understand the tensed and tenseless subordinate clauses.
- iv) know the difference between direct and indirect subordination.
- v) understand the concept of coordination.

1.1 Introduction

Students, in the previous moduls, you have studied the elements of the clause, basic clause patterns, finite and non-finite clauses and the types of clauses. You are now familiar with the structure of finite and non-finite clauses. You are also well acquainted with the structures of simple sentences. You can analyze simple sentences by assigning form and function labels to the elements of clauses in simple sentences. But all the sentences in English are not simple. Majority of the sentences are complex. The complexity of sentences is due to the fact that the sentences can be made up of a number of clauses. These clauses in a sentence are linked to one another by two ways: subordination and coordination. In this module, we will study the two processes of subordination and coordination in detail. It will help us to understand and analyse the structures of complex sentences.

1.2 Subject Matter - I

1.2.1 Subordination:

After studying the grammatical units like word, phrase and clause, it is essential to study a higher unit in grammatical hierarchy-sentence. There are two types of

sentences: simple and complex. A simple sentence has a single clause in it. A complex sentence has more than one clauses in it. In the complex sentence the clauses may be related to one another by way of subordination. Subordination is not necessarily a relation between two clauses; it may be a relation between two phrases or two words. A Subordinate clause is always a part of another clause.

1.2.2 Subordinate clauses (SCI) :

Subordinate clauses (SCI), like other kinds of grammatical construction, are recognized in part by their function, and in part by their internal structure. As far as the functions are concerned, the subordinate clauses function as Subject, Object, Complement, and Adverbial. For instance,

1. [[What this country needs] is good government.]
2. [You should know [What this country needs]]
3. [A number of sincere politicians is exactly [What this country needs]]

In the above examples, the subordinate noun clause (NCI) [What this country needs] functions as Subject, Object and Complement. But see the sentence given below in which a subordinate clause functions as an Adverbial:

[[If you help me] I shall be grateful to you.]

The subordinate clause here is an Adverbial Clause (ACI) with an Adverbial function in the clause. An adverbial clause has the characteristics of Adverbials. An Adverbial is optional, mobile and shares itself to be an adverbial in terms of meaning.

In their internal structure, subordinate clauses are divisible into clause elements S, P, O, C, and A. Subordinate clauses usually have some markers which help to indicate their subordinate status. There are three types of markers:

1. Subordinating conjunction: such as if, when, that, because, although, etc
2. Wh-clause element: what, who, whoever, which, how, etc
3. A non-finite predicator - Such as Vi, Ving, Ven

Non-finite clauses (Cli, Cling, Clen) are those which have Vi, Ving, or Ven as the first verb of their predicator. They rarely occur as main clauses. Examples of markers:

[Seema will look smart [if^S(she)^P (wears)^D (a sari).]] cj -"if

[Seema will look smart [whatever^S (she)^P (wears)]] wh element-whatever

[She will look smart [^P(wearing) ^O(those clothes).]] non finite P- Ving

There are some clauses which have no introductory marker at all. These types of subordinate clauses are called Zero clauses, because they have no overt sign of their subordination to another clause.

e.g. [He says [(he) (is) (right).]] -Zero Clause

Here subordinate clause marker 'that' is not seen overtly. But it is taken for granted that it is there. It can be added if required.

7.2.3 Finite Subordinate Clauses:

There are two major types of subordinate clauses corresponding to the forms of the verbs: finite and non-finite. The finite verbs show tense and subject -verb concord. They agree with subject in terms of person and number. For example, 'worked', 'works', 'work', are finite forms of the verb 'work'; while 'working', 'to work', and 'worked' are non-finite forms of 'work'.

A) Types of Finite Subordinate Clauses:

The finite subordinate clauses can be classified into five classes according to their functions in the sentences. They are: finite noun clauses, finite adverbial clauses, finite relative clauses, finite comparative clauses and finite prepositional clauses. We shall study each clause in detail:

1) Noun clauses (NCI)-There are three major types of the finite NCI:

A) That Clause: That type finite noun clause begins with the conjunction 'that':

[^S [That Tom is still active in social work] is good.]

[I told him ^D[that he should take care of his parents]]

B) Zero that-clause: It is just like that clause except that subordinating conjunction 'that' is omitted. But we can insert 'that' at the beginning of the clause as and when required.

[The teacher told the students ^O [the earth is round].]

[Darwin proved ^D [man is developed from the species.]]

C) Wh-clause: The Wh- clause begins with a wh-element which may function within the clause as S, O, C, and A.

[^S_{NCI}[*Who wrote the book*] is a top secret.] NCI- S

[Tom told Jim ^O_{NCI}[the earth moves round the sun]] NCI- O

[It is a mystery ^C_{NCI}[who stole my book]] NCI- C

[I don't understand ^A_{NCI}[why she left the project incomplete]] NCI- A

2) Adverbial Clause (ACI):

Adverbial clauses can be classified semantically according to what questions they answer. There are adverbial clauses of place, time, manner, comparison, frequency, reason, purpose, condition and contrast. They can be illustrated as given below.

a. ACI of Place:

[People went ^A_{ACI}[wherever they find shelter.]]

b. ACL of Time:

[^A_{ACI}[When they went to him] , he was taking a breakfast.]

c. ACI of Manner:

[You do it ^A_{ACI}[as I told you]]

d. ACI of Comparison:

[^A_{ACI}[That as a math is attracted by a light] so he is fascinated by her.]

e. ACI of Reason:

[Tom lent him money ^A_{ACI}[because he needed it.]]

f. ACI of Purpose:

[Minister went to Delhi ^A_{ACI}[so that he could see the Prime Minister]]

g. ACI of Condition:

[^A_{ACI}[If you work hard], you will succeed.]

h. ACL of Contrast:

^A_{ACL}[Although he studied well] , he failed in the examination.]

There are some conjunctions having overlapping uses. For instance, 'as' has a number of different meanings and 'since' can express either time or reason:

^A_{ACI}[since I lost my glasses yesterday], I haven't been able to do any work.]

This sentence is ambiguous having the two interpretations. Here 'since' shows 'time' and 'reason' also:

- a. Since means reason due to loss of glasses.
- b. Since means from the time of loss of glasses.

3) Relative Clauses (RCI)

Finite Relative Clauses typically begin with a Relative pronoun. A relative pronoun relates the clause to the word, normally a noun or pronoun, which is the head of the NP. A Relative clause functions as a post modifier in a noun phrase or prepositional phrase and thus only indirectly part of another clause. Like Noun clauses, Relative clauses can be introduced by Wh-word, by conjunction 'that', or by zero. There are three types of RCI: Wh Relative clauses, that Relative clauses and zero Relative clauses.

A) Wh-RCI-

Clause which begins with wh-pronouns like who, which, whom, etc

[^S(The ^Hgirl _{RCI}^M[who was standing in the corner.]) is a teacher.]

[This is _{NP}^C(the ^Hbaby _{RCI}^M[which needs inoculation.])]

[Do you have _{NP}^O[a ^Htypewriter] _{RCI}^M[which you can lend me].)]?

B) That RCI-

[(The girl _{RCI}^M[that is in blue sari]) is my sister.]

[Do you know (any one _{RCI}^M[that can answer my question])]?]

[(The table _{RCI}^M[that my wife admires]) is made of teak.]

C) Zero RCI-

The 'that' used in relative clause is not a conjunction but is a relative pronoun. These relative pronouns have a NP-like function of S or C in the RCI itself. e.g.

[Do you know (anyone _{RCI}^M[who](can speak)(English))]?

Besides relative pronouns like who, whose, which, that, there are relative adverbs like where, when, that, which introduce relative clauses.

[That is (the place _{RCI}^M[where he was born])]

[That is (the period _{RCI}^M[when he lived here])]

[That is (the reason _{RCI}^M[why he spoke])]

In the above sentences, 'where', 'when', and 'why' can be treated as. Relatives, which adverb can be omitted in a relative clause:

[(The year [^S(he) ^P(was born)] was 1947.]

A relation pronoun can function as Head in a prepositional phrase:

[(The year ^A(in which) ^S(he) ^P(was born)] was 1947.]

