LIN 121

Introduction to Grammatical Analysis I

Professor Oyè Táíwò (2021)
Department of Linguistics and African Languages,
University of Ibadan, Ibadan
po.taiwo@mail1.ui.edu.ng; oyepaultaiwo@gmail.com
08053506069; 08024661260

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General Introduction and Objectives

Grammar is traditionally subdivided into two different but inter-related areas of study: morphology and syntax. Morphology is the study of how words are formed out of smaller units called morphemes, and so addresses questions such as: What are the component morphemes of a word like ***Antidisestablishmentarianism*** and what is the nature of the morphological operations by which they are combined together to form the overall word? Syntax is the study of the way in which phrases and sentences are structured out of words, and so addresses questions like: What is the structure of a sentence like ***What's the president doing?*** and what is the nature of the grammatical operations by which its component words are combined together to form the overall sentence structure? (Radford 2004)

This course, ***Introduction to Grammatical Analysis I***, is intended to familiarize you with topics on descriptive analysis in Syntax without a bias for any particular syntactic theory or framework. In this couse material, you will come across topics and terms that cut across all syntactic theories, as you familiarize yourself with them, you will be able to duscuss syntax with ease and without the usual fear that is attached to it by some.

Some of the topics you will study in the course are the following: grammatical functions, functional categories, grammatical features, subcategorization and selection restrictions. Others include paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations, processes and participants, given and new information, topic and comment and end focus.These topics have been presented in simple and easy-to-understand manner so that it will be possible to study them on your own and you will have a vivid and clear understanding of them.

General Objectives

This course shall provide you with introductory descriptions and explanations of syntactic analyses for you to be able discuss and analyse elementary grammatical structures. You should be able to explain the following at the end of the course: meaning and types of grammar, the word, word classes, word order, grammatical functions, structures above the word such as the phrase, the clause and the sentence. Other topics that you should be able to discuss are paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations in constructions, interpreting information and basic grammatical terms and or notions.

Meaning of Grammar

Introduction

Grammar is a central term in Linguistics. However, there is a great deal of confusion about this term because it is used in very many ways. In other words, the term 'grammar' covers a wide range of phenomenon.

The Linguistic Definitions of Grammar

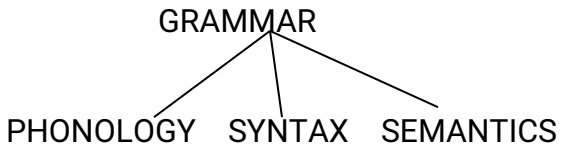
Term *grammar* goes back to the Greek word which may be translated as 'the art of writing'. But this word acquired a much wider sense and came to embrace the whole study of language. In Linguistics, the concept of grammar is not restricted to a single meaning despite the fact that all these meanings are taken to be standard in their own contexts. Each definition depends on the context where the term is used. Although these meanings interrelate with one another somehow, yet you should know how to distinguish one from the other. These meanings are stated below.

- Grammar is all that a native speaker knows in the use of his language.
- Grammar is a branch of language study which comprises morphology and syntax.
- Grammar is a formal description of a language usually being published as grammar texts meant for students or other users.
- Grammar is a set of language rules which can be generalized into a body of truth called theory.
- Grammar is the attainable standard of acceptability being used to justify grammatical expressions in a particular language.

Grammar as the native speaker knowledge

A native speaker is the one that speaks a language as his first language. He is expected to be competent in that language because he uses it as a mother- tongue (the first language one acquired in life). This is the language through which he acquires more knowledge in life. He also uses this language to learn other languages. Therefore, it is expected that he knows the structure of his language. He is the best person to describe his language because he knows when an utterance is correct or not. Linguists believe that he could do this because he had internalized the grammar of his language. Between Mr. Òjó that speaks only Yorùbá and Mallam Nuhu that speaks only Hausa, who do you think can really describe the Yorùbá language structure? Of course, it is Mr. Òjó. Since Mr. Òjó is a native speaker of Yorùbá, his knowledge of the language constitutes a kind of Yorùbá grammar. Mr. Òjó has in his head a complete grammar of Yorùbá "according to" his experience in the language. So does Mallam Nuhu a complete grammar of Hausa corresponding to his exposure therein. In the same way, the native speakers of Edo, Efik, Igbo, Idoma, Ebira, Urhobo, Ịṣẹ̀kiri, Ijọ and other languages also have the grammar of their languages in their heads.

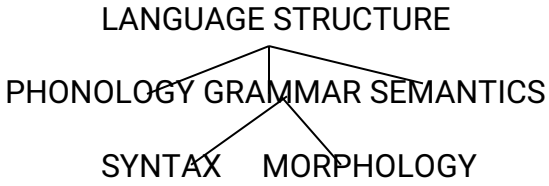
The native speaker knowledge is implicit. It is usually easy to think about and to report on. According to Chomsky (1957), it is seen as a device that formulates all the acceptable sentences possible in a language. It is a very broad concept of grammar because it includes the right pronunciation (the phonology), the right structure (the syntax) and the right meaning (semantics) of each acceptable expression. This is represented in the diagram below.



Phonology is the study of sound systems in language.
Syntax refers to the arrangement of words or ways in which words are put together and the internal structure of the word i.e. syntax includes morphology.
Semantics is the study of meaning in language.

Grammar as Morphology and Syntax

In the specific or restricted sense, grammar is just one branch of language structure distinct from phonology and semantics. It deals with a set of rules and examples dealing with the syntax and morphology of a language.



Syntax refers to the arrangement of words or ways in which words are put together.
Morphology refers to the internal structure of words or the different forms or shapes of words.

Grammar as a Language Description

In another sense, grammar is a description of the structure of a language and how linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined into sentences and the meaning and functions of the sentences in the language in question. In this sense, every language be it English, Yorùbá, Igbo has a grammar of its own and the grammar of one language is different from the other.

When grammar is used in this sense, it is more preferable to use the term grammatical structure. That being the case, when we are talking about the grammar of Hausa, for example, what we mean is the grammatical structure of Hausa. This view is in Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics where the first definition of grammar is given 'a description of the structure of a language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language. It usually takes into account the meaning and function these sentences have in the overall system of language. It may or may not include the description of the sounds of a language'.

Grammar as a Theory of Syntax

In a certain current linguistic theory, grammar is used to designate a set of rules and the lexicon. The set of finite rules are designed to account for different languages with the aim of providing a theory that can model what will be known as Universal Grammar (UG). Some of these theories or models are Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG), Systemic Grammar, etc. It should be emphasized that within

Linguistics, this view of grammar has undergone and is still undergoing several modifications to produce several model of grammatical structure.

Grammar as a Standard of Acceptability

What do you think is meant by the term 'grammar' when one says any of the following sentences?

> *I need to improve on my grammar before I can attend that interview.*
> *It is not a good grammar to say you should raise up your hands.*
> *It is a bad grammar to say "It's me" when you are asked who knocks at the door.*
> *Though John has a good command of vocabulary, his grammar is terrible.*

When the term *grammar* is used in this way, one is simply making judgment on whether an expression is acceptable or unacceptable in a particular variety or dialect of a language. Linguists have also discovered that some expressions that are usually termed "ungrammatical" in the standard dialect of a language are often accepted as grammatical in the non-standard dialects. Therefore, if the research is based on any of those non-standard dialects, the same expressions will be grammatical.

Types of Grammar

I will discuss six types of grammar. These are Descriptive Grammar, Prescriptive Grammar, Pedagogical Grammar, Reference Grammar, Theoretical Grammar and Traditional Grammar. I will explain each of the types with appropriate examples where applicable.

Descriptive Grammar

Descriptive Grammar is an approach that describes the grammatical constructions that are used in a language. These are the sounds and sound patterns, the basic units of meaning, such as words, and the rules to combine them to form new sentences. When linguists wish to describe a language, they attempt to describe the grammar of the language that exists in the minds of its speakers. There may be some difference among speakers' knowledge, but there must be shared knowledge, because it is this grammar that makes it possible to communicate through language. The grammar then, is what we know; it represents our linguistic competence. To understand the nature of language, we must understand the nature of this internalized, unconscious set of rules, which is part of every grammar of every language. A descriptive grammar does not tell you how you should speak; it describes your basic linguistic knowledge. It explains how it is possible for you to speak and understands, and it tells what you know about the sounds, words phrases and sentences of your language.

Prescriptive Grammar

Prescriptive Grammar is a manual that focuses on constructions where usage is divided, and lays down rules governing the socially correct use of language. The prescriptive grammarians believed that there are certain "correct" forms that all educated people should use in speaking and writing and that language change is

corruption. They wished to prescribe rather than describe the rules of grammar. For example, they would say that "two negatives make a positive" and therefore one should not say *I don't have none* rather one should say *I don't have any*; that even when *you* is singular, it should be followed by the plural *were*; hence it wrong to say *You was wrong about that*. The correct form is *You were wrong about that*. In comparative constructions, the nominative form of the pronoun (e.g. I, he, and they) should follow *than* and not the objective form (me, him, and them). Therefore, it is wrong (as the prescriptive grammarian would say) to say *Ade is fatter than me*. The correct form is *Ade is fatter than I*. Many of these "rules" were based on Latin grammar, which had already given way to different rules in the languages that developed from Latin. Many of these new rules were legislated in English grammar. All those who prescribe rules for language are bound to fail. Language is vigorous and dynamic and constantly changing. All languages and dialects are expressive, complete and logical.

Pedagogical Grammar

A Pedagogical Grammar of a language is a book specifically designed for teaching a foreign language or for developing an awareness of the mother tongue. It is also known as **teaching grammar**. It states explicitly the rules of the language or dialect. It assumes that the student already knows one language and compares the grammar of the target language with the grammar of the native language. The meaning of a word is given by providing a gloss- the parallel word in the student's native language such as *ilé* "house". It is assumed that the student knows the meaning of the gloss "house" and so the meaning of the Yorùbá word *ilé.*

Sounds of the target language that do not occur in the native language are often described by reference to known sounds. The rules on how to put words together to form grammatical sentences also refer the learners' knowledge of their native language. Pedagogical grammars might be prescriptive in the sense that they attempt to teach the student what is or is not a grammatical construction in the new language. Their aim is different from grammars that attempt to change the rules or usage of a language already learnt.

Reference Grammar

A Reference Grammar is a grammatical description that tries to be as comprehensive as possible, so that it can act as a reference book for those interested in establishing grammatical facts in much the same way as a dictionary is used as a "reference lexicon". For example in the book 'A Reference Grammar for Students of English' by R.A. Close, the preface says the book 'will explain how an English sentence is built up,… describe the grammatical system as a whole…[and] introduce the terminology with which we can label its component parts'. Professor Awobuluyi's book 'Essentials of Yorùbá Grammar' '…presents the Yorùbá language as it really is, rather than as seen hitherto. The major parts of speech of the language are…established uniformly on the criterion of function alone'. Books like the ones mentioned above are reference grammar books of these languages. Other examples of reference grammar include 'A Grammar of Yorùbá' by Emeritus Professor Ayọ Bamgboṣe, 'English Grammar: A Linguistic Study of its Classes and Structures' by F.S. Scott et al.

Traditional Grammar

Traditional Grammar is a term often used to summarize the range of attitudes and methods found in the period of grammatical study before the advent of linguistic science. The 'tradition' in question is over 2,000 years and includes the works of classical Greek and Roman grammarians, Renaissance writers and 18th century prescriptive grammarians. The traditional grammarian saw it as his task to formulate the standards of correctness and to impose these, if necessary, upon the speakers of the language. Linguists generally use the term 'traditional grammar' pejoratively, identifying an unscientific approach to grammatical study in which languages were analyzed in term of Latin, with scanty regard for empirical facts i. e. publicly verifiable data/facts obtained by means of observation or experiment.

Theoretical Grammar

Theoretical Grammar is an approach that's goes beyond the study of individual language. It studies language and languages with a view to constructing a theory of their structure and functions. Those that pertain to human languages, representing the universal properties of language, constitute the universal grammar. Theoretical grammar determines what constructs are needed in order to do any kind of grammatical analysis, and how these can be applied consistently in the investigation of a human language. Theoretical grammar supplies the concepts and categories in terms of which particular languages are to be analyzed. The goal of theoretical grammar is the formulation of a satisfactory theory of the structure of language in general. For example, it might formulate the hypothesis that all languages have nouns and verbs. The study of grammar of a particular language (descriptive grammar) provides the data which confirm or refute the propositions and theories put forward in theoretical grammar.

Misconceptions about the Use of the Term *Grammar*

Introduction

The term 'grammar' could be regarded as misconceptions. In this lecture, I will explain and analyze these misconceptions so that you will be able to avoid them. After studying this lecture, you should be able to identify certain misconceptions about grammar and analyze how they are so.

Misconceptions about Grammar

Using the term *grammar* to refer to the grammar book

It is not uncommon for a school pupil to ask his/her classmate the following question: "Can you lend me your grammar?" It is obvious that the term grammar in this sense simply refers to a grammar book. But in actual fact, the grammar of a language is not the same thing as the book. However, it could be argued that although the book itself is not the grammar, what it contains is at least grammatical. Even in this sense, the grammar of the language in question is still limited as presented by the author of the book because the grammar of a language is certainly more than the one written by an individual author.

Equating Grammar with Grammatical Labels or Terminologies

Another sense in which the term *grammar* is misused is when it is confused with grammatical terms. It is not unusual for a school teacher to complain that a student

'does not know any grammar' when the student does not know for example that the word 'dancing' belongs to the grammatical term called 'gerund' or when the student is unable to refer to traditional terms as part of speech, or when the student does not know the traditional definition of the verb as, 'a word which expresses action, or state of being'. Common grammatical terms such as noun, verb, gerund, subject, object, predicate, etc. do not constitute the grammar of a language. The fact that a student cannot define such grammatical term that is given to word when it is used in a certain way does not mean that the student does not know any grammar in the sense of the structure of the language in question.

Grammatica

When the term grammar is used in the sense of '**grammatica':** a Greek word meaning **a set of rules for writing**; it is clear that languages which have never been reduced or committed to writing will be regarded as having no grammar. However, it should be emphasized that the spoken language precedes the written language and that one learns to speak before learning to write. This means in effect that the grammatical patterns written down when we write the grammar of a language already exist in spoken form. That being the case, the view that languages that have not been reduced or committed to writing have no grammar is simply unacceptable.

Grammar and Meaning

Another misconception is that grammar is essentially concerned with meaning. This view is unacceptable in Linguistics where a distinction is usually made between Grammar and Semantics. There are indeed several ways of showing that there is no one to one correspondence between grammatical and semantic distinctions. To cite just one instance, we can consider the case of sex and gender. Sex is a semantic distinction while gender is a grammatical distinction. Examples from Romance languages- French, Italian, Spanish will clearly show that it is wrong to equate sex with gender or to give meaning to gender as male or female in grammar. In these romance languages, all nouns can be divided grammatically according to gender into two places namely masculine and feminine. The classification is supported in the grammar in the fact that different forms of articles and adjectives go with these classes. Some examples are stated below.

	French	**Italian**	**Spanish**	**English**
Masculine:	Le livre	il libro	el libro	'the book'
Feminine:	la porte	la parta	la puarta	'the door'

French:	**Masculine**	**Feminine**
	Le livre vert	La porte verte
	the book green 'the green book'	the door green 'the green door'

Given these examples, it will be clearly wrong to claim that in French, Italian and Spanish languages, all objects are either male or female or that they have the meaning male or female. This is far from being correct, what simply happens is that in grammar of these languages, all nouns can be divided into two classes: masculine

and feminine.

Another evidence to show that gender in grammar does not mean the same thing as sex is the fact that in some languages, many of the nouns which are classified as feminine actually refer to occupation that are normally performed by heavy looking young men as is evident in the following French examples.

La vigie 'the night watch' La recruit 'the recruit'
La sentinelle 'the sentinel (guard)'

Moreover, in German, the words that are commonly used to refer to young girls as well as young ladies are classified as neuter gender (neither masculine nor feminine), e g

German: das mädchen 'girls' Das fräuleu 'young ladies'

The conclusion from all these examples and others is that grammar is not essentially concerned with meaning.

Some Languages have Grammar while others are devoid of Grammar

Another misconception is the viewpoint that some languages have grammar while others are devoid of grammar. This viewpoint is based on a very restricted use of the term grammar. In this restricted sense, grammar is equated with just the morphological process referred to as inflections. Thus, languages such as Russian and Latin which have inflections are regarded as having grammar, while languages like English which have little inflections have not much grammar, and languages like Vietnamis, Chinese, Yorùbá which have no inflections have no grammar. In languages that have inflections, we have several shapes/forms of a word as is evident from the following examples.

