Lecture 1
Introduction
Words and Word Classes
Phrases

The Rank Scale of Language (LSGSWE: 2.1)

- Discourse
- Sentences
- Clauses
- Phrases
- Words
- Morphemes
- Phonemes

Review: 1. Lexical word classes Nouns, Lexical verbs, Adjectives, Adverbs

- Three types of defining characteristics:
  - Morphological
  - Syntactic
  - Semantic
- One and the same orthographic word may belong to different word classes. Determined by context (typically the syntactic context).
- Subclasses may have different properties (e.g. uncountable nouns do not take the plural *–s*, proper nouns typically do not occur with modifiers, etc.

Nouns

- Morphology
  - Take plural *-s* and genitive *–'s*.

	PLAIN	GENITIVE	PLAIN	GENITIVE
SINGULAR	*dog*	*dog's*	*child*	*child's*
PLURAL	*dogs*	*dogs'*	*children*	*children's*

  - Typical noun-forming suffixes (derivational): *-tion, -er, -ness*, and many others
  - NB! Uncountables and proper nouns (names) show no singular-plural distinction

Nouns, ctd.

- Syntax
  - Function as heads of NPs, so may be preceded by determiners and modifiers, and followed by modifiers (and complement clauses)
  - NB! Not all nouns can be preceded by (all kinds of) determiners.
    - Uncountables do not take the indefinite article.
    - Proper nouns show no distinction between definite and indefinite form.
- Semantics

A noun's the name of anything,
like *house*, or *garden*, *boat* or *swing.*

but also abstract entities, like qualities and states: *tenderness, freedom*, etc.

Lexical verbs

- Morphology
  - Regular lexical verbs typically have four distinct morphological shapes:
    look look-s look-ed look-ing
  - However, one and the same shape may represent more than one verb form:

    look infinitive, present tense (all persons except 3rd sg.), present subjunctive
    looks 3rd person singular present tense
    looked past tense, past participle
    looking present participle

Lexical verbs, morphology, ctd.

- The verb *be* (lexical or auxiliary) has the following shapes (several of which also represent more than one form, in a strict sense):

be	infinitive, present subjunctive
am	1st person singular present tense
are	2nd person singular present tense, plural present tense (all persons)
is	3rd person singular present tense
was	1st and 3rd person singular past tense
were	2nd person singular past tense, plural past tense (all persons), past subjunctive
been	past participle
being	present participle

Lexical verbs, ctd.

- Syntax
  - Lexical verbs function as heads of Verb Phrases (VPs).
  - If there are several verbs in the VP, the lexical verb comes last, after any auxiliaries.
- Semantics
  - Denote actions, processes, and states.
  - "define the role of human and non-human participants in such actions, processes, or states." (LSGSWE, p. 22)
    - Examples of roles (often referred to as thematic roles)
      Subject as AGENT: ***Superman*** *blew the plane off course*.
      Subject as CAUSE: ***A strong wind*** *blew the plane off course*.
      Object as AFFECTED: *Bill kicked* ***the little dog***.
      Object as LOCATIVE: *Bill swam* ***the Ohio river***.

    So, the verb assigns participant roles to its dependents.

Adjectives

- Morphology
  - Inflected for degree by *–er*, *-est*
    big – bigger – biggest

    Note 1) Only gradable adjectives take *–er*, *–est*
    a dirty foot – a dirtier foot
    *my left foot – *my lefter foot*
    Note 2) polysyllabic adjectives typically do not take *–er*, *–est*
    serious – *seriouser

  - Typical adjective forming (derivational) affixes:
    -able, *-like*, *-ary*, and many others
- Syntax
  - Adjective function as heads of Adjective Phrases (APs)
  - Typical functions of APs: Modifier in NP, Predicative

Adjectives, ctd.

- Semantics
  - Describe the qualities/properties of people things and abstractions.
  - Typically gradable, but there are also non-gradable ones, as we have seen
  - Another semantic classification: descriptors vs classifiers
    - descriptors, e.g. *black*, *young*, *lovely*, *hot*, etc. – typically also gradable
    - classifiers, e.g. *chemical*, *linguistic*, *American*, etc. – typically not gradable

Adverbs

- Morphology
  - Inflected for degree by *–er*, *-est*
    soon – sooner – soonest

    Note 1) Only gradable adverbs take *–er*, *–est*
    very – *verier

    Note 2) polysyllabic adverbs typically do not take *–er*, *–est*
    seriously – *seriouslier
- Syntax
  - Adverbs function as heads of Adverb Phrases (AdvP)
  - Typical functions of AdvP: modifier of adjective or adverb, adverbial in clause structure.

Adverbs, ctd.

- Semantics
  - Adverbs* modifying adjectives and adverbs typically indicate degree:
    way better, much sooner
  - As adverbials, adverbs* encode time, place, manner, etc.

*Note that here, "adverb" means 'adverb phrases, of which adverbs function as heads'.

Review 2. Function word classes

- Determiners
- Pronouns
- Auxiliary verbs
- Prepositions
- Adverbial particles
- Coordinators
- Subordinators

Determiners

- The articles ***the*** *car,* ***a*** *car*
- Demonstrative determiners ***this*** *car,* ***those*** *cars*
- Possessive determiners ***my*** *car,* ***her*** *cars*
- Quantifiers ***some*** *cars*
- *Wh*-determiners ***what*** *car*

LSGSWE, p. 32: "wh-words do not form an independent word class. Instead, they are members of word classes already mentioned, especially determiners, pronouns, and adverbs."

- Differences compared to other classifications:
  - Demonstrative determiners are "related to" demonstrative pronouns
  - Possessive determiners are "related to" possessive pronouns
  - Quantifiers are "related to" indefinite pronouns

Pronouns and related determiners

PRONOUNS	RELATED DETERMINERS
• Personal pronouns *he, she, it*, etc	
• Demonstrative pronouns *I like these*.	Demonstrative determiners *I like these cars*.
• Reflexive pronouns himself, herself, etc	
• Reciprocal pronouns *They like each other*.	?Reciprocal determiners? *They like each other's cars*.
• Possessive pronouns *This car is mine*.	Possessive determiners *my car*
• Indefinite pronouns *I heard something*.	Quantifiers *some people*

Auxiliary verbs

- 'Closed class', which is why it counts as a function word class
- Auxiliary verbs precede the lexical verb in the 'small' VP
- Two types (or maybe three):
  - Primary auxiliaries
  - Modal auxiliaries
  - Semi-modals (marginal modals)

Primary auxiliaries: *be*, *have*, *do*

- Help form important verb constructions
  - ***be***
    - Progressive aspect: *I'**m** walking in Memphis*.
    - Passive voice: *The book **was** sent three weeks ago*.
  - ***have***
    - Perfect aspect: *I **have** never seen anything like it*.
  - ***do***
    - do insertion (do-support, do-periphrasis): *I **did**n't know where to go*.
- All three also have uses as lexical verbs:
  - ***be***
    - *He **was** half asleep*.
  - ***have***
    - *We **had** lunch at 2 o'clock*.
  - ***do***
    - *Elisa never **does** her homework*.

Modal auxiliaries

- Express modality (permission, obligation, necessity, etc.)
  - **Intrinsic**/personal modality (also: **deontic** f. Gr. déon(t) 'that which is binding, a duty'). Involves control of actions or events by an agent. (p.
    - ***May** I smoke in here*? (permission)
    - ***Can** Mary come out to play*? (permission)
    - *You **must**n't hit your little brother*. (obligation)
    - *You **should**n't hit your little brother*. (obligation)
    - *If you **would** only be quiet, I could finish this in no time.* (volition)
  - **Extrinsic**/logical modality (also: **epistemic** f. Gr. épistéme 'knowledge') Refers to the logical status of states or events.
    - *This **may** be a true story*. (Possibility)
    - *This **could** not possibly be true*. (Possibility)
    - *The Johnsons **must** have a lot of money*. (Logical necessity)
    - *The meeting **should** be over by now*. (Likelihood)
    - *I **will** see my children tomorrow*. (Prediction)

Modal auxiliaries, ctd.

- "In practice the modals can be regarded as invariable function words, with no inflections" … most modals have a contracted negative form ending in *n't* …(p. 28)

will	can	shall	may	must
won't	can't, cannot	shan't	mayn't († 19th C)	mustn't
would	could	should	might	
wouldn't	couldn't	shouldn't	mightn't	

Maybe there is some reason to regard all these different forms not only as separate orthographic words, but also as separate grammatical words. This is a thorny issue, however.

Modal auxiliaries, ctd.

- Apparent tense distinctions in modals have very little to do with time.
- Instead, past tense forms often indicate greater tentativeness/indirectness:
  - weaker possibility/likelihood
    - He **may** have been telling us a lie.
    - He **might** have been telling us a lie.
    - This **can** turn out to be a problem.
    - This **could** turn out to be a problem.
  - weaker permission
    - **Can** I talk to you for a minute?
    - **Could** I talk to you for a minute?

Semi-modals

- Semantically similar to modal auxiliaries (i.e. they express obligation, possibility, future, etc.) BUT:
- Many semi-modals have non-finite forms, e.g. infinitive forms
  - The police will **have to** search the whole area.
  - This might explain why Noah would have **needed to** gather only two of every major kind (ie, family or genus) of animal onto the Ark.
- Typically, semi-modals are followed by a to-infinitive (actually, *to* is semantically part of the verb)
  - We **are supposed to** leave at six.
  - We **are going to** leave at six.

We will return to semi-modals when discussing verb complementation.

Prepositions

- Syntax: Function as heads of prepositional phrases.
- Structure of prepositional phrases P + Complement
- Complements of prepositions are typically NPs, but may take other forms as well:
  - Bill was ***in*** ***the room*** (NP)
  - ***Before*** ***too long*** my friends were far ahead of me. (AdvP)
  - We can rely ***on*** ***Bill('s) going home early.*** (non-finite clause)
- Semantics: Indicate relations between entitities (both physically and metaphorically)
  - Bill is ***in*** *the room*.
  - Bill is ***in*** *love*.
  - Bill is interested ***in*** *sports*.

Adverbial particles

- Used to build phrasal verbs.
- Different distribution from other 'short' adverbs.
  - *Bring* ***in*** *the chair from the kitchen*.
  - **Bring* ***here*** *the chair from the kitchen*.
- Often same form as prepositions, but
  - Prepositions obligatorily take complements, adverbial particles do not:
    We walked ***up*** *the steps*. (prep)
    We walked ***up***. (adv. particle)

Aside: The last point is irrelevant if (as some linguists would argue) we assume that prepositions kan be transitive or intransitive.

Coordinators: *and*, *but*, *or*

- Coordination at different levels:
  - word-level
    He always wore white shoes and pants. (head of NP)
    He can read and write. (head of VP)
    I'll do it with or without your help. (head of PP)
  - phrase-level
    My brother and his wife are coming to visit. (NP)
    My brother made me feel extremely stupid and very small. (AP)
    James drives very slowly and very carefully. (AdvP)
  - clause-level
    Bill joined the club but he never went to any of the meetings.

Subordinators

- Introduce dependent clauses.
- When the dependent clause functions as an adverbial the subordinator indicates its semantic role. A few examples:
  - Condition
    If you should see Bill, tell him I want to talk to him.
  - Time
    When you see Bill, tell him I want to talk to him.
  - Concession
    Bill still hasn't fixed my bike, although I asked him to.
- Subordinators also introduce complement clauses (nominal clauses)
  I told Bill that I wanted him to fix my car.

Word classes and the form-function distinction

- An illustrative quote from LSGSWE:

  …the class of quantifiers (e.g. *all*, *some*, *any*, *much*) can be seen as a superclass of words which can function with similar meanings as determiners, pronouns or adverbs… (p. 35) (my emphasis)

- Is quantifier a word class (i.e. a form class)?
- Is pronoun a function?
- Is adverb a function?

Phrases and clauses

- Two ways of looking at phrases
  - **Internal structure**, i.e. what functional elements can be part of the phrase (Head, modifier, determiner, etc.)
  - **External distribution**, i.e what functions (in bigger units) can the entire phrase have? (NPs may function as subject, objects, predicatives, etc.)
  - LSGSWE also lists meaning as a useful tool to describe phrases. Note, however, that meaning is just as unreliable here as in the definition of word classes.

Lexical word classes 'project' phrases

- This is the traditional, descriptive view. Syntactic theory increasingly also recognize FUNCTIONAL PROJECTIONS, i.e. phrases built from function word classes, like determiners, subordinators, etc. The argumentation is complex and , at least on some views, controversial, so we disregard it here, and go with the traditional view.
- There are five types of grammatical phrase in English:
  - Noun Phrase (NP)
  - Verb Phrase (VP)
  - Adjective Phrase (Adj.P/AP)
  - Adverb Phrase (Adv.P)
  - Prepositional Phrase (PP)

Noun Phrases

- Internal structure
  - HEAD
  - Determiners
  - Modifiers
  - Complements
- External distribution (not discussed here)
  - Subject
  - Object
  - Predicative
  - Complement in PP
  - Other less frequent (and less distinctive) functions: adverbial, modifier in NP

NP: the HEAD

- The head of an NP is a noun or a pronoun
  *the little **girl** next door*
  ***everything** you need*
  *the **assumption** that language is only used to convey thoughts*
- Some problematic cases (to be discussed later, for now, we just note them):
  [The impossible] can sometimes be made possible.
  - *The impossible* is an NP (contains a determiner, has the external distribution of NPs), but there is no noun or pronoun to function as the head.

  [This] can become a problem.
  - If *this* is a determiner in *this approach*, is it also a determiner here? If so, where is the head?