4) Comparative Clauses (CCI):

Like relative clauses, comparative clauses have a post-modifying function. Relative Clauses post-modify nouns only, on the other hand, comparative clauses post-modify nouns, adjectives and adverbs. The most common and most typical comparative clause is easy to recognize, because it follows a comparative form such as more, less, bigger, etc. and is introduced by the conjunction *than*:

[Americans spend $_{NP}^O$ (more money $_{CCI}^M$ [than they earn])]

[The girl is $_{AJP}^C$ (less active $_{CCI}^M$ [than her brother was at that age.])]

[They must have been studying $_{AJP}^C$ (harder $_{CCI}^M$ [than I thought])]

[He secured $_{AJP}^C$ (more marks $_{CCI}^M$ [than (I) (have had) (credit points)])]

Under the same heading of comparative clause' may be included a range of clauses of degree, introduced by constructions as... as, so.....as, so.....that:

She is (as clever $_{CCI}^M$ [as her mother])

He is not (so smart $_{CCI}^M$ [as we think])

He ran (so fast $_{CCI}^M$ [that the police could not catch him])

Comparative clauses like sentential relatives are difficult to fit into any of the major functional categories. They often have the appearance of adverbial or adjectival modifiers.

I love you (more deeply $_{CCI}^M$ [than I can say])

He is not (as clever a man $_{CCI}^M$ [as I thought])

However, they also have some features in common with adverbial clauses. Semantically, we may consider them together with their correlative element (more, as -er, etc) in the main clause, as equivalent to a degree adverb.

5) Prepositional Clauses (PCI):

Prepositional clauses begin with a preposition. In finite prepositional clauses the preposition is followed by a wh-element. PPs are similar to NPs, PCIs are similar to NCIs: P+NP-PP, P+NCI-PCI

[The parents were surprised _{PCI}[at _{NCI}[what they saw]] = Adverbial

[He apologized _{PCI} [for _{NCI}[what he did]] - Adverbial

[They had (no idea _{M_{pp}}[of [who stole the money from the box]])- Post modifier

[(The girl _{M_{pcl}}[to _{NCI}[whom I gave my book]]) is very poor] Post modifier

The examples given above show that a prepositional clauses function as an adverbial or as a post-modifier in a phrase.

B) Functions of Finite Subordinate Clauses: We can show the summary of the functions of the subordinate clauses as follow:

Direct Subordinate Clauses	Function
Noun Clause	S, O, C
Adverbial Clause	A
Prepositional Clauses	A

Indirect Subordinate Clauses

Relative Clauses	M in NP
Comparative Clauses	M in NP, AjP, or AvP
Prepositional Clauses	M in NP, AjP or AvP

1.2.4 Check your progress - I

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

- 1) What is a complex sentence?
- 2) What is a subordinate clause?
- 3) What is a zero clause?.
- 4) Which grammatical categories can be noticed in finite subordinate clauses?
- 5) What is the function of a finite noun clause?

II) Complete the following sentences choosing the correct option given from those in the brackets.

1. The highest rank unit of a language is a.....
(sentence, clause, phrase, word)
2. ACI functions as an in the sentence.
(Adverbial, Subject, Object, Complement)
3. [I told her that the earth is round, the function of the underlined clause is.....
(Subject, Object, Complement, Adverbial)
4. functions as Post modifier in a phrase.
(CCI, NCI, ACL, PCI)
5. ... clause is a mobile clause.
(Adverbial, Relative, Noun, Prepositional)

III) Say whether the following statements are 'true' or 'false':

1. Comparative clauses post modify nouns, adjectives and adverbs.
2. Relative Clauses are part of NP.
3. In finite prepositional clauses the preposition is followed by a wh-element.

4. This is the man who speaks English fluently. The underlined subordinate clause in this sentence is finite noun clause.
5. Relative clause can function as subject.

1.3 Subject Matter II

1.3.1 Non-finite Subordinate Clauses

The finite or tensed clause always contains a subject as well as a predicator except in the case of commands and ellipsis. In contrast, non-finite clauses can be constructed without a subject and non-finite clauses are structurally deficient. There is the absence of the finite verb, they have no distinctions of person, number or modal auxiliary. Non finite clauses are divided into three classes according to the form of the predicator Infinitive Clauses: (Cli), ING Clauses (Cling), and - EN Clauses (Clen). These three clauses can be further classified as an NCI, as an ACI, as RCI, as CCI, or as PCI. Let us study them in detail:

Types of Non-Finite Subordinate Clauses

1. Non-finite-Noun Clauses

A. Infinitive Noun Clause (NCli):

- i) [The captain ordered his troops $_{NCli}^O$ (to fire) (the target)]
- ii) [She wanted $_{NCli}^{Od}$ [(all of them) (to listen) (carefully)]]
- iii) [$_{NCli}^S$ [To criticize others] is easy.]
- iv) [Her bad habit is $_{NCli}^C$ [to borrow money from friends]]
- v) [He wanted $_{NCli}^C$ [to sell his property]]

B. ING Noun Clauses (NCling)

- i) [$_{NCling}^S$ [Telling jokes] is his speciality.]
- ii) [We saw [$_{NCling}^O$ [(the girls)(being harassed) (by the road) – (Romeos.)]]

2. Non-finite Adverbial Clauses

A. Infinitive Adverbial Clauses (ACli)

- i) [Students work hard
- ii) [He went to the office $_{ACli}^A$ [in order" P(to meet) O(the principal)]]].
- iii) $_{ACli}^A$ [(To avoid) (interrogation)), he cancelled the appointment]

B. ING Adverbial Clauses (ACling)

- [$_{ACli}^A$ [Not (knowing)O(the answers)]he just wrote the questions.]]
- ii) [$_{ACli}^A$ [Having finished the job] , he went home.]

C. EN Adverbial Clauses (AClen)

- [$_{ACli}^A$ [Covered with confusion], he left the room.]
- [We left the room and went home, [$_{ACli}^A$ [the job finished]]
- [$_{ACli}^A$ [The work done,] he went home]
- [$_{ACli}^A$ [Nicely dressed,] She impressed everyone]

3. Non-finite Relative clauses

A. Infinitive Relative Clauses (RCli)

- [(The next ^{H} train $_{RCli}^M$ [to arrive]) was from Hyderabad]
- [(This ^{H} scholar $_{RCli}^M$ [to be seen daily in the library])is a scientist].

B. ING Relative Clauses (RCling)

- [(The ^{H} man $_{RCli}^M$ [writing the diary]) is my grandfather.]
- [I like (the ^{H} students $_{RCli}^M$ [attending the classes regularly])]

C. EN Relative Clause (RClen)

[(The only ^Hcar _{RCli}^M[repaired by that mechanic]) is mine]

[(Any coin _{RCli}^M[found on this site]) must be handed to the police.]

4. Non-finite Comparative Clauses (CCI)

Non-finite comparative clauses are less common in English. We have CCLI, infinitive comparative clauses and CClIng i.e. ING comparative clauses in this category:

A. Infinitive Comparative clause (CCLI)

[She is (more likely to act _{CCLI}^M[than to think])]

[He is (less inclined to write _{CCLI}^M[than to speak])]

B. ING Comparative clause (CClIng)

[He is (better at speaking _{CClIng}^M[than doing a work])]

[Gopal is (more interested in sports _{CClIng}^M[than discussing science topic])]

5. Non-finite Prepositional Clauses (PCI)

The-ING Prepositional Clauses (PClIng) occurs in this category:

[They escaped _{PClIng}^M[by (climbing) (on a ladder)]]

[They ran away _{PClIng}^M[by (creating) (confusion)]]

1.3.2 Check Your Progress- II

1) Answer the following questions in one word/phrase or sentence each:

- i) Name the classes of the non-finite subordinate clauses.
- ii) What structural deficiency are found in non-finite subordinate clauses.
- iii) What is the function of non-finite relative clause in the noun phrase?

2) Identify the non-finite subordinate clauses in the following sentence and indicate their form and function:

- i) He forgot to meet me.
- ii) Being a housewife, she depends on her husband for expenses.
- iii) The mango tree, swaying gently in the breeze, had a good crop of fruit.
- iv) I regret speaking to you rudely.
- v) Operation completed, the soldiers left the battlefield.
- vi) I saw criminal being beaten by the police in public.
- vii) To collect old coins is her hobby.
- viii) He is more likely to think than to act.
- ix) Boys escaped by climbing through the rope.
- x) Saurabh went abroad in order to earn in dollars.