Russian 'cat'

Koška	'cat' (nominative)	Koški	'of a cat'	Koške	'to / for a cat'
Košku	'cat'(accusative)	Koško	'by a cat'	Koške	'about a cat'

Latin 'Master'

Dominus 'master' (nominative)	Domini 'of a master/ masters (plural)'
domino 'to/from a master'	dominum 'master'(accusative)
domine 'O master'	dominomim 'of masters'(plural)
dominos 'masters'(accusative)	dominis 'from masters'

The fact that some languages have different shapes/forms for a word and others languages do not have does not mean that the languages that do not have this feature have no grammar. Inflection is just a grammatical feature and does not constitute the grammar of the language.

Construction

Construction is the term used by grammarians for the syntactic characterization of a sentence, or of any smaller unit that we can distinguish within it. In this lecture, you shall study the following: construction, a syntactic unit and grammatical categories. Constructions are to be described in terms of functions and relation. A syntactic unit is a combination of words which have a construction of their own. For example, in

1. He said you looked beautiful.

The last three words, ***you looked beautiful,*** form a syntactic unit also known as a syntagm. A syntactic unit can be looked at from two angles. First, we can consider it as a whole, for its functions either in isolation or as part of a larger unit. In the expression below

2. food **which tastes peppery**

the words in bold (last three words) is a relative clause, a clause whose function is in relation to an antecedent noun. The whole expression **'food which tastes peppery'** is a noun phrase whose functions are the same as those of a single noun. The expression in (3)

3. It tastes nice.

is a main clause, functioning as a sentence, it is also a declarative sentence. Any unit can be characterized on more than one dimension, for instance, (3) is a clause not a phrase, declarative not interrogative, main and not relative clause.

The second characterization is in terms of a unit's internal connection. Using the unit in (3) as an example, **It tastes nice** has a Subject and Predicator. ***It*** (pronoun) is the subject of the verb and the subject within the clause or sentence as whole. ***Tastes*** is a predicator to ***nice*** which is the complement of ***tastes***; ***nice*** (adjective) is the complement of the verb which is the relation of part to part, as well as the complement within the clause, relation of part to whole. In the noun clause (2), **food which tastes peppery,** ***food*** is the head while ***which tastes peppery*** is the modifier.
Constructions are to be described in terms of functions and relation, and not simply in terms of parts of speech and their sequential distribution. In **It tastes nice, t**he first word is a subject related to a predicator, *tastes*; it is not simply a pronoun which is immediately followed by a verb. A difference of construction can now be seen as a difference of meaning, either of the whole or in at least one relationship between elements. For example

4. He sounded a fool.

means that, from what one heard, it seems that he is foolish, but

5. He sounded a trumpet.

he held the instrument and blew it. Here, there is a difference of construction as well as simply a difference of words, ***a fool*** having the function of subject complement and *a trumpet* that of a direct object.

Syntax

The term *Syntax* is from the ancient Greek *Syntaxis,* a verbal noun meaning 'arrangement' or 'setting out together'. Traditionally, syntax 'refers to the branch of

grammar dealing with the ways in which words, with or without appropriate inflections are arranged to show connections of meaning within the sentence' (Matthews 1981:1) For example, in ***it tastes nice,*** there are connections of meaning among ***it, tastes,*** and ***nice,*** hence we have ***it +tastes+nice*** word order and not any other permutations ****tastes it nice, *it nice tastes, *nice tastes it***

There is also connection of meaning by inflectional agreement between the verb and pronoun (***it tastes*** not ***it taste***). The individual connections can also form part of a different whole e.g. ***How nice it tastes!*** (Exclamation) or as a part of a larger sentence. ***How nice it tastes, you are not to eat anymore.*** The field of syntax covers both what is shown (e. g. ***How nice it tastes*** **is an exclamation)** and the means by which it is done (agreement, order of words and other devices). The syntax[1] of a language is described in terms of a taxonomy (i.e. classificatory list) of the range of different types of syntactic structures found in the language.

The central assumption underpinning syntactic analysis in traditional grammar is that phrases and sentences are built up of a series of constituents (i.e. syntactic units), each of which belongs to a specific grammatical category and serves a specific grammatical function. Given this assumption, the task of the linguist analysing the syntactic structure of any given type of sentence is to identify each of the constituents in the sentence, and (for each constituent) to say what category it belongs to and what function it serves. For example, in relation to the syntax of a simple sentence like:

6. Students protested

it would traditionally be said that the sentence consists of two constituents (the word *students* and the word *protested*), that each of these constituents belongs to a specific grammatical category (*students* being a plural noun and *protested* a past tense verb) and that each serves a specific grammatical function (*students* being the subject of the sentence, and *protested* being its predicate). The overall sentence *Students protested* has the categorial status of a clause which is finite in nature (by virtue of denoting an event taking place at a specific time), and has the semantic function of expressing a proposition which is declarative in force (in that it is used to make a statement rather than e.g. ask a question). Accordingly, a traditional grammar of English would tell us that the simplest type of finite declarative clause found in English is a sentence like (6) in which a nominal subject is followed by a verbal predicate.

The Word

Despite the fact that the notion of words appears quite widespread or familiar, no one has yet been able to propose a satisfactory universal definition of the word. In other words, it is not easy to say categorically what a word is and how it can be defined.

Types of Words

[1] The discussion in this section is taken from Radford (2004, 2009)

The inability of linguists to find a satisfactory definition to the notion of the word could be traced in part to the fact that there at least four different types of words. These are the orthographic word, the morphological word, the lexical word and the semantic word.

Orthographic word: By orthographic word, it is meant the word which in writing has a space on either side of it.

E g. That boy is a student of Linguistics. - 7 orthographic words

Phonological word: The notion of orthographic word applies only to the written medium. This is so because in normal speech, we do not always have to pause between words. But if a word can be identified by the phonological phenomenon of pause in speech, such a word is referred to as a phonological word. Hence, a phonological word can be defined as sound or combination of vocal sounds to express meaning.

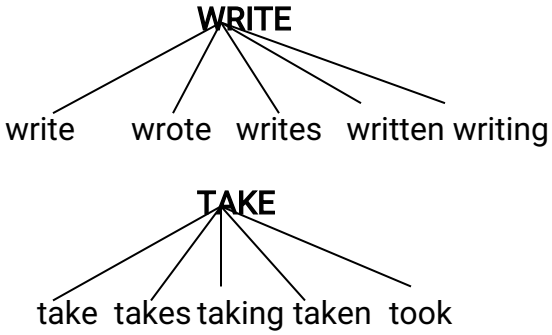
Morphological words: A morphological word is recognized by its form or shape only and not by its meaning. For instance, the word **bank** is one morphological word in spite of the fact that it can refer to the following among others:

- it can refer to a place where money is loaned, issued, exchanged, and kept.
- it can refer to the rising ground bordering a river, lake or sea.

However, **bank** and **banks** will be regarded as two morphological words by virtue of the fact that they are not identical in form.

Lexical Words: A lexical word includes all the various forms of items that are closely related in respect of meaning. For instance, while **bank** and **banks** are two morphological words, they are just one lexical word because of meaning relationship. Similarly, the various forms such as the following **write, writes, writing, written**, and **wrote** are five morphological words but only one lexical word.

WRITE is the lexeme (the basic lexical unit comprising one or several words) or the principal word where other forms are derived.



Semantic Words: A semantic word is one which has just one unit of meaning. In effect, morphologically identical items which differ in meaning are different semantic words. Words like these are regarded as polysemous words. For instance, the item **bank** can have more than one meaning, and for that reason, the item is not just one semantic word. A word that is marked by multiplicity of meaning is said to be

polysemous. If **bank** is given two meanings, it is one morphological word with two semantic meanings. Also the word **table** can be one morphological word but more than one semantic word.

table- chart, diagram
where things are kept e.g. book. Used for writing.

Identification and Classification of Words

Although there are no full proof criteria for identifying words, the following are among the criteria that have been suggested by linguists for this purpose: the criterion of structural stability and the criterion of uninterruptability

The criterion of structural stability : This criterion emphasizes the fact that of all linguistic units, words are the most structurally stable in respect of internal structure. In other words, the constituent parts of a complex word are more or less fixed, they cannot be rearranged.

Unwarrantable un- warrant- able **not**
* warrantableun *unablewarrant *ablewarrantun *warrantunable

Disagreement dis- agree- ment **not**
*agreementdis *dismentagree *mentagreedis *agreedisment

The criterion of uninterruptability: According to this criterion, the sequence of a word cannot be interrupted. In other words, new elements cannot be inserted in the sequence of a word.

Children **we can have** 'little children'
but cannot have *child little ren

Disagreement **we can have** 'small disagreement'
but cannot have *disagreesmallment

This criterion can in fact be used to confirm the number of words in a given sequence.

Grammatical Classification of Words

Several grammatical classifications of words have been proposed by linguists. Among such are the following: Variable and Invariable words; Grammatical and Lexical words; Open-class and closed – class words.

Variable words: Variable words are words that express or signal grammatical relationship through a change of form, e.g.

boy - boys; big - bigger, biggest
Dance- dancing, dances, danced, dancers

Invariable words: Invariable words are words that express grammatical relationship without a change of form. They include words like at, on – prepositions; and, but – conjunctions

Grammatical words: Grammatical words are words that merely signal grammatical

relationship or words whose roles are largely wholly grammatical. Other terms used for this class of words are function words; empty words i.e. empty of semantic content, or functors.

E.g. Pronouns- I, they, you, it, Prepositions- at, on, Conjunctions- and, but, Articles- an, a, the, etc

Lexical words: Lexical words are words that have lexical meaning. In other words, they have semantic content. e.g.

Nouns- bank, road, students, etc; Verbs –jump, cry, shout, etc; Adjectives- small, big, etc

Open-class Words: Open-class words are words which belong to word-class whose membership is in principle unlimited or indefinite. New items or words are regularly added to express new ideas, new inventions. e.g

Nouns- bank, road, students, etc Verbs –jump, cry, shout, etc
Adjectives- small, big, etc Adverbs – silently, slowly, quietly, etc

Closed-class Words: Closed-class words are words which belong to the word-class whose membership is fixed or limited. New words are not regularly added to such class of words. e.g

Pronouns- I, they, you, it, etc Prepositions- at, on, etc
Conjunctions- and, but, etc Articles- an, a, the, etc

Word Classes or Parts of Speech

Words are assigned to grammatical categories (called parts of speech) on the basis of their semantic properties (i.e. meaning), morphological properties (i.e. the range of different forms they have), and syntactic properties (i.e. word-order properties relating to the positions they can occupy within sentences): a set of words which belong to the same category thus have a number of semantic, morphological and syntactic properties in common. For example, **nouns** are traditionally said to have the semantic property that they denote entities: so, *bottle* is a noun (since it denotes a type of object used to contain liquids), *horse* is a noun (since it denotes a type of animal), and *John* is a noun (since it denotes a specific person). Typical nouns (more specifically, count nouns) have the morphological property that they have two different forms: a singular form (like *horse* in *one horse*) used to denote a single entity, and a plural form (like *horses* in *two horses*) used to denote two or more entities. Nouns have the syntactic property that only (an appropriate kind of) noun can be used to end a four-word sentence such as *They have no...* In place of the dots here we could insert a singular noun like *car* or a plural noun like *friends*, but not other types of word (e.g. not *see*, or *slowly* or *up*, since these are not nouns).

In contrast to nouns, **verbs** are traditionally said to have the semantic property that they denote actions or events: so, *eat*, *sing*, *pull*, and *resign* are all (action-denoting) verbs. From a syntactic point of view, verbs have the property that only an appropriate kind of verb (in its uninflected form) can be used to complete a three-word sentence such as *They/It can...* So, words like *stay*, *leave*, *hide*, *die*, *starve* and *cry* are all verbs and hence can be used in place of the dots here (but words like *apple*, *under*, *pink*, and *if* aren't). From a morphological point of view, regular verbs like *cry*

(in English) have the property that they have four distinct forms: e.g. alongside the dictionary citation form *cry* we find the present tense form *cries*, the past tense/perfect participle/passive participle form *cried* and the progressive participle form *crying*.

Criteria for Categorizing words

Words are assigned to grammatical categories in traditional grammar on the basis of their shared semantic, morphological and syntactic properties. The kind **of semantic criteria** (sometimes called 'notional' criteria) used to categorize words in traditional grammar are illustrated in much-simplified form below:

Verbs denote actions (*go*, *destroy*, *buy*, *eat*, etc.)
Nouns denote entities (*car*, *cat*, *hill*, *John*, etc.)
Adjectives denote states (*ill*, *happy*, *rich*, etc.)
Adverbs denote manner (*badly*, *slowly*, *painfully*, *cynically* etc.)
Prepositions denote location (*under*, *over*, *outside*, *in*, *on* etc.)

However, semantically-based criteria for identifying categories must be used with care: for example, *assassination* denotes an action but is a noun, not a verb; *illness* denotes a state but is a noun, not an adjective; in *fast food*, the word *fast* denotes the manner in which the food is prepared but is an adjective, not an adverb; and *Cambridge* denotes a location but is a noun, not a preposition.

The **morphological criteria** for categorizing words concern their inflectional and derivational properties. Inflectional properties relate to different forms of the same word (e.g. the plural form of a noun like *cat* is formed by adding the plural inflection *-s* to give the form *cats*); derivational properties relate to the processes by which a word can be used to form a different kind of word by the addition of an affix of some kind (e.g. by adding the suffix *-ness* to the adjective *sad* we can form the noun *sadness*).

Although English has a highly impoverished system of inflectional morphology, there are nonetheless two major categories of word which have distinctive inflectional properties – namely nouns and verbs. We can identify the class of nouns in terms of the fact that they generally inflect for number, and thus have distinct singular and plural forms – cf. pairs such as *dog*/*dogs*, *man*/*men*, *ox*/*oxen*, etc. Accordingly, we can differentiate a noun like *fool* from an adjective like *foolish* by virtue of the fact that only (regular, countable) nouns like *fool* – not adjectives like *foolish* – can carry the noun plural inflection *-s*: cf.

They are *fools* [noun]/**foolishes* [adjective]

There are **several complications** which should be pointed out, however. One is the existence of **irregular nouns** like *sheep* which are invariable and hence have a common singular/plural form (cf. *one sheep*, *two sheep*). A second is that some nouns are **intrinsically singular** (and so have no plural form) by virtue of their meaning: only those nouns (called count/countable nouns) which denote entities which can be counted have a plural form (e.g. *chair* – cf. *one chair*, *two chairs*); some nouns denote an uncountable mass and for this reason are called mass/uncountable/non-count

nouns, and so cannot be pluralized (e.g. *furniture* – hence the ungrammaticality of **one furniture*, **two furnitures*). A third is that some nouns (like *scissors* and *trousers*) have **a plural form but no countable singular form**. A fourth complication is posed by noun expressions which contain more than one noun; only the head noun in such expressions can be pluralized, not any preceding noun used as a modifier of the head noun: thus, in expressions such as *car doors*, *policy decisions*, *skate boards*, *horse boxes*, *trouser presses*, *coat hangers*, etc. the second noun is the head and can be pluralized, whereas the first noun is a modifier and so cannot be pluralized.

In much the same way, we can identify verbs by their inflectional morphology in English. In addition to their uninflected base form (= the citation form under which they are listed in dictionaries), verbs typically have up to four different inflected forms, formed by adding one of four inflections to the appropriate stem form: the relevant inflections are the perfect/passive participle suffix *-n*, the past tense suffix *-d*, the third person singular present tense suffix *-s*, and the progressive participle/gerund suffix *-ing*.

Like most morphological criteria, however, this one is complicated by the irregular and impoverished nature of English inflectional morphology; for example, many verbs have irregular past or perfect forms, and in some cases either or both of these forms may not in fact be distinct from the (uninflected) base form, so that a single form may serve two or three functions (thereby neutralizing or syncretizing the relevant distinctions), as Table 1 below illustrates:

Table 1: Table of Verb Forms

BASE	PERFECT	PAST	PRESENT	PROGRESSIVE
show	shown	showed	shows	showing
go	gone	went	goes	going
speak	spoken	spoke	speaks	speaking
see	seen	saw	sees	seeing
come	came	came	comes	coming
wait	waited	waited	waits	waiting
meet	met	met	meets	meeting
cut	cut	cut	cuts	cutting

The largest class of verbs in English are regular verbs which have the morphological characteristics of *wait*, and so have past, perfect and passive forms ending in the suffix *-d*. The picture becomes even more complicated if we take into account the verb *be*, which has eight distinct forms:

base *be,* **perfect** *been*, **progressive** *being*,
past *was*/*were*, **present** *am*/*are*/*is*

The most regular verb suffix in English is *-ing*, which can be attached to the base form of almost any verb (though a handful of defective verbs like *beware* are exceptions).