NP: determiners

- Normal view: determiner is a **function**, words from different word classes may function as determiners
- LSGSWE is not altogether transparent about the form-function distinction. Recall, the different types of determiners:
  - The articles — ***the*** *car,* ***a*** *car*
  - Demonstrative determiners — ***this*** *car,* ***those*** *cars*
  - Possessive determiners — ***my*** *car,* ***her*** *cars*
  - Quantifiers — ***some*** *cars*
  - *Wh*-determiners — ***what*** *car*

  So, these are subclasses of the word class (form) determiner, which can all fulfill the function of determiner in NP. (Other grammarians make a terminological distinction between determinatives (the word class) and determiner (the function).

NP: premodifiers

- Occur before the head:
  *[**short**] hair*
  *[**blue**] shoes*
  *an [**internal**] memo*
  *a [**very tall**] [**handsome**] stranger*
- As the last example shows, an NP may contain more than one premodifier.
- Typically, premodifiers have the form of Adj.P, but other phrases may also have this function:
  *a [**recently published**] article (VP)*
  *these [**Indian cotton**] shirts (NP)*
  *the [**downstairs**] room (AdvP)*

NP: postmodifiers

- Occur after the head
  *a woman [**of great wisdom**]*
  *my career [**as a journalist**]*
  *people [**living next to the power plant**]*
  *the book [**about syntax**] [**that I lent you**]*
- As the last example shows, an NP may contain more than one postmodifier.
- Postmodifiers in NP typically have the form of PP or dependent clause, but other phrases may also have this function:
  *a man [**my age**]* (NP)
  *all people [**now alive**]* (Adj.P)

NP: complements

- In LSGSWE, complements in NP are always clauses (or PPs with clausal complements, as in *no intention **of going home*** – we disregard this for now)
- Complement clauses differ from postmodifying clauses in **not having a gap corresponding to the head noun**. Compare (the symbol Δ indicates the position of the gap):
  (i) *the man [that we met Δ yesterday]* (object gap = *the man*)
  (ii) *the rumor [that Ford would close down the factory]* (no gap)

  (iii) *the man [to talk to Δ]* (gap is the complement of P (= *the man*))
  (iv) her refusal *[to show any sign of emotion]* (no gap related to *refusal*)
- Very often, a complement clause in an NP corresponds to the object of a verb: Compare (iv) with the corresponding clause:
  She refused [to show any sign of emotion].

Verb Phrases

- Two different notions of the VP
  - VP = main verb + auxiliary verbs
  - Long VP = 'Short' VP + any objects, predicatives or adverbials dependent on the verb
- 'VP' in LSGSWE refers to the 'short' VP, which only contains verbs.
- The head of the VP determines what other clause elements (objects, predicatives, etc.) can or must occur in the clause (and in what roles, as we saw above).
- Tense, aspect, voice, and modality are encoded in the VP, so the VP contains elements that are crucial for the interpretation of clauses/utterrances.

Adjective Phrases

- Internal structure
  - HEAD
  - Modifiers
  - Complement

  (We will deal with the difference between modifiers and complements later)
- External distribution
  - Premodifier in NP – attributive APs
  - Predicative – predicative APs

Adverb Phrases

- Internal structure
  - HEAD
  - Modifiers
  - Complements
- External distribution
  - Modifier in AdjP
  - Modifier in AdvP
  - Adverbial in clause structure

Prepositional Phrases

- Internal structure
  - HEAD
  - Prepositional complement
  - Modifiers
    right under his eyes
- External distribution
  - Adverbial in clause structure
  - Postmodifier in NP, AP, AdvP
  - Complement in AP, AdvP (and, possibly, NP)
  - Predicative

Clause elements

- The ones we have used in the A-course
  - Subject
  - Object (direct and indirect)
  - Predicative (subject predicative, object predicative)
  - Adverbial
- Ones that we didn't use
  - Prepositional object
  - Complement clause
  - The status of the latter two in not immediately transparent in LSGSWE.

What is a prepositional object?

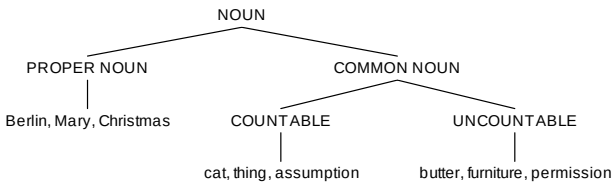
- LSGSWE Glossary of terms (p. 459)
  - **prepositional object**: a noun phrase (or nominal clause, etc. which normally follows the preposition of a prepositional verb, and which resembles the object of a transitive verb: *asked for **permission***. (A prepositional object is a special type of prepositional complement.)
  - OK, so it is a function at the phrase level – a "type of prepositional complement"
- LSGSWE (Table 8.1, p. 226)
  - Prepositional object is listed as a clause element on a par with S, V, O, P, A, in effect a kind of object
- See relevant discussion on p. 130

What is a complement clause?

- LSGSWE Glossary of terms (p. 456)
  - **complement clause**: a dependent clause controlled by a preceding verb, adjective, noun or preposition
- LSGSWE (p. 256f)
  - "Complement clauses are also called **nominal clauses**, because their syntactic roles are comparable to those of a noun phrase. Thus they are used as subject, predicative, or object in the main clause."
  - "Complement clauses can also occur within phrases /…/, as complements of noun, adjective, or preposition"
- So, in fact, 'complement clause' is not a special clause element, but rather a short-hand term for clauses in the functions mentioned above.

Lecture 2
Nouns and Simple Noun Phrases

Classes of noun



Proper nouns

- Proper nouns have unique denotation (in a given context). Consequently:
- "Proper nouns have no contrast for number or definiteness". (LSGSWE: p56)
  - So, proper nouns are either singular or plural and either take the definite article or not:
    - *The Himalayas* vs **a Himalaya*, *Africa* vs **the Africa*, **(the) Africas*
  - So, what about NPs like *a Mary*, *two Marys*, *the Mary next door*?
  - Saying that these are proper nouns used as common nouns, seems to miss something (although this is, in fact, what a lot of grammars say), namely that *Mary* still **looks like** a proper noun, e.g. it starts with a capital letter.

Proper nouns and proper names

- Proper nouns vs proper names
  - Elevating the notion 'proper name' (or just 'name') to a type of NP is one possible solution. So:
  - Proper nouns may function as heads of proper names or as heads of 'ordinary' NPs (like *a Mary*, etc.)
  - Common nouns may also function as heads of proper names:
    - *The White House*, *The Observer*, *The United States*
  - In fact, a lot of structures that are not even NPs can be proper names. For example, titles of books and other works of art: *Who's afraid of Virginia Woolf*?, *To the Lighthouse*, etc.

Common nouns: [C] and [U] – some differences

Countables (e.g. *car*)	**Uncountables** (e.g. *news*)
May take the indefinite article	Do not take the indefinite article
Bill had a great car.	**Bill had a great news.*
Take numerals as determiners	Do not take numerals as determiners[1]
Bill had two great cars.	**Bill had two great news.*
May be singular or plural	Always singular[1]
This car is nice. These cars are nice.	*This news is nice. *These news are nice.*
Take plural quantifiers (e.g. *many*)	Take singular quantifiers (e.g. *much*)[1]
Bill had many cars.	*Bill didn't have*many/much news.*
OK with various pronominal uses of *one*	No pronominal uses of *one*
This car is new, but that one is old.	This furniture is new but that (*one) is old.

[1]These only apply to singular uncountables.

Countable and uncountable uses

- Countability is a feature of the **interpretation** of nouns.
- Thus, in some cases, one and the same noun may be used either with a countable or uncountable interpretation.
- Nevertheless, it makes sense to talk about nouns as basically countable or basically uncountable – as long as we remember that it is interpretations or uses we are talking about.
- Basically [U] used as [C]: Two main types
  We'll have two coffees, please. ('servings of')
  Bill wrote a book about the wines of France. ('kinds of')
- Basically [C] used as [U]
  We're having chicken for dinner.
  There was cat all over the road.

Plural uncountables: scissors, trousers, etc

- This is the class of so called bipartite nouns, i.e. nouns referring to clothes, tools, and instruments that consist of two parts.
- More examples: *scissors, tweezers, binoculars, glasses, jeans, pants*, etc.
- Arguments for saying that these are uncountable:
  - No number contrast:
    **scissor, *tweezer, *trouser, *jean*
  - Need unit nouns for 'counting'
    *two pairs of trousers – *two trousers* (actually OK for some speakers)
- How good are the arguments?
  - Singular in compounds/as modifiers:
    a trouser-leg, ladies' trouser suits
  - Singular in the type-of interpretation (maybe an argument for [U])
    This scissor never needs sharpening. (must refer to type, not individual specimen)

Package nouns (LSGSWE's term)

- **Unit nouns**: "Cut up" uncountables into individual units – which can then be counted.
- All unit nouns are countable
- The **general unit noun *piece*** combines with a wide range of uncountables:
  - *a piece of bacon/chalk/coal/land/paper…*
  - *a piece of advice/information/news/research/work…*
- Other quite general unit nouns: *bit*, *item*
  - *a bit of chalk/cake/wood/fun/luck/help…*
  - *an item of clothing/equipment/news/…*

Specialized/Typical unit nouns

- Many unit nouns occur with a much narrower range of uncountables:
  - *a grain of sand/truth*
  - *a bar of chocolate/soap/gold*
  - *a drop of water/oil/whisky*
  - *a speck of dust/dirt*
  - *a lump of coal/sugar*
  - *a loaf of bread*
  - *a rasher of bacon* 'a thin slice of bacon'

Quantifying nouns

- When combined with uncountables, quantifying nouns are similar, if not identical, to unit nouns.
- Quantifying nouns, however, **also combine with plural countables**.
  - See LSGSWE 4.4.3 for a classification of quantifying nouns.
    a box of *a heap of* *a pint of* *hundreds of*
    a mouthful of *a pair of*
  - Note than some subtypes only combine with plural nouns:
    - *hundreds of cars* but **hundreds of furniture*
    - *a pair of pants* (plural [U], remember?) but **a pair of furniture*
- In general, as the term suggests, quantificational nouns have menings related to the quantification/measurement of entities.
- Noticeably absent from the list: ***a lot of***. Possible reason: *a lot of* is **number-transparent, hence quite naturally analyzed as a quantifier**: *a lot of furniture was…* but *a lot of people were…*

Quantifying nouns vs Quantifiers

- **Quantifiers** function as determiners in NP, and the entity they quantify over is the head of the NP.
  - *[Many/A lot of] cars are much better than mine*.
- **Quantifying nouns** head their NP and the entity they quantify over occurs inside a postmodifying PP.
  - A basket [of eggs] was waiting for us in our hotel suite.
- In reality the distinction is slightly problematic:
  A number of spots have/*has appeared on the new rug.
  The number of spots on the carpet has/*have increased.

  Heaps of money has/*have been spent.

of-collectives

- Similar both to unit nouns and quantifying nouns, but only combine with plural nouns:
  a bunch of idiots/thieves/roses
  a crowd of demonstrators/fans
  a band of brothers/pioneers/followers
  a pack of hounds/wolves
  - For groups of animals, see the following webpage

http://entertainment.timesonline.co.uk/tol/arts_and_entertainment/books/article2348689.ece

- Again, there are problems in identifying the head of the NP (as well as dialectal differences since these are collective nouns):
  A bunch of hooligans were/??was waiting for me outside the pub.
  A bunch of flowers was/?were presented to the nice grammar teacher.

Species nouns

- Refers to **types** of entities rather than quantity.
- Some specialization
  make of N – typically about manufactured things (cars, computers, chairs, etc.)
  species of – typically animals, plants
- General species nouns
  type/sort/kind of
- Can be followed by countables or uncountables in the postmodifying *of*-phrase.
- Some agreement issues
  These types of cars/car
  What sort of thing/things

  The safest bet is to use the same number in the species noun and the noun in the *of*-phrase.

Determiners

- LSGSWE, as many other grammars, is vague about the form-function distinction. On one and the same page (p. 65) we find:
  - ”Determiners are **function words** used to specify the kind of reference a noun has.” [my emphasis]
  - ”**The determiner slot** can also be filled by genitives/…/.” [my emphasis]
  - The first quote strongly suggests that determiner is a word class.
  - The second quote strongly suggests that determiner is a function, which can be filled by different forms.
- The problem is partly terminological: the same term is used for both the form (word-class) and function.

Determiners: The word class

- The clear cases (at least in LSGSWE):
  - articles: indefinite, definite, zero: *a car, the car, __ cars*
  - possessive determiners: my car, their car, etc.
  - demonstrative determiners: this car, those cars, etc.
  - quantifiers: all, every, etc.
- Note 1: The word class determiner includes a few more subclasses than we are used to.
- Note 2: It is perfectly fine to define word classes in terms of function.
  - So, for example, possessive determiners are determiners because they function as determiners.
  - Cf. adjectives vs adverbs:
    - *He runs fast.* (*fast* is an adverb because it modifies a verb/functions as an adverbial)
    - *He is a fast runner*. (*fast* is an adjective because it modifies a noun)

- Another seemingly clear case:
  - Numerals
    - ”**As a word class**, numerals consist of a small set of simple forms /…/” (LSGSWE, p. 34)[my emphasis]
  - Numerals have two main functions:
    - Determiner (Postdeterminer)
      Kim has written **five** books on this topic.
      His **first two** books were published in 1987.
    - Head of NP (similar to pronouns)
      Mary bought one book, but I bought **two**.
      Mary bought a book, and I bought **one**, too.
      cf.
      Mary liked the book and I liked **it**, too.
  - Million-dollar questions:
    - If we have, e.g. possessive determiners and possessive pronouns as different word classes, why don’t we have ”numeral determiners” and ”numeral pronouns” as different word classes?
    - Conversely: If numerals form a word class, and numerals can function as determiners or heads of NPs, why don’t we say the same about, e.g. possessive pronouns?