1.4 Subject Matter - III

1.4.1 Direct and Indirect Subordination

Sentence, clause, phrase and word are grammatical units. There is a hierarchy or rank among them. Words make phrases, phrases make clauses and clauses make sentences. Units of lowest rank are used to make units of higher rank. But it is not a hard and fast rule. It is not a general phenomenon. Taking this into account, subordination is divided into two types: direct and indirect subordination. In direct subordination a unit can be an element of another unit of the same rank. For instance an adverbial clause can be part of another clause. And in indirect subordination a unit can be an element of another unit of lower rank. For example, a relative clause can be part of a noun phrase. It is also called rank shifting

Direct Subordination: Subordination at the same rank

A) Clause-within-clause- [... [CI]]

Noun Clause functioning as subject or object or an Adverb Clause functioning as an adverbial can be given as examples of it: NCI as S, O and ACI as A

- i) [[What they learn in the course of the Art of Living] is really valuable]
- ii) [He remembers [what he reads]]
- iii) [[If you help us], we will be happy.]

B) Phrase within phrase (....())-

eg PP as M of an NP or of another PP

- i) [_{NP}^S(The monkey (with a long tail)) is a new comer in this gang]
- ii) [_{NP}^S(Lesson number four (on page fifty) (of this text)) is rather difficult]

C) Word within word-

In compound words, one word occurs as a part of another word.

e.g. tea-pot, flower-pot, writing paper, husband-wife, etc.

Indirect Subordination: In indirect subordination a unit of a higher rank functions as an element of a lower rank unit:

I) Clause within phrase (..... [])

eg. Relative clause as M in an NP or a PP

[_{NP}^S(The fruits _{NP}^S[which are kept in the basket]) are fresh.] NP

[_{NP}^S(The book _{NP}^S[in which objectionable matter is included]) was withdrawn by the author]

II) Phrase within-word-

In this category, some compound words containing prepositional phrases occur- e.g. lilies (of the -valley), Commander (in chief), master (at arms), mother (in-law)

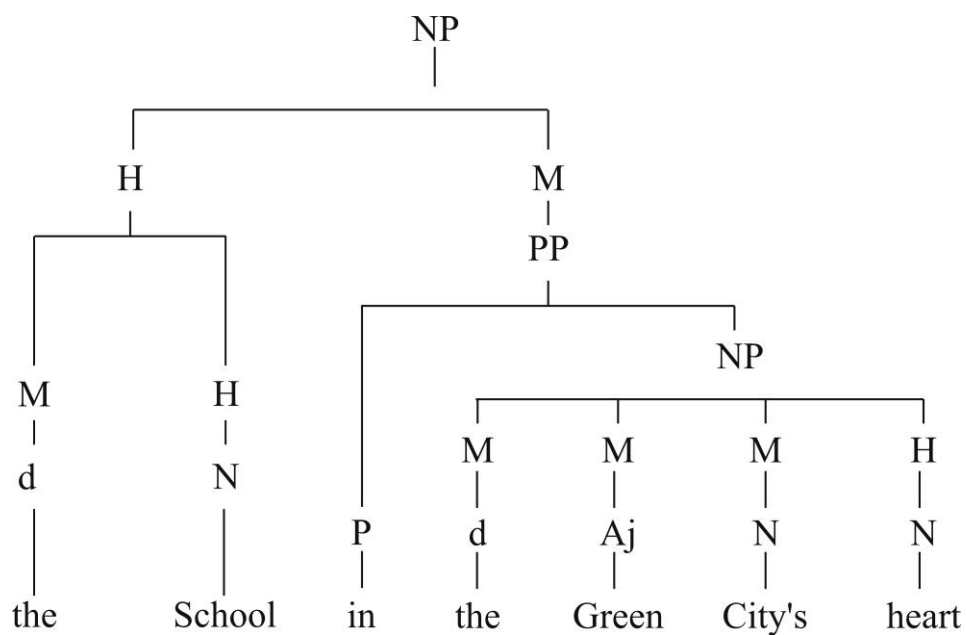
III) Clause within word-

This is a doubtful category but it can be noticed in

- i) [(batter pudding-[hurling contest]
- ii) [music listening-teaching] job
- iii) I am not ([that type of man attitude])
- iv) [dress designing] contest)

7.4.2 Skeleton Analysis:

The subordination introduces so much potential complexity and complication in the structure of sentences. In such cases, we have to find out a simplified notation to show the layers of structure. It can be presented through SKELETON ANALYSIS. This type of analysis tree diagrams help to show structure clearly. We can place a single line under a symbol, to indicate that whatever constituents occur underneath that line are the elements of the constituents named above it.



This NP can be represented through skeleton as:

$$\frac{H - M}{(MH \quad M)}$$

$$\overline{(PMMM H)}$$

Skeleton clause analysis

This can be used to show the structure of a sentence in terms of main and subordinate clauses. The sentences,

- a. [^S[That ^S(his mother) ^P(is) ^C(a doctor)] ^P(is known) ^A(to all).]
- b. [^S(People) ^P(know) ^O[that ^S(she) ^P(can win).]]

can be analyzed:

- a.
$$\frac{[S \quad P A]}{C_j \quad SPC}$$

$$b. \frac{[SP \ O]}{C_j \ SP}$$

Thus, skeleton analysis is very useful when we analyze more complex sentences containing a number of subordinate clauses.

1.4.3 Check Your Progress III

1) Say whether the following statements are 'True' or 'False':

- i) The elements of a unit are always units of the lower rank.
- ii) Direct subordination is of units of the same rank.
- iii) Rank shifting takes place in indirect subordination.

II) Answer the following questions in one word/phrase or sentence each:

- i) Name the three types of direct subordination.
- ii) Which alternative term is used for the principle of subordination?
- iii) What is the purpose of Skeleton Analysis?

1.5 Subject Matter IV

1.5.1 Coordination

Coordination is a way of making a sentence as complex as we like by joining the units of the equal rank and kind. Coordinating conjunctions like *and*, *or*, and *but* are used to join clauses, phrases or words in coordination. It is a way of bringing together main clauses, subordinate clauses, phrases and words.

1.5.2 Types of Co-ordination

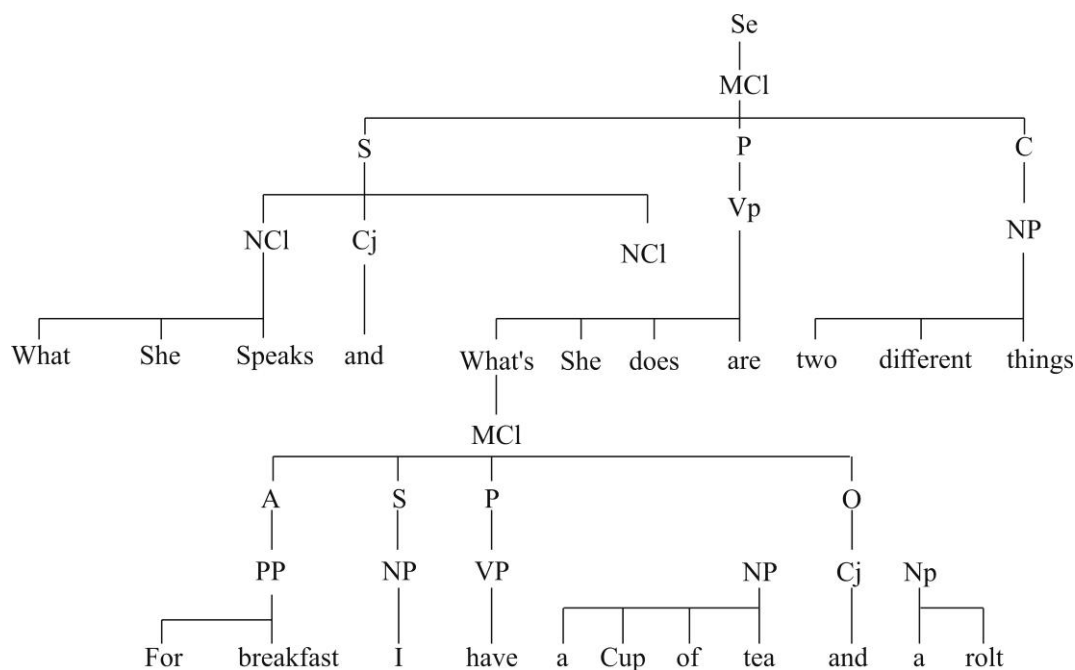
A) Co-ordination of Clauses:

There is a coordination of two clauses like -

1. [_{NCI}[What she speaks] and _{NCI}[What she does] > are two different things.]

