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ENGLISH SYNTAX
- forms and functions –

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Note:

This material is a part of the lectures in English Syntax held at the Institute of Foreign Languages and the Faculty of Arts, University of Montenegro.

It has been made for undergraduate students as an initial material for the course in English Syntax, in addition to the syntax books listed in the Literature section.

Author

C O N T E N T S

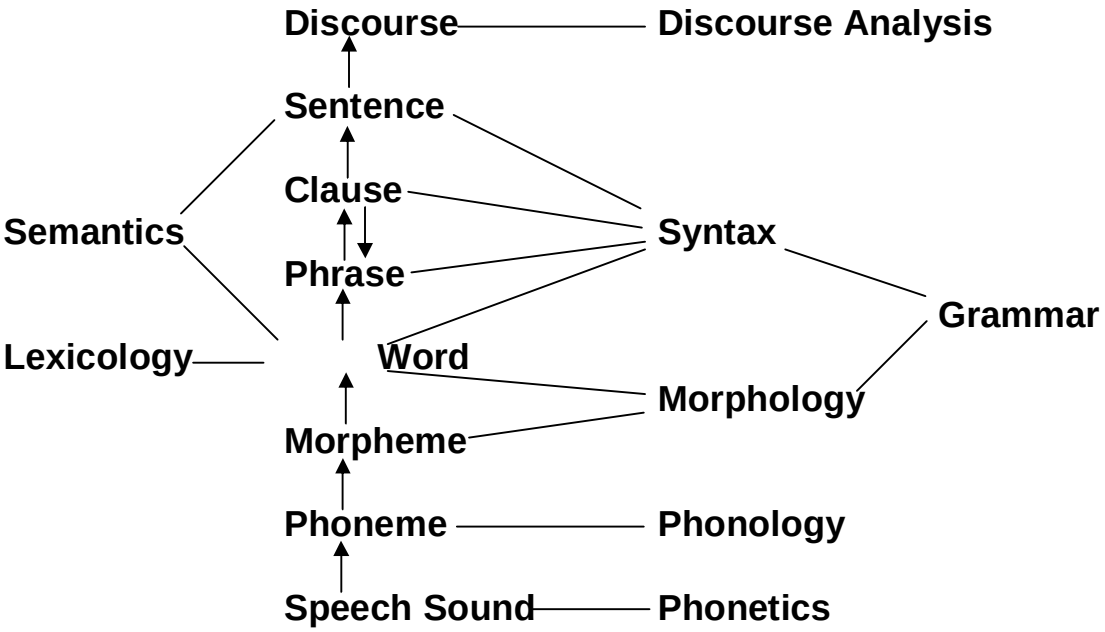
1. SYNTAX

Syntax is one of the most comprehensive and most important fields of linguistic study, partly because it covers more language levels than other language disciplines, but also because analysis of other levels involves syntax to a large extent. Phonemes, morphemes, words or texts are largely dependent on syntax and cannot be fully interpreted without syntactic units.
In this part, we will briefly look into the scope of syntax in order to identify its position within linguistics. We will also discuss some syntactic rules of the English language and make a distinction between two very important concepts in the study of language, those of form and function.

1.1. Scope of syntax

Syntax is a part of grammar. Grammar is concerned with how sentences and utterances are formed. In a typical English sentence, we can see the two most basic principles of grammar, the arrangements of items (syntax) and the structure of items (morphology).

The diagram below represents the hierarchy of languages units and the disciplines dealing with them.



It can be concluded from the diagram that syntax covers words, phrases, clauses and sentences. That is why the traditional definition of syntax as a discipline dealing with combinations of words into sentences is not quite accurate. Syntax does not only look into the sentence level, but includes the levels the lie between word and sentence, i.e. phrases and clauses. We can therefore say that syntax deals with combinations of words into constructions.

Construction is a group of two or more words among which there is a grammatical connection. Within a simple sentence, there is always subject and predicate. In a clause, there is also subject and predicate, but, compared to sentence, it does not have to be complete either in form or meaning. Consider the following examples:

It rains.
if you come

In the first case (*It rains*), there is subject and predicate and we can claim that it is a simple sentence, as well as a clause. In the second example (*if you come*), there is also subject and predicate, but it is not a sentence, as it does not have a complete meaning. This is actually a subordinate clause and it needs a main clause in order to get its full meaning.

On the other hand, phrase is a combination of words that does not include predication. For example, *a sunny day* is a noun phrase, where the noun *day* is the head of this phrase, while indefinite article *a* and adjective *sunny* are additional elements that modify the noun. Similarly, *very boring* is an adjective phrase, where the adjective *boring* is the head and adverb *very* is its modifier.

1.2. Syntactic rules

Whether spoken or written, the language has a structure which is arranged in accordance with a set of rules. This set of rules we call the grammar of a language. It is a vast domain of inquiry and syntax is one aspect of it. Let us consider some examples.

(1) The President ate a doughnut.
(2) * The President a doughnut ate.
(3) * doughnut President the ate a.

The contrast between (1) and (2) shows that in English the word that denotes the activity of eating (*ate*) must precede the word (or string of words) that refers to the entity that was being eaten (*a doughnut*).

Furthermore, if we compare (2) and (3) we see that not only must *ate* precede *a doughnut*, but we must also ensure that the two elements *the* and *a* precede *President* and *doughnut* respectively.

It seems that *the* and *President* together form a unit, in the same way that *a* and *doughnut* do. Our syntactic framework will have to be able to explain why it is that words group themselves together.

Consider another example:

I gave my sister a sweater for her birthday.

The meaning of this sentence is obviously created by words such as *gave*, *sister*, *sweater* and *birthday*. But there are other words (*I*, *my*, *a*, *for*, *her*) which contribute to the meaning and, additionally, aspects of the individual words and the way they are arranged which enable us to interpret what the sentences means. For example, we know it is *I* who gave the sweater, not *my sister*, because *I* comes before the verb (*gave*). In English, subjects (the doers of actions) come before verbs in statements. We also know the relationship between the indirect object (*my sister*) and the direct object (*a sweater*) because indirect objects come before direct objects. We also expect *my* to come before *sister*, not after. These aspects of the arrangement of things in sentences are referred to as syntax. Syntax is one of the two basic principles of grammar.

Grammar is concerned with acceptable and unacceptable forms and the distinctions of meaning these forms create. The fact that *sweater* means “knitted outer garment worn on the upper part of the body for warmth” and that *sister* means “female sibling” are matters of vocabulary (lexis), but the distinction between present and past, one and more than one, subject and object, possession and non-possession etc. are matters of grammar. In every language, some forms are acceptable and others are not. In English, we can create arrangements of our example sentence which are not acceptable, either syntactically or morphologically:

(1) *I my sister gave a sweater for birthday her.
(2) *Gave I my sister a sweaters for his birthday.
(3) *I gives my sisters sweaters a for her birthday.

In the first sentence, the indirect object *my sister* cannot precede the verb. It is not possible in English, but it is in some languages such as Montenegrin (Serbian / Bosnian / Croatian). Also, *her* cannot appear after the noun, but only before it.

In the second sentence, the verb *gave* cannot precede the subject *I*. In English, subject must precede a verb. Also, the indefinite article *a* can appear only before singular nouns, not plural forms. In addition, *his* is not appropriate form and should be replaced by *her*, referring to *my sister*.

In the third sentence, *gives* is not an appropriate form of the verb as it appears only with a third person singular (*he*, *she*, *it*). The article *a* cannot be put after the noun, but before, and, as we have already see, it has to be a singular noun form.

This means that in English words in sentences must follow the rules of word order in a much stricter sense than in our language. English is known as an SVO (subject + verb + object) language, meaning that the word order follows the principle of arranging elements by putting subject first, which is then followed by a verb and then by an object.

1.3. Forms and functions

Our initial example sentence may also be seen as composed of units or building blocks of different sizes, not just individual words and their endings. For example, the sentence could be divided up as follows:

I / gave / my sister / a sweater / for her birthday.

We have now divided the sentence into its constituent phrases (items which have individual functions in the sentence). It is the phrase *a sweater* which acts as the object, not just the word *sweater*, and the whole phrase *for her birthday* indicates the reason or circumstances of the giving.

We could extend the example sentence:

> I gave my sister a sweater for her birthday
> and she bought me a CD for mine.

We can now see two larger building blocks in the sentence, connected by *and*. These are clauses (separate units containing their own verbs: *gave* and *bought* in this case. Grammar is concerned with how the constituent units of sentences (morphemes, words, phrases and clauses) are put together to form sentences.

Just as we have different types of words (nouns, verbs, adjectives etc.), there are different types of phrases (*for her birthday* is a prepositional phrase, for example) and clauses (noun, adjective and adverbial).

However, in grammar, we are not concerned only with the *forms* (such as words, phrases, clauses and sentences), but also with their *functions*.

The noun phrases *my sister* and *a sweater* are types of object in our example sentence and *for my birthday* and *for mine* are operating as phrases indicating the circumstances. They are referred to as adjuncts. The terms subject, verb, object or adjunct refer to the functions the different constructions carry out in a sentence.

2. WORDS

Word is the basic unit of syntactic analysis. However, syntax does not deal with the internal structure of words, as it is the subject of morphology. What we are interested in syntax is the function of words within constructions. In this sense, word is the minimal free unit that appears independently and has a meaning.

From the syntactic point of view, words are divided into two groups:

A. open classes	and	B. closed classes
(new units can be added)		(new units cannot be added)
also called:		also called:
1. content words		1. function words
2. lexical words		2. grammatical words
3. full words		3. empty words
They are:		They are:
- nouns		- pronouns
- full verbs		- auxiliary (operator) verbs
- adjectives		- connectives
- adverbs		- determiners
		- prepositions
		- enumerators
		- interjections
		- exclamations etc.

The term open classes means that we can readily invent new words to them. This membership is fairly open-ended. The closed classes, on the other hand, have a fairly fixed membership. We rarely invent new words like *the*, *she*, *which* and *in* and it is possible to give a reasonably full listing of each closed class.

However, words cannot have only lexical or only grammatical meaning. All words have both meanings. We can only say that some are more lexical and the others are more grammatical.

Grammatical words needs to be paid special attention in syntax because the structure of constructions relies on them.

There are many more lexical words than grammatical words in every language.

Words can be seen as syntactic units, but words can be studied from the morphological, semantic and lexicological point of view.

Lexicology is a study of words as dictionary units (lexeme). There is not a full overlapping of the terms word and lexeme. Lexemes are units of a dictionary and can have different realisations in the form of words.

E.g. the auxiliary verb "to be"
BE - lexeme in the dictionary
words - be, am, is, are. was, were, been, being (different realisations of the same lexeme)

We will now look into some characteristics of certain parts of speech.