The obvious implication of our discussion of nouns and verbs here is that it would not be possible to provide a systematic account of English inflectional morphology unless we were to posit that words belong to grammatical categories, and that a specific type of inflection attaches only to a specific category of word. The same is also true if we wish to provide an adequate account of derivational morphology in English (i.e. the processes by which words are derived from other words): this is

because particular derivational affixes can only be attached to words belonging to particular categories. For example, the negative prefixes *un-* and *in-* can be attached to adjectives to form a corresponding negative adjective (cf. pairs such as *happy*/*unhappy* and *flexible*/*inflexible*) but not to nouns (so that a noun like *fear* has no negative counterpart **unfear*), nor to prepositions (so that a preposition like *inside* has no negative antonym **uninside*). Similarly, the adverbialising (i.e. adverb-forming) suffix *-ly* in English can be attached only to adjectives (giving rise to adjective/adverb pairs such as *sad*/*sadly*) and cannot be attached to a noun like *computer*, or to a verb like *accept*, or to a preposition like *with*.

Likewise, the nominalizing (i.e. noun-forming) suffix *-ness* can be attached only to adjective stems (so giving rise to adjective/noun pairs such as *coarse*/*coarseness*), not to nouns, verbs or prepositions (Hence we don't find *–ness* derivatives for a noun like *boy*, or a verb like *resemble*, or a preposition like *down*). In much the same way, the comparative suffix *-er* can be attached to adjectives (cf. *tall/taller*) and some adverbs (cf. *soon/sooner*) but not to other types of word (cf. *woman/*womanner*); and the superlative suffix *-est* can attach to adjectives (cf. *tall/tallest*) but not other types of word (cf. e.g. *down/*downest*, *donkey/*donkiest*, *enjoy/*enjoyest*). There is no point in multiplying examples here: it is clear that derivational affixes have categorial properties, and any account of derivational morphology will clearly have to recognise this fact.

As we noted earlier, there is also ***syntactic* evidence** for assigning words to categories: **this essentially relates to the fact that different categories of words have different distributions (i.e. occupy a different range of positions within phrases or sentences)**. For example, if we want to complete the four-word sentence in (1) below by inserting a single word at the end of the sentence in the --- position:

(1) They have no ---

we can use an (appropriate kind of) noun, but not a verb, preposition, adjective, or adverb, as we see from:

(2a). They have no *car*/*conscience*/*friends*/*ideas* [nouns]
(b) They have no *went* [verb]/*for* [preposition]/*older* [adjective]/*conscientiously* [adverb]

So, using the relevant syntactic criterion, we can define the class of nouns as the set of words which can terminate a sentence in the position marked --- in (1).

Using the same type of syntactic evidence, we could argue that only a verb (in its infinitive/base form) can occur in the position marked --- in (3) below to form a complete (non-elliptical) sentence:

(3) They/it can ---

Support for this claim comes from the contrasts in (4) below:

(4a) They can *stay*/*leave*/*hide*/*die*/*starve*/*cry* [verb]
(b) *They can *gorgeous* [adjective] /*happily* [adverb] /*down* [preposition] /*door* [noun]

And the only category of word which can occur after *very* (in the sense of *extremely*) is an adjective or adverb, as we see from (5) below:

(5a) He is *very* slow [*very*+adjective] (b) He walks *very* slowly [*very*+adverb]
(c) **Very* fools waste time [*very*+noun] (d) *He *very* adores her [*very*+verb]
(e) *It happened *very* after the party [*very*+preposition]

But note that *very* can only be used to modify adjectives/adverbs which by virtue of their meaning are gradable and so can be qualified by words like *very*/*rather*/*somewhat* etc; adjectives/adverbs which denote an absolute state are ungradable by virtue of their meaning, and so cannot be qualified in the same way – hence the oddity of

(6) !Fifteen students were very present, and five were very absent.
(where ! marks semantic anomaly)

Moreover, we can differentiate adjectives from adverbs in syntactic terms. For example, only adverbs can be used to end sentences such as *He treats her* ---, *She behaved* ---, *He worded the statement* ---: cf.

(7a) He treats her *badly* [adverb]/**kind* [adjective]/**shame* [noun]/**under* [preposition]
(b) She behaved *abominably* [adverb]/**appalling* [adjective]/**disgrace* [noun]/**down* [preposition]
(c) He worded the statement *carefully* [adverb]/**good* [adjective]/**tact* [noun]/**in* [preposition]

And since adjectives (but not adverbs) can serve as the complement of the verb *be* (i.e. can be used after *be*), we can delimit the class of (gradable) adjectives uniquely by saying that only adjectives can be used to complete a four-word sentence of the form *They are very* ---: cf.

(8a) They are very *tall*/*pretty*/*kind*/*nice* [adjective]
(b) *They are very *slowly* [adverb] /*gentlemen* [noun] /*astonish* [verb] /*outside* [preposition]

Another way of differentiating between an adjective like *real* and an adverb like *really* is that adjectives are used to modify nouns, whereas adverbs are used to modify other types of expression: cf.

(9a) There is a *real* crisis [*real* + noun] (b) He is *really* nice [*really* + adjective]
(c) He walks *really* slowly [*really* + adverb] (d) He is *really* down [*really* + preposition]
(e) He must *really* squirm [*really* + verb]

Adjectives used to modify a following noun (like *real* in *There is a real crisis*) are traditionally said to be attributive in function, whereas those which do not modify a following noun (like *real* in *The crisis is real*) are said to be predicative in function.

As for the syntactic properties of prepositions, they alone can be intensified by *right* in the sense of 'completely', or by *straight* in the sense of 'directly':

(10a) Go *right* up the ladder (b) He went *right* inside
(c) He walked *straight* into a wall (d) He fell *straight* down

By contrast, other categories cannot be intensified by *right*/*straight* (in Standard

English): cf.

(11a) *He *right/ straight* despaired [*right/ straight* + verb]
(b) *She is *right/ straight* pretty [*right/ straight* + adjective]
(c) *She looked at him *right/ straight* strangely [*right/ straight* + adverb]
(d) *They are *right/ straight* fools [*right/ straight* + noun]

It should be noted, however, that since *right/ straight* serve to intensify the meaning of a preposition, they can only be combined with those (uses of) prepositions which express the kind of meaning which can be intensified in the appropriate way (so that *He made right/straight for the exit* is OK, but **He bought a present right/straight for Mary* is not).

A further syntactic property of some prepositions (namely those which take a following noun or pronoun expression as their complement – traditionally called transitive prepositions) which they share in common with (transitive) verbs is the fact that they permit an immediately following accusative pronoun as their complement (i.e. a pronoun in its accusative form, like *me/us/him/them*): cf.

(12a) She was *against* him [*transitive preposition* +accusative pronoun]
(b) She was *watching* him [*transitive verb*+ accusative pronoun]
(c) *She is *fond* him [*adjective*+ accusative pronoun]
(d) *She works *independently* him [*adverb*+ accusative pronoun]
(e) *She showed me a *photo* him [*noun*+ accusative pronoun]

Even though a preposition like *with* does not express the kind of meaning which allows it to be intensified by *right* or *straight*, we know it is a (transitive) preposition because it is invariable (so not e.g. a verb) and permits an accusative pronoun as its complement, e.g. in sentences such as *He argued with me/us/him/ them*. (For obvious reasons, this test can't be used with prepositions used intransitively without any complement.

Categorizing words

Given that different categories have different morphological and syntactic properties, it follows that we can use the morphological and syntactic properties of a word to determine its categorization (i.e. what category it belongs to). The morphological properties of a given word provide an initial rough guide to its categorial status: in order to determine the categorial status of an individual word, we can ask whether it has the inflectional and derivational properties of a particular category of word. For example, we can tell that *happy* is an adjective by virtue of the fact that it has the derivational properties of typical adjectives: it can take the negative prefix *un-* (giving rise to the negative adjective *unhappy*), the comparative/superlative suffixes *-er*/*-est* (giving rise to the forms *happier*/*happiest*), the adverbialising suffix *-ly* (giving rise to the adverb *happily*), and the nominalizing suffix *-ness* (giving rise to the noun *happiness*). However, we cannot always rely entirely on morphological clues, owing to the fact that morphology is sometimes irregular, sometimes subject to idiosyncratic restrictions, and sometimes of limited productivity. For example, although regular adverbs (like *quickly, slowly, painfully* etc.) generally end in the derivational suffix *–ly*, this is not true of irregular adverbs like *fast* (e.g. in *He walks fast*); moreover, when they have the comparative suffix *–er* added to them, regular adverbs lose their *–ly* suffix so that the comparative form of the adverb *quickly* is *quicker* not **quicklier*. What all of this means is that a word belonging to a given class

may have only *some* of the relevant morphological properties, or even (in the case of a completely irregular item) *none* of them. For example, although the adjective *fat* has comparative/ superlative forms in *-er*/*-est* (cf. *fat*/*fatter*/*fattest*), it has no negative *un-* counterpart (cf. **unfat*), and no adverb counterpart in *-ly* (cf. **fatly*). Even more exceptional is the adjective *little*, which has no negative *un-* derivative (cf. **unlittle*), no adverb *-ly* derivative (cf. **littlely*/**littly*), no noun derivative in *-ness* (at least in my variety of English – though *littleness* does appear in the *Oxford English Dictionary*), and no *-er*/*-est* derivatives (the forms **littler*/**littlest* are likewise not grammatical in my variety).

What makes morphological evidence even more problematic is the fact that many morphemes may have more than one use. For example, *-n/-d* and *-ing* are inflections which attach to verbs to give perfect or progressive forms (traditionally referred to as participles). However, certain *-n*/*-d* and *-ing* forms seem to function as adjectives, suggesting that *-ing* and *-n/-d* can also serve as adjectivalising (i.e. adjectiveforming) morphemes. So, although a word like *interesting* can function as a verb (in sentences like *Her charismatic teacher was gradually interesting her in syntax*), it can also function as an adjective (used attributively in structures like *This is an interesting book*, and predicatively in structures like *This book is very interesting*). In its use as an adjective, the word *interesting* has the negative derivative *uninteresting* (cf. *It was a rather uninteresting play*) and the *-ly* adverb derivative *interestingly* (though, like many other adjectives, it has no noun derivative in *-ness*, and no comparative or superlative derivatives in *-er*/*-est*). Similarly, although *-n/-d* can serve as a perfect participle inflection (in structures like *We hadn't known/expected that he would quit*), it should be noted that many words ending in *-n*/*-d* can also function as adjectives. For example, the word *known* in an expression such as *a known criminal* seems to function as an (attributive) adjective, and in this adjectival use it has a negative *un-* counterpart (cf. expressions like *the tomb of the unknown warrior*). Similarly, the form *expected* functions as a perfect participle verb form in structures like *We hadn't expected him to complain*, but seems to function as an (attributive) adjective in structures such as *He gave the expected reply*, in its adjectival (though not in its verbal) use, it has a negative *un-* derivative, and the resultant negative adjective *unexpected* in turn has the noun derivative *unexpectedness*.

So, given the potential problems which arise with morphological criteria, it is unwise to rely solely on morphological evidence in determining categorial status: rather, we should use morphological criteria in conjunction with syntactic criteria (i.e. criteria relating to the range of positions that words can occupy within phrases and sentences). **One syntactic test which can be used to determine the category that a particular word belongs to is that of substitution** – i.e. seeing whether (in a given sentence), the word in question can be substituted by a regular noun, verb, preposition, adjective, or adverb etc. We can use the substitution technique to differentiate between comparative adjectives and adverbs ending in *-er*, since they have identical forms. For example, in the case of sentences like:

(13a) He is *better* at French than you (b) He speaks French *better* than you

we find that *better* can be replaced by a *more+adjective* expression like *more fluent* in

(13a) but not (13b), and conversely that *better* can be replaced by a *more+adverb* expression like *more fluently* in (13b) but not in (13a): cf.

(14a) He is *more fluent*/ **more fluently* at French than you
(b) He speaks French *more fluently*/ **more fluent* than you

Thus, the substitution test provides us with syntactic evidence that *better* is an adjective in (13a), but an adverb in (13b).

The overall conclusion to be drawn from our discussion is that morphological evidence may sometimes be inconclusive, and has to be checked against syntactic evidence. A useful syntactic test which can be employed is that of substitution: e.g. if a morphologically indeterminate word can be substituted by a regular noun wherever it occurs, then the relevant word has the same categorial status as the substitute word which can replace it, and so is a noun.

Determiners, Quantifiers, Pronouns and Complementizers

The purpose of this lecture is for you to understand and be able to explain the differences between functors and contectives. Therefore, after you might have studied this lecture, you should be able to identify functors or function words and describe them.

Content words or Contentives and Function words or Functors

Thus far, we have looked at the five major grammatical categories of English (i.e. the five categories with the largest membership), viz. noun, verb, preposition, adjective and adverb. For typographical convenience, it is standard practice to use capital-letter abbreviations for categories, and so to use N for noun, V for verb, P for preposition, A for adjective and ADV for adverb. The words which belong to these five categories are traditionally said to be contentives (or content words), in that they have substantive descriptive content.

However, in addition to content words languages also contain **functors (or function words) –** i.e. words which serve primarily to carry information about the grammatical function of particular types of expression within the sentence (e.g. information about grammatical properties such as person, number, gender, case, etc.). The differences between contentives and functors can be illustrated by comparing a (contentive) noun like *car* with a (functional) pronoun like *they*. A noun like *car* has obvious descriptive content in that it denotes an object which typically has four wheels and an engine, and it would be easy enough to draw a picture of a typical *car*; by contrast, a pronoun such as *they* has no descriptive content (e.g. you can't draw a picture of *they*), but rather is a functor which (as we shall see shortly) simply encodes a set of grammatical (more specifically, person, number and case) properties in that it is a third person plural nominative pronoun.

One test of whether words have descriptive content is to see whether they have antonyms (i.e. opposites): if a word has an antonym, it is a contentive (though if it has no antonym, you can't be sure whether it is a functor or a contentive). For example, a noun such as *loss* has the antonym *gain*; a verb such as *rise* has the

antonym *fall*; an adjective such as *tall* has the antonym *short*; an adverb such as *early* (as in *He arrived early*) has the antonym *late*; and a preposition such as *inside* has the antonym *outside*. This reflects the fact that nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs and prepositions typically have substantive descriptive content, and so are contentives. By contrast, a particle like infinitival *to*, or an auxiliary like *do* (cf. '*Do* you want *to* smoke?'), or a determiner like *the*, or a pronoun like *they*, or a complementizer (i.e. complement-clause introducing particle) like *that* (as used in a sentence like 'I said *that* I was tired') have no obvious antonyms, and thus can be said to lack descriptive content, and so to be functors. Using rather different (but equivalent) terminology, we can say that **contentives have substantive lexical content** (i.e. idiosyncratic descriptive content which varies from one lexical item/word to another), whereas **functors have functional content**. We can then conclude that nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs and prepositions are lexical or substantive categories (because the words belonging to these categories have substantive lexical/descriptive content) whereas particles, auxiliaries, determiners, pronouns and complementizers are functional categories (because words belonging to these categories have an essentially grammatical function).

Determiners and quantifiers

The first type of functional category which we shall deal with is the category of determiner (D or DET). Items such as those bold-printed in (1) below (as used there) are traditionally said to be (referential) determiners (because they determine the referential properties of the italicized noun expression which follows them):

(1a) **The** *village store* is closed. (b) **This** *appalling behaviour* has got to stop
(c) **That** *dog of yours* is crazy

Referential determiners are used to introduce referring expressions: an expression like *the car* in a sentence such as *Shall we take the car?* is a referring expression in the sense that it is typically used to refer to a specific car which is assumed to be familiar to the hearer/addressee.

A related class of words are those which belong to the category quantifier (Q), and this is traditionally said to include items like those bold-printed below:

(2a) **Mos**t *good comedians* tell some *bad jokes* (b) **Many** *students* have no *money*
(c) **Every** *true Scotsman* hates all *Englishmen* (d) **Each** *exercise* contains several *examples*

Such items are termed quantifiers because they serve to quantify the italicized noun expression which follows them. Since determiners and quantifiers are positioned in front of nouns (cf. *the boys* and *many boys*), and adjectives can similarly be positioned in front of nouns (cf. *tall boys*), an obvious question to ask at this point is why we couldn't just say that the determiners/quantifiers in (1) and (2) have the categorial status of adjectives. The answer is that any attempt to analyze determiners or quantifiers as adjectives in English runs up against a number of serious descriptive problems. Let's see why.

One reason for not subsuming determiners/quantifiers within the category of

adjectives is that they are syntactically distinct from adjectives in a variety of ways. For example, adjectives can be iteratively (i.e. repeatedly) stacked in front of a noun they modify, in the sense that you can go on putting more and more adjectives in front of a given noun (as in *handsome strangers*, *dark handsome strangers*, *tall dark handsome strangers*, *sensitive tall handsome strangers*, etc.). By contrast, **neither determiners nor quantifiers can be stacked in this way (so that although we can have a quantifier + determiner + noun** expression like *both the twins*, we cannot have a multiple determiner expression like **the these books* or a multiple quantifier expression such as **all both twins*).
Moreover, determiners, quantifiers and adjectives can be used together to modify a noun, but when they do so, **any determiner or quantifier modifying the noun has to precede any adjective(s) modifying the noun**: cf. e.g.