2. [< [When she comes] and [where she goes] > is a top secret.]

3. [< [He came] and [he conquered].>]



B. Coordination of Phrases:

[You will have < NP(a box of sweets) and NP(a box of dry fruits)>]

Here, two NPs are joined with the help of conjunction 'and'.

[He travels < (by plane) and not (by car)>]

[He < (can sing) and (dance)>]

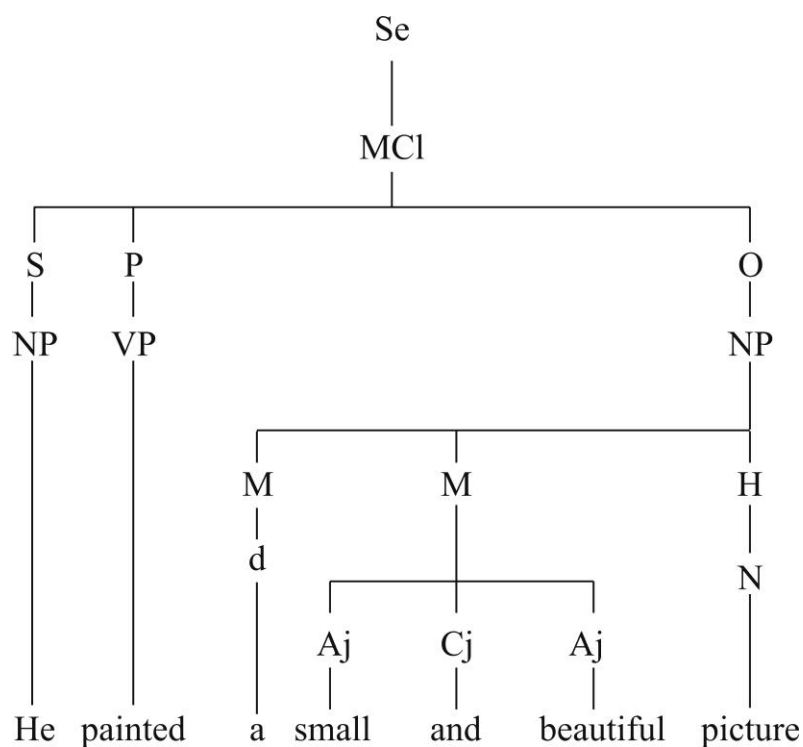
C) Coordination of words:

[They are his < (friends) and (neighbors)>]

[They are (kind) and (cooperative)>]

[He painted a <(small) and (beautiful)> picture.]

Conjunction can be omitted altogether in coordination. This may be called unlinked co-ordination, e.g.



1. She is not a woman, she is goddess.
2. He is not a man, he is a mouse.

1.5.3 Cheek Your Progress-IV

1) Answer the following questions in one word/phrase or sentence each:

1. What is subordination?
2. How many types of coordination are there?
3. What is an unlinked coordination?

1.6 Glossary and Notes:

1. **Concord**- subject verb agreement in respect with tense, number and person.
2. **ellipsis**-dropping of elements which can be gathered through context

3. **Structurally deficient** - absence of overt grammatical devices like tense number and person
4. **Direct subordination**-subordination of the same rank.
5. **Indirect subordination**- subordination of units of lower rank.
6. **Rank shifting**-embedding of units of higher rank in the units of lower rank
7. **Unlinked coordination** - Where coordinating conjunction is not used.
8. **Skeleton**-Having only the essential parts.
9. **Complex sentence**-sentence with more than one clause.

1.7 Let us sum up

We have learnt that subordination and coordination are the two ways of making sentence complex. Subordination is a relation between two clauses or two phrases or two words. A subordinate clause is always a part of another clause, while a coordinate clause is joined with another clause or (clauses) of the same status. Subordinate clauses can be recognized through their function and structure. Subordinating conjunctions are used to join the clauses under subordination and coordinating conjunctions are used to connect units in coordinating constructions. Noun Clauses (NCI), Adverbial Clauses (ACI), Relative Clauses (RCI), Comparative Clauses (CCI) and Prepositional Clauses (PCI) are the types of the finite subordinate clauses. Noun Clauses can function as S, O, C. Adverbial Clauses and Prepositional Clauses can function as Adverbial. Relative Clauses, Comparative Clauses and Prepositional Clauses, can function as Modifiers in phrases.

Non-finite subordinate clauses are structurally deficient. Non-finite noun clauses, adverbial clauses relative clauses, comparative clauses and prepositional clauses make use of infinitive, -ing and - en types depending on their type.

Direct subordination has an element of another unit of the same or equal rank but in indirect subordination an element of another unit of lower rank is part of unit of higher rank. In these two types of subordination, clause - within clause, phrase

within -phrase and word - within word can be cited as illustrations. Skeleton analysis is used to show the layers of structure.

Coordination, like subordination, is a way of making sentence as complex as we like. Coordination of clauses, phrases and words is possible. Conjunctions can be omitted in coordination sometimes. Coordination of such type is called unlinked coordination.

1.8 Exercises:

A) Identify the Finite and Non-finite subordinate clauses in the following sentences and give form and function labels:

1. Who locked the door is a mystery.
2. That she will return is a guess.
3. They went wherever they could find work.
4. Do you know the author who wrote *The Dollar Bahu*?
5. Ravi spends more money than he earns.
6. The manager was shocked at what the cashier did.
7. They advised him to join the party.
8. To forgive is divine.
9. Seeing the police, the crowd ran away.
10. She went to the market to buy fruits.
11. Passengers sitting on the top of the bus were brought down.
12. She is more likely to act than to think.
13. Thief escaped by opening the back door.
14. If you wake up early in the morning, you will get fresh air.

15. Defenseless, he stood silent.
16. The question is who will bell the cat.
17. John likes to pay his bills in time.
18. I lost the book gifted by my best friend.
19. We saw Newzealand being beaten by India in the world cup.
20. He doesn't look as handsome as he said.
21. The bridge which was under construction collapsed.
22. Working in the particular field without knowledge is very dangerous.
23. The best book for her to sell is *You Can Win*.
24. That Radha obtained distinction is unbelievable.
25. She is not interested in what others say about her.

B) Indentify the Adverbial Clauses in the following sentences and state their type like manner, place , time, reason, etc:

1. When he last saw you, you lived in Karad.
2. Wherever known, such facts have been reported.
3. If you treat him kindly, he'll do anything for you.
4. She must be lying if he told you that.
5. Although I enjoyed myself, I was glad to come home.
6. John lent her the money because she needed it.
7. Seeing that the weather has improved, we shall enjoy our game.
8. She left early to catch the train.
9. Not knowing America's intention India signed the agreement.
10. The harder he worked, the happier he felt.

D) Write short notes on the following:

1. Subordinating conjunctions
2. Finite subordinate clauses
3. Non-finite clauses
4. Finite noun clauses
5. Direct and indirect subordination
6. Coordination
7. Finite and non-finite relative clauses
8. Adverbial Clauses

1.9 Answers to check your progress I

- I. i) A complex sentence contains more than one clause in it.
ii) A subordinate clause is always a part of another clause.
iii) Zero clauses have no overt sign of their subordination to another clause.
iv) Grammatical categories like tense and concord.
v) S, O, C
- II i) Sentence
ii) Adverbial clause.
iii) Object
iv) Post -modifier
v) Adverbial.
- III i) True

- ii) True
- iii) True
- iv) False
- v) False

Key to check your progress - II

- I). i) Infinitive clause, - ING clause and - EN Clause
 ii) There is no overt indication of tense and subject concord.
 iii) Post modifier
- II) i) [to meet me] Form NCl- Function- O
 ii) [Being a housewife] Form: ACI ing, Function- A
 iii) [Swaying gently in the breeze] Form- ACIing Function- M
 iv) [Speaking to you so rudely] Form- NCIing Function- O
 v) [Operation completed] Form- ACIen Function- A
 vi) [being beaten by the police] Form- ACIen Function- A
 vii) [To collect old coins] Form- NCl- Function- S
 viii) [than to act] Form- CCl- Function- M
 ix) [by climbing through the rope] Form- PCIing Function- M
 x) [in order to earn in dollars] Form- ACI- Function- A

Key to check your progress-III

- I) i) False
 ii) True
 iii) True

- II) i) Clause - within clause, phrase - within phrase, and word - within - word.
ii) Embedding
iii) to show the layers of structure.