2.1. Verbs

It is possible to divide verbs into finite, non-finite and auxiliary.
Another division is the division of verbs into transitive, intransitive and copulative (verbs of incomplete predication).

2.1.1. Finite, non-finite and auxiliary verbs

A verb that carries tense is called a finite verb, whereas a verb that doesn't carry tense is a non-finite verb. In other words, verbs that can form the predicate by themselves are finite verbs: the ones that cannot are non-finite verbs.

A. Finite verbs

In the sentence

They worked hard for days

the verb *worked* is a finite verb. It is called the main verb or lexical verb and these verbs can stand on their own in a sentence without another word preceding or following.

B. Non-finite verbs

Non-finite verbs are

- infinitives
  I wanted him to dance. ("to infinitive")
  I saw him dance. ("bare infinitive")

- present participles
  He is dancing.

- past participles
  Ha has often danced.

- gerunds
  Dancing is very difficult.

C. Auxiliary verbs

Verbs that cannot occur independently but instead function as "helping verbs" are called auxiliary verbs or simply auxiliaries. Example:

Jeremy is laughing.

The main verb in this sentence is the –ing form of the verb *laugh*. It is preceded by the auxiliary *is*. An auxiliary verb helps a main verb to the extent that it adds more specific meaning to it. It specifies from what point of view we should understand the meaning expressed by the main verb. Thus, in the sentence above the auxiliary indicates that the laughing is ongoing, i.e. that it takes place over a certain stretch of time.

The auxiliaries *be*, *do* and *have* are used to form tenses in English, but it is not their only purpose.

Thus, *be* and *have* are used as *aspectual auxiliaries*, i.e. those referring to the aspect. We will deal with aspect later in this material.

Be is also the passive auxiliary, used in forming passive voice.

Do is used in forming questions and negations in present simple and past simple. It is sometimes called “do-support” or “dummy auxiliary”.

Do is also used in the so-called emphatic contexts, when it is used to stress something in the sentence.

I do believe that it’s fair. (do = really)

Modal auxiliaries colour or add to the meaning of the verbs they precede.

Modal auxiliaries are: *will, would, can, could, shall, should, may, might, must* and *ought to*.

Modals are always finite (i.e. they carry tense), but they do not take typical verb endings. Here are some examples:

We can dance until midnight. (ability)
You may take two courses. (permission or possibility)
You must comply with the regulations. (obligation)
They really ought to leave. (obligation)
We shall write to you as soon as possible. (intention)
He will survive. (prediction)

In cases where there are two auxiliaries, it is only the first that carries tense and is therefore finite, while the others are non-finite.

2.1.2. Transitive, intransitive and copulative verbs

In this part we will deal with another division of verbs into transitive, intransitive and copulative.

A. Transitive verbs

Transitive verbs (Vtr) express an action that passes over from the subject to someone or something else, i.e. from the doer of the action to the receiver of the action. Let’s have a look at some examples.

subject	verb	object
The boy	hit	the dog.
The dog	bit	the boy.

The action of hitting passes over from the boy to the dog. In the same way, the action of biting passes over from the dog to the boy. The receiver of the action is called the object.

B. Intransitive verbs

Intransitive verbs (Vintr) do not take an object. The following examples will illustrate that:

The dog ran away.
The boy cried.

The only object that an intransitive verb can have is a cognate object. That is an object already implied more or less in the verb itself. Here are some examples:

He lived a happy life.
He died a sad death.
The girl laughed a merry laugh.
She dreamed a happy dream.
He sighed a sigh.

Quite often the same verb can be used both transitively and intransitively:

Used intransitively:		Used transitively:		
S	Vintr	S	Vtr	DO
The bell	rings.	The waiter	rings	the bell.
The window	broke with the frost.	The burglar	broke	the window.
The door	opened.	Tom	opened	the door.

Sometimes, a different form of the verb is used to mark the difference between the transitive and the intransitive form:

Intransitive:	Transitive:
The tree fell (to fall)	The woodmen felled the tree. (to fell)
The book lay on the table. (to lie)	The Mayor will lay the foundation stone. (to lay)
The Sun rises in the East. (to rise)	The firm have raised his salary. (to raise)

C. Copulative verbs

Many verbs express an idea clearly, without an object or an extension.

The sun shines.
Fishes swim.
All mortals die.

Even verbs that need an object to express their sense fully are clear without the object.

The boy hit the dog.

The verb *hit* leaves us no doubt about the actions involved. But, this is not the case in the examples such as the following:

Today is...
The plant seems...
The man became...

Something must be added before these become clear:

Today is ***my birthday***.
The plant seems ***dead***.
The man became ***angry***.

The verbs *is*, *seems* and *became* are verbs of incomplete predication or copulative verbs (Vc). The commonest verbs of incomplete predication are: be, appear, become, come (*Her dreams came true*), continue, fall (*He fell ill*), fly (*The door flew open*) get (*Get well*), grow, keep (*Keep well*), look, make, prove, run (*Run mad*), seem, smell, sound (*Sound silly*), taste, turn (*The milk turned sour*), wear (*His shoes wore thin*) etc. Of course, these verbs do not appear as copulative verbs only. They can also be transitive or intransitive, depending the context in which they appear.

The words *my birthday*, *dead* and *violently angry* are not objects. They are called subjective complements (SO) or predicatives (Pred).

In addition to the subjective complement, there is also the so-called objective complement (OC). It occurs with the verbs that take an object, but still need some other word or words to complete the predicate. Let's have a look at some examples.

S	V	DO	OC
The jury	found	the prisoner	guilty.
The boy	set	the bird	free.
His threats	filled	her	with terror.
You	have made	me	what I am.
His word	prove	him	a fool.
The pain	drove	him	mad.
He	likes	his desk	tidy.

2.2. Prepositions

Prepositions are words used with nouns or noun equivalents to show the relation in which these nouns stand to some other word in the sentence. Thus, in the sentence

The students are in the classroom

the preposition *in* expresses the relation between the students and the classroom.

Prepositions may be:

a) single words – at, by, down, for, from, in, like, of, off, on, over, through, till, to, up, with etc.

He spoke to me.
This came from him.

b) coalescent prepositions – abroad, about, above, across, after, against, along, amid, among, around, before, behind, beneath, beside(s), between, beyond, despite, except, inside, into, onto, outside, since, throughout, toward(s), under, underneath, until, upon, within, without, etc.

He wrote about them.

c) group prepositions – according to, ahead of, along side of, because of, by means of, instead of, in front of, on account of, with regard to etc.

The teacher stood in front of the classroom.

d) There are also a number of words having the form of participles which act as prepositions, such as concerning, regarding etc.

They said nothing concerning us.
What did he say regarding my proposal?

One of the chief functions of the preposition is to make with the noun or pronoun that follows it a phrase. This phrase is usually used in two ways:

1) as an adverb equivalent (adverbial modifier)

I looked through the window. (expressing direction)
He worked on a farm during the holidays.
(place) (time)
He spoke in a loud voice. (manner)

It is impossible to give all the meanings that prepositional phrases help to convey (place, time, manner, purpose, reason, result, condition, concession etc.)

2) as an adjective equivalent, qualifying the preceding noun. It may be used:

a) predicatively

The country is at war.
The lecture was beyond me.

b) attributively

A girl with red hair was serving lunch.
He is a person of great talent.

2.3. Adverbs

Adverbs, like adjectives, are modifiers. Generally, they modify or add to the meaning of verbs, adjectives, other adverbs, nouns or noun equivalents, phrases and whole sentences. Let's have a look at some sentences:

a) adverb modifying a verb

He ran quickly.
I went to the dentist yesterday.
Come here.

b) adverb modifying an adjective

His work is very good
This work isn't good enough.

c) adverb modifying another adverb

He plays extremely well.

d) adverb modifying a noun or noun equivalent

The very thing I wanted
The above sentence
In after years
The up train
The under secretary of the then Prime Minister

e) adverb modifying a pronoun

Is that car really yours?

f) adverb modifying a prepositional phrase

I am almost through my work.
They live nearly on the top of the hill.
His remarks were not quite to the point.

g) adverb modifying a whole sentence

> Fortunately, I remembered in time who he was.
> Indeed, I won't do it.

Some adverbs are singe indivisible words, such as *yet*, *down*, *then*, *too* etc.
Others are obviously formed from adjectives by the addition of a suffix. In most cases it is the suffix *–ly* (*quickly*, *clearly* etc.)
There are also adverbs that are formed from two words – *anywhere*, *sometimes*, *however* etc. – but these two words have become so fused together that the two parts have made a word whose meaning is different from the meanings of individuals parts.

2.3.1. Classification of adverbs according to meaning

1. *Adverbs of manner* (they answer the question HOW?)

> The little boy behaved badly.
> He did the job perfectly.

2a. *Adverbs of time* (WHEN?)

> I will do the work tomorrow.
> What's going to happen next?

2b. *Adverbs of frequency* (HOW OFTEN?)

> He always does his work well.
> He has never done that before.
> He is sometimes right.
> He has never been to England.

3. *Adverbs of place* (WHERE?)

> I will stand here.
> The bird flew out.

The term "adverb of place" covers the wider field of "motion to", "motion from", "separation" etc.

Come nearer.
The sailors went ashore.
She drew the curtains apart.

4. *Adverbs of degree* (TO WHAT EXTENT/DEGREE?)

Are you quite sure we're on the right road?
That's all right.
He spoke French too quickly for me to follow him.

Adverbs of degree are not generally used with verbs but with adjectives or other adverbs. Here are some more examples: very good, too quickly, nearly there...

5. *Interrogative adverbs*

When are you going away?
Where are you sending him?
How did you come here?
Why did you say that?

6a. *Adverbs of affirmation*

Single words: *yes, certainly, surely, absolutely, decidedly, evidently, indeed, entirely, naturally, obviously, precisely, willingly*...

Adverbial phrases: *very well*, *of course*…

These adverbs are really abbreviated sentences, especially in conversation. Examples:

A: Do you know Mr. Smith?
B: Yes. (shortened form of "Yes, I know him.")

A: Will you help me?
B: Certainly. (shortened form of "Yes, I will help you.")

6b. *Adverbs of probability*

perhaps, *maybe* etc.

Perhaps they won't do it.

6c. *Adverbs of negation*

no, *not*, *never*

I will never do it.
They will not come.

7. Adverbs of quantity, amount and number

Henry works very little, not nearly as much as George.
William has won the prize twice; no one else has won it more than once.

8. *Relative adverbs*

They are used to introduce a clause and take a place of relative pronoun preceded by a preposition.

I remember the day when (=on which) you told me you were going to America.
That is the room where (=in which) the Rembrandt picture is hung.