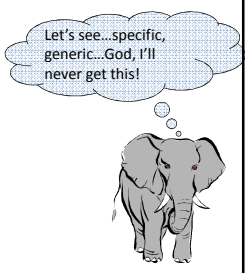
Types of reference

- Individual entities
  - Indefinite reference
    - specific: *Mary wants to date a Swede*. (has someone in mind)
    - unspecific (non-specific): *Mary wants to date a Swede*. (has no one special in mind)
  - Definite reference: *Mary married the Swede*.
- Classes (Generic reference): *Mary likes Swedes*.

Reference and the indefinite article

- Reference to individual entities
  - Indefinite + Specific
    I met a man at the supermarket yesterday.
  - Indefinite + Unspecific
    Mary needed a date for the ball.
- Generic
  An elephant never forgets.

- **Warning**: LSGSWE includes examples like *My husband is a doctor* under the same general heading as the generic example. However, predicate NPs are not really referential at all!



Reference and the definite article

- **Specific + Definite** -- The standard case – the speaker assumes that the hearer can uniquely identify the intended referent.
- Because:
  - It has been introduced earlier (**anaphoric reference**)
    I bought a snake and a rat and put them in the same cage, but the snake ate the rat.
    Anaphoric reference is "text-internal". All the hearer is expected to know is that the snake and the rat are the ones mentioned in the first clause. Similarly for indirect anaphoric reference:
  - It is associated with a previously mentioned referent (**indirect anaphora**)
    We bought the house, but we will have to fix the roof before we move in.

  - The referent is unique (in a given context)
    The president has been assassinated.
    If the universe is expanding, surely it can't be infinite.
    We're going to the moon!
  - A variant of unique reference (institutional/sporadic)
    Mary goes to the theater at least once a month.
    Mary takes the bus to work.
    Mary likes listening to the radio.

    It is not likely that the definite NPs refer to a unique referent (a specific theater, bus, or radio set). Rather, reference is made to 'institutions' of society which can be observed at different times in different places.

  - The NP has a modifier that provides enough information for identification
    - Premodifiers

    I only eat at the best restaurants.

    Bill left on the following day.

    - Postmodifiers

    He buys products in the hope of selling them at an advanced price.

    The bike that Bill bought only had one wheel.

Generic reference

- Reference to a class, species or kind.
  Horses are more intelligent than cats.
- The class can be quite narrow – what is important is that we're not referring to individual members of the class.
  Art can be difficult to understand.
  Modern art can be difficult to understand.
  20th century French art can be difficult to understand.
- Generic reference depends on factors other than the NP itself.
  Firemen will be available in case of an emergency. (individual members of the class of firemen – so not generic)
  Firemen are brave. (applies to the class of firemen as a whole – generic
  The elephant can reach a considerable distance with his trunk. (ambiguous – generic or specific)
  Bill took a shot at the elephant, but he missed. (specific)

Generic reference: possible forms of NPs

	Countable		**Uncountable**	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Definite article	*the tiger*	*1)*		
Indefinite article	*a tiger*			
Zero article	*2)*	***tigers***	***butter***	

1) If we count *the poor* as a noun phrase in sentences like *He was not interested in the needs of the poor*, then the definite article is used to signal generic reference. (cf. also (*The*) *Americans have always rallied to the support of the President in a crises.)*
2) Man is mortal and *Woman is the nigger of the world* (Lennon) look like singular countables with generic meaning and no article. However, these are uncountable uses (cf. *mankind* and *womankind* which are both uncountable), so they are like *butter*.

"The zero article is used generically with plural and uncountable nouns" (LSGSWE, p. 72)

- Some English – Swedish contrasts – English uncountables
  Literature sometimes reflects society.
  'Literaturen speglar ibland samhället.'

  Vivian Fine is still in the forefront of contemporary American music.
  'den moderna amerikanska musiken'/'modern amerikansk musik'
  (sometimes Swedish uses the zero article, too)

  Our desire for greater understanding of our environment causes us to explore space continuously.
  'utforska rymden'

"The zero article is used generically with plural and uncountable nouns" (LSGSWE, p. 72)

- Some English – Swedish contrasts – English plurals

  Cars might become cheaper in the future.
  'bilar/bilarna'

  Recent years have seen significant changes.
  'de senaste åren'

  In many other places elephants have been harried and driven from locality to locality.
  'elefanter'/'elefanterna'

The Genitive

- A things to note: The English genitive is a 'phrasal' inflectional ending, which means it **attaches to the end of NP**, rather than to the head noun (only discernible when the NP contains postmodifiers).
  - reasonably unmarked examples (head of NP underlined)
    <u>everybody</u> else's opinion
    a <u>friend</u> of mine's car (cf *a friend's of mine car)
  - Informal examples (but better than ones w genitive on the head)
    the <u>man</u> opposite me's facial expression
    (cf **the <u>man</u>'s opposite me facial expression*)
    the <u>man</u> I had been talking to's reaction
    (**the man's I had been talking to reaction*)
  - marked examples
    the <u>man</u> that we had been complaining to for days' reaction
    (**the man's we had been complaining to for days reaction)*

The two functions of genitive NPs

- Determiner: the specifying genitive ('whose?' – with possession understood in a very broad sense)
  [my mother's] new husband
  [Norway's] future
- Modifier: the classifying genitive ('what kind of N?')
  a [bird's] nest ('a nest for a bird')
  a [women's] college ('a college for women')

  Note: Classifying genitives typically do not have determiners, so maybe they are smaller than NPs.)

Postmodification by *of*-PP vs premodification by Genitive NP

- Genitive
  - Animate possessor
    Anne's car
    the old lady's car
    the dog's collar
  - Inanimate possessor
    ?the house's roof
    ??democracy's fate
- *of*-PP
  - Animate possessor
    ??*the car of Anne*
    ?*the car of the old lady*
    the collar of the dog
  - Inanimate possessor
    the roof of the house
    the fate of democracy

The main rule – genitive with animate possessors, *of*-PP with inanimate ones – virtually always applies, but other factors are certainly at play:

Other factors influencing the choice

- Syntactic relation between head and determiner/modifier
  - e.g. subjective vs objective genitive
- Semantic relation between head and determiner/modifier
  *the gold's color (cf Swedish *guldets färg*)
- Category of determiner/modifier
  - e.g. Pronouns are much more likely as determiners
- Collocation
- Information flow
- End weight
  - Probably why the phrasal nature of the genitive is hard to spot: if the NP has postmodification, then the genitive tends to be avoided
- Register

Subjective vs objective

- Subjective
  the train's arrival
  (<u>the train</u> arrived)
  S V
- Objective
  ?the train's destruction
  (sb destroyed <u>the train</u>)
  S V O

The genitive is less likely to be in an objective relation with the head noun. Notice that the subjective genitive is absolutely fine with the inanimate noun *train*.

Semantic relations

- A number of relations (some clearly subjective) are extremely rare in the genitive – NB: Swedish may be different

  **gold's colour* – 'guldets färg' – *the colour of gold*
  [gold has colour X]
  ??*unemployment's consequences* – 'arbetslöshetens följder'
  [unemplyment has consequences]
  **honour's men* – 'ärans män' – *the men of honour*
  [the men have honour]
  **the cross's sign* – 'korsets tecken' – *the sign of the cross*
  [the sign has the shape of a cross]

Word class of modifier

- Pronouns are much more likely as determiners, so would be rare (or impossible) in *of*-postmodifiers

  her money vs **the money of her*
  [these examples are obviously sensitive to the animate/inanimate distinction, also]
- In general: the longer the possessor, the more likely it is to occur after the head – in accordance with the principle of end-weight.
  her great wealth vs *the great wealth of some of her best friends*

Contrary to the general tendency we find collocations/fixed phrases like:
This will be <u>the death of me</u> and
He's <u>a friend of mine</u>

Pronouns

- A huge topic, so we note just a couple of things:
  - In the approach here, pronouns are place-holders, pointers, have general reference, etc., but they DO NOT FUNCTION AS DETERMINERS.
  - As already noted, many pronouns have related determiners (see LSGSWE, p. 67)
  - Main classes distinguished in LSGSWE:
    - personal
    - possessive
    - reflexive
    - reciprocal
    - demonstrative
    - indefinite
    - *wh*-pronouns

Personal pronouns

- Case forms
  - Nominative (used for pronouns functioning as the subject of a clause)
    <u>He</u> *hit me.* ***<u>I</u>*** *hit him.*
  - Accusative (used for pronouns in other functions; object, complement of preposition)
    He hit ***<u>me</u>****.* *I hit* ***<u>him</u>****.* *I looked at* ***<u>him</u>****.*
  - Possessive pronouns are normally singled out as a special class, but are, in a sense, genitive forms of personal pronouns
- The choice of nominative vs accusative forms of personal pronouns shows some variation and (because there is variation) prescriptive pressure.

Nominative vs accusative

- Accusative is the so called 'default case' in English, used when there is no syntactic context.
  - Who wants to play some bridge?
  - Me.
- After *be* accusative is normal, although syntactically we would expect the nominative functioning as predicative.
  - Who drew this on the board?
  - It was me/him/her. (*It was I*, etc. is not impossible, but formal, and probably related to the next point)
- In cleft sentences (see Ch. 12), the nominative is fairly frequent, but the accusative also works – note the correlation with the verb form.
  It is **<u>I</u>** who love you. It's **<u>me</u>** who loves you.

Bigger than me/I

- After *as* and *than*, there is variation in the case form of pronouns.
  Bill is bigger than me. Bill is bigger than I
  Mary is as tall as me. Mary is as tall as I.
- Traditional account (with prescriptive intent): *As* and *than* are followed by dependent clauses, ie they are subordinators. Sometimes, the clauses are 'abbreviated', but the pronoun after the subordinator is still the subject, so it should be in the nominative.
  - So, *Bill is bigger than I* is really like *Bill is bigger than I am*.
  - Since you cannot say **Bill is bigger than me am*, you also cannot say *Bill is bigger than me*. (The conclusion is obviously wrong, since that is exactly what a lot of, or even most, people say).

- Problems with traditional account (especially the prescriptive part)
  - The accusative is certainly used in 'abbreviated' contexts, e.g. in the default cases above. Also *It was me* above may well be considered an abbreviated clause (a cleft).
  - *As* and *than* can be followed by elements that are not possible subjects, e.g. reciprocal pronouns
    /…/ 4 children who were more or less advanced **than each other** in their conceptual development (ACAD)
    *…more or less advanced than each other was/were/is/are
- The preposition account
  - Elements like reciprocal pronouns, which cannot function as subjects can function as complements of prepositions: *the kids threw the ball **to each other***
  - Since these elements can also follow *as* and *than*, it is reasonable to assume that *as* and *than* are prepositions in such cases.
  - Thus, since *as* and *than* **can** be prepositions, and prepositions are followed by the accusative form of pronouns *(to me, for him*, etc.), *as* and *than* **are** prepositions when followed by the accusative form (*than me, as him*, etc.).

Lecture 3
Complex Noun Phrases

NP structure (as we've known it up to now)

All	*the*	*other*	*white*	*cats*	*in the corner*
Det	Det	Det	Pre-modifier(s)	Head	Postmodifier(s)

Pre-determiner	Central determiner	Post-Determiner
all, both, half, etc	*a, the*	Numerals, *last, past, next, other*, etc.

Premodifiers of nouns

- **Adjective Phrases**
  (NB! LSGSWE, keep saying 'adjective' when they mean 'adjective phrase' – this is common practice, but confusing).

  Mary's handsome husband.
  Mary's extremely clever children.
  Mary's quite unbelievably delightful family.

  – Despite the last example, premodifying adjective phrases are normally fairly simple. In particular, they rarely have postmodifiers or complements.

  many [very angry] wives
  *many [very angry at their husbands] wives

- **Noun (Phrases)**
  (NB! The categorial status of 'nouny' premodifiers is not obvious. For example, premodifying nouns/NPs normally do not accept determiners. Even names with the definite article lose it when they are used as premodifiers.

  a [government] matter *a [the government] matter
  a [United States] warship *a [the United States] warship

  Genitive premodifiers are also typically simple (and have no determiner).

  a shepherd's cottage (= 'of the type used by shepheards')
  a quaint old [shepherd's] cottage
  (≠of the type used by quaint old shepheards – so *quaint* and *old* do NOT modify the genitive)

  Thus, 'nouny' premodifiers seem smaller than an NP. Yet, as the following shows, they also seem larger than just a noun.

  a [young children's] edition

- **Verb phrases** (LSGSWE calls them participles)

  a [recently published] article
  [steadily increasing] wages

  (We will return to why these participles are not adjectives)

Postmodifiers of nouns

- **Prepositional phrases** – "by far the most common type of postmodifier" (LSGSWE: 9.10)
- Most common prepositional head: ***of***
  – Expresses a wide range of meaning relations, e.g

the purity of the metal	(the metal has property p)
the anger of the population	(the population has feeling f)
the spire of the cathedral	(the cathedral possesses s)
her nitwit of a husband	(husband is a nitwit)

  – The relation is dependent on the head noun

  the resignation of the President
  the assassination of the President

  – Very common in academic prose

- **Appositive NPs**: *the opera 'Carmen'*
  - Classed as a form of postmodification, although, often the order is reversible, and what is modified is actually a full NP. More examples:

    my husband George – George, my husband
    my best friend Anna – Anna, my best friend

  - In full apposition, either NP can function on its own

    My best friend is moving to Seattle.
    Anna is moving to Seattle.