Key to check your progress - IV

- 1) In subordination units of the rank of unequal status are brought together.
- 2) Three
- 3) No use of overt conjunction

1.10 Reference Books:

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2. Quirk, Randolph and Greenbaum, Sidney, *A University Grammar of English* London, Longman, 1973.
3. Roberts, Paul. *'English Syntax'* New York: Harcourt, Brace and world, Inc. 1964.
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Unit - II

Basic and Derived Structures

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2.0 Objectives

This module aims to:-

- introduce students to the concept of ‘Basic and derived structures’.
- acquaint students with the structure-changing rules in English.
- familiarize students with the instances of omissions in English.
- make students learn about role the structure-changing rules of English.
- explain to students the various derived structures of English.

2.1 Introduction

Dear students,

You are studying B. A. Programme with English as the major subject. Yours is the first batch of the students to enter the third year of the B. A. Programme of this subject as per NEP-2020 pattern. Up to the second year of the programme, you studied language units like ‘Words’, ‘Morphology’, ‘Speech Mechanism’, and ‘Phonology’. This year in the fifth semester you have studied the English language units such as ‘Phrases’ and ‘Clauses’. And in the earlier unit, you have been introduced to the English complex sentence structures through ‘Subordination and Coordination’.

In the units ‘Words’, ‘Phrases’, ‘Clauses’, and ‘Subordination and Coordination’ you were introduced to the constituent structure grammar. These units have outlined a

method of parsing English sentences. However, you may find it difficult to apply this method to many sentences you read in different books, because there you will have to deal with a range of grammatical patterns which are not properly grammatical as per the structures you have studied in the units from ‘Words’ to ‘Subordination and Coordination’. This is an extra grammatical dimension which is referred to as BASIC and DERIVED by Leech and et all (2022, p. 123).

2.2 Presentation of Subject Matter

2.2.1 Constituent Structure Grammar

According to Leech and et and all (p.33), grammar is ‘a set of rules for constructing and for analyzing sentences’. And in the units from ‘Words’ to ‘Subordination and Coordination’, you studied the kinds of rules which enable us to identify the constituents of sentences and their structures. The primary focus here is to ‘analyse’- to put a sentence to pieces – rather than to ‘construct’. The aim of constituent structure grammar is parsing of sentences. It is mainly concerned with the kinds of rules which enable the learners to identify the constituents of sentences and their structures. For instance,

- a) ‘The structure of a VP is ‘({Aux}{Aux} {Aux} {Aux} Mv)’: It specifies the structure of a class of constituent.
- b) ‘A ‘Subject’ (S) can an NP or an NCl’: This shows that classes of constituent can fill a given functional slot.
- c) ‘A SCl can be either tensed (finite) or tenseless (non-finite)’: This shows that a constituent has subclasses.

It is very interesting that such rules can be used to analyse as well as construct or generate grammatical sentences, if they are formulated precisely enough. Such rules can be used to form a sentence such as ‘A cat can cry.’ However, they cannot be used to form sentences like ‘A cry can cat.’; as such sentences violate one of the rules of English grammar. This clearly shows that grammatical rules are used to analyse, produce sentences or to judge if they are grammatical or not. Leech, Deuchar and Hoogenraad (2022) call this model a CONSTITUENT STRUCTURE model of grammar. Here the notion of BASIC and DERIVED structure is introduced. The constituent structure grammar provides a two-dimensional view with the tree-diagrams. Moreover, basic and derived structure makes grammar three-dimensional.

Here a new kind of grammatical rule is used. This ‘rule relates two different constituent structures with essentially the same meaning’ (Leech & et all, 2022, p. 124)

2.2.2 Basic and Derived Structures

The English language has a fairly fixed word order. However, it has some exceptional orders too. The English word order actually refers to ‘phrase order’ or ‘the order of elements in the clause’. You know that S-P-O-C-A is the neutral basic order of clause elements in normal declarative clauses. And the interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory clauses are systematic deviations from this basic order. For instance,

- a) She hates honey. --- Basic Order --- SPO
- a₁) Honey she hates. --- Derived Order --- OSP
- b) That is a huge six. --- Basic Order --- SPC
- b₁) What a huge six that is! --- Derived Order --- CSP
- c) He went home. ---- Basic Order --- SPA
- c₁) Home he went. --- Derived Order --- ASP
- c₂) Home went he. --- Derived Order --- APS

The above rules change one clause structure into another. That is why these rules are called ‘Structure-changing’ rules which are discussed in the following sections:

2.2.2.1 Rule of Fronting

In this Rule the basic structure SPO/C/A becomes O/C/ASP. This rule is used under two conditions:

A) The Rule is used in Main Clauses (MCIs) to give emphasis: For example,

- a. [^S(She) ^P(comes) ^A(here)]
- a₁. [^A(Here) ^S(she) ^P(comes.)]
- b. [^S(He) ^P(has) ^O(a happy home.)]
- b₁. [^O(A happy home) ^S(he) ^P(has.)]

In this condition, this rule is optional because either order is grammatical.

B) This rule is used when the shifted element is a WH-element like what, when, which, why, etc. For example,

a. *I don't know [^S(you) ^P(say) ^O(what)].

b. I don't know [^O(what) ^S(you) ^P(say)].

In this condition, the structure-changing rule is obligatory because only the derived order (b) is possible.

2.2.2.2 Rule of 'S-P Inversion':

In this rule the basic structure ASP→becomes→APS. It is applied in MCIs, where 'A' is an adverbial of place, where 'S' is not a pronoun, and where 'P' has a Mv of position or motion. For example,

a. [^A(Up) ^S(she) ^P(goes).]

a₁. [^A(Up) ^P(goes) ^S(she).]

b. [^S(They) ^P(sat) ^A(there).]

b₁. [^A(There) ^S(they) ^P(sat).]

b₂. [^A(There) ^P(sat) ^S(they).]

To put it in other way, SPO/C/A order is an 'unmarked' order. It is the neutral order or 'default' order. It is used when there is no reason to use some other order. On the other hand, O/C/ASP order is 'marked' or 'derived'. It is used less frequently and is stylistic.

Check Your Progress – I

A) Emphasize the underlined elements by using the rule of 'Fronting':

a. She visits the library everyday.

b. Ravi had a cozy car.

c. They waited here.

d. He sang a song.

B) Apply 'S-P Inversion' rule to the following sentences

a. Down a girl went.

b. By the wall a boy stood.

c. Up the hill a tiger ran.

d. Here the scholars meet.

2.2.3 ‘Missing’/ ‘Ghost’ Elements

2.2.3.1 Rule of ‘Omission of Relative Pronouns’

‘A relative pronoun preceding the subject can be omitted’. This rule refers to the ‘ghost’ elements in grammar which are not explained in the constituent structure model. ‘Ghost’ elements do occur in a given sentence but they are always ‘understood’ as part of meaning of that sentence. For example,

- a. $\begin{matrix} S \\ \text{[}_{NP} \end{matrix}$ (The mangoes $\begin{matrix} M \\ \text{RCI} \end{matrix}$ [^O(which) (she) (sold)]) (were) (sour).]
- a1. $\begin{matrix} S \\ \text{[}_{NP} \end{matrix}$ (The mangoes $\begin{matrix} M \\ \text{RCI} \end{matrix}$ [(she) (sold)]) (were) (sour).]
- b. $\begin{matrix} S \\ \text{[}_{NP} \end{matrix}$ (The place $\begin{matrix} M \\ \text{RCI} \end{matrix}$ [^A(that) (I) (visited) (recently)]) (was) (lovely).]
- b1. $\begin{matrix} S \\ \text{[}_{NP} \end{matrix}$ (The place $\begin{matrix} M \\ \text{RCI} \end{matrix}$ [(I) (visited) (recently)]) (was) (lovely).]

In (a₁) and (b₁), the relative pronouns (‘which’ and ‘that’) are ghost elements. They are not seen but understood. This rule says that a relative pronoun coming before the ‘S’ of a relative clause can be omitted. It is applied to ‘restrictive’ relative clauses which are not separated by commas or other punctuation marks.