2.3.2. Adverbs with two forms

Some adverbs have two forms, one with and one without the suffix –ly. This difference causes a difference in meaning. The following pairs of sentences illustrate this.

The goods will be sent direct to you.
I will return directly.

The birds are flying high.
He was highly praised for his work.

He came late.
I haven't heard from you lately.

The time is drawing near for my visit to England.
I nearly missed my train.

That is a pretty good picture.
The little girl danced prettily.

The car stopped short, only a few inches from where I stood.
He will come shortly.

It we stand firm, we will succeed.
I firmly believe we will succeed.

Turn sharp right at the crossroads.
The teacher spoke sharply to the boy.

"Go slow" (traffic sign)
The hours pass slowly when you can't sleep.

He works hard.
He hardly works at all.

Her eyes were wide open.
The two people differed widely in their outlook.

It was at the crossroads that we went wrong.
He was wrongly accused of the crime.

Turn right at the next crossroads.
He was rightly blamed for the accident.

2.4. Adjectives

An adjective is a word used to describe or give more information about a noun.

Adjectives can be used in two ways:
- attributively
- predicatively

Adjectives are used *attributively* when they appear directly before a noun. In most cases adjectives precede a noun:

Henry is an honest, hardworking boy.
Mr. Brown has just bought a new, powerful and expensive car.

However, some adjectives in English follow the noun, as in:

The person responsible will be punished.
We went to a meeting attended by the Attorney General.

Adjectives are used *predicatively* when they form predicate with the verb *to be* or other verbs of incomplete predication.

Richard is tired.
The dog was hungry.
His efforts proved useless.
Tom has fallen asleep.

The difference between the two uses can be seen through the following example:

That is a new house. (the adjective *new* used attributively)
That house is new. (the adjective *new* used predicatively)

Note that in interrogative sentences formed by inversion of subject and verb, the predicative adjective comes after the subject.

Is the house new? (The house is new – predicative use)
Was the car expensive? (The car was expensive – predicative use)

Most adjectives can be used both attributively and predicatively, but some, especially those that begin with 'a' can be used only predicatively: *asleep*, *afraid*, *awake*, *alone*, *aware*, *alive*, *afloat*, *ashamed*... This group also includes the following adjectives: *content*, *exempt*, *free*, *unable*...

A few adjectives, for example *former*, *latter*, *inner*, *outer*, can only be used attributively.

Adjectives, whether predicative or attributive, are invariable for number, gender, person or case.

2.4.1. Adjectives preceded by a definite article

Sometimes, when adjective is preceded by a definite article, it takes the role of a noun. In this case, they are always preceded by the definite article and, if they refer to people, they are plural in meaning and take a plural verb.

> Nurses are required to look after the sick and the wounded, the old and the infirm.
> Fortune favours the brave.

This also refers to the names for some nations: *the English*, *the Irish*, *the French*, *the Dutch* etc, but in some cases it is necessary to add 's' - the Germans, the Italians, the Americans, the Indians etc.

Occasionally, adjective takes the definite article and a singular verb. In these cases it stands not for people but for an abstract quality.

> The good in him outweighs the bad.
> He thought that the aim of philosophy was to discover the good, the beautiful and the true.

2.4.2. Adjectives and adverbs with the same form

Although adverbs are normally formed by adding the suffix *–ly* to an adjective, there are cases where both the adjective and the adverb have the same form. Let's have a look at some examples.

Adjective	Adverb
That is a very fast train.	It goes very fast.
He is a hard worker.	He works hard.
He has gone to the Far East.	We didn't walk very far.
It is a straight road.	It runs straight for miles.
He spoke in a low voice.	He spoke low but clearly.
I saw a dead bird in the garden.	The man was dead drunk.
Do you have enough time?	He didn't try hard enough.
He went on a long journey.	I won't be long.

2.5. Pronouns

A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun.
Pronouns may be classified into 8 groups.

1. Personal pronouns

Subjective – *I, you, he, she, it, we, you, they*
Objective – *me, you him, her, it, us, you, them*

2. Possessive pronouns

mine, yours, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs

Note that *its* appears only as a possessive adjective and never as a possessive pronoun.

3. Demonstrative pronouns

this, that, these, those, former, latter, such

This is what I want to do.
Why are you telling me all this?
That's an excellent idea.
Are those your brothers?
These are her two sisters.
Such is life!

The same words can be also demonstrative adjectives.

4. Reflexive pronouns

myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, oneself
ourselves, yourselves, themselves

Reflexive pronouns have two functions:

A) reflexive
B) emphasizing

A) Reflexive function

Make yourself at home.

Reflexive pronouns in this use can function as:

a. direct object	She saw herself in the mirror.
b. indirect object	I told myself there was nothing to be afraid of.
c. predicative	If he has a holiday, he will soon be himself.
d. part of a	What do you have to say for yourself?
prepositional	I want a little time to myself.
phrase	Speak for yourself.
	He should be ashamed of himself.
	This is strictly between ourselves.

B) Emphasizing “self”

a. = you and not anyone else

You yourself told me the story.

b. = alone, without help (with ‘by’ or without it)

The little girl travelled from London to New York by herself.
You can’t do all the work yourself.

c. = even

Shakespeare himself never wrote a better line than that.

5. Interrogative pronouns

who, whose, whom, which, what

They are used in forming questions and they always precede the verb.

Who broke the window?
What have you written?
Whose are these gloves?
Who did you see?
Which do you prefer, red or white wine?

6. Indefinite pronouns

some (somebody, someone, something)
any (anybody, anyone, anything)
no (nobody, no one, none, nothing)
other, another
many, more. most
much, less
little, a little, less, least
few, a few, fewer, fewest
enough, all, one

A: I can't find any book to read. Do you have any?
B: I have a few. You can have a look.

All are waiting outside the bus station.
Many apply to join but few are chosen.

Many of these words can also be used as adjectives (in front of nouns).

Do you have any matches? (adjective)
Ask John if he has any? (pronoun)
All children had to be in school by nine o'clock. (adjective)
But all were not there at nine o'clock. (pronoun)

7. Distributive pronouns

every, each, either, neither, both

Neither of them has the right qualifications.

Just like in the previous case, these words can be used as adjectives when they appear in front of nouns.

Every child was in front of school at 8 o'clock. (adjective)
Each was carrying a pile of books. (pronoun)

8. Relative pronouns

who, whose, whom,
which, that, what
whoever, whichever, whatever
as and *but (occasionally)*

They have the same form for singular or plural, masculine or feminine.

That is used:

a. after an adjective in the superlative (including *the first* and *the last*)

This book is the best that has ever been written.

b. after most indefinite pronouns

He never says anything that is worth listening to.

c. after the opening "It is...." or "It was..."

It is the teacher that is important, not the kind of school.
What was it that he wanted?

Which is used:

a. when the antecedent is a whole sentence

> He invited us to dinner, which is very kind of him.

b. with collective nouns denoting a group of persons

> The London team, which played so well last season, has done badly this season.

Who(m) is used if the antecedent is regarded as plural

> The team, who are just getting their tickets, we'll meet on the platform at 2:30.

What is used when the antecedent is not expressed. It is a relative pronoun and the antecedent is one word.

> Tell me what you want to know.
> You can have whatever you want.
> Take whatever you like.
> She can marry whoever she chooses.

2.6. Nouns

Nouns are the largest class of words. They denote classes and categories of things in the world, including people, animals, inanimate things, places, events, qualities and states.

Nouns differ in their types of meaning, for example concrete nouns (e.g. *cup*, *bus*) versus abstract nouns (e.g. *love*, *beauty*). Concrete nouns are then divided into common nouns (e.g. *table*, *boy*) and proper names (e.g. *Joanna*, *New York*). Common nouns are divided into individual and collective.

However, the major grammatical distinction in English nouns is between count(able) nouns and non-count(able) nouns. English treats some things as units which can be counted and some things as indivisible wholes. Count nouns refer to people and things which can

be counted. Non-count nouns refer to things which are treated as indivisible wholes which cannot be broken down in order to be counted. For example, *dog*, *boy*, *girl*, *church* etc. are count nouns, while *butter*, *oil*, *advice* and *furniture* are uncountable.

Nouns can be recognised by the following syntactic characteristics:

a. They may be preceded by determiners:

the *boy*
my two *cats*

b. They may be modified by adjectives:

a **large** *pizza*
those **lovely** *flowers*

c. They may be premodified by other nouns

a **university** *degree*
a **computer** *programme*
a **stone** *wall*
a **silver** *wedding*
a **silk** *blouse*
a **London** *policeman*
a **gold** *watch*
a **Turkey** *carpet*
a l**eather** *belt*

Some material nouns have another form which is distinctive adjective.

wood – wooden wool – woolen gold – golden

There is a tendency to use the adjectival form for a figurative meaning (golden hair, silvery hair, silken voice).

2.7. Participles

There are three types of participles:

- present participle
- past participle
- perfect participle

Participles have both active and passive forms:

Type of participle	Active	Passive
Present participle	asking	being asked
Past participle	-	asked
Perfect participle	having asked	having been asked

A. *Present participle* is formed by adding the suffix *–ing* to a verb: *working*, *going*, *playing* etc.

Present participle can be used in the following situations:

a. with the auxiliary verb *to be* to form continuous tenses:

She is **talking** on the phone.
The were **studying** the whole afternoon.

b. as an adjective

running water
falling stars

In this use, it is possible to have a noun before it:

English-speaking countries

c. as an adverb

She ran **laughing** out of the room.

d. to shorten a clause

Who is the man **staring** at us?
(shortened from 'who is staring at us')

Arriving at the airport, he went to check in.
(shortened from "When he arrived...")

e. after verbs of sensation such as *feel, hear, listen, notice, see, watch, observe, smell* etc. in the pattern verb + noun/pronoun + present participle

I watched the train **arriving**.
We saw them **leaving**.

f. after the verbs *catch*, *find* and *leave* in the pattern verb + object + present participle

I caught them **stealing** my books.

g. after the verbs *go*, *come*, *spend*, *waste* etc.

They **go** jogging whenever they can.
He spends his time **watching** TV.

h. in a certain number of set phrases

Generally **speaking**
Strictly **speaking**
Judging by

B. *Past participle* is formed by adding the suffix *–ed* to a regular verb. Irregular verbs have different forms of past participle, but many of them end in *–en*, *-n(e)*, *-t*.

Past participle can be used in the following situations:

a. with the auxiliary verbs *have* to from perfect tenses and *be* passive verb forms

They have **sent** us a message.
You will be **given** a parcel.

b. as an adjective

broken heart
stolen goods

c. to shorten a clause

Criticised by everyone, he decided to change his behaviour.
(shortened from “Because he was criticised...”)