(3a) the *same old* excuses [determiner + *adjective* + *adjective* + noun]
(b) **same* the *old* excuses [*adjective* + determiner + *adjective* + noun]
(c) **same old* the excuses [*adjective* + *adjective* + determiner + noun]

Thus, determiners and quantifiers seem to have a different distribution (and hence to be categorically distinct) from adjectives.

A further difference between determiners/quantifiers and adjectives can be illustrated in relation to what speaker B can – and cannot – reply in the following dialogue:

(3) SPEAKER A: What are you looking for?
SPEAKER B: *Chair/**Comfortable* chair/*A* chair/*Another* chair/*The* chair/*That* chair

As noted earlier, nouns like *chair* have the property that they are countable (in the sense that we can say *one chair*, *two chairs*, etc.), and in this respect they differ from mass nouns like *furniture* which are uncountable (hence we can't say **one furniture*, **two furnitures*, etc). We see from (3) that a singular count noun like *chair* cannot stand on its own as a complete noun expression, nor indeed can it function as such even if modified by an adjective like *comfortable*; rather, a singular count noun requires a modifying determiner or quantifier like *a*/*another*/*the*/*that* etc. This provides us with clear evidence that determiners and quantifiers in English have a different categorial status from adjectives.

Indeed, a more general property which differentiates determiners/quantifiers from adjectives is that determiners/quantifiers tend to be restricted **to modifying nouns which have specific number (or countability) properties.** For example, *a* modifies a singular count noun, *much* modifies a (singular) mass noun, *several* modifies a plural count noun, *more* modifies either a plural count or a (singular) mass noun:

(4a) Can you pass me a *chair*/*a *chairs*/*a *furniture*?
(b) He doesn't have much *furniture*/*much *chair*/*much *chairs* of his own
(c) He bought several *chairs*/*several *chair*/*several *furniture* in the sale
(d) Do we need more *furniture*/more *chairs*/*more *chair*?

By contrast, typical adjectives like *nice*, *simple*, *comfortable*, *modern*, etc. can

generally be used to modify all three types of noun: cf.

(5a) We need a nice, simple, comfortable, modern *chair*
(b) We need some nice, simple, comfortable, modern *chairs*
(c) We need some nice, simple, comfortable, modern *furniture*

(It should be noted, however, that a determiner like *the* can also be used to modify singular/plural count and noncount nouns alike.)

It seems reasonable to suppose that determiners and quantifiers are functional categories whereas adjectives are a lexical/substantive category. After all, there is an obvious sense in which adjectives (e.g. *thoughtful*) have descriptive content but determiners and quantifiers do not – as we can illustrate in terms of the following contrast (*?* and *!* are used to denote increasing degrees of semantic/pragmatic anomaly):

(6a) a thoughtful *friend*/? *cat*/?? *fish*/? !*pan*/ !*problem*
(b) a/another/every/the/this *friend* / *cat* / *fish* / *pan* / *problem*

As (6a) illustrates, an adjective like *thoughtful* can only be used to modify certain types of noun; this is because its descriptive content is such that it is only compatible with (e.g.) an expression denoting a rational (mind-possessing) entity. By contrast, determiners/quantifiers like those bold-printed in (6b) lack specific descriptive content, and hence can be used to modify any semantic class of noun (the only restrictions being grammatical in nature – e.g. *a(n)*/*another* can only be used to modify a singular count noun expression). Thus, it seems appropriate to conclude that determiners and quantifiers are functional categories, and adjectives a lexical category.

Some linguists (e.g. Lyons 1999 and Adger 2003) treat quantifiers as a subtype of determiner and hence assign them to the category D: one possibility along these lines is to suppose that items like *the/this/that* are definite determiners, and those like *a/some/many* are indefinite determiners (and such a categorization could be said to be implicit in the traditional claim that *the* is a 'definite article' and *a* an 'indefinite article').

However, the fact that a determiner like *the* can combine with a quantifier like *all/every* in a sentence like:

(7) *All* the servile courtiers pandered to the *every* witless whim of King Kostas of Kostalotte

provides some syntactic evidence that the two have different distributions and hence may belong to different categories. Moreover, quantifiers and determiners exhibit different syntactic behaviour in respect of questions such as:

(8a) Who didn't he want [*any* pictures of]? (b) ??Who didn't he want [*the* pictures of]?

In both cases, *who* is the complement of the word *of* and is moved to the front of the sentence from its original position after *of*. But whereas fronting *who* when it is the complement of the quantifier expression *any pictures of* results in a grammatical

sentence, fronting *who* when it is the complement of a determiner expression like *the pictures of* generally leads to a sentence of rather more questionable grammaticality. So, sentences like (7) and (8) could be said to provide evidence that quantifiers and determiner are syntactically distinct and so belong to different categories.

Pronouns

Traditional grammars posit a category of pronoun (which we can abbreviate as PRN) to denote a class of words which are said to 'stand in place of' (the meaning of the prefix *pro-*) or 'refer back to' noun expressions. However, there are reasons to think that there are a number of different types of pronoun found in English and other languages. One such type is represented by the word *one* in the use illustrated below:

(9a) John has a red car and Jim has a blue *one*
(b) I'll take the green apples if you haven't got any red *ones*

From a grammatical perspective, *one* behaves like a regular count noun here in that it has the *s*-plural form *ones* and occurs in a position (after an adjective like *blue/red*) in which a count noun could occur.

However, it is a *pronoun* in the sense that it has no descriptive content of its own, but rather takes its descriptive content from its antecedent (e.g. *one* in (9a) refers back to the noun *car* and so *one* is interpreted as meaning 'car'). Let's refer to this kind of pronoun as an N-pronoun (or pronominal noun). By contrast, in the examples in (10) below, the bold-printed pronoun seems to serve as a pronominal quantifier. In the first (italicized) occurrence in each pair of examples, it is a prenominal (i.e. noun preceding) quantifier which modifies a following noun expression (viz. *guests/miners/protesters/son/ cigarettes/bananas*); in the second (bold-printed) occurrence it has no noun expression following it and so functions as a pronominal quantifier:

(10a) *All guests* are welcome/**All** are welcome
(b) *Many miners* died in the accident/**Many** died in the accident
(c) *Several protesters* were arrested/**Several** were arrested
(d) *Each son* was envious of the other/**Each** was envious of the other
(e) I don't have *any cigarettes*/I don't have **any**
(f) We have *no bananas*/We have **none**

We might therefore refer to **pronouns like those bold-printed in (10) as Q-pronouns (or pronominal quantifiers).** If question words like *which?/what?* in expressions like *which books?/what idea?* are interrogative quantifiers, it follows that interrogative pronouns like those italicized in the examples below:

(11a) *What* have you been doing? (b) *Which* did you choose? (c) *Who* is she talking to?

are also Q-pronouns.

A third type of pronoun are those bold-printed in the examples below:

(12a) I prefer *this tie*/I prefer **this**
(b) I haven't read *that book*/I haven't read **that**

(c) I don't particularly like *these hats*/I don't particularly like **these**
(d) Have you already paid for *those items*/Have you already paid for **those**?

Since the relevant words can also serve (in the italicized use) as prenominal determiners which modify a following noun, we can refer to **them as D-pronouns (i.e. as pronominal determiners**).

A further type of pronoun posited in traditional grammar are so-called **personal pronouns** like *I*/*me*/*we*/*us*/*you*/*he*/*him*/*she*/*her*/*it*/*they*/*them*. These are called personal pronouns not because they denote people (the pronoun *it* is not normally used to denote a person), but rather because **they encode the grammatical property of person**. In the relevant technical sense, *I*/*me*/*my*/*we*/*us*/*our* are said to be first person pronouns, in that they are expressions whose reference includes the person/s speaking; *you*/*your* are second person pronouns, in that their reference includes the addressee/s (viz. the person/s being spoken to), but excludes the speaker/s; *he*/*him*/*his*/*she*/*her*/*it*/*its*/*they*/*them*/*their* are third person pronouns in the sense that they refer to entities other than the speaker/s and addressee/s.
Personal pronouns differ morphologically from nouns and other pronouns in modern English in that they generally have (partially) distinct nominative, accusative and genitive case forms, whereas nouns have a common nominative/accusative form and a distinct genitive 's form – as we see from the contrasts below:

(13a) *John* snores/He snores (b) Find *John*!/Find him!
(c) Look at *John's* trousers!/ Look at his trousers!

Personal pronouns like he/him/his and nouns like John/John's change their morphological form according to the position which they occupy within the sentence, so that the nominative forms *he*/*John* are required as the subject of a finite verb like *snores*, whereas the accusative forms *him*/*John* are required when used as the complement of a transitive verb like *find* (or when used as the complement of a transitive preposition), and the genitive forms *his/John's* are required (inter alia) when used to express possession: these variations reflect different case forms of the relevant items.

Personal pronouns are functors by virtue of lacking descriptive content: whereas a noun like *dogs* denotes a specific type of animal, a personal pronoun like *they* denotes no specific type of entity, but has to have its reference determined from the linguistic or nonlinguistic context. Personal pronouns encode the grammatical properties of (first, second or third) person, (singular or plural) number, (masculine, feminine or neuter/inanimate) gender and (nominative, accusative or genitive) case, as shown in the table in (1) below:

Table 1: Table of personal pronoun forms

Person	Number	Gender	Nominative	Accusative	Genitive
1	SG	M/F	*I*	*me*	*my/mine*
1	PL	M/F	*we*	*us*	*our/ours*
2	SG/PL	M/F	*you*	*you*	*your/yours*
3	SG	M	*he*	*him*	*his*
3	SG	F	*she*	*her*	*her/hers*

3	SG	N	*it*	*it*	*its*
3	PL	M/F/N	*they*	*them*	*their/theirs*

(SG = singular; PL = plural; M = masculine; F = feminine; N = neuter.

But what grammatical category do personal pronouns belong to? Studies by Postal (1966), Abney (1987), Longobardi (1994) and Lyons (1999) suggest that they are D-pronouns. This assumption would provide us with a unitary analysis of the syntax of the bold-printed items in the bracketed expressions in sentences such as (14a/b) below:

(14a) [**We** *politicians*] don't trust [**you** *journalists*] (b) [**We**] don't trust [**you**]

Since *we* and *you* in (14a) modify the nouns *politicians/journalists* and since determiners like *the* are typically used to modify nouns, it seems reasonable to suppose that *we*/*you* function as prenominal determiners in (14a). But if this is so, it is plausible to suppose that *we* and *you* also have the categorial status of determiners (i.e. D-pronouns) in sentences like (14b). It would then follow that *we*/*you* have the categorial status of determiners in both (14a) and (14b), but differ in that they are **used *pre*nominally (i.e. with a following noun expression) in (14a), but *pro*nominally (i.e. without any following noun expression) in (14b)**. Note, however, that third person pronouns like *he*/*she*/*it*/*they* are typically used only pronominally – hence the ungrammaticality of expressions such as **they boys* in standard varieties of English.
Whether or not such items are used prenominally, pronominally or in both ways is a lexical property of particular items (i.e. an idiosyncratic property of individual words).

Although the D-pronoun analysis has become the 'standard' analysis of personal pronouns over the past three decades, it is not entirely without posing problems. For example, a typical D-pronoun like *these*/*those* can be premodified by the universal quantifier *all*, but a personal pronoun like *they* cannot: cf.

(15a) *All* these are broken (b) *All* those are broken (c) **All* they are broken

Such a contrast is unexpected if personal pronouns like *they* are D-pronouns like *those/these*, and clearly raises questions about the true status of personal pronouns.

Complementizers

The last type of functional category which we shall look at is that of **complementizer** (abbreviated to **COMP** in earlier work and to **C** in more recent work): this is a term used to describe the kind of (italicized) word which is used to introduce complement clauses such as those bracketed below:

(20a) I think [*that* you may be right] (b) I doubt [*if* you can help me]
(c) I'm anxious [*for* you to receive the best treatment possible]

Each of the bracketed clauses in (20) is a complement clause, in that it functions as the complement of the word immediately preceding it (*think*/*doubt*/*anxious*); the italicized word which introduces each clause is known in work since 1970 as a **complementizer** (but was known in more traditional work as a particular type of subordinating conjunction). Complementizers are functors in the sense that they encode particular sets of grammatical properties. For example, complementizers

encode (non)finiteness by virtue of the fact that they are intrinsically finite or nonfinite. More specifically, the complementizers *that* and *if* are inherently finite in the sense that they can only be used to introduce a finite clause (i.e. a clause containing a present or past tense auxiliary or verb), and not e.g. an infinitival *to*-clause; by contrast, *for* is an inherently infinitival complementizer, and so can be used to introduce a clause containing infinitival *to*, but not a finite clause containing a tensed auxiliary like (past tense) *should*; compare the examples in (20) above with those in (21) below:

(20a) *I think [*that* you **to** be right] (b) *I doubt [*if* you **to** help me]
(c) *I'm anxious [*for* you **should** receive the best treatment possible]

(20a/b) are ungrammatical because *that*/*if* are finite complementizers and so cannot introduce an infinitival *to* clause; (20c) is ungrammatical because *for* is an infinitival complementizer and so cannot introduce a finite clause containing a past tense auxiliary like *should*. Complementizers in structures like (19) serve three grammatical functions. Firstly, they mark the fact that the clause they introduce is an **embedded clause** (i.e. a clause which is contained within another expression – in this case, within a main clause containing *think/doubt/anxious*). Secondly, they serve to indicate whether the clause they introduce is **finite** or **nonfinite** (i.e. denotes an event taking place at a specified or unspecified time): *that* and *if* serve to introduce finite clauses, while *for* introduces nonfinite (more specifically, infinitival) clauses. Thirdly, complementizers mark the **force** of the clause they introduce: typically, *if* introduces an **interrogative** (i.e. question-asking) clause, *that* introduces a **declarative** (statement-making) clause and *for* introduces an **irrealis** clause (i.e. a clause denoting an 'unreal' or hypothetical event which hasn't yet happened and may never happen).

However, an important question to ask is whether we really need to assign words such as *for*/*that*/*if* (in the relevant function) to a new category of C/complementizer, or whether we couldn't simply treat (e.g.) *for* as a preposition, *that* as a determiner, and *if* as an adverb. The answer is 'No', because there are significant differences between complementizers and other apparently similar words. For example, one difference between the complementizer *for* and the preposition *for* is that the preposition *for* has substantive lexical semantic content and so (in some but not all of its uses) can be intensified by *straight*/*right*, whereas the complementizer *for* is a functor and can never be so intensified: cf.

(21a) He headed *straight*/*right* **for** the pub [*for* = preposition]
(b) The dog went *straight*/*right* **for** her throat [*for* = preposition]
(c) *He was anxious *straight*/*right* **for** nobody to leave [*for* = complementizer]
(d) *It is vital *straight*/*right* **for** there to be peace [*for* = complementizer]

Moreover, the preposition *for* and the complementizer *for* also differ in their syntactic behaviour. For example, a clause introduced by the complementizer *for* can be the subject of an expression like *would cause chaos*, whereas a phrase introduced by the preposition *for* cannot: cf.

(22a) *For him to resign* would cause chaos [= *for*-clause]
(b) **For him* would cause chaos [= *for*-phrase]

What makes it even more implausible to analyze infinitival *for* as a preposition is the fact that (boldprinted) prepositions in English aren't generally followed by a [bracketed] infinitive complement, as we see from the ungrammaticality of:

(23a) *She was surprised **at** [*there to be nobody to meet her*]
(b) *I'm not sure **about** [*you to be there*]
(c) *I have decided **against** [*us to go there*]

On the contrary, the only verbal complements which can be used after prepositions are gerund structures containing a verb in the *-ing* form.

A further difference between the complementizer *for* and the preposition *for* is that the noun or pronoun expression following the preposition *for* (or a substitute interrogative expression like *who?/ what?/ which one?*) can be preposed to the front of the sentence (with or without *for*) if *for* is a preposition, but not if *for* is a complementizer. For example, in (24) below, *for* functions as a preposition and the (distinguished) nominal *Senator Megabucks* functions as its complement, so that if we replace *Senator Megabucks* by *which senator?* the wh-expression can be preposed either on its own (in informal styles of English) or together with the preposition *for* (in formal styles): cf.