  - Apposition vs PP-postmodification
    Lake Michigan vs *the District of New York*
    the year 2525 vs *the spring of 2007*

Appositive NPs vs PP-postmodification: *Lake Michigan* vs *The District of Columbia*

- Normally, geographical reference by a descriptive noun + a proper noun are in the form of a head + *of*-postmodifier:

  the city of New York — the village of Södra Sandby
  the suburb of Webley — the province of Småland

  - Exceptions: Most lakes and mountains
    Lake Superior — Lake Vänern
    Mount Etna — Mount Everest

- Contrastive point: Swedish has apposition across the board:
  staden New York, förorten Wembley, berget Etna, sjön Vänern

Appositive NPs vs PP-postmodification: *the year 2525* vs *the spring of 2007*

- Most non-geographical nouns take appositive NPs, but some take PP-postmodification.
- With apposition:
  - citations, titles
    the word 'grammar' — *the opera 'Carmen'*
    the expression 'do your own thing'
  - year
    In the year 2525
- With PP-postmodification
  - 'temporal' nouns, including *year* when it also has premodification
    In the banner year of 1902 there were 40 linseed oil mills in operation in the United States.
    the month of May
    the spring of 2006
    Again, Swedish has apposition in all these cases, which often leads to overgeneralization of PP-postmodification (**the word of grammar*)

Relative clauses

- Normally (also in LSGSWE), the term is reserved for finite clauses functioning as postmodifiers
- All relative clauses have **a gap** (a 'missing' constituent) which corresponds to the noun that the relative clause modifies.
  the man that my mother married Δ
  - the gap has a grammatical function in the relative clause
  the man that my mother married Δ
  S V O_d
- Many relative clauses have a relativizer. In fact, if we accept 'zero' as a relativizer, then all relative clauses have one.

The choice of relativizer

- Three factors influence the choice of relativizer
  - The function of the gap in the relative clause
  - Animacy of the modified head
  - Restrictive/Non-restrictive modification
- A few examples (for more, see LSGSWE: 9.8.2)
  - ***that***:
    - used in all functions (even Adverbial)
    - used with animate/inanimate antecedents
    - usually not possible in non-restrictive relative clauses

  Here is the book/man/cat that I like. (O_d)
  This is the gun/man that killed Liberty. (S)

Gaps in relative clauses

- Subject gap
  the man who/that bought her lunch
  the car which/that was parked outside [*park* is a transitive verb, but here it's in the passive, so the gap functions as the subject]
- Object gap
  the man who/that/Ø we met outside
  the car which/that/Ø we parked outside
- Adverbial gaps (with relative adverbs as relativizers)
  the time when I was born
  the town where I was born
  the reason why my parents left me

– ***whose***
  - used for genitive gaps (but the head of NP always pied pipes to clause initial position)
    – *the man whose you met [__ mother].
    – The man [whose mother] you met.
  - used with animate/inanimate antecedents
  - OK in restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses

This is a home for women whose husbands have abused them.

– ***whose*** and ***of which*** **(with inanimate antecedents)**
The survey, whose results will be published in May, has been delayed.
The survey, the results of which will be published in May, has been delayed.
The survey, of which the results will be published in May, has been delayed. (not quite as common)

– ZERO:
  - used in non-subject functions
  - used with animate/inanimate antecedents
  - usually not possible in non-restrictive relative clauses

Here is the book/man/cat – I like. (O_d)
This was the only day – she showed up for work (A)

**This is the gun/man – killed Liberty.* (S)

But: %*There's someone at the door _ wants to talk to you*. <dialectal / informal>

Postmodification by non-finite clauses

- Three types:
  – ing-participle clauses
    the man standing in the corner
  – ed-participle clauses
    a novel written in the 50s
  – infinitive clauses
    no way to treat a lady
- Comparison with relative clauses
  – no relative pronoun
    **the man who standing in the corner* etc.
  – participle clauses only occur with subject 'gaps'
    *the man us meeting Δ at the station

Noun complement clauses

- Comparison with relative clauses (and non-finite clauses as postmodifiers)
  – NO gap at all
  – *that* is a **complementizer** rather than a relative pronoun
  – *that* is obligatory (in finite complement clauses)
  – the complement clause is **selected** by the head noun (i.e. it is a **complement** of the noun rather than a postmodifier). Therefore not all nouns take complement clauses, and different nouns take different forms of complement clauses.
- A minimal pair
  The rumour that he was ill made us forgive him more easily.
  The rumour (that)/(which) he had spread Δ made us forgive him more easily.

Typical nouns that take *that*-complement clauses

- Nouns expressing 'stance' (speaker attitude towards the proposition in the complement clause)
  – in terms of certainty
    fact, possibility, assumption, hypothesis
  – in terms of the source of knowledge
    claim, report, proposal, remark
- Often nominalizations of verbs that take *that*-clause complements:
  I assume that this is correct.
  The assumption that this is correct…

  Bill remarked that no one has seen him on the murder scene.
  The remark that no one had seen him…

Typical nouns that take infinitival complement clauses

- Nouns representing "human goals, opportunities, or actions" (p. 304)
  attempt, decision, failure, determination, refusal…
- These nouns, too, are often nominalizations of verbs, but ones that take *to*-infinitival complements:

  Pierre had failed to notice Natasha.
  Pierre's failure to notice Natasha…

  I attempted to take him by the arm.
  My attempt to take him by the arm…

  China refused to sign the peace treaty.
  China's refusal to sign the peace treaty…

Other complement types

- *wh*-interrogative clause
  - Less common than the other types – virtually restricted to occurring with the noun *question*:
    The question whether to confess or not troubled her.
- PPs with *wh*-clause comlements
  - LSGSWE calls these clauses, but structurally they are clearly PPs
    The question of how to solve the problem…
  - More common than 'plain' *wh*-interrogative
- PPs with *ing*-clause complements (often has alternatives)
  The idea of switching the lamp…
  The idea that they should switch the lamp…

  Their chance to go abroad was lost.
  Their chance of going abroad…

Issues raised by LSGSWE's discussion of noun complement clauses (to remain unresolved, at least in this course)

- What is the difference between apposition and noun complementation?
- Can other PPs than the ones with clausal complements function as noun complements?
- In general, how does complementation differ from other types of dependencies (like modification)?

Relevant data for the last two issues:

the purity of the metal	(the metal has property p)
the anger of the population	(the population has feeling f)
the spire of the cathedral	(the cathedral possesses s)
her nitwit of a husband	(husband is a nitwit)

(Discussed above as cases of postmodification)

Lecture 4
Verbs and Verb Phrases

Classes of verbs (from different perspectives)

1. Lexical, primary, and modal verbs
2. Transitive, intransitive and copular verbs (valency patterns)
3. Single-word and multi-word verbs
4. Regular and irregular verbs

Terminological preamble

- 'Lexical verb' is a formal category (a word class). So, 'lexical verb' is a subcategory of the word class 'verb'.
- 'Primary verb' is also a formal category
- …and so is 'modal verb'.

- The structure of a 'small' verb phrase with the new terminology:

	would	***have***	***smiled***
Function	Auxiliary	Auxiliary	Main verb (Head)
Form	Modal verb	Primary verb	Lexical verb

1 Lexical, primary, and modal verbs

- Lexical verbs
  - function as main verbs in verb phrases
  - form an open class (i.e. we expect their numbers to change, e.g. by loan-words and word-formation processes)
- Modal verbs (more in lecture 5)
  - function as auxiliary verbs in verb phrases
  - form a closed class (fixed number)
- Primary verbs
  - Function either as main verbs or auxiliaries in verb phrases
  - form a closed class (*be*, *have*, and *do*)

2. Valency patterns

- "The main verb in a clause determines the other elements that are required in that clause. The pattern of the clause elements is called the **valency pattern** for the verb" (p. 119).

- Note that valency is associated with the **function** 'main verb', rather than with the verb itself. Therefore:
  - Valency is relevant only to verbs that can function as main verbs, namely lexical verbs and primary verbs (and some semi-modals).
  - Valency for one and the same verb can vary with the context, i.e. one and the same verb may appear in more than one pattern.

The possible patterns of obligatory elements in English

- SV
- SV { O, P, A }
- SVO { O, P, A }

Transitive patterns

- Transitive patterns always involve an OBJECT
- Monotransitive – ONE object
  - Bill killed the cat. NP
  - Bill said that Mary was nice. Dependent clause
  - Bill asked if she wanted another beer. Dependent clause
- Ditransitive – TWO OBJECTS
  - Bill told Mary that he was sorry. NP+Dep.clause
  - Bill gave Mary the cat. NP+NP
  - Bill gave the cat to Mary. NP+PP
  - The last pair illustrates the so called 'dative alternation', which has received a lot of attention from syntacticians.

The dative alternation: issues

- In terms of "participant roles", the objects in the alternants are identical.
  - *Mary* is the recipient/beneficiary in both.
  - *The cat* is the (affected) theme in both.
- So, the *to*-PP is certainly a participant, but is it an object?
  - If YES, then how about similar cases with other prepositions?
    - *I'll make you a nice cake.*
    - *I'll make a nice cake for you.*
    - *Can I ask you a favor?*
    - *Can I ask a favor of you?*
  - If YES, are all to-PPs indirect objects? Clearly not:
    - *I took my son to the game.* (Locative adverbial)
    - **I took the game my son.*

- So, is it the fact that we have an NP+NP alternant that makes us say that the *to*-PP is an indirect object? If so, what about cases where there is no alternant?
  - *Bill read me a story.*
  - *Bill read a story to me.*
  - but
  - Bill said nothing to me.
  - *Bill said me nothing.
  - *I wish good luck to you.
  - I wish you good luck.
- Finally, can direct object be realized as PPs?
  - I envied him his freedom.
  - I envied him for his freedom. (SVOA on most accounts)
- "note that the indirect object prepositional phrase could also be analyzed as an adverbial" (p. 121) – SOUNDS LIKE A GOOD IDEA!

Copular patterns – SVP and (maybe) SVA

- LSGSWE collapses two patterns into the copular type:
  - SVP: *Bill was quiet*. (the predicative ascribes a property to the subject)
  - SVA: *Bill was in Paris*. (the adverbial specifies the location of the subject)
- While a lot of verbs are like *be* in taking both predicatives and adverbials, a lot of other verbs do not take adverbials:
  - *Bill became anxious.*
  - **Bill became in Paris.*
  - *Bill seemed angry.*
  - **Bill seemed in Paris.* (OK: *Bill seemed to be in Paris.*, but then *in Paris* is an adverbial in the clause with *be*.)

Meanings of the copula

- Current state
  - The girl was very restless. (state of existence)
  - The girl looked very restless (perception)
- Resulting state (result of a change)
  - The girl became very restless.
- A number of resulting state copulas show strong collocational tendencies with their predicatives.
  - come true come alive
  - fall ill fall in love
  - go bald go blind go mad
  - grow old grow coldgrow dark
  - make captain/major, etc.
  - prove difficult prove necessary
  - run wild run haywire
  - turn pale turn sour

The ambiguous Swedish copula 'bli'

- Swedish 'bli' is both current state and resulting state.

Dylan's first album was a success.
'blev en stor framgång'

Dylan became known as a folk singer.
'blev känd som…'

'bli' = *become*

- In most cases where a gradual change is understood
  - *Mary became more and more annoyed.*
  - *He became afraid of social contact.*
  - *After a while life became easier.*
  - *Rodin became a figure of international importance.*
  - *The abortion bill eventually became law.*

'bli' = *be*

- Often about the future
  - *The effect in the future will be devastating.*
  - *The price of the painting will be even higher after his death.*
  - *It will be up to you to write the paper.*
  - *What good pubs we have left will be more than ever exposed to the cold winds of change.*
- No change or instantaneous change.
  - *Dylan's first album was an immediate success.*
  - *Mary was angry when she heard about the accident.*
  - *There was a pause in the transmission.*
- Before adjectival participles
  - *I was surprised at his rude behavior.*
  - (but *become* is fine with *more and more*:
  - *I became more and more surprised at his rude behavior*.)

Copulas vs monotransitive verbs

- Compare:

He seemed a very nice guy.	S	V	P
He met a very nice guy.	S	V	O

- The predicative ascribes a property to the subject.
- The object denotes a participant in the event.
- A predicative can have the form of AdjP, an object typically cannot.
  - *He seemed very nice.*
  - **He met very nice.*
- A predicative can be a 'bare' NP referring to a job, role, etc., an object cannot.
  - *He became chairman of the board.*
  - **He met chairman of the board.*

ctd

- An object can become the subject of a passive clause, a predicative cannot.

  Bill insulted a good friend of mine.

  Bill became a good friend of mine.

  A good friend of mine was insulted by Bill.

  **A good friend of mine was become by Bill.*

Complex transitive patterns: SVOP and SVOA

- Again, as with copular verbs, LSGSWE collapses patterns with predicatives and adverbials.
- This is OK, as long as we're aware that not all complex-transitive verbs accept both patterns (in fact, very few do):

  She made him happy. (SVOP)
  *She made him into the room. (*SVOA)

  They rendered it useless. (SVOP)
  *They rendered it in the garbage bin. (*SVOA)

  She called him stupid.
  She called him in the wrong room. (Only grammatical as an intransitive verb followed by an optional adverbial)
  She called him into the room.

Multiple valency patterns: One and the same verb may appear in different patterns

- Transitive → intransitive (object left unexpressed)
  Bill drank some water. (SVO)
  Bill drank. (SV)
- Transitive → intransitive (object → adverbial)
  They shot **him**. (SVO)
  They shot **at him**. (SV(A))

- Ditransitive → monotransitive (indirect object 'missing')
  They offered us $500 (for the car). (SVOO(A))
  They offered $500 (for the car). (SVO(A))
- Ditransitive → monotransitive (direct object 'missing')
  They fined me $500. (SVOO)
  They fined me. (SVO)

Two special cases: cognate objects and light verbs

- A lot of basically intransitive verbs occur in transitive patterns with an object NP whose head is derived from the verb – a cognate object.
  - He died an agonising death.
  - Mr. Grainger coughed a short, dry cough behind his hand.
  - She sleeps the sleep of the just.
  - Don't talk the talk if you can't walk the walk.
- Similarly nominal cognates of verbs may occur as the object of a 'light' verb, i.e. one which contributes less meaning than the object. The primary verbs *do* and *have* are especially common.
  - She drank some water.
  - She had a drink of water.
  - I'll talk to Mary.
  - I'll have a talk with Mary.
  - I have to think.
  - I have to do some thinking.