C. *Perfect participle* is formed by having + past participle: *having done, having seen* etc.

Perfect participle is used to express the activity that precedes another activity in the past

Having done his homework, he went out.
Having been warned about their behaviour, the children left the room.

2.8. Gerund

Gerund has the same form as present participle, i.e. it is form by adding the suffix *–ing* to a verb: *singing, walking, reading* etc.

Although it is formed from a verb, it is used in the positions where nouns usually appear in a sentence. This means that gerund can be:

a. subject of a sentence

Reading is his favourite pastime.

b. predicative (subjective complement)

Her hobby is **shopping**.

c. direct object

They like **swimming**.

Gerund may be preceded by determiners (articles, possessive adjectives, demonstrative adjectives, possessive case etc).

The **singing** was awful.
His **playing** was excellent.
This **screamin**g makes me mad.
John's **skiing** was perfect.

It can also be preceded by an adjective.

The audience listened to her *beautiful* **singing** in amazement.

2.9. Conjunctions

Conjunctions express a variety of logical relations between phrases, clauses and sentences. We can therefore say that conjunctions have a linking function.

Conjunctions can be divided into 2 types:

- coordinating (and, or, but)
- subordinating (that, if, whether, for, because, since, although, until, when etc.)

Coordinating conjunctions link units of equal syntactic status, from morphemes, words to phrases, clauses and sentences:

He collects *pre-* **and** *post*-war cameras. (linking prefixes)
There are *two* **or** *three* houses nearby. (linking words)
I bought *a computer* **and** *a keyboard*. (linking words)
The wind was *really cold* and *absolutely biting*. (linking phrases)
The books are *on the table* **or** *in the cupboard*. (linking phrases)
You can join now **or** *you may prefer to wait*. (linking clauses)

Correlative conjunctions, a subgroup of coordinating conjuctions, consist of two items, each of which is attached to an element to be coordinated. The most common correlatives are *either... or..., nither... nor..., both... and...*

The class can meet **either** *on Friday* **or** *on Tuesday*.
Neither *you* **nor** *my family* feel that an interview is appropriate at this time.

Subordinating conjunctions link units of unequal syntactic status, by introducing subordinate clauses. They make the clause they introduce a subordinate clause:

I wonder **if** it will ever change.
She left **because** she didn't like living in a big city.

Some subordinating conjunctions consist of more than one word: *as long as*, *as soon as*, *except that*, *in order to*, *in order that*, *provided that* etc.

If they want to reach the village, walkers need to be prepared for a steep climb.

2.10. Interjections

The term interjection normally refers to exclamative utterances consisting of single words that do not easily fit into the major word classes.

Interjections are expressions of emotions, physical state, agreement, disagreement etc. They are not really part of sentences but are rather thrown in (interjected).

Interjections are especially common in spoken language and are rare in writing except in written representations of speech.
Some of the frequent interjections are: ah, alas, damn, erh, god, goodness, gosh, (good) heavens, hooray, hmm, jeez, no, oh, oops, ouch, phew, yes, yuck, whoops, wow etc.

A: I'm afraid we'll have to leave.
B: **Oh**, I see.

A: Would you like to eat this cake?
B: **Yuk**!

A: Can you show me the way?
B: **Hmm**, it's a bit difficult!

A: You know Hilary? She got married last week.
B: **Gosh**! That's quick. How long has she known him?

A: The bus has already gone.
B: **Damn**. Now I'm going to have to walk home.

A: Come and look at the sunset.
B: **Wow**, fantastic!

Oops, I shouldn't have said that, should I?

Ouch, that hurts!

3. CONSTRUCTIONS

Constructions can be divided according to level and according to type.

According to level, constructions are divided into phrases, clauses and sentences.

According to type, constructions are divided into endocentric and exocentric.

In chapters 3 and 4 we will look into the constructions according to level and in chapter 6 we will deal with constructions according to type.

3.1. PHRASE

Phrase is a construction that functions in the structure of a clause. It does not express predication, but participates in the constructions that make predication.

There are five types of phrases:

- verb phrase
- noun phrase
- adjective phrase
- adverb phrase
- prepositional phrase

In each phrase there is an obligatory element (Head – H) and optional elements.

3.1.1. Verb phrase

When we speak about verbs in general, we normally talk about tense, modality and aspect. For example, the verb *play* can be described in the following way:

Tense: played (Past Simple Tense)
Modality: might play, will play
Aspect: (a) perfective – has played
(b) progressive – is playing

The verb, along with the forms that show its tense, modality and aspect is called the main verb. The forms that show tense, modality and aspect (*might*, *will*, *has*, *is*) constitute the auxiliary elements of the main verb.

3.1.1.1. Tense

When we speak about *tense*, we have to know that there are past and present forms. Tense in English is a form as well as idea. There is no future tense as such in English. The future is indicated by making the main verb conditional and adding an adverb of time.

3.1.1.2. Mood

We often classify sentences according to their purpose. Sentences generally make statements, ask questions and put orders or commands. Sentences can also indicate possibility or eventuality. These notions about purpose – to make statements, to ask questions, to issue command, to indicate possibility – are called mood or modality.

When a sentence makes a statement, it is in the indicative mood. When it asks a question, it is in the interrogative mood. When it gives a command, it is in the imperative mood and when it indicates possibility it is in the conditional mood. Let's have a look at some examples:

He is English. (statement)
Are you English? (question)
Give me that paper. (command)
If you are English, then why don't you say so. (conditional)

3.1.1.3. Modality

Modality belongs to the semantic category. Through modality we express different attitudes and opinions about events.
Modality is expressed by modal verbs or modal auxiliaries, but also by some other forms, such as *be bound to, be likely to, be bound to,* verbs *need, dare, allow, forbid, command, promise, wonder, wish*, Modality can also be expressed by adverbs such as *probably, possibly, certainly, hopefully, obviously*, adjectives *probable* and *likely* or nouns *probabilit*y or *likelihood*. Expressions like *I think* or *I guess* are also used to express modality.
Let us have a look at some examples:

The concert must be over. (certainty)
Her mother will know her age. (prediction)
Dinner should be ready. (probability)
All fights are likely to be delayed. (probability)
They may arrive soon. (possibility)
Will you give me a hand. (willingness)
I'll ring you next week. (intention)
You must try harder. (obligation)
You may go out. (permission)
Can you reach the top shelf? (ability)

3.1.1.4. Aspect

Aspect indicates that the action of the verb is either completed or continuing. Aspect occurs in two varieties: - perfect and progressive. These ideas in the Montenegrin (Serbian/Bosnian/Croatian) language are expressed through the form of the verb itself, i.e. through *trenutni* and *trajni glagoli*.

Jeremy is laughing. (progressive aspect, ongoing process)
She has broken two wine glasses. (perfective aspect, the action took place in the past and has current relevance)

3.1.1.5. Structure of the verb phrase

When analysing a verb phrase it is necessary to have in mind that verbs can be divided into transitive, intransitive and copulative and that the type of verb influences the units that appear after it.
We will look at the verb phrase functioning within a sentence. Here are some of the possibilities.

	Vtr	IO	DO	
1. I	gave	him	a book.	
	Vtr	IO	DO	
2. I	have given	him	a book.	
	Vtr	IO	DO	AM
3. I	gave	him	a book	yesterday.
	Vtr	DO		
4. I	am reading	a good book.		
	Vtr	DO		
5. I	am walking	the dog.		
	Vintr	AM		
6. I	walk	every day.		
	Vintr	AM		
7. I	walk	in the park.		
	Vc	Pred		
8. I	am	in the park.		
	Vc	Pred		
9. I	have been	in the park.		

3.1.2. Noun phrase

Noun phrase has a noun as the head (H). In addition to head, there is a determiner (Det), modifier (M) or pre-modifier and qualifier (Q) or post-modifier. The structure of a noun phrase is as follows:

Det + M + H + Q

Here is an example of a noun phrase consisting of all these four elements:

an interesting film on TV

In this noun phrase, indefinite article *an* functions as determiner, adjective *interesting* is modifier, noun *film* is head and prepositional phrase *on TV* is qualifier.

However, a noun phrase does not have to contain all these four elements. Apart from head, all other elements are optional. This means that only one of these elements can appear in addition to head. Consider the following examples:

a book (Det + H)
convincing reasons (M + H)
a happy couple (Det + M + H)
people in the hall (H + Q)

Most grammar and syntax books describe determiners in the chapters on parts of speech. However, determiners do not belong to parts of speech simply because they refer to the *function* that some parts of speech have within a noun phrase. In other words, there are several parts of speech that function as determiners in a noun phrase. In the part that follows, we will describe determiners in more detail.

3.1.2.1. Determiners

Determiners are words that occur in the same structural role or function as “the” in a noun phrase. In other words, determiners indicate the type of reference a noun phrase has. They also indicate

number or quantity. Determiners come first in a noun phrase, before other elements such as adjectives and noun modifiers.

Determiners include articles, possessive adjectives, numbers, possessive case, indefinite adjectives, demonstrative adjectives or distributive adjectives.

For the purpose of clarity, we will list these parts of speech once again:

- articles: a, an, the
- demonstrative adjectives: *this, that, these, those, former, latter, such*
- indefinite adjectives: *all, some, several, any, no, much, many, a few, few, a little, little, enough* etc.
- numbers: *two, three* etc.
- distributive adjectives: *each, every, either, neither, both*
- interrogative adjectives: *which, what, whose*
- possessive adjectives: *my, your, his, her, its, our*, *your, their*
- possessive case (Saxon genitive): *John's, boy's*, *old lady's*

Here are some examples:

> This is **a** *complete mess*.
> Where are **my** *glasses*?
> **Each** *time* I've tried to sell **the** *house*, I've had **no** *buyers*.
> I'm his best friend.
> I've had **several** *blood tests*.

More than one determiner may occur in a noun phrase:

> I do **all the** *housework*, I look after **my two** *children* at the same time and I'm studying.

A: We've had lots of visitors as well, haven't we?
B: Yeah.
A: This year we've had **both your** *nieces*, haven't we?

All, *both* and *half* can come before articles and demonstratives and possessives, but quantifiers such as *any*, *few*, *many*, *more*, *some* etc. and numerals cannot. Where these quantifiers and numerals do occur first, *of* must be used:

Can I borrow **more of those** disks?
I've achieved **some of my** ambitions.

When there are two determiners, the first one is called a *predeterminer*. Predeterminers are not very numerous in English and are mostly concerned with quantification. As their name implies, they occur before determiners. Here are a few examples:

Predeterminer	Determiner	Head
all (of)	my	sisters
none of	the	answers
each of	those	books
most of	our	water

Some grammarians see numbers separately and label them *enumerators*. Consider the following examples:

Enumerator	Head
ten	officers
five	books

No matter whether we treat it as a determiner or enumerator, it appears between the determiner and the adjective positions in the premodification of a noun phrase. As well as the ordinal numbers (one, two, three and so on), the cardinal numbers (first, second, third and so on) are also part of this class.