(24a) I will vote **for** *Senator Megabucks* in the primaries
(b) *Which senator* will you vote **for** in the primaries? [= informal style]
(c) **For** *which senator* will you vote in the primaries? [= formal style]

However, in (25a) below, the italicized expression is not the complement of the complementizer *for* (the complement of *for* in (25a) is the infinitival clause *Senator Megabucks to keep his cool*) but rather is the subject of the expression *to keep his cool*; hence, even if we replace *Senator Megabucks* by the interrogative wh-phrase *which senator*, the wh-expression can't be preposed (with or without *for*):

(25a) They were anxious **for** *Senator Megabucks* to keep his cool
(c) **Which senator* were they anxious **for** to keep his cool?
(b) ***For** *which senator* were they anxious to keep his cool?

Furthermore, when *for* functions as a complementizer, the whole *for*-clause which it introduces can often (though not always) be substituted by a clause introduced by another complementizer; for example, the italicised *for*-clause in (26a) below can be replaced by the italicised *that*-clause in (26b):

(26a) Is it really necessary *for there to be a showdown*?
(b) Is it really necessary *that there (should) be a showdown*?

By contrast, the italicized *for*-phrase in (27a) below cannot be replaced by a *that*-clause, as we see from the ungrammaticality of (27b):

(27a) We are heading *for a general strike*
(b) *We are heading *that there (will) be a general strike*

So, there is considerable evidence in favour of drawing a categorial distinction between the preposition *for* and the complementizer *for*: they are different lexical items (i.e. words) belonging to different categories.

Consider now the question of whether the complementizer *that* could be analyzed as a determiner. At first sight, it might seem as if such an analysis could provide a straightforward way of capturing the apparent parallelism between the two uses of

that in sentences such as the following:

(28a) I refuse to believe **that** [*rumour*]
(b) I refuse to believe **that** [*Randy Rabbit runs Benny's Bunny Bar*]

Given that the word *that* has the status of a prenominal determiner in sentences such as (28a), we might suppose that it has the function of a preclausal determiner (i.e. a determiner introducing the following italicized clause *Randy Rabbit runs Benny's Bunny Bar*) in sentences such as (28b).

However, there is evidence against a determiner analysis of the complementizer *that*. Part of this is phonological in nature. In its use as a complementizer (in sentences such as (28b) above), *that* typically has the **reduced** form, whereas in its use as a determiner (e.g. in sentences such as (28a) above), *that* invariably has the **unreduced** form: the phonological differences between the two suggest that we are dealing with two different lexical items here (i.e. two different words), one of which functions as a complementizer and typically has a reduced vowel, the other of which functions as a determiner and always has an unreduced vowel.

Moreover, *that* in its use as a determiner (though not in its use as a complementizer) can be substituted by another determiner (such as *this*/*the*):

(29a) Nobody else knows about *that* incident/**this** incident/**the** incident (= determiner *that*)
(b) I'm sure *that* it's true/*__this__ it's true/*__the__ it's true (= complementizer *that*)

Similarly, the determiner *that* can be used pronominally (without any complement), whereas the complementizer *that* cannot: cf.

(30a) Nobody can blame you for *that* mistake (prenominal determiner)
(b) Nobody can blame you for *that* (pronominal determiner)

(31a) I'm sure *that* you are right (preclausal complementizer)
(b) *I'm sure *that* (pronominal complementizer)

The clear phonological and syntactic differences between the two argue that the word *that* which serves to introduce complement clauses is a different item (belonging to the category C/complementizer) from the determiner/D *that* which modifies noun expressions.

The third item which we earlier suggested might function as a complementizer in English is interrogative *if*. However, at first sight, it might seem as if there is a potential parallelism between *if* and interrogative wh-adverbs like *when*/*where*/*whether*, since they appear to occupy the same position in sentences like:

(32) I don't know [*where*/*when*/*whether*/*if* he will go]

Hence we might be tempted to analyze *if* as an interrogative adverb. However, there are a number of reasons for rejecting this possibility. For one thing, *if* differs from

interrogative adverbs like *where/ when/ whether* not only in its form (it isn't a *wh*-word, as we can see from the fact that it doesn't begin with *wh*), but also in the range of syntactic positions it can occupy. For example, whereas typical wh-adverbs can occur in finite and infinitive clauses alike, the complementizer *if* is restricted to introducing finite clauses – cf.

(33a) I wonder [*when/ where/ whether/ if* I should go] [= finite clause]
(b) I wonder [*when/ where/ whether/ *if* to go] [= infinitive clause]

Moreover, *if* is different from interrogative wh-adverbs (but similar to other complementizers) in that it cannot be used to introduce a clause which serves as the complement of a (bold-printed) preposition: cf.

(34a) I'm not certain **about** [*whether/ when/ where* he'll go]
(b) *I'm concerned **over** [*if* taxes are going to be increased]
(c) *I'm puzzled **at** [*that* he should have resigned]
(d) *I'm not very keen **on** [*for* you to go there]

Furthermore, some verbs (like *discuss*) can have a following complement introduced by *whether* or another wh-word, but not one introduced by *if*: cf.

(35a) They were discussing [*whether/when/where* he should go]
(b) *They were discussing [*if* he should go]

Finally, whereas a wh-adverb can typically be immediately followed by *or not*, this is not true of *if*: cf.

(36a) I don't know [*whether* or *not* he'll turn up]
(b) *I don't know [*if* or *not* he'll turn up]

For reasons such as these, it seems more appropriate to categorize *if* as an interrogative complementizer, and *whether/ where/ when* as interrogative adverbs. More generally, our discussion in this section highlights the need to posit a category C of **complementizer**, to designate clause-introducing items such as *if/ that/ for* which serve the function of introducing specific types of finite or infinitival clause.

Grammatical Functions

Words and other expressions fulfil grammatical functions within the sentences containing them. In this lecture, you will learn about grammatical functions such as subject, predicate, complement or object, adjunct, complex sentences, finite and nonfinite clauses.

Subject, predicate, complement or object[2]

Words and other expressions fulfil grammatical functions within the sentences containing them. We can illustrate this point in terms of the following set of sentences.

(1a) *John* smokes
(b) *The president* smokes
(c) *The president of Utopia* smokes

[2] The discussion in this section is taken from Radford (2004, 2009)

(d) *The former president of the island paradise of Utopia* smokes

Sentence (1a) comprises the noun *John* which serves the function of being the subject of the sentence (and denotes the person performing the act of smoking), and the verb smokes which serves the function of being the predicate of the sentence (and describes the act being performed). In (1a), the subject is the single noun *John*; but as the examples in (1b/c/d) show, the subject of a sentence can also be an (italicized) phrase like *the president*, or *the president of Utopia* or *the former president of the island paradise of Utopia*. Now consider the following set of sentences:

(2a) John smokes *cigars.*
(b) John smokes *Cuban cigars.*
(c) John smokes *Cuban cigars imported from Havana.*
(d) John smokes *a specific brand of Cuban cigars imported by a friend of his from Havana.*

Sentence (2a) comprises the subject *John*, the predicate *smokes* and the complement (or direct object) *cigars*. (The complement, *cigars,* describes the entity on which the act of smoking is being performed; as this example illustrates, subjects normally precede the verb with which they are associated in English, whereas complements typically follow the verb.) The complement in (2a) is the single noun *cigars*; but a complement can also be a phrase: in (2b), the complement of *smokes* is the phrase *Cuban cigars*; in (2c) the complement is the phrase *Cuban cigars imported from Havana*; and in (2d) the complement is the phrase *a specific brand of Cuban cigars imported by a friend of his from Havana*. A verb which has a noun or pronoun expression as its direct object complement is traditionally said to be transitive.

Arguments

From a semantic perspective, subjects and complements share in common the fact that they generally represent entities directly involved in the particular action or event described by the predicate. To use the relevant semantic terminology, we can say that subjects and complements are arguments of the predicate with which they are associated. Predicates may have one or more arguments, as we see from sentences such as (3) below, where each of the bracketed nouns is a different argument of the italicized predicate:

(3a) [John] *resigned.* (b) [John] *felt* [remorse] (c) [John] *sent* [Mary] [flowers]

A predicate like *resign* in (3a) which has a single argument is said to function as a one-place predicate (in the relevant use); one like *feel* in (3b) which has two arguments is a two-place predicate; and one like *send* in (3c) which has three arguments is a three-place predicate.

Adjuncts

In addition to predicates and arguments, sentences can also contain adjuncts, as we can illustrate in relation to (4) below:

(4a) The president smokes a cigar *after dinner.* (b) The president smokes a cigar *in his office.*

In both sentences in (4), *smokes* functions as a two-place predicate whose two arguments are its subject *the president* and its complement *a cigar*. But what is the function of the phrase *after dinner* which also occurs in (4a)? Since *after dinner* isn't one of the entities directly involved in the act of smoking (i.e. it isn't consuming or being consumed), it isn't an argument of the predicate *smoke*. On the contrary, *after dinner* simply serves to provide additional information about the time when the smoking activity takes place. In much the same way, the italicized expression *in his office* in (4b) provides additional information about the location of the smoking activity. An expression which serves to provide (optional) additional information about the time or place (or manner, or purpose etc.) of an activity or event is said to serve as an adjunct. So, *after dinner* and *in his office* in (4a/b) are both adjuncts.

Word Order

Word order refers to the way words are arranged in a sentence. It is what makes sentences sensible. So, proper word order is an essential part of writing and speaking—when we put words in the wrong order, the result is a confusing, unclear, and an incorrect sentence.

Word order typology

The notion of a basic word order in terms of S, O, and V is common to a large number of studies in grammatical language typology: languages are typologized on the basis of the order in which S, O, and V typically occur in the simple sentences of the language. Word order typology is the study of the order of the syntactic constituents of a language, and how different languages can employ different orders. Correlations between orders found in different syntactic sub-domains are also of interest. The primary word orders that are of interest are the *constituent order* of a clause – the relative order of subject, object, and verb.

Some languages use relatively restrictive word order, often relying on the order of constituents to convey important grammatical information. Others—often those that convey grammatical information through inflection—allow more flexibility, which can be used to encode pragmatic information such as topicalization or focus. Most languages, however, have a preferred word order, and other word orders, if used, are considered "marked".
Most ***nominative-accusative languages*** - which have a major word class of **nouns** and clauses that include subject and object - define constituent word order in terms of the finite verb (V) and its arguments, the subject (S), and object (O).

There are six theoretically possible basic word orders for the transitive sentence. The overwhelming majority of the world's languages are either ***subject-verb-object*** (SVO) English and French or ***subject-object-verb*** (SOV) Japanese and Turkish, with a much smaller but still significant portion using ***verb-subject-object*** (VSO) word order as in Welsh. The remaining three arrangements are exceptionally rare, with ***verb-object-subject*** (VOS) as in Malagasy, being slightly more common than ***object-verb-subject*** (OVS), and ***object-subject-verb*** (OSV) Hixkaryana (Carib language of Northern Brazil), being the rarest.

Word order	English equivalent	Proportion of languages	Example languages
SOV	*She him loves*	45%	Proto-Indo-European, Sanskrit, Hindi, Ancient Greek, Latin, Japanese, Korean
SVO	*She loves him*	42%	Chinese, English, French, Hausa, Yorùbá, Italian, Malay, Russian, Spanish
VSO	*Loves she him*	9%	Biblical Hebrew, Arabic, Irish, Filipino, Tuareg-Berber, Welsh
VOS	*Loves him she*	3%	Malagasy, Baure, Proto-Austronesian
OVS	*Him loves she*	1%	Apalai, Hixkaryana,
OSV	*Him she loves*	0%	Warao

(wikipedia.org/word order)

In many languages, changes in word order occur due to topicalization or in questions. However, most languages are generally assumed to have a basic word order, called the unmarked word order; other, marked word orders can then be used to emphasize a sentence element, to indicate **modality** (such as an **interrogative modality**), or for other purposes.
For example, **English** is SVO (***subject-verb-object)*** as in

I don't know that

but OSV is also possible:

That I don't know.

This process is called **topic-fronting** (or *topicalization*) and is common.

In English, OSV is a *marked word order* because it emphasises the object, and is often accompanied by a change in **intonation**. An example of OSV being used for emphasis:

A: *I can't see Alice.* (SVO)
B: *What about Bill?*
A: ***Bill*** *I can see.* (OSV, rather than *I can see Bill*, SVO)

Non-standard word orders are also found in **poetry** in English, particularly archaic or romantic terms – as the wedding phrase

With this ring, I thee wed (SOV)
Thee I love (OSV)

as well as in many other languages.

Types of Word Order in English

The standard word order in English is ***Subject + Verb + Object***, this is the main pattern for normal sentences and there is one main pattern for sentences that ask a question.

a. Standard Word Order

A sentence's standard word order is Subject + Verb + Object (SVO).
Subject: typically, a noun or pronoun – the person, place or thing
Verb: the action or state of being
Object: the word or group of words influenced by the verb

The sequence of words is critical when communicating in English because it can impact the meaning of what you're trying to say. The sentence,

The chicken crossed the road

and

The road crossed the chicken

take on two different meanings because the subject and object are inverted. The same would be true if the verb was used out of order, for example: "Crossed the road the chicken."
The **subject** is what a sentence is about; so, it comes first. For example:

The dog (subject) *+ eats* (verb) *+ popcorn* (object).

The subject comes first in a sentence because it makes our meaning clear when writing and speaking. Then, the verb comes after the subject, and the object comes after the verb; and that's the most common word order. Otherwise, a sentence doesn't make sense, like this:

Eats popcorn the dog. (verb + object + subject)
Popcorn the dog eats. (object + subject + verb*)*

b. Questions

When asking a question, we follow the order **auxiliary verb/modal auxiliary + subject + verb (ASV).** Auxiliary verbs and modal auxiliaries share meaning or function, many which are forms of the verb "to be." Auxiliary verbs can change form, but modal auxiliaries don't. Here's a chart to help you:

Auxiliary Verbs		
Be	**Do**	**Have**
am is are was were being been	does do did	has have had having
Modal Auxiliaries (Never change form)		
Can could should might may shall ought to must would will		

Questions follow the form **ASV**; or, if they have an object, **ASVO.** Here are some examples:

Can he cook? "Can" (auxiliary) "he" (subject) "cook" (verb)
Does your dog like popcorn? "Does" (A) "your dog" (S) "like" (V) "popcorn" (O)
Are you burning the popcorn? "Are" (A) "you" (S) "burning" (V) "popcorn" (O)

Parts of Word Order

While almost sentences need to follow the basic SVO word order, we add other words, like indirect objects and modifiers, to make them more detailed.

Indirect Objects

When we add an indirect object, a sentence will follow a slightly different order. Indirect objects always come between the verb and the object, following the pattern **SVIO**, like this:

I fed the dog some popcorn.

This sentence has "I" (subject) "fed" (verb) "dog" (indirect object) "popcorn" (direct object).

The Phrase

Definition of the Phrase

A phrase is a group of related words without a subject and a finite verb. It can also be defined as that unit of grammar typically but not necessarily containing more than one word but functions as a unit lacking the subject- predicate structure characteristics of clauses. Examine the following examples.

The girl	The beautiful girl
Joy	An influential man
James	The giant of Africa
Nigeria	

The Structure of the Phrase

As can be seen from the definition given above, a phrase in modern linguistic description can consist of one word as we have in the examples below.

Dogs	attack	fiercely	She	ate	often

In these examples, the single word in each column constitutes a phrase each. When a phrase is made up of just a word, that word is called the **head word** or simply the **head** of the phrase. The head of a phrase can therefore be simply defined as the minimal form of the phrase.

It is quite often common however, for other related words to occur with the head of the phrase as it is evident from the following examples.

Many dogs	can attack	quite fiercely
She alone	had been eating	particularly often

Words that occur with the head of a phrase are dependent on that head. Sometimes, a dependent word may precede the head of the phrase as in the following examples.

Many dogs, ***can*** attack, ***quite*** fiercely, ***had been*** eating, ***particularly*** often

The dependent words italicised and boldfaced in the above examples precede the head words. Sometimes however, the dependent word can follow the head word of the phrase. e.g. she alone, where **alone** is the dependent word which follows the head word **she.**

Whenever the phrase is made up of a head and (a) dependent word(s), the head can be identified using the criterion of substitution or replacement. Thus a word which is distributionally equivalent or can substitute for the entire phrase is the head. Let us examine the examples in (a) and (b) below.

a. This sweet potato tastes incredibly nice
b. Potato tastes nice

These examples show that the phrase *this sweet potato* and *incredibly nice* in (a) can be replaced by *potato* and *nice* respectively as in sentence (b). This means that *potato* and *nice* are the head words in the phrases which contain them. Other examples of dependent words that precede or follow a head word occur in the following sentence.

That beautiful car in the garage belongs to me.

In this example, the dependent words that precede the head word 'car' are 'that' and 'beautiful', while the dependent string of words that follow this head word is 'in the garage'.