3 Single- and multi-word verbs

- Phrasal verbs
- Prepositional verbs
- Phrasal-prepositional verbs

Verbs, prepositions and particles

- What's the analysis of
  - They called off the strike.
  - They called on their new neighbors.

?

- The answer:
  - They [called off] [the strike]
    S V O
  - They [called] [on their neighbors]
    S V A

ctd

- The argument for [*call off*] as a unit
  - *call off* is a semantic unit
  - *call off* cannot be broken up by adverbials:
    - **They called immediately off the strike.*
  - *off* and a following NP do not form a unit:
    - **Off what did they call?*
- The argument for *call on* as a 'non-unit'
  - *call on* can be broken up by adverbials
    - *They called immediately on their neighbors.*
  - *on* and the following NP can move as a unit
    - *[On whom] did they call?*

- Further differences between *call off* and *call on*
  - *call off* may take its object between the verb and the particle. (If the object is a pronoun this order is obligatory)
    - *They called the strike off.*
    - *They called it off.*
  - *call on* cannot take the NP between the verb and the preposition.
    - **They called their neighbors on.*
    - **They called them on.*

  [This follows quite naturally from the fact tha PPs always have the order P + complement, and never *complement + P]

Phrasal verbs vs prepositional verbs

- *call off* is a PHRASAL VERB
  - The verb and the particle form a complex verb
- *call on* is a PREPOSITIONAL VERB
  - *There is a dependency relation between the verb and the preposition: The verb "selects" the preposition, but the verb and the preposition do not form a complex verb.*

LSGSWE suggests that prepositional verbs could also be analyzed as 'multi-word' units. They present two arguments for this:

1. The verb+preposition can have idiomatic meanings.
   This is a weak argument given the wealth of metaphorical extensions of prepositional meanings.
2. *Wh*-questions are formed using *who* or *what* (which typically ask for the object): *Who did they call on?*
   But if the preposition is stranded, then extraction out of clear adverbials is possible, so this, too, looks like a weak argument:
   I was born in Malmö.
   What city were you born in?

3. (Not in LSGSWE) Passive is only possible with objects, so if we can get passives from prepositional objects, then they seem to have object properties:
   *Results of the studies showed that the group of customers who were exposed to advertising and **who were called on by** Westing- house salesmen*…(Google books – one of very few examples)

   On the other hand, we sometimes get passives out of PPs that are clearly adverbials.
   Nobody slept in this bed.
   This bed has never been slept in.

Lecture 5
Variations in the verb phrase

Main types of variation

- Tense
  - Present
  - Past
- Aspect
  - Progressive
  - Perfective
  - Simple (unmarked)
- Voice
  - Active
  - Passive

Examples of finite VPs

I went to the University of Chicago.
- Tense: Past
- Aspect: Simple
- Voice: Active

I have been to the capital of France.
- Tense: Present
- Aspect: Perfect
- Voice: Active

He had been shot in the head several times.
- Tense: Past
- Aspect: Perfective
- Voice: Passive

Tense and time

- **Tense** is a grammatical term which only refers to a form of the verb.
- **Time** is the real-world notion.

- There are **only two tenses** in English
  - Present tense, e.g. *likes*, *lives*, *is*
  - Past tense, e.g. *liked*, *lived*, *was*
- **Time** includes 'present', 'past', 'future', as well as more complex notions like 'immediate past', 'immediate future', etc.

PAST TIME — NOW — FUTURE TIME →

Matching tense with time

- Two modes of analysis – answering two different questions:
  1. Time → Tense: What form of the verb is used to refer to past, present, or future time?
  2. Tense → Time: What different times does a particular verb form refer to? This amounts to asking for the 'meaning' or 'use' of a given verb form.
- Regardless of how we ask the question we will get one-to-many correspondences between time and tense.

Present tense → Time

- The simplest case – simple present tense refers to present time.
  1. *Zlatan passes the ball to Henke.*
     (an event simultaneous with the time of utterrance)
     This is fairly restricted, and occurs mainly in running commentary.
  2. *I resign.*
     (an event simultaneous with the time of utterrance, which constitutes the act itself – referred to as a performative)
  3. *I am hungry.*
     (a state simultaneous with the time of utterrance)
  4. *I get up at 7 every morning.*
     (a present habit)

Present tense → Time ctd.

- A few odd cases: the simple present tense may refer to times other than the present:
  1. **Future time** as 'fact':
     The match begins at three tomorrow.
  2. **Past time**
     Bill tells me that you lost the game.
     … so Bill says, "Oh shut up", and then I go, "OK, …
  3. **Past time** with present relevance (the present perfect):
     Bill has left.

Present time → grammar

- The simplest case – to refer to present time, use the simple present tense.
  1. *Zlatan passes the ball to Henke.*
     (an event simultaneous with the time of utterrance)
     This is fairly restricted, and occurs mainly in running commentary.
  2. *I resign.*
     (an event simultaneous with the time of utterrance)
  3. *I am hungry.*
     (a state simultaneous with the time of utterrance)
  4. *I get up at 7 every morning.*
     (a present habit)

Present time → grammar ctd.

- Odd cases: past tense used to refer to present time:
  1. Did you want to talk to me?
     (polite/tactful)
  2. This might be true.
     (and other past tense modals)

– So, the 'odd' cases differ depending on the direction of analysis

Future time

- English is very consistent in marking events, etc. as belonging to the future.
- The normal case: English marks the future in the VP.
- Here we just look at a couple of cases – frequently misunderstood.
  – the *be going to* construction
  – the present progressive

The "semi-modal" *be going to* construction

- The future is seen as a result or fulfilment of circumstances in the present

A. Present intention
   1. I'm going to complain if things get worse.
   2. I'm going to retire in 10 years' time

B. Present cause
   1. There's going to be trouble.
   2. She's going to have a baby.

The present progressive to mark future time

- Like *be going to* the progressive is often associated with something in the near future. However:
  – 'the near future' is a relative term – How near does it have to be?
    She's getting married next May
    I'm retiring in 10 years' time.
- Like *be going to*, the present progressive with future time reference is related to the present.
- Basic meaning: "future arising from a present arrangement, plan, or program". Plans may be made both for the 'near' future and for the more distant future
    I'm taking the kids to the Zoo tomorrow.
    I'm retiring in 10 years' time.

Present tense → future time

- The present tense with future reference is rare – very few cases. Moreover, in main clauses, there are always other options.
- **Fact/schedule/program** in main clauses:
  The match starts at 8.
  - Some alternatives:

  The match will start at 8.
  The match is to start at 8.
  The match is supposed to start at 8.
- **Cyclic events in nature** (in main clauses)
  There is a solar eclipse tomorrow.
  - Alternative:

  There will be a solar eclipse tomorrow.

Present tense with future reference in dependent clauses

- More cases than in main clauses
- Most often obligatory (i.e. no alternatives with *will*, etc.)
- Two 'must-know' cases:
  - In temporal dependent clauses:
    I'll tell her to phone you <u>when she comes in.</u>
  - In conditional dependent clauses:
    I'll tell her to phone you <u>if she gets in before 5</u>.
- In a few other types of dependent clause:
  - *Next time I'll do <u>as he says</u>*.(adverbial)
  - *I'll ask him what he wants to see tomorrow*. (interrogative)
  - *I hope she gets back in time*. (object of *hope*)

What is aspect?

Real world	Grammar
????? (the event/state etc viewed with respect to:)	Aspect
•completion/non-completion •start/end •duration •…	•progressive •perfective
Note: we do not really want to say that the perfect and the progressive are verb forms, although we still want to say that they are grammatical (as opposed to real-world) categories. Let's call them "constructions".	

present tense + progressive aspect = The present progressive

- An old friend: present progressive vs simple present (i.e. present non-progressive)
  1. It never rains in southern California.
  2. It's raining in southern California.

  Simple present = a repetition of events (predictable and permanent)
  Present progressive = a specific ongoing event
- More examples:
  1. Do you eat meatballs?
  2. I'm eating meatballs.

  Simple present = a repetition of events – with human subjects it makes sense to talk about a HABIT
  Present progressive = a specific ongoing event
  NB! Swedish has the same form for both of these:
  Äter du köttbullar? Jag äter köttbullar.

- Progressive aspect indicates that an event is ONGOING at the time of speaking.
- The progressive also indicates that an event is TEMPORARY, that it has a clear beginning and a clear end.
- States and habits
  - States continue over a period of time and do not need to have a well-defined beginning and end. Not surprisingly, states and habits both occur in the simple present:
  1. He takes the bus to school. (habit)
  2. She owns several houses. (state)
  3. He eats meatballs. (habit – NB a present event reading would have to be of the 'running commentary' type)

- Habits may be temporary – states typically may not:

  1. He takes the bus to school.
  2. He's taking the bus to school.
  3. He owns several houses.
  4. *He's owning several houses.

- Nevertheless, the progressive is possible with (some) state verbs
  1. I think the flowers look nice.
  2. I'm thinking of the flowers.
     (NB! *think* is ambiguous in English – Swedish has seperate verbs, *tro, tycka* and *tänka*)
  3. He is an idiot.
  4. He's being an idiot.
  5. He's having an affair.
     Note the added implication that the subject has control over his/her actions – so inanimate subjects are odd:
  4. *The house is being nice in this light.

present tense + perfective aspect = The present perfect

- The present perfect normally refers to **past time**, but with the added implication that a past event, state, etc. has **present relevance**.
- The present perfect thus contrasts with the simple past tense in reference to past time.

- The simplest case – the simple past tense vs the present perfect.
- First case: **past habits**
  1. I played football for 10 years.
     (past habit – no present relevance → 'I no longer play football')
  2. I have played football for 10 years.
     (past habit – present relevance → 'I still play football')

- **Past states** may also have present relevance:
  1. I've known her for years.
  2. I knew her when she was young.
- With events, we get an 'indefinite past event' interpretation in the perfect.
  1. I saw 'The Deer Hunter' yesterday.
  2. I have seen 'The Deer Hunter' 11 times.
  3. Have you eaten yet?
     (There is a period leading up to the present during which the event(s) happened or could have happened)

Important contrastive points

- English marks perfective aspect (past with relevance to present) more consistently than Swedish.

  He has worked here since 1989.
  'jobbar här sedan 1989'
- English marks imperfective aspect (past <u>without</u> relevance to present) more consistently than Swedish.

  Who wrote the music for 'The Deer Hunter'?
  'vem har skrivit musiken'

  When was Stanley Myers born?
  'är född'

Adding the progressive to the perfect adds temporariness

- Temporary habit leading up to the present or with an effect in the present:
  – I've been taking dancing lessons for a couple of weeks.
- Temporary states leading up to the present:
  – I've been waiting for over two hours.
- Temporary event with present result:
  – Have you been drinking?

Voice: Active and Passive

- VPs headed by **transitive** verbs usually occur in two voices.
- The active:
  The choir sang three songs.
  S V O

- The Passive:
  Three songs were sung (by the choir).
  S V ?

- The function of the *by*-phrase:
  – Optional (in fact infrequently expressed) → Adverbial
  – Other suggestions: special clause element: Agent

Other transitive verbs with passives

- Ditransitive:
  John gave <u>Mary</u> <u>a brand new car</u>.
  Mary was given a brand new car.
  A brand new car was given Mary (not OK for all speakers – there's an alternative:
  A brand new car was given to Mary.
- Complex transitive
  The senate appointed <u>Caesar</u> Emperor of Rome.
  Caesar was appointed Emperor (by the senate).

Modals and semi-modals

- Central modals: Characteristics
  - Function as auxiliaries in VP
  - No inflection (except for tense)
  - Precede negation (so, no *do*-support required)
  - Invert with the subject in subject-operator (=partial) inversion (e.g. yes/no questions)
  - Followed by bare infinitives
  - Typical meanings: obligation, necessity, probablility, possibility, etc.

Modals and tense

- The English modals come in pairs:
  - *Will-would*
  - *Can-could*
  - *Shall-should*
  - *May-might*
- Exception
  - *Must*
- BUT: The distinction between present and past tense forms is not primarily related to time. Other menings of the tense distinction are:
  - Politeness
  - Tentativeness/Modesty
  - … and other idiomatic senses

Modals and tense
CAN

- Past tense more polite:
  - *Can I borrow your car?*
  - *Could I borrow your car?*
- Compare the use of *could* in conditional contexts:
  - *You could probably borrow his car if you asked him.*

Modals and tense
MAY

- Past tense is more polite
  - May I ask you a question?
  - Might I ask you a question? (pretty rare and formal)
- A scale of politeness:
  - Can I ask you a question?
  - Could I ask you a question?
  - May I ask you a question?
  - Might I ask you a question?

Modals and tense
SHALL

- Used in all dialects in the 'direction-seeking' sense.
  - Shall I stay or shall I go?
  - Should I stay or should I go?
- Past tense more tentative/polite.
- The past tense form *should* has a variety of other uses without any correspondence with *shall* →

SHOULD

- Probability:
  - He should be back by now.
- Obligation (the 'ought to' sense):
  - You should tell you mother. (cf *You must tell your mother*.)
  - You shouldn't smoke.
- In dependent clauses (weak modality) →

should in dependent clauses

- Putative 'förment, förmodad' *should:*
  - I'm surprised that he should resign.
- Here, *should* is used to represent something as a neutral 'idea' rather than as 'fact'.
- Sometimes, this use is referred to as 'emotive', since it occurs in clauses after expressions indicating surprise or evaluation.

- Mandative 'befallande, påbjudande' *should*.
  - It's essential that he should be told.
- Here *should* is used in a clause after an expression of will/volition.
- In this use *should* alternates with the present subjunctive. (LSGSWE: 8.17)
  - It's essential that he be told.