Determiner	Enumerator	Head
her	three	dogs
my	first	cappuccino
your	fifth	cigarette

However, here we will treat enumerators as determiners, especially because we have in mind their function within a noun phrase. We can also say that two determiners may appear in a noun phrase, although some grammarians claim that only one determiner may appear in a noun phrase.

Where more than one determiner can be used together, there is a fixed order in which they occur. The table illustrates the sequence:

quantifier	article or demonstrative or possessive adjective	numeral	noun
all	my	five	cousins
all		three	pages
both	your		nieces
half	a		litre
	my	first	exam
	those	two	girls

3.1.2.2. Modifiers

Modifiers are descriptive adjectives, but also adjective phrases, nouns and present and past participles while qualifier can be either a prepositional phrase or a clause.

Regarding modifiers, there is no theoretical restriction on the number of adjectives allowed in an English noun phrase, though more than three is unusual and a single adjective is most common, except in specific contexts, such as the description of products in catalogues (e.g. medium roast ground coffee).

A few identifiable subclasses of adjective appear to have general restrictions on their co-occurrence as well as a tendency to occur in a certain order. For examples, adjectives denoting colour, origin and material tend to occur after the subclass that might be labelled ‘general adjectives’. Consider the following examples:

Determ.	General	Colour	Origin	Material	Head
those	gorgeous	red	Indian	linen	trousers
her	long	green	Chinese	silk	skirt

The ordering of adjectives in noun phrases is not a strict rule of the grammar, but probably a semantic restriction.

As for postmodifiers, the examples show that they can be either prepositional phrases (*on the shelf, from London, about trip, in charge*) or relative clauses (*that I like to read*).

3.1.2.3. Structure of the noun phrase

The following examples illustrate the structure of the noun phrase:

Det	M	H	Q
an	interesting	book	on the shelf
a	very interesting	book	that I like to read
my	new	car	
one	cold windy	Sunday	
John’s		girlfriend	from London
some		ideas	about trip
this	boring	performance	
those		boys and girls	
two		officers	in charge
	army	officers	
	Montenegrin army	officers	
every	broken	glass	
the	ringing	sound	
all my		sons	
half of the		money	I owe

These examples show that a noun phrase has a head as the obligatory element, while all other parts (determiner, modifier and qualifier) are optional.

As some examples show, it is possible to have more than one modifier (as in the example *cold windy Sunday*).

However, in the example *very interesting book*, *very* is not a modifier of the noun *book*. It actually modifies the adjective *interesting* and together with it modifies the noun *book*. We can therefore say that *book* is here modified by the adjective phrase *very interesting*.

In addition to an adjective, noun can be modified by another noun (*army officers*)

Apart from a single noun, a head can also be a coordinate noun phrase (*boys and girls*).

It is also possible to see that there can be two determiners, as in the phrases *all my sons* (all and my) and *half of the money I owe* (*half of* and *the*).

3.1.3. Adjective phrase

The centre of an adjective phrase is an adjective. The structure of the adjective phrase is the same as that of a noun phrase. In addition to head, which is adjective, there can be a modifier (M) or pre-modifier, and a qualifier (Q) or post-modifier. Both modifier and qualifier are adverbs. Determiner is also possible.

Det	M	H	Q
	very	interesting	
the	most	interesting	
		interesting	enough, indeed

The role of the modifier is to intensify the meaning of the adjective that follows. This adverb therefore functions as an intensifier.
Qualifiers appear very rarely in adjective phrases.

3.1.4. Adverb phrase

The head of the adverb phrase is adverb. Modifier and qualifier are also adverbs. Adverb phrase has the following structure:

M + H + Q

Here are a couple of examples:

M	H	Q
quite	often	
pretty	fast	indeed
	clearly	enough

Just like in the adjective phrase, modifiers often serve as intensifiers, while qualifiers do not appear frequently.

3.1.5. Prepositional phrase

Prepositional phrase has a preposition as its head. The preposition is mainly followed by a noun, pronoun, noun phrase or a clause.

Prep + noun
in London
at home

Prep + pronoun
with me
in it

Prep + NP
in the morning
during the rush hour

Prep + Cl
by what was a display of common knowledge
of what was to happen

3.2. CLAUSE

Clause is a group of words that consists of subject and verb, but it doesn't necessarily have to make a complete sense. It can be main or subordinate, depending on its position in the sentence. There are three types of clauses:

- adjective clauses
- noun clauses
- adverb clauses

3.2.1. Adjective clauses

It is sometimes also called attributive clause or relative clause and it qualifies nouns. The noun qualified is called the antecedent and the relative clause normally follows the antecedent. In this case it functions as a qualifier of a noun within a noun phrase.

That is the house that I would like to buy.

An adjective clause is generally introduced by a relative pronoun: *which*, *who*, *whose, that* etc.

Adjective clauses can be *defining* and *non-defining*.

1. Defining adjective clauses

The student who answered the question was John.
The book which you lent me was interesting
Thank you for the help that you have given me.

In all these sentences the adjective clause is a necessary part of the sentence; if it is left out the sentence does not make complete sense. All these clauses define the antecedent.

2. Non-defining adjective clauses

Miss Smith, whom you met at the house, is going to marry Mr. Abbott.
Bernard Shaw, who wrote "St Joan", died in 1950.

In these sentences the adjective clause could be omitted and the rest of the sentence would still make a perfect sense.

3.2.2. Noun clauses

A noun clause (nominal or complement clause) is one which does the work of a noun. It may be:

1. The object of a sentence

George said (that) he was pleased to welcome our friends.
I know (that) you must be tired after your long journey.
I forgot to ask how long it would take.

That can be omitted sometimes.

This is the most usual function of a noun clause.

The noun clause, i.e. the object clause, may be:

a. a direct or indirect statement

He said: "The car will be ready tomorrow."
He told me that the debt had been paid.

b. a direct or indirect question

He said: "Where do you live?"
He asked me where I lived.

2. The subject of a sentence

What you are doing seems very difficult.
That he will refuse the offer is unlikely.
How the prisoner escaped is a complete mystery.
"How glad I am to see you" were his first words.
"Why are you so late?" was his next remark.

Subject noun clause always precedes the verb. The verb is usually the verb *to be* or another verb of incomplete predication.

3. A part of a prepositional phrase

He only laughed *at* what we said.
They will be very thankful *for* whatever you can give them.
You can have this *for* what I paid for it.

4. Predicative

The fact is that he doesn't really try hard enough.
It seems/appears that he has never been paid the money.
That is not what I want.
What surprised me was that he spoke English so well.

3.2.3. Adverbial clauses

Adverbial clauses do the work of adverbs, i.e. they function as adverbial modifiers in sentences. The chief types of adverb clauses are the following:

1. Adverbial clauses of manner (How?)
(introduced by *as, as if, as though*)

Henry did the work as it ought to be done.
He ran as if his life depended on it.

2. Adverbial clauses of place (Where?)
(introduced by *where, wherever*)

Stay where you are.
I will go where you tell me.
I will find her wherever she may be.

3. Adverbial clauses of time (When?)
(introduced by *when, while, after, before, until, till, since, as, as soon as* etc.)

I learnt a lot of French while I was in Paris.

4. Adverbial clauses of reason (Why?)
(introduced by *because, since, as, seeing that, now that, for, or else, it is/was only because... that*...)

He sold the car because it was too small.
Since/As/Seeing that/ Now that you won't help me, I must do the job myself.

5. Adverbial clauses of concession
(introduced by *though, although, even though, even if, however + adjective, whatever, wherever,* etc.)

Though/Although he tried hard, he was not successful.
However difficult if was, we managed to do it.

6. Adverbial clauses of comparison
(introduced by *as...as, so...as, such, than* etc.)

This work is not so easy as you think.
That question was not such an easy one as I thought.

7. Adverbial clauses of condition
(introduced by *if, unless, whether, as long as, on condition that, provided, supposing* etc.)

I will go as long as/provided that/on condition that he asks me.

8. Adverbial clauses of result
(introduced by *so that*)

I received my wages yesterday, so that I can now pay what I owe you.
He was speaking very quietly so that it was difficult to hear what he said.

9. *Adverbial clauses of purpose*
(introduced by *so that, in order that, for fear that*...)

Clauses of purpose are usually formed by
so that + will/would + infinitive

They have come in time so that they won't miss the train.
They came in time so that they wouldn't miss the train.

Several modal verbs can also be used in such clauses. They are: *may*, *might* and *should*, while *can* and *could* are often used in colloquial style.

10. Adverbial clauses of contrast
(introduced by *whereas, while*, etc.)

He likes fried rice, while I prefer boiled.
If you want to go to the seaside you have to pay for a coach, whereas if you've got your car, you just have to put petrol in it and off you go.

11. Adverbial clauses expressing comment
(*as you know, I believe, I daresay, I expect, I presume, I suppose, I think, So they say,* etc.)

These clauses express the speaker's or writer's opinion or viewpoint on the events in the main clause.

I could ring him, I suppose.
In any case, my English master, as you know, was Tom Baxter.

3.2.4. Main and subordinate clauses

The two main types of clause which can combine to form sentence are main clauses and subordinate clauses. Main clauses are not dependent on any other clause in the sentence and a sentence must have at least one main clause.

The following are sentences, since they contain at least one main clause:

I went to speak to them.
(whole sentence is one main clause)

I went down to the fish and chip shop and I got fish and chips.
(two main clauses joined by *and*)

If I went down there, I could use the computer and the laser printer.
(one subordinate clause /if-clause/ and one main clause)

The following are not sentences, since they do not contain a main clause. They consist of subordinate clauses, which need to be accompanied by a main clause in order to form a sentence:

before I went
when I went to Southampton for the day with my friend
which arrived yesterday

The table that follows shows examples of sentences with one, two and three clauses. The clauses in the shaded boxes are main clauses; they could form sentences on their own. The clauses in the clear boxes are subordinate clauses; they could not form sentences on their own.

No.	CLAUSE	CLAUSE	CLAUSE
1.	She **took** her duties seriously		
2.	That **was** a few years ago	but my feelings **have not changed** one bit.	
3.	When I **left** college,	I **couldn't find** any work.	
4.	He **turned** round,	someone **pushed** him	and he **fell**.
5.	As soon as she **opened** the envelope,	she **knew** something was wrong	for the first lines of Richard's letter **were** full of apologies and regrets.
6.	The water **begins** to freeze and,	as it **does** so,	it **expands**.