2.2.3.2 ‘Omission in Comparative Clauses

Like RCIs, in comparative clauses one or more elements can be missing. In comparative clauses the elements which are repeated from the main clauses can be omitted. They can be omitted to such an extent that the CCI is transformed into a prepositional phrase. For example,

- a. [Sachin could score (more centuries $\begin{matrix} M \\ \text{CCI} \end{matrix}$ [than Virat could score centuries])].
- CCI[cjS P O]
- a1. [Sachin could score (more centuries $\begin{matrix} M \\ \text{CCI} \end{matrix}$ [than Virat could])]. - CCI[cjS Aux]
- a2. [Sachin could score (more centuries $\begin{matrix} M \\ \text{PP} \end{matrix}$ (than Virat))]. - PP (p N)

‘Than’ in (a₂) behaves like a preposition and not like a subordinating conjunction. Such type of omission is optional. Here it is clearly seen that omission can affect the rank of a constituent or element. The (a₁) is an example of ELLIPSIS (Reduction of grammatical complexity by avoiding repetition of words and structures used or understood elsewhere in the context). The (a₁) structure is derived rather than basic as an Aux (‘could’) occur without its Main verb.

Omission in Comparative clauses can be obligatory also. e. g.

b. [Virat is (stronger_{CCI}[_{cj}than^S (he)^P (seems)])]

In the above CCI the verb, ‘seems’ needs a complement, but here it is omitted and understood. However, it is ungrammatical to complete the clause structure by putting the complement ‘strong’ after ‘seems’. Hence, * ‘Virat is stronger than he seems strong’ is a grammatically incorrect sentence.

2.2.3.3 ‘Omission in Coordinate Constructions

You already know that coordination is a way of making sentences as complex as we wish. In coordination, coordinating conjunctions are used to join together two or more units of equal rank and class. It means coordination joins two or more words, phrases, or subordinate clauses of similar class. It also joins two or more sentences. And while coordinating such units to simplify the structure, repeated elements are omitted systematically. Hence, there is a rule of COORDINATION REDUCTION:

‘Two or more coordinate clauses can be reduced in length by the omission of words and structures in one clause that are merely repetitions of what is in another clause’.

For instance, study the following sentences:

a. <[Nishal goes to college everyday] and [his friend goes to college everyday]> is a basic coordinate sentence. We can derive a sentence with coordination reduction by omitting mere repetitions as in the following sentence:

a₁. [<(Nishal) and (his friend)> (go) (to college) (everyday)]

This shows that a sentence (a₁) having two coordinated phrases is derived from a sentence with two coordinated clauses (a) by applying the rule of coordination reduction.

The same is applicable in the case of coordinated words:

b. $\langle$ [Rita loves mangoes from Ratnagiri] and [Rita loves fish from Ratnagiri] and [Rita loves solkadi from Ratnagiri] $\rangle$.

b₁. [(Rita)(loves)_{NP} (^H $\langle$ _Nmangoes and _Nfish and _Nsolkadhi $\rangle$ from ratanagiri) $\rangle$].

Such ellipsis in coordination is possible if the coordinate parts are not whole constituents. For instance,

c. [(He) $\langle$ (went) (home) and (took) (tea) but (didn't take) (rest) $\rangle$]

The structure of the above coordinate sentence is [S $\langle$ PA +PO+PO $\rangle$]

The above example exemplifies branching coordination which is presented in the following diagram:

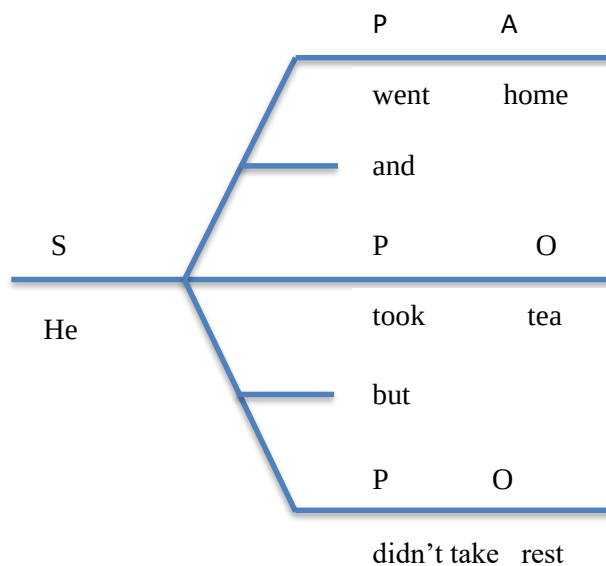


Diagram:2.1

2.2.3.4 Tag Questions:

These are important derived structures with the missing elements. Perhaps they are the most interesting type of elliptical clauses. In fact, the tag question is an interrogative clause, which is 'tagged' onto the end of a declarative clause. Tag

questions are not used to obtain information. They function as a request for confirmation.

The tag question is not an eccentric feature of English. It is very commonly used in conversation. The tag question changes according to the form of the declarative clause. It is commonly followed that the tag question is negative, if the declarative clause is affirmative:

- i. They are clever, aren't they?
- ii. Reena loves music, doesn't she?
- iii. Rohit missed the chance, did he?
- iv. The monkeys will quarrel, won't they?

The negation in tag questions is usually in contracted form. If the declarative clause is negative, the tag question is positive:

- i. You are not upset, are you?
- ii. Reshma won't come with us, will she?
- iii. The bowlers had no experience, had they?

However, it must be noted that a tag question can be affirmative even the declarative clause is affirmative:

- i. She served him, did she?
- ii. They care their parents, do they?

As far as parsing is concerned, tag questions are puzzling, as their relation to the preceding declarative clause comes under neither coordination nor subordination. So Leech and et. All (2022) treat tag questions as cases of unlinked coordination (in which conjunctions can be altogether omitted):

MCI [They can speak English], MCI [can't they]?

MCI [Then he ran away], MCI [did he]?

Check Your Progress – II

Do as directed:

- a. The books which she reads are very interesting. (Rewrite the sentence by omitting the relative pronoun.)

- b. I liked the house that they purchased. (Rewrite the sentence by omitting the relative pronoun.)
- c. Shaila is tougher than her sister is tough. (Transform CCl into PP and rewrite the sentence.)
- d. Horses can run faster than lions can run fast. (Transform CCl into PP and rewrite the sentence.)
- e. The students should go to library regularly and they should borrow books regularly and read them regularly. (Rewrite the sentence using the rule of 'Coordination Reduction')
- f. My mother is hard-working and my mother is very loving but my mother is very strict. (Rewrite the sentence using the rule of 'Coordination Reduction')
- g. Your father likes cold coffee. (Add a tag question)
- h. The students did not make noise. (Add a tag question)

2.2.4 Split Constituents:

Split constituents are the constituents which are split or broken into two parts by an intrusive element. Normally, the intrusive element can be an adverbial or a subject. This element brings in discontinuity in the structure and spoils the neatness of the constituent structure and makes the constituent, especially the predicator a split constituent. The structures with the split constituents are considered derived structures.

As far as a basic declarative clause is concerned, the intrusive element is normally an adverbial that splits the predicator as in:

$[^A(\text{Always})^S(\text{she})^P(\text{had taken})^O(\text{right decisions})]$.

This is a basic declarative clause. It begins with the Adverbial, 'Always' which can be used as an intrusive element to split the predicator and to produce a derived structure as below:

$[^S(\text{She})^P(\text{had } ^A(\text{always}) \text{ taken})^O(\text{right decisions})]$.

$[^S(\text{They})^P(\text{could } ^A(\text{finally}) \text{ persuade})^O(\text{their parents})]$.

Similarly, while deriving an interrogative clause, the 'subject' of the basic declarative clause acts as the intrusive element and splits the 'predicator'. This is an instance of inversion. This derived structure inverts the subject and the tensed operator.

For example,

- a. [^S(She)^P(can run)^A(fast)] - Basic declarative
- a₁. [^PCan ^S(she) run)^A(fast)]? - Derived interrogative
- b. [^S(He)^P(will win)^O(the game)] - Basic declarative
- b₁. [^P(Will ^S(he) win)^O(the game)]? - Derived interrogative
- c. [^S(They)^P(donate)^O(books)] - Basic declarative
- c₁. [^O(What)^P(do ^S(they) donate)]? - Declarative interrogative

In bracketing split constituents are represented by the link ‘└’ as in

[^S(They)^P(could (finally) persuade)^O(their parents).]

└

[^P(Will ^S(he) win)^O(the game)]?