In some model of linguistic description, the dependent word which precedes the head of a phrase is referred to as the **modifier** while the dependent word which follows the head of a phrase is called the **qualifier.**

Modifier = M; Head = H; Qualifier = Q

The phrase 'That beautiful car in the garage' can be structurally analyzed as follows:

H=car, M= that beautiful, Q= in the garage or

M	M	H	Q
That	beautiful	car	in the garage

In linguistic literature, modifiers are also referred to as **pre-modifiers** while qualifiers are called **post-modifiers**.

The Noun Phrase (NP)

In some model of grammatical analysis, the Noun Phrase (NP) is referred to as the nominal group. In its structure, the NP comprises of the head word which may be preceded by some pre-modification and followed by some post modification.

M1	M2	H	Q
That	beautiful	car	in the garage

It is important to emphasize that the only obligatory element is the head word. Both the pre-modification and the post modification are optional.

The head of the NP may be a noun or a pronoun. On the other hand, the modifiers may belong to a number of different word-class e.g. articles, demonstratives, possessives (these are normally called identifiers) or they may be numerals (quantifiers), adjectives or nouns. Examples are given below.

M1 M2 M3 M4 H
Those five beautiful country houses
M1- article; M2-numeral; M3- adjective; M4- noun.

M1 M2 M3 M4 H
My three fierce police dogs

M1 M2 M3 M4 M5 H
All the five troublesome village policemen

Another type of pre-modification is the genitive case or the NP in the genitive which is marked in English language by an apostrophe and s. for example, in the sentence below,

M1 M2 M3 M4 H
That young man's elegant stupid female secretary

that young man's is the NP in the genitive.

The post modification qualifiers may be words, phrases or clauses as is evident in the following examples.

M H Q
The funds available are not sufficient.

M H Q
The car in the garage belongs to me.

M H Q
The dog which I bought last year

The NP can occupy five important positions where a noun can be found in a sentence. These are:

The subject of a verb e.g. That young boy has succeeded.

Object of a verb e.g. I have married the lady. We have a good reputation.

Complement of a preposition.e.g. He is afraid of that man.

Complement of a verb e.g. He is the president.

Complement of an object e.g. They name that lady a prostitute.

Appositive Phrase

An Appositive Phrase is usually an NP that gives more information about a noun, a pronoun, or a noun phrase. It can be used in place of a noun, a pronoun or a noun phrase it talks more about. Appositive phrases are marked off by commas at the beginning and at the end in a construction.
Examples are underlined in the examples below.

Jesus Christ, the Lord of lords, will reward you accordingly.
Things Fall Apart, Chnua Achebe's first novel, is a classic.

Prepositional Phrase (PP)

A Prepositional Phrase (PP) is one headed by a preposition. It obligatorily has a noun phrase as complement. Some examples are given below.

I saw the boy at the park. Behind a successful man is the woman.

Put it inside the room. The wife of my son is very godly.

My dear wife is an embodiment of virtues.

The Verb Phrase

The head of the Verb Phrase (VP) is the verb. However, there is no agreement among linguists on the exact structure of the VP. For some linguists for instance, all the elements of the VP are verbs of one kind or another. In other words, the head word which is also a verb is accompanied by other verbs commonly referred to as auxiliary verbs to distinguish them from the head verb which is called a lexical verb. Consider the examples below.

	M	M	H
John	may	have	gone

	M	M	M	H
He	should	have	been	killed

As can be seen from these examples, the lexical verb is always the last element in the VP.
Other linguists have a much broader definition of a VP. For such linguists, a VP is equivalent to the predicate of a sentence. Under that view, the underlined in the following sentences are VPs.

John may have gone. John may have gone to the market.

John bought a very fine car last week.

For some linguists still, while the modifiers of the head word are auxiliary verbs, the qualifiers are particles that are particularly closely linked to the head word (verb).

	H	Q
The clock	runs	down

	M	M	H	Q
John	may	have	run	across a friend

For such linguists, particles that are loosely linked to the head verb and which can be freely interchanged with other particles are not part of the VP.

Types of Verb Phrases

Finite Verb Phrase: These are those containing finite forms of the verb i.e. verb forms which indicate tense and are associated with a particular subject e.g. 1st, 2nd or 3rd person. Such verb forms vary according to the person and number of the subject. Examples of finite VP in English language are underlined in the following sentences.

John is walking. John was walking John walked John walks

In fact, all forms of the verb with the exception of infinitive and participle are finite. A finite VP can occur on its own in an independent or main clause.

Gerundive Phrase: A gerund is a verbal noun. In English, it is the '-ing' form of a verb (present participle form) used as a noun. Examples are underlined in the sentences below.

Rioting is evil They are fond of murmuring

A gerundive phrase is a phrase headed by a gerund. The underlined parts of the sentences below are examples.

Shouting when praying, is common these days.
The law does not allow smoking in public places.

Participial Phrase: A Participial Phrase is a phrase headed by the participle form of a verb in English. Participial phrases function as adjectives. Examples are underlined below.

Shocked by the comments of her friends, the lady decided to resign from her appointment.

Having apologized, they can now present their case.

Infinitival Phrase: The Infinitival Phrase is a phrase headed by an infinitive verb. It can function as a noun, an adjective or an adverb. Examples are given below.

To have a house is different from to have a home.
To control a woman is difficult. This is a woman to honour.
It is nice to know God. They stood up to greet him.

The Adjective Phrase

The Adjective Phrase (AP) functions to modify a noun. Its head is an adjective. In structure, an AP may consist of only the head. In fact, many APs have this type of structure. However, an AP may consist of the head and some pre-modification and post modification. The pre-modification are usually adverbs, particularly the sub-class of intensifying adverbs.

Examples
M H
Very intelligent boy

M H

Highly satisfactory reply

Post modifications are complements. Such complements may be a prepositional phrase, an infinitive clause or a that-clause.

Examples

H Q= PP
Anxious about his result

H Q= Infinitive clause
Anxious to do the right thing

H Q= that- clause
Anxious that somebody may replace her

Functions of Adjective Phrases

APs like adjectives have two uses or functions. These are the attributive function and the predicative function. An AP performs the attributive function when it precedes or occasionally follows a noun within an NP. Examples are given below.

That very fine house has been destroyed.
The man, complaining loudly, ran out of the House of Assembly.

APs that follow 'copula' verbs perform a predicative function.

His letter was very interesting.

There are APs that perform both predicative and attributive functions.

His letter was very interesting. - predicative function
I received a very interesting letter - attributive function
That very interesting letter has been destroyed – attributive function

On the other hand, some APs perform either attributive or predicative function only.

Attributive function only: A mere youth; the main event
Predicative function only: The boy is alone. The lion is asleep.

Adverb Phrase (AdvP)

The head of an Adverb Phrase (AdvP) is an adverb. In effect, an AdvP may consist of only an adverb in its structure. Many AdvPs are of this type of structure.

Examples: He ran quickly. John ate well

However, an AdvP may also consist of the head word, which is an adverb and other adverbs modifying this head word.

Examples

M H
He ran very quickly.

M H
John ate amazingly well.

AdvP have the following uses or functions: Adjunct function; Conjunct function

Adjunct function: The adjunct function is the principal function of the AdvP. AdvPs perform this function when they provide information about the place, time, and manner, cause of the action or event talked about in the clause in which the AdvPs occur.

Examples: He ran very quickly- manner She sang too often - time

Conjunct function: AdvPs that link or conjoin one clause to another perform a conjunct function. The number of AdvPs that perform this function is limited and such AdvPs do not normally contain modifiers in their structure.

Example: She is inefficient, therefore, cannot be considered for a post, besides, we already have a better person.

AdvPs that indicate the speaker's attitudes or stance to what he is saying perform a disjunct function. Such disjunct adverbs normally occur in front of the sentence or clause. They may contain modifiers in their structure occasionally.

Example: Frankly, John cannot do that job.

The Clause

Introduction

The clause is another principal unit of grammatical description next to the sentence in rank. I will define and explain the various functions the clause can perform in human utterances.

After you have studied this lecture, you ought to be able to identify the clause, explain the various functions performed by the clause and give a vivid account of the types of clauses in human language.

Definition: A clause is a group of related words containing a subject and a verb.

Types of Clauses

The clause can be divided into two main types based on their structure. These are the main clause and the subordinate clause.

Main Clause: The main clause is also known as the principal clause or the independent clause. It is a clause that can express complete thoughts and such can stand on its own.

Example: She believes in herself, and she succeeds in her efforts.

The sentence contains two main clauses (underlined), each capable of standing alone. Note, however, that if either of the underlined parts stood alone, it would be classified as a simple sentence, not as a clause. Clause necessarily implies the large whole of which it is a part.

Subordinate Clause: The subordinate clause is a clause that cannot stand on its own in that it does not express a complete thought. It is usually introduced by subordinating conjunctions such as **if, unless, that, because, while, whereas, when**,

etc.

Examples

Olú will leave if you abuse him.
Ọpẹ́ loves you because you respect her.
It stopped raining before I got there.

The subordinate clauses are underlined in the examples above.

Functions of Clauses

The clause performs a number of functions in language. It can be used as a noun (this is called the noun clause), as an adjective (called an adjectival or a relative clause), and as an adverb which is known as an adverbial clause.

The Noun Clause: A noun clause is a subordinate clause used as a noun. In the sentences below, the noun clauses are underlined.

He did not tell you what I wanted to do.
That we greet you always does not mean that we are sycophants.
We know what we need.

The Adjectival Clause: An adjectival clause is a subordinate clause used as an adjective. It is also called a relative clause. Some examples are underlined in the following sentences.

That house which I built is on the last street.
The man whom I invited will come very soon
Students that study Linguistics are always very brilliant.

The Adverbial Clause: An adverbial clause is a subordinate clause used as an adverb. It has the following types. Adverbial clause of time, answers the question 'when?' For example:

Before we responded, they had run away.
He was provoked when the man asked for a bribe.

Adverbial clause of place, answers the question 'where?'
Nobody knows where he is heading to. Where I will be tomorrow, you cannot say.

Adverbial clause of reason, answers the question 'why?'
She fainted because she was disappointed. I will make it because God is on my side.

Adverbial clause of concession tries to show contrast between the main clause and the subordinate clause. The markers of this clause include **although, though, even though.**

Although he prepared, he did not do well in the test.
Even though I know it, I won't tell you.

Adverbial clause of manner, answers the question 'how?'

He talks as if he is God. Jane dances as an insect does.

Adverbial clause of condition gives the condition under which something will happen.

Provided that you know him, you can consult him.
Unless God intervenes, the situation will get worse.

The Sentence

Introduction: The sentence is the last of the principal unit of grammatical description. I will, in this lecture, discuss the structures and functions of the sentence. At the end of this lecture, you should be able to analyze any sentence into its structure and identify the function it performs.

Definition of the Sentence: The sentence can be defined as a group of words having a subject and a predicate, which expresses a complete thought.

The structure of the Sentence: Four types of sentences can be identified when you examine the structure of the sentence. These are the simple sentence, the compound sentence, the complex sentence and the compound- complex sentence.
The simple sentence expresses a single complete thought. In English language, it has only one main verb.

Joy is wise. Ọpẹ́ bought that book. I will win many awards.

The compound sentence is a combination of at least two simple sentences.

He laughed but I have crossed the Rubicon.
We went to the hostel, begged him but he refused to listen to us.
We went to the hostel;
We begged him;
He refused to listen to us.

A complex sentence contains a main clause and at least one subordinate clause.
Examples: When I become a man, I will listen to you.
I will listen to you (main clause)
When I become a man (subordinate clause)
John was disturbed because the examination was at the corner.
John was disturbed (main clause)
Because the examination was at the corner (subordinate clause)

A compound-complex sentence is a combination of compound and complex sentences. It comprises at least two main clauses and at least one subordinate clause.

Example:
When you are criticized, examine yourself, but do not reply your critics so that they don't feel important.
Examine yourself (main clause)
Don't reply your critics (main clause)
When you are criticized (subordinate clause)

So that they don't feel important (subordinate clause)

Functions of the Sentence: The sentence can be used in four ways. These are declarative, imperative, interrogative and exclamatory.
The declarative sentence is a sentence that makes a statement of fact. It may be true or false, negative or affirmative. Examples:

Things are becoming more difficult. He did not listen to us.

The imperative sentence is one that makes a command or an entreaty. The subject is **you** but is often deleted because it is understood. Examples:

Stand up. Don't lose hope. Love your neighbour as yourself.

The exclamatory sentence is used to express a sudden feeling or emotion. Examples:

This is serious! Good God! What is this! Why am I so favoured!

Understanding Complex Structures

Introduction: In this unit, you will study the following: end focus, end weight and extraposition. These are terms used to refer to some complex structures employed in discourse.

Objective: The purpose of this lecture is for you to understand and know how to analyse and explain complex structures such as end focus, end weight ans extrposition.

End Focus

End Focus is the principle by which elements placed towards the end of a phrase, clause or sentence tend to receive the focus or prominence associated with new information. Compare:

1a. I'm giving Rosie this dress. b. I'm giving this dress to Rosie.

Sentences (1a) and (1b) suggest different situations: in (1a) 'this dress' is new information – the speaker may be showing the dress to a friend for the first time; in (1b) 'to Rosie' is new information – the hearer may be looking at the dress already, but Rosie is now being mentioned, for the first time, as its recipient. Thus, in both cases, there is a tendency to put new information in a position of prominence at the end. End focus is important to grammar, because it helps to explain why, where grammar offers a choice of different word orders; we choose one order rather than another. An example is the choice between active and passive. In spoken language, end focus tends to coincide with intonational emphasis.

End focus is the principle by which the most important information in a clause or sentence is put at the end. It is what we call the 'neutral position' of focus. That is, chief prominence is on the last open-class item or proper noun in the clause. It is the tendency to put new information towards the end of the clause.

It is important in grammar for it explains why, where grammar offers a choice of

different word orders. We choose one order rather than another.

Example: *The person who receives the utmost security guidance and support and whose life is mostly at risk is* ***the President****.*

In the above example, the information that is being talked about is 'the President'. It is the new information for it was put at the end of the sentence and also, it is the chief prominent because it is the most important. If it had not been included, the sentence would not make any sense. The principle that the most important information in a clause or sentence is placed at the end is a normal characteristic of sentence structure in English. Examples:

Given advice and the person is not yielding to the advice is very annoying

I will give the cup to Bola

Trying to sleep in a noisy environment is bad.

In the above examples, the underlined words are given prominence and are the end focus.

End Weight

In grammar, end weight is the principle by which longer and more complex units tend to occur later in the sentence than shorter and less complex units. For example, in sentences consisting of subject, verb and object, the subject is likely to be short and simple in comparison with the object. Where English grammar allows a choice of different word orders, end weight helps to explain the choice of one order rather than another. For example, we can vary the order of the particle and object in a phrasal verb construction such as *put* (something) *off.* When the object is a personal pronoun, the order object + particle is always preferred, as in *They put it off*. If the object is a longer noun phrase, for example the meeting, then both orders can be used:

2a. We'll have to *put* the meeting *off* b. We'll have to *put off* the meeting.

When the object is even longer and more complex, the position object + particle becomes increasingly unacceptable because of an increasing violation of the end weight principle:

3a. We'll have to *put* the next meeting of the General Assembly *off*.

b. We'll have to *put off* the next meeting of the General Assembly.

The order of (3b) is clearly much more acceptable than that of (3a). End weight is closely related to end focus.

In grammar, this is the principle by which longer structures tend to occur later in a sentence than shorter structures. End weight is the principle by which longer and more complex unit tends to occur in the end part of a sentence. Examples:

We would take the gifts given to us home

Instead of:

We would take **home** the gifts given to us

Take the ugly wrist watch off

Instead of:

Take off the ugly wrist watch

In the examples above, the underlined words are the end weight. The purpose of the end weight is to make the complex word of a sentence easier to pronounce.

Extraposition

Extraposition is a special construction where a subordinate clause, acting as subject of a main clause, is 'extraposed' – that is, placed at the end of the main clause – and replaced by *it* as an initial subject:

4a. [That the expedition failed] was a pity.
b. It was a pity [that the expedition failed].

Sentence (4a) illustrates the normal subject-verb order, and (4b) illustrates extraposition. Not only a *that*-clause, but nominal clauses in general can be 'extraposed' in this way. For example, an infinitive clause is extraposed in:

5a. It pays [to send your kids to a good school].

It is obvious that extraposition serves the purposes of end weight and end focus. Thus (5b) would be an extremely awkward violation of end weight if the normal subject-first order were used:

5b. [To send your kids to a good school] pays.

Extraposition is a special construction where a subordinate clause acting as a subject of a main clause is placed at the end of the main clause and replaced by the pronoun '**it**'.

Examples:

[To keep what belongs to another person] is wrong.

The above sentence is grammatically correct in a normal subject - verb order but for the sake of extraposition, it would be:

It is wrong [to keep what belongs to another person].