In the table, *but* and *and* are coordinating conjunctions joining clauses of equal status to one another (in this case main clause). *When*, *as soon as*, *for* and *as* are subordinating conjunctions, indicating a dependent relationship between the clauses they introduce and the main clause. Coordination and subordination are two principal ways in which clauses are combined to form sentences.

3.2.4.1. Coordination

Coordinated clauses are clauses which have the same syntactic status. Coordination most typically involves the central coordinating conjunctions *and*, *but* and *or*.

> Jim brought me here and Phil's taking me home.
> I've never owned a car before but I'm considering buying one.
> I'll phone you later or you can give her a ring.

In addition to these three conjunctions, there are also *either...or,... neither...nor..., not only...but....* Here are a few examples:

> Either she could come down here or I could go there.
> She was desperate to play down the problem, not only because she wanted to save face, but also because she wanted to spare you any embarrassment.

The same applies to *nor* and *neither* when used singly to link clauses:

> He didn't come in to join them, nor did he appear in the hallway.
> I don't know my parents, neither did they know theirs.

Coordination may also occur without the explicit link created by a conjunction. This is particularly true in literary style or for special effect in narrative texts. In the following example, clauses are coordinated by the use of commas alone. In that case, they are also known as *contact* clauses:

> She made me a cup of coffee in the kitchen, she knew where the cups and spoons were and where the coffee was kept, she sat up on one of the stools and leaned on her elbows on the breakfast bar and said...

Coordination may involve more than two clauses, especially in informal spoken languages. This is called *multiple* coordination:

> I'll be driving off down to France and I'll try and ring again but remember I'll be in my car most of the day.

It is also necessary to mention here that coordination does not exist only on the clause level. It is equally possible to consider coordination at the word and phrase level.

Any two or more words can be in a coordination status:

Tom and Mary
me or you
come and see
up and down

The same goes for phrases:

good book but bad film
in the morning or in the evening
very pretty and very clever
went home and turned on TV
extremely quickly and unusually effectively

3.2.4.2. Subordination

As we have already seen, a subordinate clause is dependent on a main clause or another subordinate clause and cannot in itself form a whole sentence.

Subordinate clauses are typically introduced by a class of words known as subordinators (a word like *as*, *because*, *if*, *since*, *until*, *when*). We have provided quite an extensive list of subordinators in the chapter dealing with adverbial clauses.

In addition to a subordinator, a subordinate clause may be introduced by using a non-finite verb form to create a non-finite subordinate clause. Consider the following examples:

I'll call you when I get home.
(subordinate clause introduced by subordinator *when*)

Looking at it now, I don't think it's such a good idea after all.
(non-finite subordinate clause introduced by the participle *looking*)

A subordinate clause may also be dependent on another subordinate clause, as in the example:

> She worked there for some time, although, **as she herself has told you**, she was not happy in her job.

The subordinate clause “although she was not happy in her job” is dependent here on the main clause, but the embedded clause “as she herself has told you” is dependent to “although she was not happy in her job”; in other words, it is dependent on another subordinate clause.

3.3. SENTENCE

Sentence is an independent construction, or an independent language form. A sentence contains one or more predications (subject plus predicate).
A sentence consists of one or more clauses and each of them has its own subject and predicate.

3.3.1. Simple sentence (S+P)

Simple sentence is a group of words that contains a finite verb and makes complete sense. It contains only one predication.

S	P
They	left.
He	came in time.
Professor Brown	is coming tomorrow.
A very interesting novel	was lying on the top shelf of an old bookcase.

3.3.2. Complex sentence (S+P+AM)

Complex sentence consists of a main clause and one or more subordinate clauses. The clauses in a complex sentence are therefore in the subordination relation. The main clause is much nearer being complete in itself, while the subordinate clause makes complete sense only when it is with the main clause.

A complex sentence consists of one or more of these subordinate clauses and a main clause.

MAIN (PRINCIPAL) CLAUSE	SUBORDINATE CLAUSE
I will come	if you invite me.
He came to visit us	although (though) he was very tired.
I didn't call	because my telephone was broken.
I cannot do that for you	since (as) I have no idea how to do that.

3.3.3. Compound sentence (Cl1 + conn + Cl2)

Compound sentence consists of two or more clauses that have a complete meaning each and that are joined by one of the coordinating conjunctions (*and, or, but*). These clauses are therefore in the coordination relation. Consider the following examples:

> I'm standing and you're sitting.
> Do you understand that or is this point still not clear?
> He came to our house but he didn't say a word.
> You must come tomorrow and you must bring your book with you.
> Bring your book here and open it at page four, but don't begin reading.

Each of the clauses in a compound sentence can stand independently.

It is also necessary to mention here that a compound sentence does not consist of simple sentences only. It is also possible to find combinations of a complex sentence plus a simple sentence. Consider the following example:

> Since she didn't want to come with us, we decided to stay at home **but** she objected to that.

The first part of this compound sentence is a complex sentence consisting of a subordinate clause + a main clause, while the second

part is a simple sentence. These two parts are separated by the conjunction *but* and make a compound sentence.

The above-mentioned tree types of sentences are called major sentence types. We will now look into minor sentence types.

3.3.4. Minor sentence types

In addition to previous sentence types, there can be the so-called minor sentence types. They do not conform to the subject + predicate rule, but are still considered sentences as they express a full meaning. These are:

3.3.4.1. Sentences without subject

Go away!
Come here!

3.3.4.2. Vocatives

Waiter!
Peter!

3.3.4.3. Aphorisms/Sayings

The sooner the better.
The more the merrier.
Better late than never.
Out of sight, out of mind.
First come, first served.

3.3.4.4. Fragments

Oh!
My God!
At home (as an answer to the question "Where were you yesterday?)

The main part of each sentence is a finite verb.

There is another division of sentences into:

1. declarative (which can be positive and negative)
2. interrogative
3. imperative
4. exclamatory

3.3.5. Word order is very important as a signal that shows the meaning. It is especially important in English, where, for example, subject always precedes the verb in a declarative sentence. That is why we call English an SVO language (subject + verb + object).

3.3.6. Congruence (concord) is formal agreement of the elements of a sentence (number, gender, person, tense...). For example

- number: this book and these books
- gender: John saw his friends; Jane saw her friends.
- person: I speak/He speaks.
- tense: He said he would come.

Indirect sentences are introduced by a reporting verb (say, tell, admit, declare, ask, wonder, inquire, order, command, shout, exclaim...) and if it is in the past tense, the reporting sentence follows the principle of a backward shift.

3.3.7. Ellipsis is omitting elements of a sentence in order to avoid repetition. If there weren't ellipsis we would have to speak much more. Here are some examples:

1. – Have you spoken to her?
   - Yes, I have (spoken to her).

2. She might come but I don't think she will (come).

3. I'm happy if you are (happy).

4. I will see you tomorrow or (I will see you) next week.

In all these sentences there is a clear context in which the ellipsis appears. However, sometimes the ellipsis appears independently of the context:

(It's) good to see you.
(I'm) sorry I'm late.
(I) beg you pardon.

3.3.8. Form and function

So far we have mainly discussed words and constructions – phrases, clauses and sentences. In some cases we mentioned how these language units function within larger constructions, although we did not specifically discuss functions. In this chapter we will look into more detail in the functions of these language units.

It is worth mentioning here that in language we always deal with the form-function relations, not only at the level of constructions, but also at the level of discourse. At this point, we will remain at the construction level, though.

We will first start from the phrase level. Consider the following noun phrase:

an interesting person from London

The main word here is the noun *person* and it functions as the head of this noun phrase. The indefinite article *an* functions as a determiner, the adjective *interesting* is a modifier, while the prepositional phrase *from London* is a qualifier, or a post-modifier.

	an	interesting	person	from London
Function	determiner	modifier	head	qualifier
Form	article	adjective	noun	prepositional phrase

We have already seen that different words can be determiners, such as possessive or demonstrative adjectives, numbers etc. Also, in addition to a prepositional phrase, clauses can also function as qualifiers. For example, in this noun phrase, we could replace the prepositional phrase *from London* with a clause such as *who always smiles*. This illustrates that different words or constructions can appear in the same function.

The same can apply to adjective or adverb phrases. Consider the following examples:

(1) very nice
(2) very quickly

In the first example, *very nice* is an adjective phrase, where the adjective *nice* functions as the head and adverb *very* as a modifier. In the second case, the adverb *quickly* functions as the head of the adverb phrase, while the adverb *very* functions as a modifier.

We will now apply the same concept at the sentence level. This can be illustrated at the level of a simple sentence.

(1) In the following sentence there are two words, a noun and a verb, functioning as a subject and predicate:

	Jane	lied.
Function	subject	predicate
Form	noun	verb

In this sentence, the predicate consists of an intransitive verb only. The verb in a verb phrase, no matter whether it is finite or non-finite, has the function of a predicator.

(2) We can now proceed by looking into the cases with extended subject and predicate. In the sentence below, the predicate consists of a transitive verb followed by a direct object, while the subject is a noun phrase:

	The three actors	forgot	their lines
Function	subject	predicator	direct object
Form	noun phrase	transitive verb	noun phrase

(3) Let us now introduce another element. The sentence below has a noun phrase functioning as the subject, while the predicate contains a pronoun functioning as an indirect object and a noun phrase as a direct object:

	Mr Philips	sent	me	a present
Function	subject	predicator	indirect object	direct object
Form	noun phrase	transitive verb	pronoun	noun phrase

(4) The next example illustrates a different case. In addition to a noun phrase functioning as subject, there is a pronoun functioning as direct object, followed by a noun phrase functioning as object complement:

	My mum	made	me	an artist
Function	subject	predicator	direct object	object complement
Form	noun phrase	transitive verb	pronoun	noun phrase

This example proves that the nature (or function) of one element in a sentence can have an impact on the function of the elements that follow. In the previous two examples, the noun phrases *a present* and *an artist*, although physically appearing in the same position in the two sentences, have different functions that are determined by the functions of preceding elements (indirect and direct object), which leads to the conclusion that a direct object can be followed by an object complement. We have discussed these relations at the beginning of this material.

(5) Let us now consider another example:

	Mr Philips	sent	a present	to me
Function	subject	predicator	direct object	adverbial modifier
Form	noun phrase	transitive verb	noun phrase	prepositional phrase

In this case, the noun phrase *a present* is again a direct object, but the pronoun *me* is moved after it and is preceded by the preposition *to*, forming a prepositional phrase. This prepositional phrase is not an indirect object any more. It functions as an adverbial modifier. The rule in English is that when an indirect object is put after the direct object, it is preceded by a preposition and it does not function as an indirect object any more but acquires the role of an adverbial modifier.