└

In tree diagrams the split constituents are represented with crisscrossing branches, for example:

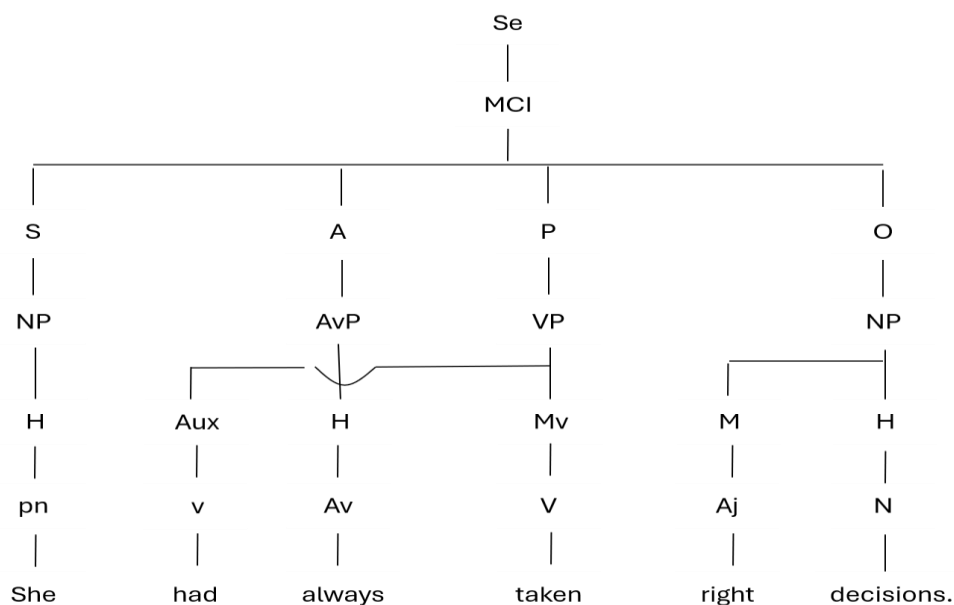


Diagram: 2.2

2.2.5 Double analysis:

Sometimes a constituent structure model of grammar leads to conflicting analyses. Neither of these analyses is satisfactory on its own. Such instances are called double analysis. The rules of Passive Reconsidered and Subject Raising belong to double analysis category.

2.2.5.1 The Passive Reconsidered:

There are different types of clauses as per the structure and elements they have. As far as structure is concerned, a clause can be declarative, interrogative or imperative. And when it comes to elements, a clause can be active or passive. The active clauses have the transitive predicator that takes an object and in the passive clauses the logical subject of the active clause is transformed into the adverbial of AGENT.

The subject and object of the active clause are logical as well as grammatical. On the other hand, the subject of the passive clause (i.e. logical and grammatical object of the active clause) is only grammatical and not logical. And the structure changes as per the rule called ‘Passive Optional’ which is as below:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} S & P & O & S & P & A \\ NP_1 & \cdots M_v & \cdots NP_2 & \rightarrow & NP_2 & \cdots PassM_v & \cdots \{PP = by + NP_1\} \end{array}$$

The following examples show the application of these rules:

- a. [^S(Students)^P(kept)^O(the books)^A(on the counter)].
- a₁. [^S(The books)^P(were kept)^A(on the counter)^A(by students)].
- b. [^S(Those girls)^P(were supplying)^O(fruits)^A(in villages)].
- b₁. [^S(Fruits)^P(were being supplied)^A(in villages)^A(by those girls)].

So using the rule of ‘passive optional’ we can have two apparently incompatible analyses which are both correct.

2.2.5.2 Subject Raising:

Let us come to a little more complicated example of the same type. The English language has ‘chain like’ constructions which are called CATENATIVE constructions. These constructions have a sequence NP₁+ VP₁+{NP₂} + VP₂.... Here NP₁ and NP₂ are different noun phrases and VP₁ and VP₂ are different verb phrases. However, VP₂ is tenseless (especially, with infinitive verb prefixed by particle ‘to’).

For example,

- i. Hema wished her friend to carry her bag.
- ii. We would like them to design the plan.
- iii. Lata supposed English to be an opportunity.
- iv. John told the girl to serve some rice.

In all the above examples there are two VPs and hence there are two Ps and subsequently two clauses out of which the main clause is tensed and the subordinate clause is tenseless. The subordinate tenseless clause is Infinitive Noun Clause (Ncli) which functions as ‘O’ of the main clause. However, the function of NP₂ in this context is not clear. The NP₂ functions as either an object (O) in the main clause or a subject (S) in the subordinate infinitive clause.

It is better to treat the NP₂ as the subject of subordinate clause in the example (i) and (ii) :

- i. [^S_(Hema) ^P_(wished) ^O_{[^S_{NP₂} (her friend) ^P_{VP₂} (to carry) ^O_{NP₃} (her bag)]]].}
- ii. [^S_(We) ^P_(would like) ^O_{[^S_{NP₂} (them) ^P_{VP₂} (to design) ^O_{NP₃} (the plan)]]].}

In the above examples the structure of both the main clause (MCl) and subordinate clause (SCL) is [SPO].

The NP₂+ VP₂+ NP₃ structure of the subordinate clauses in the above examples can be changed into the passive without a change of meaning-

- ia. [Hema wished [her bag to be carried by her friend]].
- ii. [We would like [the plant to be designed by them]].

On the contrary, in the examples (iii) and (iv) NP₂ occurs as the element (O) of the main clause rather than (S) of the subordinate clause and these examples are analyzed differently in the following way:

- iii. [^S_(Lata) ^P_(supposed) ^O_(English) ^{Co}_{[^P_(to be) ^C_{(an opportunity)]]}].}
- iv. [^S_(John) ^P_(told) ^{O_i}_(the girl) ^{O_d}_{[^P_(to serve) ^O_{(some rice)]]}].}

The above sentences can be changed into passive in which NP₂ becomes ‘subject’ of the passive main clause as it is treated as an object of the main clause:

iii.a. [^S(English)^P(was supposed) ^C[^P(to be) ^C(an opportunity) ^A{by Lata}]].

iv.a. [^S(The girl)^P(was told)^O[^P(to serve)^O(some rice)^A{by John}]].

All the above analyses create the dilemma which takes place in the context of the subject of a passive clause. But this dilemma can be resolved if both analysis are allowed to coexist.

In such a situation the rule of ‘Subject Raising’ can be used to raise the subject of a subordinate clause and make it the object of the main clause. The rule is:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} S & P & O & S & P & & \\ [NP1 & VP1 & SCI & [NP2 & VP2 & \dots]] & \rightarrow & [NP1 & VP1 & NP2 & SCI & [VP2 & \dots]] \end{array}$$

The following examples show the use of the above rule:

1. Lata supposed [English to be an opportunity]- Basic
2. Lata supposed English [to be an opportunity]- Derived

Check Your Progress – III

Change the voice of the following sentences:

- a. The farmers shall sell the fruits in the weekly market.
- b. Bring some water here.
- c. We have arranged an urgent meeting.
- d. The students can complete a degree programme within six years.

2.2.6 Style and Structure- changing Rules:

Till now it is clear that basic to derived structure change does not change the content of a sentence to a large extent. Most structure-changing rules change the position of the elements in the sentence. These rules are stylistic in function. They change the way that things are said; the way the information is presented to the receiver (i.e. the reader/ listener). These rules focus how the things are said/written rather than what is said/written. So the structure-changing rules offer slightly different structures with similar meaning having different communicative effects. The following are the other instances of stylistic structure- changing rules.

2.2.6.1 Clefts:

A number of different cleft sentences or cleft clauses can be derived from the same basic structure using the following rule:

[SPOCA]	→	[It be S that POA]
(Basic		[It be O that SPA]
Structure)		
		[It be A that SPO]
	(Derived	Cleft
	Sentences)	

The above rule is roughly described step by step in the following manner:

- i. An element (S, O, C, or A – but not ‘P’) of the clause is chosen.
- ii. The chosen element is moved in the initial position.
- iii. Begin the derived cleft sentence with the ‘dummy’ subject ‘It’.
- iv. Use the suitable form of the ‘be’ (is/was) as per the tense of the basic structure.
- v. After that use the chosen element
- vi. Then use the relative pronoun ‘that’ after the chosen element.
- vii. Lastly use the remaining elements of the basic sentence as per their original sequence.

For example,

1. Rita has been reading a novel for last two months.- (**Basic Structure with the pattern SPOA**)

Derived Cleft sentences:

- 1a. It is **Rita** that has been reading that novel for last two months.
- 1b. It is **that novel** that Rita has been reading for last two months.
- 1c. It is **for last two months** that Rita has been reading that novel.