- Conditional *should*
  - If you should experience any difficulty, call me immediately.
- Expresses weaker expectation than the non-modal conditional clause:
  - If you experience any difficulty…

Lecture 6
Adjectives and adverbs

Adjectives

- Defining characteristics:
  - meaning
  - morphology
  - syntax/distribution
- Meaning:
  - Denotes the quality or property of something.

The adjective describes a thing,
As *magic* wand or *bridal* ring;

- Morphology:
  - Unfortunately, there are no morphemes that uniquely identify adjectives to the exclusion of all other word classes, but there are typical adjective-forming suffixes:
    - -able (comfortable, likeable, countable…)
    - -ish (outlandish, foolish…)
    - -less (pointless, clueless, useless…)
    - … and many others
- Inflection
  - *er*
  - *est*

  But note that adverbs, too, have comparative and superlative forms

Syntactic characteristics

- Function of adjectives:
  - Function as heads of adjective phrases and can therefore be modified by adverb phrases, like *very* or *much.*
- Functions of adjective phrases:
  - Modify nouns (the attributive function)
  - Function as predicative (the predicative function)
- Most adjectives satisfy all three criteria:
  - His daughter is *very beautiful*. (modified by adverb phrase)
  - His *beautiful* daughter… (attributive)
  - His daughter is *beautiful*. (predicative)

Attributive-only adjectives

- Some adjectives only occur in attributive function
  - *mere*
  - *former*
  - *main*

  Our picture becomes a mere organization of color masses.

  **This organization of color masses is mere.*

  We met with the former President.

  **The President was former.*

Predicative-only adjectives

- Some adjectives only occur in predicative function:
  - *afraid*
  - *asleep*
  - *alone*
  - …and many others in *a-* (which used to be a preposition, *an* 'in, on', in Middle English)

  Bill is afraid of snakes.
  **The afraid boy stayed with his father.*
  Bill is asleep.
  **The asleep boy had to be carried to his bed.*

Participial adjectives (or verbs?)

- Present and past participles (*-ing* and *-ed* forms of verbs) can be used both as adjectives and as verbs.
- Moreover, both as verbs and as adjectives they can be used attributively and after *BE*.

Adjectives	Verbs
*some **disturbing** news*	*a **sleeping** child*
*The news was **disturbing***	*The child was **sleeping**.*
*his **worried** parents*	*a rarely **heard** symphony.*
*His parents were **worried***	*It was rarely **heard**.*

- **The problem:**
  - **Is the *ing*-form part of the progressive or what?**
  - **Is the *ed*-form part of the passive or what?**

Adjective or verb? Test 1

- Modification by *very* is only possible with adjectives:

some very disturbing news	**a very sleeping child*
The news was very disturbing.	**The child was very sleeping.*
his very worried parents	**this very heard symphony*
His parents were very worried.	**The symphony was very heard.*

- Verbs take *much* as a degree modifier:
  - *I was very annoyed at her behavior.* (Adjective)
  - *His art was <u>much</u> admired for its colouring.* (Verb)

Adjective or verb? Test 2

- Adjectives can function as predicative complement.
- The linking verb *be* is no good as a test, since it may be followed by verbal participles, as well as adjectives. Luckily, there are other verbs that take predicatives, e.g. *seem, make, become:*
  - *The news seemed disturbing.*
  - **The child seemed sleeping.*
  - *His parents seemed (very) worried.*
  - **The symphony seemed rarely heard.*
  - *The news made me worried.* (Object predicative)
  - **The ad campaign made the concert much heard.*

APs modifying proper nouns (LSGSWE: 7.7)

- Place names
  - In many languages (Swedish is one) premodification of a place name triggers the use of a determiner, e.g. the definite article.
    Välkommen till det vackra Lund.
  - In English, premodification of a place name does not trigger the use of a determiner.
    Welcome to beautiful Lund.
- Two things to note
  - Some names that have the definite article as part of the name keep it even when they are premodified.
    Welcome to the beautiful United States.
    but (somewhat mysteriously) **Welcome to the beautiful Hague*.
    (although the city is called The Hague)
  - Some premodifying adjectives <u>do</u> trigger the use of the article even if a place name does not have it as part of its name.
    - *new, old, real*
      *This was a unique opportunity to see **the real Sweden**.*
      ***The old Paris** had disappeared, inspiring the melancholic lines from Baudelaire: Le vieux Paris n'est plus…*
      *Participation, rather than direction, shaped **the new Paris**.*
    - *modern, present* in the sense 'what is now…'
      *The chief port of commerce was Londinium, **the modern London**.*
      *It is certain that the Romans built a bridge over the Thames near the site of **the present London Bridge**.*

APs modifying personal names

- Main rules
  - If the modifier is "emotional" it does not trigger the use of the definite article:
    little Laura Davies
    poor Bill
  - If the modifier is "neutral" and descriptive the article is used:
    the late John C. Drennan
    the mysterious Mr Smith

More functions of APs

- APs without a head to modify
  - Preliminary observation:
    The requirement that NPs have a head is very strong in English.
    - English has a special pronoun for filling in a "missing" noun head, namely *one*.

      Do you have any knives?
      I need a sharp <u>one</u>.
      I need a couple of sharp <u>ones</u>.
- The requirement that NPs should have a noun head results in very few cases of "nominalized adjectives" – i.e. cases where it seems that an adjective is the head of an NP.
  - *<u>The rich</u> cannot enter the kingdom of Heaven.*
  - *<u>The emotionally disturbed</u> need special attention from society.*

Restrictions on adjectives as NP heads

- Only NPs that are <u>definite in form</u> can take adjectives as heads/have a zero head.

  The unemployed have lost a lot of their benefits under the new government.
  *An unemployed spends more time filling out forms than interviewing for jobs.
- Nominalization normally requires generic reference. Two kinds:
  - Plurals with reference to categories of human beings (including some nationality adjectives)
  - Singulars with an abstract interpretation

Plurals with reference to categories of human beings

- Examples:
  - *<u>The rich</u> cannot enter the kingdom of Heaven.*
  - (cf Swedish: *Rika får inte komma in…*)
  - *How will this affect the very poor?*
- Note:
  - Determination is normally necessary and almost always by the definite article:

    **These rich cannot enter…*
    But cf (with possessive determiner):
    Give me your tired, your poor,
    Your huddled masses yearning to breathe free…

Singulars with an abstract interpretation

- Examples
  - This is verging on the immoral.
  - He went from the sublime to the ridiculous.
- Note: Not all abstract adjectives are likely to occur as NP heads:
  - ?We love the exciting.

Nominalizations with specific reference

- A few exceptional cases:
  - the accused
  - the deceased
  - the wounded (NB – plural)
- Superlatives (with a wider choice of determiners)
  - I'll do my best/my utmost/my damnedest

Similar cases

- The *one* used to replace nouns can be dropped, especially after modifying APs:
  - if the NP is **not** indefinite (typically generic) and a contrast is made (but not with all kinds of modifiers):

    Bill likes red shirts and I like blue (ones).
    Bill prefers cotton shirts to nylon (ones).
- Notice that indefinite NPs are much less acceptable:
  - ??*I bought a cotton shirt rather than a nylon*.
- And even definites with the 'wrong' kind of adjective are bad:
  - **I took the cute puppy but my brother got the ugly*.

Obligatory "*one*-drop"

- Very few cases:
  - after *own*
    You can't borrow my bike. Why don't you get your own ___?
  - comparison with nationality adjectives:
    The German team is stronger than the Italian___.
  - referring back to uncountables (of course!)
    Bill likes Russian vodka and I like Polish.
    **Bill's coffee is stronger than the one James makes.*
    Bill's coffee is stronger than that which James makes.
    Bill's coffee is stronger than what James makes.

Adjectives vs adverbs

- Old news:
  - Adjectives (APs, really) modify nouns and function as (predicative) complement
  - Adverbs (AdvPs, really) modify:
    - adjectives
    - adverbs
    - PPs
    - NPs
    - …
    - or function as adverbials ("modify verbs" – but that's not always what adverbials do)

Adjectives vs adverbs: examples

He's a close friend.	*Don't stand so close.*
This is hard work.	*He works hard.*
the right answer	*Do it right now/away!*
	right under his nose
the wrong answer	*You guessed wrong.*
the daily newspaper	*It arrives daily.*
This poison is deadly.	*It's deadly poisounous.*
The wound is deep.	*He dug deep.*
	It cut deep into my heart.

Semantic categories of adverbs

- LSGSWE identify **seven** main semantic categories (but both finer and coarser-grained classifications are possible – and common)
  - Place (sometimes called 'space')
  - Time
  - Manner
  - Degree
  - Additive/Restrictive
  - Stance
  - Linking
  - Other [sic!] – so, there are more than seven, apparently.
    - purpose
    - means
    - cause
    - 'courtesy' (*Kindly attend to what I say…*)

The degree adverbs *very* and *much*

- Main tendency I: *very* modifies adjectives and adverbs **in the positive**, *much* modifies verbs:
  - This wine is very nice.
  - This room is very beautifully decorated.
  - I much prefer French wine.
- Main tendency II: *much* modifies **comparatives** of adjectives and adverbs:
  - *This wine is much better.*
  - *He can walk much better now.*
- Main tendency III: *very* modifies **superlatives** of adjectives:
  - This is the very best wine we have.

- Remember the participles…
- Examples:
  - *I was very annoyed at her behavior.*
  - *His art was much admired for its colouring.*
- So, as we already noted, *very* goes with adjectival participles, *much* goes with verbal participles.

Lecture 7
More on clauses

Subordination and coordination

- Both coordination and subordination involve linking of constituents. Here we focus on the linking of **clauses**.
- **Coordination** links clauses at the same level.
- **Subordination** links clauses hierarchically.
  - The subordinate clause, referred to as a **dependent clause** is a constituent of (i.e. 'part of') the superordinate clause (the one that contains the dependent clause).
  - The superordinate clause may itself be a dependent clause, i.e. multiple embedding is possible.
  - An example of multiple embedding using unlabelled brackets.

    Mary said [that Jean thought [the meeting was on Friday]].

…the structure:

Mary	said	that	Jean	thought	the meeting was on Friday
S	V	O			
		link	S	V	O

- **Non-finite**: A dependent clause is non-finite if the verb phrase funtioning as the predicate verb does not contain a finite verb form.

  *I don't know **who to see about my problem***
  - predicate verb in the dependent clause: *to see*
  - *to see* has no finite verb forms (it's an infinitive)
  - so, ***who to see about my problem*** is a non-finite dependent clause

Dependent clauses

- **Reminder: finite and non-finite dependent clauses**
  - **Finite**: A dependent clause is finite if the verb phrase functioning as the predicate verb contains a finite verb form (which is always the first verb in the verb phrase)

    *I don't know **who I should see about my problem**.*
    - predicate verb in the dependent clause: *should see*
    - *should* is a finite verb form (past tense)
    - so, ***who I should see about my problem*** is a finite dependent clause

Finite dependent clauses: 1. Complement clauses

- Complement clauses (a.k.a. 'nominal clauses')
  - Syntactic (clause) function similar to NP (i.e. S, P, O)
  - Two main types
    - *that*-clauses (with or without *that*)
    - *wh*-clauses (sometimes called 'indirect questions')

***that*-clauses:**

Mary's brother knew that the cat was dead.
S V Od

That the cat was dead seemed obvious.
S V P

The problem was that the cat was dead.
S V P

Finite dependent clauses, ctd.

***wh*-clauses:**

Mary's brother knew **what he wanted to say**.
S V Od

How the book will sell depends on the reviewers.
S V A

The problem was **who would break the news to her**.
S V P

Contrastive note: *som* in Swedish *wh*-clauses

- In Swedish, dependent *wh*-clauses where the *wh*-word is the subject require the insertion of *som*:

  Kalle visste inte [vem som hade dödat katten].
  S V O

- In English, there is no pronoun corresponding to *som* in indirect questions:

  Kalle didn't know [who had killed the cat.
  S V O

Finite dependent clauses 2. Adverbial clauses

- **Adverbial clauses**
  - Function as adverbials
  - Typically introduced by a subordinator (which strongly signals what semantic type of adverbial it is)

  Examples:

  When I last saw him, he was living in the Bahamas. (Time)

  The migrant workers went **wherever** they could find work . (Place)

  If the weather is nice, we'll have a barbecue. (Condition)

  She watered the flowers **because** they were dry. (Reason)

Finite dependent clauses: 3. Relative clauses

- **Relative clauses**
  - Function as postmodifiers in noun phrases
  - Typically introduced by a relativizer (relative pronoun or relative adverb)
  - The relativizer can be analyzed in terms of its clause function within the relative clause. (actually it's the gap that has the function, as we have seen)

  Examples:

  the man **that/who(m)** Mary had seen the night before (direct object)

  the man **that/who** took Mary to the hospital (subject)

  the time **when** you got hit on the head (adverbial – *when* is a relative adverb)

Non-finite dependent clauses 1. Complement clauses

- **Complement (nominal) clauses**
  - infinitive clauses
    To be a member of this club is a privilige and an honor. (S)
    Bill likes **to ski**. (O)
    The worst excuse is **to say that your computer crashed**. (P)
  - *ing*-clauses
    Watching television is his favorite pastime. (S)
    Bill enjoys **playing practical jokes**. (O)
    The main difficulty was **having to deal with the visitors**. (P)
  - *ed*-clauses
    I heard **the accident mentioned on the radio**. (O)
    I've never seen **it done in this way**. (O)
    [Note: very few verbs take *ed*-clauses as objects.]

Non-finite dependent clauses: 2. Adverbial clauses

- **Adverbial clauses**
  - infinitive clauses
    I left early **to catch the train**. (Purpose – very common "purpose infinitive")
    To be honest, I don't like him very much. ('Stance')
  - ing-clauses
    Since leaving his family, Bill's life seemed pointless. (Time)
  - ed-clauses
    Persuaded by her optimism, Bill did much more than he had planned. (Reason)
  - verbless clauses
    If necessary we will recruit more staff. (Condition)
    When in doubt, take a chance on getting by with the truth.