[That I will go home this weekend] is thrilling.

In an extraposition context, it would be:

It is thrilling [that I will go home].

[To go to school] is good.

Extraposition would be:

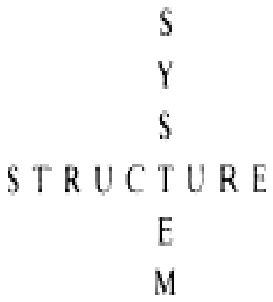
It is good [to go to school]

Paradigmatic and Syntagmatic Relations

Words we use are related both individually as they belong to the same group, and structurally as they have to select other words they combine with in a construction. These two relations are known as paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations. These relations are also known as system and structure or choices and chains. On the syntagmatic axis, words are linked, or chained, together according to grammatical rules, but we make choices about which words to link together on the paradigmatic axis, the axis of choice. The purpose of this lecture is to let you know how words are

related in constructions, therefore, after you have studied this lecture, you should be able to explain paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations in syntax as well as discuss the following types of relation: bi-lateral depedency, unilateral depedency, co-ordinate depedency and mutual excusion

The signs in the language system are interdependent. Each sign has a value, by which we mean something like meaning. Each sign has the value it has just because this is the value that all of the other signs have not got. The signs in the language system are related to each other in two ways: there are ***rules for their combination, and there are contrasts and similarities between them.*** These are also known as system and structure. The former relates to the concept of paradigmatic relation and the latter to the concept of syntagmatic relation, two concepts commonly ascribed to the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure (1857–1913). The following diagram is often used to indicate the concepts of system and structure.



Linguistic units function in terms of the interaction between system and structure. In so far as linguistic units follow and precede one another, they form sequential syntagmatic structural relations with each other. Simultaneously, they form paradigmatic relations with each other, since a linguistic unit is significantly, i.e. differentially, replaceable with another or others at that specific place in the structure, where all of the mutually replaceable linguistic units form a system. These two dimensions of language, combination and contrast/similarity, are commonly illustrated diagrammatically as two axes, the syntagmatic and the paradigmatic. The syntagmatic relation is the structure in the diagram above while the paradigmatic relation is the system.

On the syntagmatic axis, words are linked, or chained, together according to grammatical rules, but we make choices about which words to link together on the paradigmatic axis, the axis of choice. The relationship a given sign has with those with which it is combined on the syntagmatic axis is evident in any given sentence. The syntagmatic axis is solely concerned with structure.

Paradigmatic Relation

A paradigm is a set of all the different forms of a word; a set of associated signifies or signified which are all members of some defining category but in which each is significantly different. In natural language, there are grammatical paradigms such as verbs, articles, nouns, or pronouns. A paradigm could be further defined as the system of morphemic variations which is correlated with a parallel system of variations in environment. In other words, a paradigm is the changes in the shape of

linguistic form which matches a series of changes in position. E.g.: **go, going, went, gone** There is a system of morphemic variations in these words; this variation is correlated with a parallel system of variation in linguistic environment. However, these morphemic changes go hand-in-hand with a series of grammatical positions hence **go** can constitute the word in grammatical environment. For instance:

Present:	Should I **go** to that school?
Progressive:	Are you **going** to that school?
Past:	I **went** to that school.
Perfect:	I have **gone** to that school.

This shows that members of each of the set of verbs listed above are said to be in paradigm relation. A paradigmatic relationship is also defined as one where an individual sign may be replaced by another. Thus, for example, individual letters have a paradigmatic relationship with other letters, as where one letter is used; another may replace it (albeit changing meaning). Letters and numbers do not have a paradigmatic relationship. Paradigmatic relationships are typically associative, in that both items are in a single membership set. Paradigmatic relation can be viewed when a space is left to be occupied in a sentence. The choice of word that can occupy such position (on vertical level) is what is termed paradigmatic relationship. Example:

The	**snake**	bit	the	boy		The	**cat**	bit	the	boy
The	**dog**	bit	the	boy		The	**fox**	bit	the	boy

Paradigmatic relations are those contracted between items that are mutually substitutable in some context. Form classes are paradigmatic classes. For example, in the English NP we have a paradigmatic class of determiners including *a, the, some* etc. and a paradigmatic class of nouns including *man, boy, house.*

A book/ the book A man/ a boy/ a house

Paradigmatic relations are those which belong to the same set by virtue of a function they share. A sign enters into paradigmatic relations with all the signs which can also occur in the same context but not at the same time. In a given context, one member of the paradigm set is structurally replaceable with another. Signs are in paradigmatic relation when the choice of one excludes the choice of another. The use of one signifier (e.g. a particular word) rather than another from the same paradigm set. Paradigmatic relations can thus be seen as contrastive.

Syntagmatic Relation

A **syntagm** is a unit of language consisting of sets of phonemes, words, or phrases that are arranged in order. It is an orderly combination of interacting signifiers which forms a meaningful whole within a text, sometimes called a 'chain' such combinations are made within a framework of syntactic rules and conventions. In languages, a sentence, for instance is a syntagm of words.

In the formation of utterances, a number of linguistic units are joined in a structural bond according to the rule of utterance formation in that language. The units are said to be in syntagmatic relationship. Illustrations abound at the level of morphology, phonology and syntax. At the phonological level, these words **read / ri:d /, /fate /feit/.**

keg /keg/ consist of three phonemes each. Each of these is joined together in a structural bond to give phonetic shape of the whole word. They are all in syntagmatic relationship.

At the morphological level, words are also structurally bond, for instance, **strategically** is made up of morphemes; **strategy; -cal** and **-ly**. The three morphemes give the word **strategically** which are joined together in a structural bond. This shows a syntagmatic relationship at the morphological level. At the syntactic level, words are joined together in a bond to express thought. The NP, **the best writer**, is a syntactic unit exhibiting syntagmatic relationship between the words, **the, best,** and **writer.** If the same three words order in reversed form, we have **writer best the;** but in syntactic rules of English, these words are not bounded together structurally. There is no syntagmatic relationship, thus they cannot be regarded as an English phrase.

Syntagmatic relations are the various ways in which elements within the same texts may be related to each other. Syntagms are created by the linking of signifiers from paradigm sets which are chosen on the basis of whether they are conventionally regarded as appropriate or may be required by some rule system (e.g. grammar). Syntagmatic relations highlight the importance of part of the whole relationships. Syntagmatic relationships are often governed by structures such as spelling and grammar. They can also have less clear relationship, such as those of fashion and social meaning. Examples:

1. The cat ate the mouse. 2. !The mouse ate the cat. 3. *Cat the mouse ate the.

Structurally, examples (1 & 2) are grammatical i.e. in terms of S. V. O structure of sentence. Semantically (by meaning relation) only example (1) is acceptable or meaningful. It is absurd to believe that **a mouse** will eat **a cat**. So, example (2) is semantically faulty or bizarre, hence the mark ! before it. Example (3) violates word order (syntax) in English because it is the article that comes before a noun. So, 'cat' cannot occupy or fit in the position it is found in example (3), it is ungrammatical hence the mark * before the sentence to show ungrammaticality.

Syntagmatic relations are those contracted between forms or form classes within some structure. These may include relations of order e.g. in English NPs, the determiner must precede the noun.

A man/ *man a

But in Yorùbá NP, it must follow the noun

ọkùnrin náà/ *náà ọkùnrin
man the the man

It may be the relations of dependency e.g. the Yorùbá NP *ọmọ pupa* 'light-skinned child' have the obligatory head *ọmọ* 'child' and the adjective *pupa* light-skinned' dependent on the noun within the NP.

Both syntagmatic and pragmatic analyses treat signs as part of a system – exploring their functions within codes and sub-codes. We can further see in the table below:

R e l a t i o n s h i p s						
	Syntagmatic →					
↑ Paradigmatic ↓	A	dog	fell	in	this	chair
	The	cat	sat	on	the	mat
	That	man	ate	under	that	hut

In the above table, syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships are illustrated. The horizontal items have syntagmatic relationships as they follow on from one to another. The vertical items have paradigmatic relationships as in each column; items can be substituted for one another.

In general, syntagmatic analysis is the analysis of syntax or surface structure, syntagmatic means one element selects the other element either to precede it or follow it. E.g. the definite article 'the' selects a noun and not a verb.

Paradigmatic analysis is the analysis of paradigms embedded in the text rather than of the surface structure. It often uses commutation tests i.e. analysis by substituting words of the same type or class to calibrate shift in connotations.

Syntagmatic – words are linked according to grammatical rule
Paradigmatic – mutually substitute items e.g. form classes

Types of Relation: Mutual or bi-lateral dependency, unilateral dependency, Co-ordinate dependency, and mutual exclusion. These relationships are abstract relationships between sentence constituents; they are also functional relationships indicating the syntactic and semantic functions of constituents in their relationships with other constituents. The fact that these relationships are functional means that we need to find names to label the type of relationship involved – *modifier: head, possessor: possessed etc.* The relationships are in principle independent of any particular aspect of word or sentence form. For example, the unilaterally dependent relation *modifier: head* can be exemplified by constructions involving adjectives and nouns. In English, the relationship is realized in the order *Adj + N (the red book)* but in Yorùbá, in the reverse order *N + Adj (ìwé pupa náà* (book red the) without affecting the dependency. The Unilaterally dependent relation *possessor: possessed* (which is itself a type of modifier: head construction with the possessed as the head) can be realized in English by two constructions, *the son of the king* and *the king's son.* The dependency relation is the same in both constructions, but the word order is different and each construction requires different markers (of and –s) to the relationship.

Bi-lateral[3] or Mutual[4] Dependency[5]: Constructions involving bi-lateral or mutual dependency are called exocentric constructions. *An exocentric construction* is a construction in which the distribution of either constituent in such a construction is

[3] involving two groups of people
[4] actions that affect two or more people equally
[5] shared by two or more people

different from the distribution of the construction as a whole. Constituent structure rules introducing mutually dependent constituents are usually of the form:

X → Y + Z e.g. PP → P NP.

Transitive verbs and its object V + NP,
Locative verbs and their locative complement V + PP etc.

In a PP, the distribution of a PP as a whole is different from the distribution of either a P or of an NP; the two constituents of a PP. Many of the major syntactic relationship in all languages are mutually dependent.

In many bi-laterally dependent constructions, one constituent requires the other constituents to assume a particular grammatical form. In English, if the object of the preposition is the pronoun in a PP, the pronoun must be in the oblique form. E.g.: **to her; for him** but not ***to he, *for she.** This relationship is known as government, the P is the governor and governs the NP with which it is in construction.

Unilaterally Dependent Constructions

Here, one constituent is typically obligatory and the other, the dependent constituent is typically optional. These are called *endocentric constructions* in which the distribution of the construction as a whole parallel to that of the obligatory constituent. The obligatory constituent is called the head of the construction and the optional constituent, the modifier of the head. Constituent structure rules introducing unilaterally dependent constructions typically take the form:

X → (Y+) Z e.g. NP → (Det+) N

In English NPs, the distribution of unmodified nouns is parallel to that of nouns modified by determiners; the determiner is the modifier and the noun the head of the construction.

In unilaterally dependent constructions, the modifier must agree or concord with the head with respect to some particular grammatical category e.g.

number: demonstratives agree in number with the head N

this man, these men

Number and Gender agreement: German

ein junger mann 'a young man
eine junge frau 'a young woman'
ein junges madchen 'a young girl'

In cases as we have above, the head noun controls the form of the modifiers

Co-ordinate Dependency

In co-ordinate dependency, neither constituent depends syntactically on the other, each constituent has the same distribution as the construction as a whole. Constituent structure rules introducing co-ordinate dependency take the form:

X → X* e.g. Adj → Adj*

This introduces strings of adjectives like *a little old lady* i.e. a lady who is both little

and old. Many co-ordinate constructions include a marker of co-ordination like *and* or *or.* e.g.

My wife and I; You or your wife

though not all co-ordinate constructions show such a marker. Another case of co-ordinate dependency with no marker is appositive structures e.g. *President Jonathan, Professor Elugbe, Mr. Oboh, the faculty Officer, our father, who is in heaven.*

Relations of Exclusion

Here, where a constituent occurs, it does not permit the occurrence of a particular constituent. For example, verbs of state in English do not in general occur with progressive auxiliary verbs e.g.

**I am knowing Chinese, *Bill is seeming ill.*

Proper nouns in English do not typically co-occur with the definite article (**the John)* except when they co-occur with a relative clause (*the John I used to know)*, mass nouns do not co-occur with plural expressions (**these water)*

Interpreting Information

The sentence or clause conveys information which may be what the speaker assumed that the audience is familiar with or not previously known. At the end of the lecture, you should be able to explain given and new information, identify topic and comment in a sentence and discuss how theme and rheme are realized in clauses

Given and New Information

This is a classification of the information conveyed by a sentence, clause or other grammatical unit. Given information is information already assumed to be known by the audience or reader, and new information is information not previously known and therefore to be particularly brought to the hearer's or reader's attention. In speech, new information is signalled by intonation and stress. For example, in the following exchange, the words in capitals represent important new information and are also the words which are likely to be strongly stressed:

1. Will the match take place TOMORROW?
2. Well, it MAY do, but I hope it will be POSTPONED.

There is a tendency to place new information after given information that is to save up the important new information to the end of a sentence or clause. However, a speaker can vary the position of old and new information by varying the position of stress. Notice, for example, the difference of effect between (1) above and the same sentence (3) with a different major stress:

3. Will the match TAKE PLACE tomorrow?

Given Information

Given information is the information that is assumed by the speaker to be known to, assumed, or inferable by the addressee at the time of the speaker's utterance because the information is a common knowledge, or part of the extralinguistic

context, or previously established in the discourse. Given information is always placed early in a sentence and spoken with low amount of stress.

Types of Given Information

Given information has these types: Evoked entity, Inferable entity, predictable information and salient information. Evoked entity can also be subdivided into situationally evoked entity and textuallu evoked entity

Evoked Entity: This is a referent which is given information due to the fact that it has been previously mentioned in the text, also due to the prominence of the reference in the extralinguistic context.

Situationally Evoked Entity: It is a referent that is given information because of the prominence of the referent in the extralinguistic context. Example: *Could you bring the cup*?

The cup is previously unmentioned, but it is given information because there is only one cup and its existence is known.

Textually Evoked Entity: This is a referent that is given information because it has been previously included in the text. Example: *The guy I worked with says he knows your sister*

Since the referent of "he" has been previously mentioned in the text, it is textually evoked entity.

Inferable Entity: This is a referent that may be inferred by the addressee from other information that has already been given.

Example: *I got on a bus yesterday and the driver was drunk*

The mentioned of bus has made the driver inferable, a driver is assumed to be in the bus; thus the addressee may assume without further specification from the speaker that is the driver of the bus who is spoken of.

Predictable Information: This type of given information is the one that the speaker assumes can be or could have been predicted by the addressee to occur in a particular position in a sentence. Example: Ellipsis material in utterances is predictable information. Like the sentence below:

She bought stationery like pencils, biros…

From the sentence, it could be predicted from the ellipsis that other stationary that were not mentioned by the speaker are papers, books, envelopes etc.

Salient Information: This given information is that which the speaker assumes to be in the addressee's consciousness at the time of the speaker's utterance.

New Information

New information is the information that is assumed by the speaker not to be known to or assumed by the addressee or previously established in the discourse. It is

typically placed late in the sentence and it has a high amount of stress placed on the words representing it. In the following exchange, the stressed words (in capital letters) are new information.

A: Do you know where the PORTER is?
B: He has gone to the OFFICE.

Brand-new entity: Brand new entity is a referent that has not been mentioned previously in the discourse and it is assumed by the speaker to be previously unkown to the addressee.

Example: *The guy I worked with says he knows your sister*

"The guy I worked with" refers to a brand-new entity. However, when referred to again as "he" it is no longer a brand-new entity but salient information.

Anchored Entity: Anchored entity is a brand-new entity that is linked to another referent which is not brand-new by means of the inclusion of referring expression in the noun-phrase.

Example: *The guy I work with says he knows your sister*

In the above example, "guy" which is brand-new is anchored to the speaker by the noun-phrase "I work with"

Unused Entity: Unused entity is a referent referred to for the first time in the discourse, but assumed to be already a part of the addressees' knowledge.