2. The boys will win the game next time. - (**Basic Structure with the pattern SPOA**)

Derived Cleft sentences:

- 2a. It is **the boys** that will win the game next time.
2b. It is **the game** that the boys will win next time.
2c. It is **next time** that the boys will win the game.
3. Pran invited his friends to his home yesterday. - (**Basic Structure with the pattern SPOAA**)

Derived Cleft sentences:

- 3a. It was **Pran** that invited his friends to his birthday party yesterday.
3b. It was **his friends** that Pran invited to his birthday party yesterday
3c. It was **to his birthday party** that Pran invited his friends yesterday.
3d. It was **yesterday** that Pran invited his friends to his birthday party.

From the above example it is seen that the cleft is a single clause or a sentence which is split or left into two separate clause - like parts. For example,

It was Pran / that invited his friends to his birthday party yesterday.

Though a cleft sentence is a single clause with two predicators, it does not have two separate clauses. The second part of a cleft ('beginning with that') is similar to a relative clause.

2.2.6.2 Existential Clauses:

The existential clause is called so as it begins with the existential particle 'there' which shows someone's or something's existence. 'There' in this clause is the 'dummy' subject. The rule to derive the existential sentences from a straightforward simple declarative clause is:

[S be X] (Basic Structure) → **[There be S X]** (Derived Existential structure)

In the above rule,

S = a (normally indefinite) NP

X = Anything which is added to complete the clause after the operator – verb 'be'.

This structure-changing rule postpones new information until the end. Hence, the function of this rule is ‘end focus’.

For example,

- i. Somebody is here. → There is somebody here.
- ii. Nobody was in the classroom. → There was nobody in the classroom.
- iii. A few students are attending the classes. → There are a few students attending the classes.
- iv. The plan had been executed successfully. → There had been the plan executed successfully.

2.2.6.3 Extraposition:

This type of structure-changing rule needs the basic clause having a subordinate noun clause functioning as subject. And this NCl is postponed to the end of the main clause. The NCl functioning as a subject is replaced by the ‘dummy’ subject ‘It’.

The effect of the change of structure in extraposition is postponement or end weight (i.e. to move an element towards the end of the clause). It places a heavy element (here an NCl) at the end. See for example:

- i. [[Where she goes] doesn’t matter]. → [It doesn’t matter [where she goes]].

$$\begin{matrix} S \\ \text{[NCl P]} \end{matrix} \rightarrow \begin{matrix} S \\ \text{[It P NCl]} \end{matrix}$$
- ii. [[That she loves coffee] is unbelievable]. → [It is unbelievable [that she loves coffee]].

$$\begin{matrix} S \\ \text{[NCl P C]} \end{matrix} \rightarrow \begin{matrix} S \\ \text{[It P C NCl]} \end{matrix}$$
- iii. [[To write poems] gives him pleasure]. → [It gives him pleasure [to write poems]].

$$\begin{matrix} S \\ \text{[NCl P Oi Od]} \end{matrix} \rightarrow \begin{matrix} S \\ \text{[It P Oi Od NCl]} \end{matrix}$$

2.2.6.4 Fronting of Subordinate Clause ‘object’:

This structure-changing rule leads to ‘fronting’ as it moves an element to the front of the sentence. Here, the extraposition construction discussed above is taken as the basic structure. For example:

[It is easy to cook rice]. → [Rice is easy to cook].

[It is challenging to write an essay].→ [An essay is challenging to write].

[It's a pleasure to see you]. →[You are a pleasure to see].

2.2.6.5 Substitution of Prepositional Phrase (PP) for Indirect Object (Oi):

While studying ‘clauses’, you have studied the elements of clause. P, S, O, C, A are the major elements of clause. Out of which, object is of two types: direct object(Od) and indirect object (Oi).

When Od and Oi occur together in a clause, Oi comes before the Od. The Oi in this case can be substituted by a ‘PP’ beginning with the preposition, ‘to’ or ‘for’ signifying goal or purpose. And this PP is postponed after the Od. For instance,

Deepak told the boys the story. → Deepak told the story to the boys.

Shivani brings us tea. → Shivani brings tea for us.

Tanuja knitted her husband a muffler. →Tanuja knitted a muffler for her husband.

They are looking for their daughter a good husband.→They are looking for a good husband for their daughter.

2.2.6.6 Postponement of Postmodifier

This structure-changing rule splits an element (S/O) of the basic sentence. It separates the postmodifier of that element from the head and postpones it to the end of the clause. For example,

- i. The movement to make the plan was ignored. → The movement was ignored to make the plan.
- ii. The conference of all the English teachers is organized. → The conference was organized of all the English teachers.
- iii. We consume more sugar than we used to have at present. → We consume more sugar at present than we used to have.

Check Your Progress - IV

- a. They kept her book in the exhibition. (Focus the underlined element using ‘Cleft clause’).
- b. A student was reading in the study room. (Rewrite the sentence beginning with ‘There’.)

- c. That English is very difficult is a misunderstanding. (Transpose the 'That-clause' to the end and rewrite the sentence)
- d. To sit in her garden makes them happy. (Transpose the 'Subordinate clause' to the end and rewrite the sentence)
- e. It is very easy to learn English. (Begin the sentence with the 'Object' of the 'SCI')
- f. Boys should not send strangers whatsapp messages. (Substitute 'PP' for 'Oi' and rewrite the sentence.)

2.2.7 Summary

In this unit we have discussed the features of English grammar such as the difference between basic and derived structures, rules of deriving derived structures, omissions in grammatical structures, split constituents and the link, double analysis of the structure, style and structure-changing rules. We have also discussed the purpose of these derived structures.

2.4 Answers to Check Your Progress

I. A) a. Every day she visits the library. b. A cozy car Ravi had. c. Here they waited. d. A song he sang.

B) a. Down went a girl. b. By the wall stood a boy. c. Up the hill ran a tiger. d. Here meet the scholars.

II.

- a. The books she reads are very interesting.
- b. I liked the house they purchased.
- c. Shaila is tougher than her sister.
- d. Horses can run faster than lions.
- e. The students should go to library, borrow books and read them regularly.
- f. My mother is hard-working, very loving but very strict.
- g. Your father likes cold coffee, doesn't he?
- h. The students did not make noise, did they?

III.

- a. The fruits shall be sold in the weekly market by the farmers.
- b. Let some water be brought here.
- c. An urgent meeting has been arranged.
- d. A degree programme can be completed within six years.

IV.

- a. It was her book that they kept in the exhibition.
- b. There was a student reading in the study room.
- c. It is a misunderstanding that English is very difficult.
- d. It makes them happy to sit in her garden.
- e. English is very easy to learn.
- f. Boys should not send whatsapp messages to strangers.

2.5 Exercises

A) Write in short about the following:

- a. Basic and derived structures
- b. Split constituents
- c. Missing/ghost elements
- d. Tag questions
- e. cleft sentences
- f. Existential clauses
- g. Extraposition

B) Do as directed:

- i. The rain came down. (Rewrite the sentence using APS construction)
- ii. He brought her a book. (Substitute prepositional phrase for indirect object)
- iii. A party of all girls was organized. (Postpone the post-modifier)
- iv. How pretty she looks! (Make a declarative clause)

- v. They had sent a message. (Make it passive)
- vi. Radha designed the saree for the actress. (Focus the underlined element using 'Cleft clause')
- vii. I am a teacher. (Add a tag-question)
- viii. Nobody was around. (Rewrite the sentence using 'there')
- ix. It is pleasing to read nature poetry. (Rewrite the sentence beginning with the underlined phrase)
- x. You must be regular. (Make it imperative)
- xi. She will win the game. (Make it a Y/N interrogative)
- xii. That the earth is round is a universal truth. (Transpose 'That-clause' to the end and rewrite the sentence)

2.6 Further Readings

1. Leech, Geoffrey, Margaret Deuchar and Robert Hoogenraad. (2022) . *English Grammar for Today-A New Introduction*. Second Edition. New Delhi: Bloomsbury.
2. Quirk, Randolph. and Sidney Greenbaum. (1975). *A University Grammar of English*. England: Longman.
3. Quirk, Randolph., Greenbaum, S., Leech, N., and Svartvik, J. (1972). *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*. England: Longman.