Notes on adverbial non-finite clauses

- What is a verbless clause?
  - Behaves like a clause despite the fact that it has no verb
  - Most (all, for some grammarians) are adverbial
  - Typically introduced by a subordinator
  - Can be analyzed in terms of clause elements
  - 'missing' elements are fully retrievable

  More examples

  Although always helpful, he was not much liked.

  A P

  Although **he was** always helpful…

  If possible you should fill in the form first.

  If **it is** possible…

- Typically a non-finite clause has no subject
  - The 'missing' subject is interpreted as being the same as the subject of the main clause.

  Not knowing what to do Bill just stood there.

  [Bill is the one who does not know what to do]

  - What is wrong with the following?

  Riding along on my bicycle, **the dog** knocked me over.

  [Answer: *The dog* is the subject of the main clause, hence it is interpreted as the subject of the *ing*-clause, too, resulting in the odd interpretation.]

Dangling participles

- Mismatches in subject interpretation in non-finite (*ing*- and *ed*-clauses) dependent clauses.
- More examples:

  Rushing to finish the paper, **Bob**'s printer broke.

  Walking along the beach, **the sun** rose majestically over the ocean.

  While waiting in line at the Snar, **the grill** erupted into flames.

  Dressed in a stunning Versace gown, **Tom Cruise** couldn't take his eyes off Nicole Kidman.

  Opening the closet, **a skeleton** fell out.

The subjunctive in dependent clauses

- The subjunctive is a finite verb form, although the only verb that shows a tense distinction is *BE*.
- Forms: present subjunctive = base form of the verb
- Past subjunctive = were (only with *BE*)

Examples:

- The 'mandative' subjunctive: **In *that*-clauses** as complement of verbs, adjectives and nouns expressing a demand, recommendation, proposal, intention, resolution, etc.

  *The committee proposed that the President **be** impeached.*

  *We recommend that the road **be** built to the north of the site.*
- Sometimes in adverbial (conditional) clauses in formal registers:

  *Even if this **be** the official view, it is unacceptable.*

the subjunctive, ctd.

- The 'formulaic subjunctive' – used in a number of fixed expressions:

  Come what may…

  Suffice it to say that…

  God **save** the King/the Queen! ('may God save the Queen')
- The past (*were*) subjunctive – hypothetical/unreal contexts

  If I were a rich man…

  If I were a carpenter…

  I wish the journey were over. (more natural: …the journey was over)

Contrastive note: Clauses as prepositional complements

- To-infinitival declarative clauses and finite declarative clauses do not occur as complements of prepositions in English.

Vi ser fram emot att träffa hennes släktingar.
**We are looking forward to to meet her parents.*
Lisa påminde mig om att jag hade ett möte.
**Lisa reminded me about that I had a meeting.*
Bill protesterade mot att Lisa blev vald till språkrör.
**Bill objected to that Lisa was elected spokesperson.*
Bill var förvånad över att Lisa blev så arg.
**Bill was surprised about that Lisa got so angry.*

- *wh*-clauses (finite and non-finite) and *ing*-clauses, on the other hand, are fine as prepositional complements in English

  **He was thinking about that he had said some stupid things.*

  He was thinking about what he had said.

  He was thinking about what to say.

  He was thinking about saying something.

To – preposition or infinitive marker?

- In English, *to* can be used both as an infinitive marker and as a preposition. When it is used as a preposition and takes a clausal complement, the complement is typically an *ing*-participial clause. When *to* is used as an infinitive marker it forms a unit with a following verb in the infinitive. The following pair illustrates the difference.

  Bill is used to running a mile every morning. (*to* is a preposition)
  Bill used to run a mile every morning. (*to* is an infinitive marker)

- BIG problem (for non-native speakers) – how do we know when to is a preposition and when it is an infinitive marker?

All prepositions can take NP complements

- Since prepositions take NP complements, the simplest test to determine whether *to* is a prepositions is to test whether *to* can be followed by a noun phrase. If it can, it is a preposition, and if it cannot it is an infinitive marker.

  Bill is used to cats. (*to* accepts an NP as complement and is therefore a preposition → *Bill is used to running a mile every day*)
  **Bill used to cats*. (*to* does NOT accept an NP as complement and is therefore an infinitive marker → *Bill used to run a mile everyday*)

To as a preposition – more examples

Bill never quite adjusted to working with the new equipment.

After several years' absence Jones returned to writing children's books.

Olsson is not particularly fast when it comes to making decisions.

I wish he would stick to writing children's books.

The increasing revenue contributed to the company quickly getting back on its feet.

Negation

- In terms of scope (the 'reach' of negation, the size of the negated constituent) English has two main types of negation:
  - **Clausal negation** – an entire clause is negated
    Bill likes cats.
    Bill does not like cats.
  - **Local negation** – a smaller element, typically a phrase, is negated
    Surprisingly Bill likes cats.
    Not surprisingly Bill likes cats.
    [only initial adverb phrase negated, main proposition unaffected]

Clausal negation

- Requires an **operator** as 'host'.
  - Operators:
    - the first auxiliary in the verb phrase
      Mary will leave her husband.
      Mary will **not** leave her husband.
      Mary would have left her husband.
      Mary would **not** have left her husband.
    - copular *be*
      Bill is fond of cats.
      Bill is **not** fond of cats.
    - dummy *do*
      Bill likes cats.
      Bill does **not** like cats.
      [so what *do*-support does is just provide an operator]

Aside: operators in general

- Operators have other functions than as hosts for negation
  - In subject-operator ('partial') inversion
    Would Mary have left her husband?
  - In operator-stress (positive-negative contrast)
    Mary **hàs** left her husband.
    Mary **dìd** leave her husband.
  - In ellipsis and VP fronting structures
    If anything can go wrong it **will** (go wrong).
    He said he would kill the cat and Kill the cat he **did** (kill the cat).

Negative polarity items (NPI) Assertive and non-assertive forms

- Assertive contexts → *some, already, still…*
- Non-assertive contexts (negated clauses and interrogatives) → *any, yet, ever…*

Assertive	**Non-assertive**
*She bought **some** flowers.*	*She did not buy **any** flowers.*
**She bought any flowers.*	*Did she buy **any** flowers?*
(only grammatical in the 'free choice' sense)	
*She told me about it **already**.*	*She did not tell me about it **yet**.*
**She told me about it yet.*	*Did she tell you about it **yet**?*

Assertive forms in non-assertive contexts

- Assertive forms (*some, already*, etc) may occur in non-assertive contexts, but always give rise to 'extra' meaning (called 'implicatures' in pragmatics). Interestingly, implicatures are fairly systematic.

Assertive	**Non-assertive**
*She bought **some** flowers.*	*She did not buy **some** flowers.*
**She bought any flowers.*	*Did she buy **some** flowers?*
(only grammatical in the 'free choice' sense)	
*She told me about it **already**.*	*She did not tell me about it **already**.*
**She told me about it yet.*	*Did she tell you about it **already**?*

Assertive forms in negative declaratives

- Assertive forms in negatives – two types:
  - Scope independent
  - Scope sensitive

Assertive	**Negative declaratives**
*She bought **some** flowers.*	*She did not buy **some** flowers.*
I went to some of his lectures.	*I didn't go to **some** of his lectures*

- Scope independent: Not all that interesting: Used in the real (or assumed) context of a previous utterrance, the **wording** (rather than the content) of which is rejected. (e.g. *She didn't just buy **some** flowers, she bought a ridiculous mass of flowers.*)
- Scope sensitive: 'There were some flowers such that she didn't buy them'. 'There were some lectures such that I did not go to them'

Assertive forms in interrogatives

- Assertive forms (*some, already*, etc) in interrogatives.

Assertive	**Non-assertive**
*She bought **some** flowers.*	*Did she buy **some** flowers?*
*She told me about it **already**.*	*Did she tell you about it **already**?*

Positive bias: Strong expectation that the answer will be positive (i.e. 'Yes'). So, whoever asks the question has reason to believe that 'she' bought some flowers or that somebody told 'you' about it..

Just for fun: Negative interrogatives

- A negative and a question do **not** add up to an assertive context.
- Assertive form in negative questions → rich in implicatures

Positive interrogative	**Negative interrogative**
*Did she buy **any** flowers?*	*Didn't she buy **any** flowers?*
*Did she tell you about it **yet***	*Didn't she tell you about it **yet**?*

Just as we expect, non-assertive forms, regardless of whether the interrogative is positive or negative. Negative bias in the negative interrogative. Now we try the assertive forms:

Did she buy some flowers?	*Didn't she buy some flowers?*
Did she tell you about it already?	*Didn't she tell you about it already?*
Still positive bias.	Surprise = Initial positive expectation + evidence to the contrary

Lecture 8
Verb and adjective complementation

On the position of complement clauses

- Three positions for complement clauses:
  - Pre-predicative (= Subject)
  - Post-predicative position =
    - Object
      Mary wishes [*that she was single again*].
    - Predicative
      One of the reasons is [*that she has to do all the housework anyway*].

    [Uncontroversial so far, but here are the problematic cases:]

    - Adjective complement (a subset of what we used to call postmodifiers), e.g *I'm not sure* [*when it's open*]
  - Extraposed (= Logical Subject) position

Adjective complementation vs postmodification

- In general, modifiers have the following properties:
  - They are optional
  - They are not selected by the modified category
- In general, complements have the following properties:
  - They are obligatory
  - They are selected by the "controlling" category
- For complements of adjectives, optionality/obligatoriness is mostly irrelevant: Both modifiers and complements are optional.
  Exception: a few adjectives take obligatory PP-complement
  *He was loath *(to accept the offer)*
  (The "*(" notation means 'ungrammatical without the material in parentheses')

PP-complements of adjectives

- Examples of selected PPs, which are therefore complements

  annoyed about the delay *amazed at her behavior*
  responsible for the defecit *tough on the audience*
  - Evidence for selection:

  **annoyed on the audience* **amazed for her behavior*
  **tough at the audience* etc.
- Selection is in terms of what specific preposition (*on, to, for,* etc.) follows the adjective.

Complement clauses (in AdjP)

- Examples of selected complement clauses
  I'm glad that you're here.
  I'm not sure whether that will be possible.
  I'm willing to give you a second chance.
  This is worth considering.
  cf. **I'm glad whether that will be possible*.
  **This is worth to give you a second chance*.
- Selection of clause type (*that*-clause, *wh*-clause, *etc.*)

Modifiers in AdjPs are almost always phrasal degree modifiers

- Modification by a clause is virtually restricted to comparatives and superlatives like the following:
  He is now the fattest he has ever been.
  This car seems better than the one we saw yesterday.
- Other clauses dependent on an adjective are complements.
- Phrasal modification is much more common, but also virtually restricted to degree modifiers:
  Mary is beautiful beyond description.
  This was not very good at all.

Extraposed clauses

- What controls what? Compare the following (with complement clauses highlighted):

It's a wonder [that the tree is alive]. – Controlled by copula (LSGSWE)

It's incredible [that Paul is still playing]. – Controlled by adjective (LSGSWE)

- With the subject in non-extraposed poition:

[That the tree is alive] is a wonder. Structure: SVP
[That Paul is still playing] is incredible. Structure: SVP

[That the tree is alive] is a wonder. [That Paul is still playing] is incredible.

- The only difference is the category of the predicative – NP or AdjP
- Predicatives are called predicatives because they are predicates!
- Predicatives predicate properties of Subjects, so it's the predicative, and not the copula, that controls the extraposed subject.
- Actually, LSGSWE, half admit this:
  "In these structures, the controlling predicate is the copula in combination with the following predicative noun phrase…" (317)
- Food for thought: Why not say that the NP (or noun) controls the complement clause in *It's a wonder [that the tree is alive]*?

Ditransitive patterns with *that*-clauses (LSGSWE: 10.5) – a contrastive note

- Verbs like *inform tell, write* etc. may take both an animate indirect object (denoting e.g. the recipient of information) in the form of an NP and a *that*-clause denoting the content of the 'telling'.
  He told us that he would be late.
  He informed them that the flight had been cancelled.
- The corresponding Swedish verbs often occur with other patterns:
  **Han berättade oss att han skulle bli sen. OK för oss*
  Han informerade dem om att avgången hade strukits.

- In Swedish the animate indirekt object is sometimes optional where it is obligatory in English.
  Han berättade att han skulle bli sen.
  **He told that he would be late.*
  Får jag påminna om att rökning inte är tillåten.
  **May I remind of that smoking is not allowed.*
  **May I remind of the fact that smoking is not allowed.*

Patterns with *to*-infinitive clauses

- To-infinitival clauses occur in a number of different patterns, which are sometimes hard to distinguish.
- Ultimately the different patterns derive from properties of the predicate verb (or adjective), for example:

seem	vs	*want*	
Liz seemed to convince them.			vs.
Liz wanted to convince them.			

persuade	vs	*intended*	
Liz persuaded them to leave the country.			vs
Liz intended them to leave the country.			

Subject-to-subject raising: *seem* vs *want*

- Passivizing the embedded object produces different results.
- The subject position has different selectional properties for the two verbs.

*Liz seemed **to convince them**.*	*Liz wanted **to convince them**.*
= They seemed to be convinced (by Liz).	*≠ They wanted to be convinced (by Liz).*
Same meaning.	Different meaning.
The news seemed to convince them.	**The news wanted to convince them.*
No selectional restriction on subject.	Selectional restriction on subject.
It seemed that the news convinced them.	**It wanted that the news convinced them.*
There seemed to be someone there.	**There wanted to be someone there.*
'Dummy' subject possible.	'Dummy' subject impossible.

seem is a raising verb

- In terms of meaning *seem* is 'intransitive', i.e. it only takes one argument.
- Consider the constructions with extraposed subjects:

There seemed to be someone there.
– *There* is a dummy subject
– The logical subject is the NP *someone*.
cf: *Someone seemed to be there.*

It seemed that the news convinced them.
– *It* is a dummy subject
– The logical subject is the *that*-clause.