(6) The next example also illustrates the use of a prepositional phrase in the function of an adverbial modifier:

	Mr Phillips	placed	the present	on the table
Function	subject	predicator	direct object	adverbial modifier
Form	noun phrase	transitive verb	noun phrase	prepositional phrase

(7) Adverbial modifier does not necessarily appear after a transitive verb. In the example below, it appears after an intransitive verb:

	Mr Phillips	went	to London
Function	subject	predicator	adverbial modifier
Form	noun phrase	intransitive verb	prepositional phrase

This shows that direct and indirect object can appear only after a transitive verb, but adverbial modifier can appear in a sentence with transitive, intransitive and copulative verbs. In addition, adverbial modifiers in English sentences can move from one position to another, while the position of other elements is rather fixed.

(8) The final example used to illustrate the form-function relations contains a copulative verb. While predicative in this case is a noun phrase, we will also see in the next chapter that other language units can also function as a predicative.

	The journey	was	a nightmare
Function	subject	predicator	predicative
Form	noun phrase	copulative verb	noun phrase

It is obvious from the previous examples that there are instances of noun phrases functioning as subject, direct object, object complement and predicative. These are the most common, but not the only functions a noun phrase can have. Also, we have cases of objective personal pronouns functioning both as direct and indirect object.

The examples presented here provide only an illustration of the form-function relationship, while a detailed analysis of sentences will provide many more examples.

The next chapter will also offer quite an extensive list of different words and constructions assuming different functions in sentences.

4. ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE/CLAUSE

Elements of a sentence can be divided into:

- Primary elements
- Secondary elements
- Independent elements

4.1. Primary elements

Primary elements of a sentence are:
- subject
- predicate

S P
Eg. Fred won.

In a normal sentence, both subject and predicate are present, but sometimes the one or the other may be absent, and yet the sentence may be complete expression of thought:

Yes. No. Oh! Fred!

4.1.1. Subject

The subject may be:

1. Noun — Fred came yesterday.
2. Pronoun — He is writing.
3. Infinitive — To read improves the mind.
4. Gerund — Reading improves the mind.
5. Adjective — Rich and poor rejoiced.
6. Prepositions — Ups and downs of life.
7. Noun phrase — A very beautiful girl has just come in.
8. Infinitive phrase — To do such a thing is stupid.
9. Gerund phrase — Going shopping can be boring.
10. Adjective phrase — Very boring is how I would call it.
11. Adverb phrase — Very quickly is how he did it.
12. Prepositional phrase — At dawn is when he came.
13. Clause (mainly noun clauses) — Whoever knows him well respects him.

14. Situation “it” – “It” is much used as subject to point to something definite which is more or less clearly defined by the situation:

It is John.

This “it” often refers to the thought contained in a preceding statement:

John came home late; it provoked his father.

15. Impersonal “it” and “there”

It rained yesterday.
It is cold.
It is winter.
It is a beautiful morning.
There was a heavy frost last night.

“It” and “There” have no meaning. They have been inserted to conform the sentence in a mere formal way to the usual type of sentence with subject and predicate.

Subject is omitted:

a. in imperative sentences: Give me that book!
b. In the first person in a few set expressions: Thank you.

4.1.2. Predicate

As we have already seen, verbs can be classified into transitive, intransitive, copulative. The type of verb determines the function of the syntactic unit that follows.

Transitive verbs can be followed by a direct or an indirect object.

- Direct object can be:

1. noun	I can see Tim.
2. noun phrase	He doesn’t like bossy people.
3. pronoun	I can understand it.
4. gerund	He likes swimming.
5. gerund phrase	She adores going shopping.

6. infinitive	They like to walk.
7. infinitive phrase	She likes to go shopping.
8. clause	I heard what you did last night.

- Indirect object can be:

1. noun	They gave John a better salary.
2. pronoun	They gave him a better salary.
3. clause	Tell whoever is interested the news.

Copulative verbs are followed by a predicative (subjective complement).

- Predicative can be:

1. noun	They are students.
2. pronoun	It was him.
3. adjective	This food tastes bitter.
4. adverb	They were far.
5. gerund	They continued arguing.
6. gerund phrase	They continued their shopping.
6. noun phrase	She became a doctor.
7. infinitive phrase	He seems to be leaving.
8. prepositional phrase	The book is in two parts.
9. clause	That is what I want to hear.
10. participle (present	This is shocking.
or past)	He is shocked.

- Objective complement appears after the direct object, but it can also appear after a predicative.
The objective complement may appear in the form of a noun, noun phrase, adjective or adjective phrase.

They called the baby Tim.
They elected him the company president.
I find them nice.
They drove me completely mad.

4.2. Secondary elements

Secondary or subordinate elements of a sentence are called modifiers. They are divided into

- adjectival
- adverbial

4.2.1. Adjectival modifiers

Adjectival modifiers are further divided into

- premodifiers
- postmodifiers (qualifiers)

These are the types of modifiers that can be found in noun, adjective and adverb phrases and we have already discussed them.

4.2.2. Adverbial modifiers

Adverbial modifiers mostly modify the words that can be in different positions in sentences. Adverbial modifiers can be:

1. adverbs	John works hard.
2. adverbial phrases	He works very hard.
3. prepositional phrases	Life begins at forty.
4. infinitives	She went out to drink.
5. infinitive phrases	Mary stayed behind to look for them.
6. nouns	She arrived home late.
7. noun phrases	We are coming next summer.
8. present participles	He came in singing.
9. past participles	She woke up shocked to see the scene.
10. clauses	You can come when you like.

Adverbial modifiers are also referred to as *adjuncts*.

Adverbial modifiers can appear with transitive, intransitive and copulative verbs and in different positions in sentences.

4.3. Independent elements

Independent elements of a sentence are:

1. sentence modifiers	However, they did not agree with us.
2. exclamations	Oh, I see.
3. vocatives	Waiter, can we order?
4. participle phrases	Generally speaking, I prefer...
5. infinitive phrases	To tell the truth, I never liked him.
6. different types of constructions without verbs	Bag in hand, she stood in the corner.
	He being absent, nothing could be done.

5. ENDOCENTRIC AND EXOCENTRIC CONSTRUCTIONS

According to type, constructions can be divided into
- endocentric
- exocentric

Endocentric constructions are those in which at least one of their constituents belongs to the same syntactic class as the whole construction.

For example, “rich people” is a noun phrase and both of its elements are a part of this noun phrase, i.e. they belong to the same syntactic class.

If we put this construction into a sentence, it is possible to see what its function is.

Rich people live well. (subject of the sentence).
He hates rich people (object of the sentence).

Only one element of this construction can act in the sentence as the whole construction.

People live well.
He hates people.

Exocentric constructions are the constructions in which none of their constituents belong to the same syntactic class, i.e. they do not act syntactically as the whole construction.

Eg. visit Bill

5.1. Endocentric constructions

Endocentric constructions are divided into two groups:
- coordinate
- subordinate

5.1.1. Coordinate endocentric constructions

Coordinate constructions are those that do not have a centre and an attribute. The centre is that part of the construction that can function as a whole construction, without attributes. For example, “people” can function in a sentence in the same was as “a lot of rich people”.

There are three types of coordinate constructions:

1. Additive
2. Alternative
3. Appositive

1. Additive constructions are those where both parts of the construction are connected with the conjunction *and*. Both parts of the construction have an equal status. Examples:

a. two words joined (verbs, nouns, adjective, adverbs, prepositions...)

2 verbs	wash and go
2 nouns	John and Mary
2 adjective	nice and pretty
2 adverbs	skillfully and fast
2 prepositions	in and out
2 pronouns	me and you

b. two phrases (verb, noun, adjective, adverb or prepositional phrase)

VP	left the party and went home
NP	a sunny morning and a cloudy day
AdjP	quite pretty and extremely smart
AdvP	very quickly and very professionally
PrepP	in the morning and in the evening

c. numbers

a hundred and twenty eight

d. compound sentences

Mary stayed at home and Jane went out.

2. Alternative constructions are joined by the conjunction or. The same examples used for additive constructions can be used to illustrate alternative constructions, putting *or* instead of *and*.

3. Appositive constructions are those in which the two parts of the construction are in a coordinate relation which is neither additive nor alternative. Examples:

Queen Mary
Professor Jones
river Danube
Shakespeare, the author of “Hamlet”

All these constructions do not show any difference between the centre and the attribute.

5.1.2. Subordinate endocentric constructions

In subordinate endocentric constructions there is a clear difference between the centre and the attribute. There are four possibilities here:

a. attribute first

These are the combinations:

modifier + noun (NP)	big tree, old men, bus stop
determiner + noun (NP)	three girls, the book
adverb + adjective (AdjP)	very good
adverb + adverb (AdvP)	very well
auxiliary verb + main verb	is going, has been

Complex sentences also belong to this group provided the subordinate clause comes first.

If you invite me, I will come.

Also, one attribute can have more centres:

old men and women
green trees and bushes

This may lead to ambiguity as we cannot always know whether the attribute refers only to the first or to both centres.

It is also possible to have more than one attribute. However, in English there are limitations regarding their order.

new, good and expensive car

b. centre first

This group includes the following combinations

verb + adverb (VP)	walked quickly, lived there
noun + qualifier (NP)	book on the shelf

Complex sentences with the main clause in the initial position belong to this group as well.

I will come if you invite me.

c. attribute discontinuous

These are the cases where the centre appears in the middle of the attribute. Here are some examples:

the latest book to come out

Here, *book* is the centre, while *the latest* and *to come out* is the attribute discontinued by the centre.

d. centre discontinuous

This is the case when the centre is discontinued by the attribute, mainly when an adverb is put between the auxiliary and the main verb.

did not go
can never know
is always trying

5.2. Exocentric constructions

There are three types of exocentric constructions:

1. Directive
2. Connective
3. Predicational

1. Directive constructions are those whose constituents can be labelled as director and axis.

This group includes the following combinations:

verb + object	saw John, wanted to go
prepositional phrases	in the box
subordinate clauses	because we were there
	if he comes

2. Connective constructions are those verb phrases that contain a copulative verb followed by predicative.

is a good student
was ill
seems happy

3. Predicational constructions are the constructions whose constituents are topic and comment.

Topic	Comment
He	is a big man.
She	sings beautifully.
I	saw him.
All these books	are for sale.
That man	I just don't like.

Topic mainly overlaps with the subject and comment with the predicate in the sentence. However, there are examples where this is not the case, like the last sentence. In any case, this group includes simple sentences.

6. IMMEDIATE CONSTITUENT ANALYSIS

Grammatical structures in English, no matter whether they are large or small, tend to be binary. This means that most structures can be divided into two parts, following certain rules and principles. Let's have a look at several examples:

The lady over there has asked for you.