Topic and Comment

In using these terms allowance is made to the fact that in uttering a (minimal) discourse unit the speaker 'says something about something'; in other words, **there is something that has to be regarded as the already established 'matter of current concern' about which new information is added.** The added information is named 'comment,' whereas the information that has already been established and thus can serve as an anchoring point for the new information is designated as 'topic.' The definition of Topic as 'what is being talked about' and Comment as 'what is being said about what is being talked about' is based on the axiom that these two parts are present in every declarative utterance. This is expressed in regulative terms by Lambrecht (1987: 254): ''Do not introduce a referent and talk about it at the same time.'' He affirmed that the relation *Topic-of* ''expresses the pragmatic relation of aboutness that holds between a referent and a proposition with respect to a particular discourse''. As Lambrecht (1994: 127) stated: "*A referent is interpreted as the topic of a proposition if in a given discourse the proposition is construed as being about this referent, i.e. as expressing information which is relevant to and which increases the addressee's knowledge of this referent".*

In the discourse, ***I saw John yesterday. He was angry,*** the pronoun ***he*** in the second sentence refers to the topic (it is the 'topic expression'), whereas ***was angry*** designates the comment that is about this topic. Topic can be viewed from different perspectives of definitions, we can say: Topic is the phrase in a clause that the rest of the clause is understood to be about.

Ways of Determining the Topic of a Sentence

- In ordinary English, the subject is normally the same as the topic.
  Example: The car hit the old man. A man died yesterday.
  In the above sentences, the topic of the sentences appeared in the subject positions which are underlined.
- It is also possible to use other sentence structure to show the topic of a sentence.
  Example: As for the old man, the car knocked him down.
  In the example, the topic is the underlined clause.
- The topic of a sentence can also be determined pragmatically i.e. the contextual uses of words by the speaker. Here, it's only when the speaker singles out the topic that you can agree with him/her; this is simply because some words are ambiguous.
  Example: *Are you okay*?
  This sentence is an interrogative sentence and it can mean a polite and concerned way of wanting to know one's problem. It can mean a joke and it can mean an insult. So, the topic is determined by the speaker.

Topic and subject

The difference between topic and grammatical subject is that topic is used to describe the information structure of a sentence and how it coheres with other sentence, whereas, subject is purely a grammatical term. It is very possible to have a sentence where the subject is not the topic, most common in the Chinese language.

Topic and comment go hand in hand, without the topic there can never be a comment, because the comment is the extensive information given to support the topic.

Theme and Rheme

The message is constructed in the English clause in terms of **theme** and **rheme**. One element of the clause is given the special status of **theme** by being put first, and it then combines with the rest of the clause to constitute the message; other languages mark theme by other means; for instance, Japanese uses the suffix *-wa* to signify that whatever it follows is the theme. The theme is defined as 'the element which serves as the point of departure of the message; it is that with which the clause is concerned', and the rest of the message is referred to as the **rheme;** the theme is normally realized by nominal groups (examples (1), (2) and (3)) adverbial groups (5), or prepositional phrases (4).

Theme	**Rheme**
(1) Tomas	gave Sophie that Easter egg
(2) That Easter egg	was given to Sophie by Tomas
(3) Sophie	was given that Easter egg by Tomas
(4) At Easter	Tomas went to see Sophie and Katie
(5) Very soon	they were eating Easter eggs

Themes may, however, also be realized by clauses, as in the case of:
What Tomas gave to Sophie was an Easter egg.

However, in this case the clause *what Tomas gave to Sophie* functions as a nominal

group in the whole sentence; this phenomenon is referred to as **nominalization**. It is also possible to have cases of **predicated** theme having the form *it + be,* as in

It was an Easter egg that Tomas gave to Sophie.

The most usual themes in English are those realized by the grammatical subject of the clause, and these are called **unmarked** themes; when the theme is something other than the subject, it is called **marked** theme (examples (4) and (5)).

Functional linguists tend to describe dislocations with informational notions such as theme and rheme rather than grammatical structures. In the sentence below,

6. The book I lent you, have you finished it yet

the theme, ***the book I lent you,*** realized as a tone group unit, conveys information that is considered to be already given or to be recoverable from the preceding discourse (what the speaker, I, was talking about before). The rheme is new information, ***have you finished it yet***. In communicative frames that consider intentions and interactions between speakers as essential components, left-dislocated elements are, more precisely, what the speakers intend to expand their knowledge about.

In a course in literally stylistics, it is perhaps appropriate for one to mention at the outset that the theme here is different from the way it is generally understood in literary analysis. When it is used in relation to the term rheme, it has more technical grammatical term.

Example: *I had a sleepless night yesterday.*

"I" is the theme of this sentence while "has a sleepless night yesterday" is the rheme. We can also say that the **Theme** is the starting point of the clause message.

- Theme is realized in English by the first position in a clause
- Theme must contain a participant, process or circumstance
- Theme must include element preceding the first participant, process or circumstance

The **rheme** is the constituent of a sentence that adds most new information in addition to what has already been said in the discourse. It should be noted that everything else which follows the theme in a single clause is the rheme. In other words, the rheme of the clause is formed by all other constituents that follow it. The subject, circumstantial adjunct and complement when they are fronted are all known as topical themes.

Tabular Presentation of the Differences between Theme and Rheme

	Theme	Rheme
1.	It is the point of departure of clause	Where the presentation moves after the point of departure
2.	It has the local text of clause as piece of text	What is presented is presented in the local context set up by the theme
3.	Initial position in the clause	Position following initial position

Themes in Declarative Sentence

It can be unmarked i. e. Theme = Subject. Examples:
(a) The two Nigerians stood waiting (b) Bayo and his father went into the forest
(c) No, I think it's easy (d) Oh, you are a great man
(e) But I will have some tea

It can be marked i. e. Theme = Subject Examples:
(a) That I don't know (b) What she had felt he never knew
(c) In January 1999, she travelled to London

Themes in Interrogative Sentence

It can be in polarity (Yes/No) questions: Marked Theme = Finite + Subject
Examples: (a) Are you interested in Syntax?
(b) Would you like a cup of coffee?
(c) By the way, were you serious about the issue?

It can be WH questions: Unmarked Theme = WH – Word
Examples: (a) What are you doing here?
(b) Where are we going?
(c) Then, in the name of goodness, why does she bother?

Theme in Imperative Sentences

Examples: (a) Wake me up before cock crows
(b) Don't disturb me
(c) Let's have a look at this receipt
(d) Oh, please stop it

In all the examples given above, the underlined word(s) in each sentence is the theme while the remaining part of each sentence is the rheme.

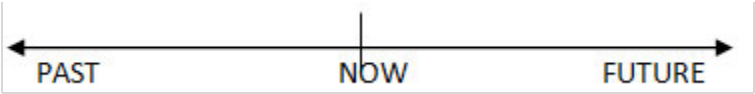
Basic Grammatical Terms/Notions

Tense

Tense denotes the time an action takes place, whether sometime in the past, in the present or sometime in the future. It is a unversal category found in all languages, though its morphological realisation differs from one language to the other. In other words, tense markers may be morphologically marked, as found in English, or not morphologically marked as is the case of the nonfuture tense in Yorùbá.

Tense as a grammatical category, relates the time of an event to the moment of utterance. The notion of tense has to do with time relation between the events. Comrie (1985) says tense is a grammaticalised expression of location in time. Lyons (1968: 305) says:

> The essential characteristic of the category of tense is that it relates the time of an action, event, or state of affairs referred to in the sentence to the time of utterance: the time of utterance being now.



A model can perceive, recall or anticipate an event. Therefore, there are only three possible order relationships between events and any axis of orientation, the axis or orientation being the point of initiation of speech or the point present, the 'now' of utterance. The three other relationships are retrospective point (RP), the time anterior to the time of initiation of speech, anticipated point (AP), the time posterior to the point of initiation of speech and the point present (PP), the point of initiation of speech. (Ajongolo 2005, p. 120).

Point Present (PP): This is the point of initiation of speech which serves as the primary axis of orientation, the point present of a tense system. According to Taiwo (2003), the importance of the temporal point present is such that the act of recollection and anticipation actually takes place in the point present, only the actual activity can be anterior or posterior.

Retrospective Point (RP): The time anterior to the time of initiation of speech. This is the point which must have served as the point of initiation of speech sometimes prior to the actual initiation of speech. For instance, when one says something about an event in the past, what he I actually doing is recollecting that at some point in time before the moment of utterance, an event took place.

Anticipated Point (AP): This is the time posterior to the point of initiation of speech. This is the time posterior to the point of initiation of speech. It indicates a future point in time when it is anticipated that an event will take place.

The main tenses found in many languages include the ***past, present*** and ***future***. Some languages have only two distinct tenses, such as ***past*** and ***nonpast***, or ***future*** and ***nonfuture***. Tenses generally express time relative to the moment of speaking.

Present Tense: The present tense is the now of an event or existence. It is the point where an action is viewed as taking place simultaneously or concurrently with the time when the action is being reported. Simultaneity means that the exact point or moment at which the event is taking place coincide with the time when the event is spoken of and this made it different from the conception of continuous tense.

Future Tense: It is the anticipated point in time. It is the later of an event. It is natutrally different from the present and past tense in terms of its reference to its limit exxxistence. This is because it cannot be perceived directly or remembered it but can only be anticipated.

Past Tense: This expresses the location of the time of an event in antecedence. It is the 'then' of an event or existence, or the recollection/reminisces of an event or existence. The action is only spoken of at present but the execution has already taken place at some point in time.

English (Past, Present, Future)

He went to the market	Past	***went***
He goes to the market	Present	***goes***
He will go to the market	Future	***will go***

Yorùbá (Future and Nonfuture)

Olú lọ sí ọjà **Nonfuture – No marker meaning past event**
Olù go to market 'Olú went to the market'

Olú fẹ́ràn ójà. **Nonfuture – No marker (meaning past/present situation/condition)**
Olú like market 'Olú liked/like the market'

Olú á lọ sí ọjà. **Future – *á*** future tense marker
Olú fut go to market 'Olú will go to the market'

Aspect

Aspect looks at the internal temporal contour of a situation. It reflects the temporal relationship between either the point of initiation of speech and the internal temporal structure of the event described by an element; or the internal, temporal structure of a specific background situation described by one element and the totality of the situation referred to by another (Omamor 1982: 104–105). Aspect deals with the placement of an action with regards to time and not necessarily the actual time the action occurs, unlike tense. It is all about the complement of an action that the verbal group describes.

There are basically two types of aspect, perfective aspect and imperfective aspect. The imperfective aspect is further subdivided into progressive or continuous aspect and haitual aspect.

Perfective Aspect: Completeness: This shows that an action or activity described has been completed. In other words, the action or activity described is already concluded. Examine the sentences below.

I *have danced*. (completed action) I *am dancing.* (action in progress)

Examples of Aspects in Yorùbá

Perfective Aspect: The markers are ***ti,*** for a completed action or activity, ***ti máa ń, à ti máa,*** and ***ti ń*** for action or activity that has already started.

Akẹ́kọ ọ́ tí ń kẹkọ ọ́
student perf. cont learn 'Students are already learning'

Olú á tí máa lọ
Olú fut. perf hab. go 'Olú would have been going'

Wón tí màá n kọrin
They perf hab cont sing 'They would have been singing'

Mo ti se iṣẹ́ náà
I perf do work the 'I have done the work'

Continuous or **Progressive Aspect:** The progressive aspect expresses an action that is taking place or on-going at a particular point in time. It is an ongoing process at the time of speaking. This aspect is used for event that are still progressive or uncompleted action, ***ń*** is its marker.

À ń jẹún
We cont eat 'We are eating.'

Habitual Aspect: This aspect is used to report habitual event or occurrence**, *a máa*** and ***máa ń*** are the aspect aspect markers in Yorùbá.

Olú á máa ṣiṣẹ
Olú hab work 'Olú usually works'

Wọ́n máa ń gba ibí kọjá
They hab pass here through 'They usually pass through this place'

Mood

Mood is a category of the verb or verbal inflections that expresses semantic and grammatical differences, including such forms as the indicative, subjunctive, and imperative. It is typically used to indicate the syntactic relation of the clause in which the verb occurs to other clauses in the sentence, or the attitude of the speaker toward what he or she is saying, as certainty or uncertainty, wish or command, emphasis or hesitancy. It a set of syntactic devices in some languages that is similar to this set in function or meaning, involving the use of auxiliary words, as *can, may, might.* It is any of the categories of these sets: *the Latin indicative, imperative, and subjunctive moods.*

Case

Case shows a noun's or a pronoun's relationship with the other words in a sentence. The main cases are subjective or nominative case, objective or accusative case, dative case, possessive or genitive case and vocatice case

Olú gave me the book in Ọpẹ's house, Ayọ
Nominative dative accusative genitive vocative

In English, nouns do not change their forms in any of the cases other than the possessive case (e.g., *Ọpẹ* becomes *Ọpẹ's*). Pronouns, however, change their forms in the possessive case (e.g., *he* becomes *his*) and the objective case (e.g., *he* becomes *him*).

The table below shows how nouns and pronouns change (or don't) in the various cases

Sujective Case	Objective Case	Possessive Case		Vocative Case
		Possessive Determiner	Possessive Pronoun	
I	Me	My	Mine	
You (sg)	You	Your	Yours	Get off, **you**
He /she / it	Him / her / it	His / her /its	His / hers / its	
We	Us	Our	Our	
You (pl)	You	Your	Yours	**You,** scram!
They	Them	Their	Theirs	
Dog	Dog	Dog's		Hands up, **dog**
Dogs	Dogs	Dogs'		Run away, **dogs**

Gender

Gender is a specific form of nouns in which the division forms an agremment system with another aspect of the language, such as adjectives, articles, pronouns, or verbs. It is a subclass within a grammatical class (such as noun, pronoun, adjective, or verb) of a language that is partly arbitrary and that determines agreement with and selection of other words or grammatical forms. Gender is an inflectional form showing membership in such a subclass

Gender is considered an inherent quality of nouns, and it affects the forms of other related words, a process called aggreement. For example, in **Spanish**, determiners, adjectives, and pronouns change their form depending on the noun to which they refer. Spanish nouns have two genders: masculine and feminine, represented by the nouns ***gato*** and ***gata*** respectively.

In languages with grammatical gender, each noun is assigned to one of the classes called *genders*, which form a closed set. The division into genders usually correlates to some degree, at least for a certain set of nouns (such as those denoting humans), with some property or properties of the things that particular nouns denote. Such properties include animacy or inanimacy, humanness" or non-humanness, and biological sex. Few or no nouns can occur in more than one class. Depending on the language and the word, this assignment might bear some relationship with the meaning of the noun (e.g. "woman" is usually feminine), or may be arbitrary.

Example of Grammatical Gender in Spanish

Grammatical Gender	**Number**	**Phrase**	**Gloss**
Masculine	Singular	***El*** *plato*	"the dish"
	Plural	***Los*** *platos*	"the dishes"
Feminine	Singular	***La*** *guitarra*	"The guitar"
	Plural	***Las*** *guitarras*	"the guitar"

Pronouns may agree in gender with the noun or noun phrase to which they refer (their

antecedent). Sometimes, however, there is no antecedent—the referent of the pronoun is deduced indirectly from the context: this is found with personal pronouns, as well as with indefinite and dummy pronouns

With personal pronouns, the gender of the pronoun is likely to agree with the *natural gender* of the referent. Indeed, in most European languages, personal pronouns are gendered; for example, English the personal pronouns *he*, *she* and *it* are used depending on whether the referent is male, female, or inanimate or non-human; this is in spite of the fact that English does not generally have grammatical gender.

Person

Person a category used in the classification of pronouns, possessive determiners, and verb forms, according to whether they indicate the speaker (*first person*), the addressee (*second person*), or a third party (*third person*). **Grammatical person** is the grammatical distinction between deictic references to participant(s) in an event; typically, the distinction is between the speaker (first person), the addressee (second person), and others (third person). *First person* includes the speaker (English: *I*, *we*, *me*, and *us*), *second person* is the person or people spoken to (English: *you*), and *third person* includes all that is not listed above (English: *she*, *he*, *they*, etc.)[1] Grammatical person typically defines a language's set of personal pronouns

In many languages, first-, second-, and third-person pronouns are typically also marked for singular and plural forms

Long Pronouns in the Onìdó dialect of Yorùbá (Ajongolo, 2005, p.32)

	Singular	Plural
1st person	Èmi	Àwa
2nd	Ùwọ	Ànwan/Ẹ̀ nwẹn
3rd	Òun	Ànwan

Honorifics: Many languages express person with different morphemes in order to distinguish degrees of formality and informality. A simple honorific system common among European languages is the ***Tu-Vous distinction***. Some other languages have much more elaborate systems of formality that go well beyond the T-V distinction, and use many different pronouns and verb forms that express the speaker's relationship with the people they are addressing. Yorùbá employs the third person plural pronouns, ***Ẹyin, ẹ, wọ́n, yín*** as pronouns of respect (honorifc pronouns.

> ***Ẹ*** káàárọ̀ ẹ gbọ́n mi "Good morning my elder (brother/sister"
> Mo rí ***wọn*** nínú ilé "I saw him/her/them inside the house"
> ***Ẹyin*** ni ***wọ́n*** ń wá "You (pl/sg) are the one they/he/she is looking for"
> Ọmọ yìí ń kí ***yín*** "This child is greeting you (sg/pl)

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