Raising, ctd.

- The term 'raising' suggests 'movement to a higher position'.
- Hierarchically, the subject position in the infinitive clause is 'lower' than the main clause subject position.
- Thus, raising involves raising from the infinitive clause to the main clause.

  Liz seemed ___ ***to convince them***.

- This is subject-to-subject raising, are there other kinds?
- Yes – **object-to-subject** and (maybe) **subject-to-object**

Subject-to-object raising?: *expect* vs *persuade*

- LSGSWE verb + NP + *to*-clause
  - Variation 1

    Liz persuaded them to give her the money.
    - "ditransitive verbs", so *them* is the indirect object, and the infinitive is the direct object
    - therefore, *them* is an argument of *persuade*
  - Variation 2

    Liz expected them to give her the money.
    - "complex-transitive", according to LSGSWE, so *them* is the direct object and the infinitive is the object predicative
    - again, *them* is an argument of *expect*
    - however…

expect [NP *to*-clause] *persuade* [NP] [*to*-clause]

- the *expect* + NP + *to*-clause pattern has a number of special properties, which cast doubt on the complex-transitive analysis
  - in terms of meaning, the NP + *to*-infinitive part behaves like a unit

    Liz expected [them to give her the money].

    Liz expected [that they would give her the money]. cf

    **Liz persuaded [that they would/should give her the money].*
  - the NP + *to*-infinitive also behaves like a unit grammatically, e.g. by allowing the passive 'internally' without a change in meaning:

    Liz expected **a doctor to examine Bill**.

    = Liz expected **Bill to be examined by a doctor**.

  cf

  Liz persuaded a doctor to examine Bill.

  ≠ Liz persuaded Bill to be examined by a doctor.

expect [NP *to*-clause] *persuade* [NP] [*to*-clause]

- There is no selectional restriction on the NP imposed by *expect*

  Liz expected the coffee to be hot.

  Liz expected the population to increase.

  In these cases the relation is between the NPs and *hot/increase*, which indicates that the NP is an argument of the 'lower' predicate, not of *expect*.
- Dummy *there* can also occur in the NP slot, again indicating no selection

  Liz expected there to be some money left.
- Not surprisingly, *persuade* behaves differently:

  **Liz persuaded the coffee to be hot.*

  **Liz persuaded there to be some coffee left.*
- The reason dummy *there* can occur with *expect*-type verbs makes sense if
  - Dummy *there* is always a subject (which seems true, once we deal with the examples at hand)
  - the NP + *to*-infinitive is a clausal unit with the NP as the subject

expect [NP *to*-clause] = Subject-to-object raising?

- Why, then, would anyone (in their right mind) want to claim that the NP is an object?
  - Answer: it has the most notorious object-property of all – **it can become the subject of a passive!**

  *Liz expected **them** to give her the money.*

  ***They** were expected (by Liz) to give her the money*.
- Desperate way out: assume that there is **subject-to-object raising**, which is really just another way of saying that the NP behaves both as a subject (of the to-infinitive) and as an object (of *expect*).
- Crucially, this is not true for the other subtypes of the V+NP+*to*-infinitive pattern, where the NP is clearly an object without any subject properties.

Object-to-subject raising (LSGSWE 10.18.2) (*tough*-movement)

- Typical examples

  Bill is easy to please. *Bill is tough to please*. (hence 'tough-movement')
- *Bill* is an argument of the infinitive (*please/appreciate*, in our example).
  - Selection:

    *The flight of birds is easy to please.

    The flight of birds is easy to appreciate.

    (You can appreciate the flight of birds, but you cannot please the flight of birds)
  - Dummy subject

    It is easy to please Bill.
- Compare other adjectives with *to*-infinitive complement clauses

  Bill is pretty to look at.

  *It is pretty to look at Bill.

ing-clauses as complements of verbs

- Complement ing-clauses typically have meanings related to the progressive 'activity in progress'
- Hence, they are common as complements of "aspectual", i.e. verbs denoting the start/end/continuation of an activity
  - Liz **started** running down the hill.
  - Liz **kept** running until she was far away from the house.
  - Liz **stopped** running to see if anyone was following her.
- Similarly, with perception verbs (the seen/heard, etc activity is ongoing)
  - I **saw** Liz running down the hill.
  - Liz **heard** someone running behind her.

ing-clauses vs *to*-infinitive clauses (LSGSWE 10.23)

- Some verbs take either *ing*-clauses or *to*-infinitive clauses
  - Liz started running down the hill.
  - Liz started to run down the hill.
  - Liz continued to run.
  - Liz continued running.
- The choice is not always motivated by meaning, but in a few cases there are clear differences.

to-infinitives more hypothetical/potential/unreal than *ing*-clauses

- Clearest case: remember and forget
  - *You must remember to take your medicine at 6*.
  - (It's before 6, so the medicine has not been taken)
  - *You must remember taking your medicine at 6*.
  - (It's after 6, and the medicine has been taken)
- Reasonably clear: *like*, *hate*
  - *I would hate/like to live in the country*.
  - (I don't live in the country)
  - *I hate/like living in the country*.
  - (I live in the country)
  - more problematic:
  - *I would hate living in the country.*
  - (*would hate to live* is roughly 6 times more frequent than *would hate living*)

- Reasonably clear: *try*
  - *Bill tried to open the door*.
  - (we don't know if he succeeded – probably not)
  - *Bill tried opening the door*.
  - (Bill succeeded – but that was probably not his main goal)
- Really subtle
  - Liz started to sing, but stopped when everyone rolled their eyes.
  - ?Liz started singing, but stopped when everyone rolled their eyes.
  - Liz started singing, and went on for more than an hour.
  - ?Liz started to sing and went on for more than an hour.

Lecture 9
Word Order

English is an SVO language

- Subjects precede predicate verbs
- Predicate verbs precede objects, predicatives and obligatory adverbials

- ANY OTHER ORDER IS EXCEPTIONAL AND 'MOTIVATED'
- The following factors may motivate departures from SVO order
  - Information flow
  - Focus
  - Contrast
  - Weight

Information flow

- Given vs New information
  - Sounds straightforward, but is actually highly complex
  - Ultimately, the speaker encodes something as Given or New
  - A well-known case: the definite article encodes the speaker's assumption that the referent of an NP is familiar to the hearer.

    I killed a dog. vs *I killed the dog*.
- The information-flow principle (Given before New)
  - In a clause, elements that encode Given information precede elements that encode New information.

    A bowl of fresh apples was on the table. (new – old)

    On the table was a fresh bowl of apples. (old – new)

Focus and contrast

- End-focus
  - New information typically constitutes the focus of a clause.
  - Hence, clauses in English typically have **end focus**.
  - Focus, too, is a complex matter, involving not only syntax, but also prosody (stress).
  - Note that the initial position of a clause may also be a focus position (when filled by non-subjects)
- Contrast
  - Often referred to as "contrastive focus", so think of this as a special kind of focus.
  - Contrastive focus is typically associated with special constructions or stress patterns. For example:
  - It is Bill who can swim. – cleft sentence
  - Bill CAN swim. – focus on the operator

The principle of end-weight

- Weight = length and complexity of elements (Sometimes, stress also increases the weight of an element.)
- Long and complex elements tend to occur at the end of a clause.
- Correlations:
  - Given information is typically 'lighter' than New (pronouns, for example, typically encode Given information and are typically short)
  - … and vice versa: Complex NPs typically encode New information (modifiers help identify new referents, etc.)
  - Hence, the information-flow principle and the principle of end-weight often regulate the positions of the same elements – typically they coincide, but not always.

Departures from SVO

- Fronting
- Inversion
- Subject-postponement
- Clefting
- Heavy NP-shift

Fronting

- Fronting of objects
  This *I don't understand.*
  His wife *I don't like.*
  The impossible *we do at once (miracles may take a little longer).*
  – Often contrastive
  – Often results in 'double' focus – on the fronted element and sometimes on the final.
  – Weakly stressed pronouns are normally not fronted in English. They may be fronted in Swedish.
  Det förstår jag inte. cf. *DET förstår jag inte*.
- Clausal objects (complement clauses)
  Whether this is true or not *we do not know*.

- Fronting of predicatives – several different cases, here are two:
- Without inversion
  Wilson *his name is.*
  Fido *his friends called him*.
  It is as if the thematic [initial] element is the first thing that strikes the speaker, and the rest is added as an afterthought. The possible insertion of a comma in written English suggests that the non-thematic part is almost an amplificatory tag in status *Wilson, his name is*. (Quirk et al 1985: 1377)
- With inversion
  Especially memorable *was the first part of the second act.*
  Far more serious *were the severe head injuries*.
  Usually, the predicatives that have been fronted make a comparison with some element in the preceding discourse, and form a cohesive link. (LSGSWE, p. 402)

Fronted non-finite constructions

- Bare infinitive, ('big') VP-preposing = fronting of V and O
  Bill said that he would kill the cat and ***kill the cat*** *he did.*
  – Puts emphasis on the fronted element
  – Creates cohesion
- Fronted participles
  …tacked over the bed was a yellow, deckel-edged photograph.
  Standing next to him was a man I had never seen before.
  – Often with new, heavy subjects, which are placed in final position as a consequence of the fronting.
  – Accompanied by inversion, discussed below.

Inversion

- Two types
  – Subject-verb inversion (full inversion)
  On one of the walls hung a row of family portraits.
  Then came the turning point of the game.
  – Subject-operator inversion (partial inversion)
  Under no circumstances must you reveal the secret.
  Never had I felt so alone.

Full inversion

- The whole predicate verb (V) precedes the subject (S)
- Very restricted in English. Normally has to meet all of the following conditions:
  – The clause starts with an adverbial (Time or Place, normally)
  On one of the walls hung a row of family portraits.
  Then came the turning point of the game.
  – The verb is used intransitively
  **On one of the walls hung the mayor his family portraits.*
  On one of the walls the mayor hung his family portraits.
  – The subject is heavier than the verb (at the very least the subject is not a pronoun)
  **On one of the walls hung they.*

Full inversion, ctd

- Normally. the V is a simple VP without auxiliaries, but this is not an absolute condition:
  Among the sports will be athletics, badminton, basketball…

- How obligatory is full inversion?
  -- It depends on what we think of sentences like:
  Then the turning point of the game came.
  Perfectly OK, for most speakers, so full inversion cannot be absolutely obligatory, at least not when the subject is a full NP.

Subject-operator inversion

- Inversion of the operator (first auxiliary, remember?) and the subject. *Do*-support if there is no auxiliary.
- Some contexts of subject-operator inversion:
- Yes/No questions:
  - *Have you seen my hat?*
  - *Do you see what I mean?*
- After fronted *so, such, neither, nor*:
  - *You got it wrong, and so did I*
- After fronted *so/such* +AP/NP
  - *So absurd had his manner been that we all fell silent for several minutes.*
  - *Such a fuss had he made that we all agreed.*

A note on fronted *so*

- Note the difference in meaning between the following *so*-clauses:
  - *Bill said that he was going to meet our guests at the station and so he did.*
  - *Bill said that he was going to meet our guests at the station and so did Mary.*
- With inversion, the focus is on the subject (which is typically different from the subject in the main clause). One more example:
  - *Bill's wife used to like Japanese music and so did Bill.*
- Without inversion, the focus is on the verb. One more example:
  - *She told him to buy a new car, and so he did.*

Inversion after fronted negative and restrictive constituents

- Examples

  Nowhere in her book does she mention that we were married for two years.

  Not one of them did he find useful.
- Inversion only happens when the whole clause is negated. Compare:

  Not once did she complain.

  [Not long afterwards] she complained again.
- A minimal pair:

  With no girlfriend, Sam would be happy.

  With no girlfriend would Sam be happy.

Existential *there*

- Some clauses have two subjects:
  - *There are five students absent.*
- Evidence that *there* is a subject:
  - *Are there five students absent.*
  - *Not only are there five students absent…*
- Evidence that the notional subject is a subject:
  - *There are (pl) five students (pl) absent.*
  - *Five students are absent.*
- NB! There is ample evidence (LSGSWE 12.5.1) that *there* is, indeed, a subject in existential clauses, so do not confuse this with inversion cases where *there* is an adverb:

  There is the guy I was talking about.

The definiteness restriction on existential clauses

- Only some NPs are possible as notional subjects in the existential construction.

  There's a cat in the back-yard.
  There's no one in the back-yard.
  #There's the cat in the back-yard.
  #There's everyone in the back-yard.
  #There's Ben Johnson in the back-yard.
- To the extent that the #-examples are acceptable, they have the so called list reading. "…the definite noun phrases usually occur when a series of new information elements is introduced…" (LSGSWE 12.7)

Postponed objects

- Without a dummy (=Heavy NP-shift)

  He proved wrong all those who had predicted that he could not win the election. SVOP → SVPO

  He proved them wrong.
- With a dummy (like extraposition)

  You must find [working here] exciting.

  S V O P_o

  You must find it exciting [working here].

  S V o P_o O
- Sometimes obligatory:

  **Something put [that he was a spy] into her head.*

  Something put it into her head [that she was a spy].

It-clefts

- Places focus/emphasis on one constitutent:
  Bill killed the cat in the barn.
  It was BILL that killed the cat in the barn.
  It was THE CAT that Bill killed in the barn.
  It was IN THE BARN that Bill killed the cat.
- Predicate verbs can't be focussed in *it*-clefts
  **It was killed that Bill (did) the cat in the barn.*
- …and neither can V + O
  **It was kill the cat that Bill did in the barn.*

Wh-clefts

- Like it-clefts they place focus on one constituent:
  Bill killed the cat yesterday.
  What Bill did yesterday was kill the cat.
  Kill the cat is what Bill did yesterday.
  Yesterday is when Bill killed the cat