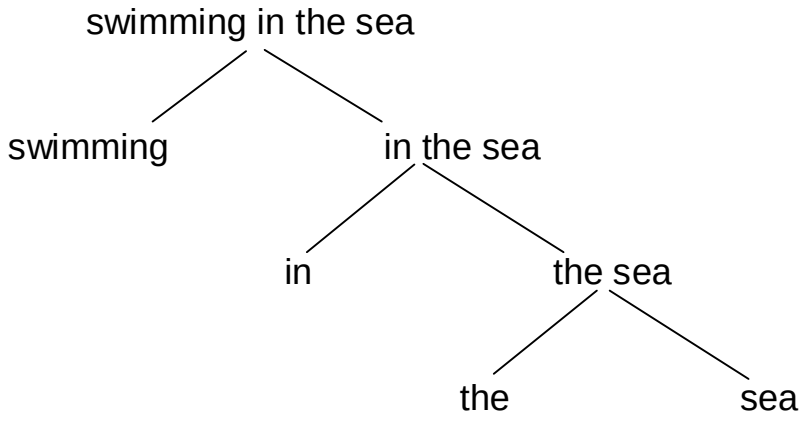
In this sentence, it is quite logical that we can make a cut between subject and predicate, getting two constituent parts which are called immediate constituents (IC). In the complete IC analysis of a sentence, we start by cutting the sentence into two parts, or immediate constituents. Then, each of these two constituents is further cut until we have only individual words remaining which are called final constituents.

However, immediate constituent analysis does not refer only to sentences. We can also carry out this kind of analysis with different types of phrases and clauses. For example:

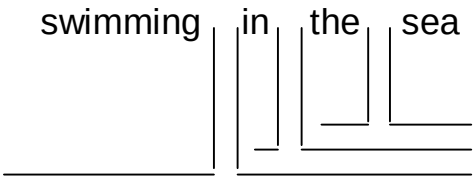
swimming in the sea

In this gerund phrase, it is logical to make the first cut between the gerund *swimming* and the prepositional phrase *in the sea* and then proceed by making a cut between the preposition *in* and the noun phrase *the sea*. The final cut is between the definite article *the* and the noun *sea*.

This can be represented by means of a tree diagram:

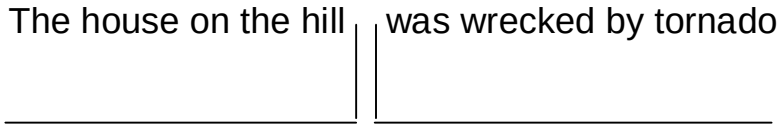


Another way of doing the analysis is as follows:

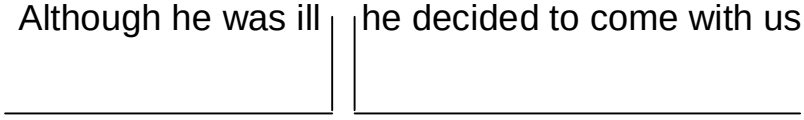


We will now focus on some rules of the IC analysis, i.e. how various English structures are cut into immediate constituents.

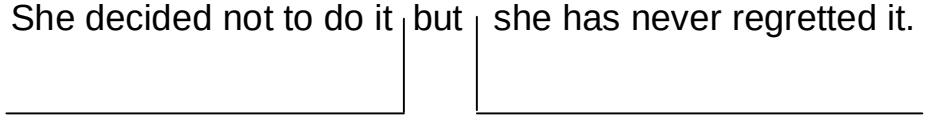
1. ***Simple sentence***. The first cut is always between the subject and the predicate:



2. ***Complex sentence***. The first cut is always between the main clause and the subordinate clause:

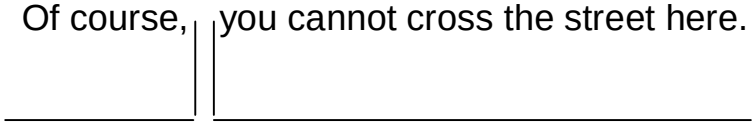


3. ***Compound sentence***. The first cut is between clauses:

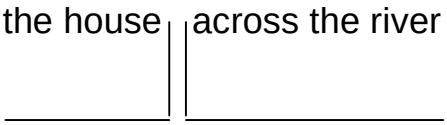


All endocentric additive and alternative constructions are cut in the same way, with the conjunction remaining between the cuts. This also refers to the constructions whose centre is discontinuous.

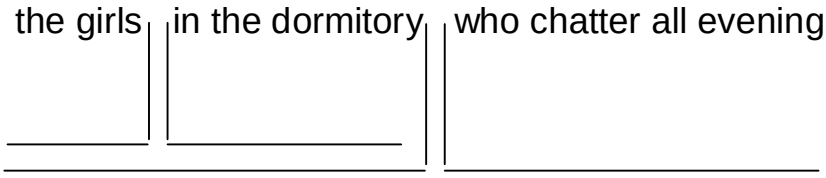
4. ***Sentences containing a sentence modifier***, i.e. an independent sentence element. The first cut is always between the sentence modifier and the sentence itself:



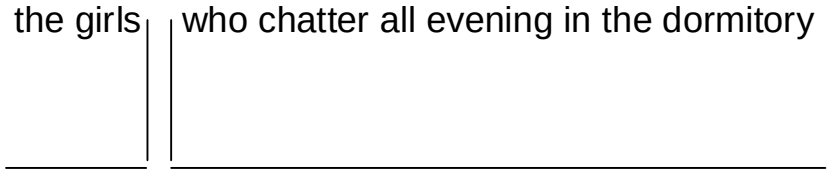
5. ***Noun phrase***. In a noun phrase, the first cut is between the head and the qualifier, if there is one:



This means that if there are premodifiers and a qualifier, the first cut is made after the head. There may be more than one qualifier, but in such a situation it is necessary to be careful about what refers to what in these qualifiers. In the following noun phrase there are two qualifiers and they are cut successively:

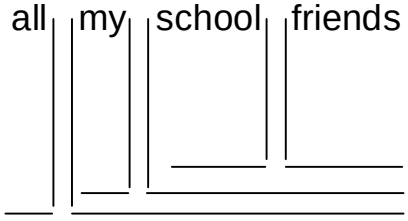


However, in the following example there is only one qualifier:

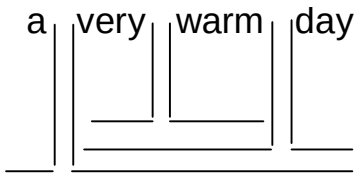


In this case, the prepositional phrase *in the dormitory* is not a qualifier in this noun phrase, but an adverbial modifier referring to the verb *chatter*. Thus, there is only one qualifier here.

After qualifiers are cut off, premodifiers are cut successively until the head is reached:

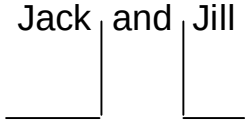


It is necessary to pay attention here to what modifies what within a noun phrase. Consider the following example:

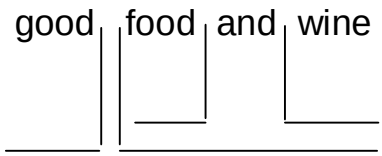


Obviously, we cannot apply the rule of cutting off premodifiers successively in a mechanic way. In this noun phrase, the adverb *very* modifies the adjective *warm*, not the noun *day*. The whole adjective phrase *very warm* is considered one modifier. That is why the second cut is before the head *day*, while the third cut is between *very* and *warm*.

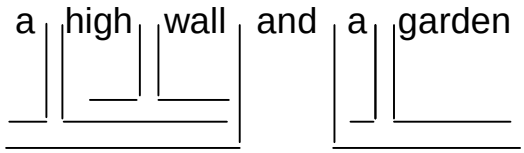
As we have already mentioned, when we deal with an endocentric construction, the cut is made left and right of the conjunction:



However, if there is a premodifier, it is necessary to see whether it refers to the first constituent only or both. For example:

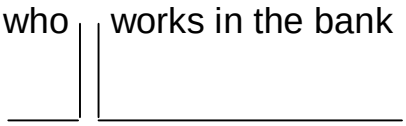


In this example, we can claim that *good* refers to both *food* and *wine*. Therefore, we can make the first cut immediately after the premodifier *good*. Let us now consider the following example:

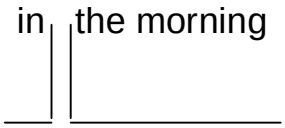


It is obvious here that *high* refers to *wall* only, not to the *garden*, as a phrase such as *a high garden* is not meaningful. Thus, *high* premodifies *wall* only.

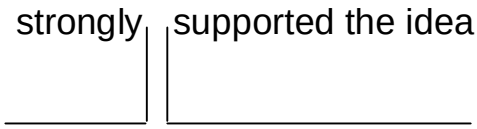
6. ***Relative clause***. In relative clauses, the first cut is after relative pronouns:



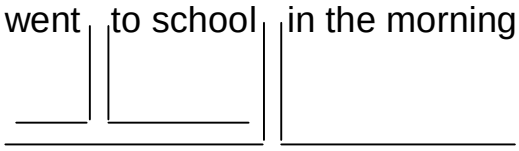
7. ***Prepositional phrase***. The first cut is right after the preposition:



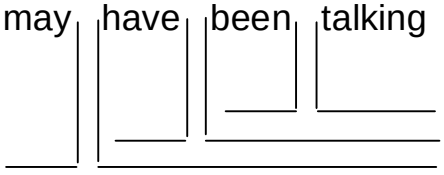
8. ***Verb phrase***. Compared to the noun phrase, modifiers in the verb phrase are cut off from the front. There is rarely more than one adverbial modifier before the verb:



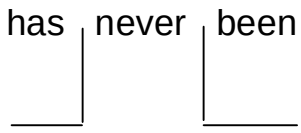
After preverbal modifiers are cut off, adverbial modifiers after the verb are cut off successively, going from the end forward to the verb:



Auxiliaries are cut off successively up to the verb head:



When there is an adverb between the auxiliary and the main verb, the adverb is cut off first as follows:



This is an example of an endocentric subordinate construction where the centre is discontinuous.

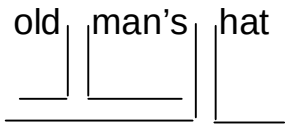
This type of analysis helps us identify the structure of certain constructions in English. In addition, it can be of great use in coping with ambiguities in the language, which may be a problem not only in analysing sentences from the linguistic point of view, but especially in translating from one language into another. Consider the following example:

old man’s hat

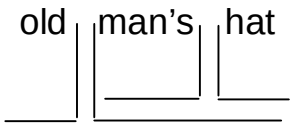
The question here is whether we speak of a *hat of an old man* or of a *men’s hat which is old*? It is the context that usually clarifies the meaning, but not always.

This example can be analysed in two ways:

A. If we think of the hat of an old man *({e{ir starog ~ovjeka*):



B. If we think of a men’s hat which is old (*stari mu{ki {e{ir*):



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