CHAPTER THREE

Word Order in English

3.0. Preliminaries

This chapter deals with the word order at the phrase level, clause level and sentence level in English based on the theoretical discussion in the first chapter.

Greenberg (1966: 90) formulated a number of implicational universals that refer to the order of various syntactic elements. He classified languages on the basis of their order of subject, object, and verb into three types, which he labeled I, II, and III, and which correspond to what are commonly known as VSO, SVO, and SOV languages, respectively.

3.1. The Word Order at the Phrase Level

According to Van Valin (1997: 115) a phrase may be a word or a group of words which forms a grammatical unit. Phrases in language have a structure.

A phrase is a group of words which forms a grammatical unit. It does not contain a finite verb and does not have a subject–predicate structure.

a. her expensive new car
b. working in the garden
c. very important book

Phrases are considered as the second level of classification as they tend to be larger than individual words, but are smaller than sentences. A word or group of words used as a single value (without either a subject or predicate) is called a phrase. The phrase in English tends to be larger
than individual words and usually considered as an expansion of individual words. A phrase in a language is smaller than a clause or sentence as there is no subject and predicate or subject and verb. Some of the definitions are as follows. A phrase is:

“a group of related words without a verb, such as "in the woods," "cool glass of water," and "good night’s sleep”
(www.educationplanner.com)1.

“a group of words not containing a subject and its verb (eg “on the table”,” the girl in a red dress”
(www.englishclub.com/grammar/grammar-glossary.htm)2.

“a group of words, smaller than a clause, which forms a grammatical unit”
(www.nwlg.org/pages/resources/knowitall/resources/english.htm)3.

A phrase is a group of words consisting of a head (which can be a noun, verb, preposition, etc.) and its modifiers. Clauses consist of groups of phrases. Each phrase is labeled according to its head. If the head is a noun, the phrase will be a noun phrase (the tall blond man, where "man" is the head.

A phrase is a grammatical construction without a subject and a predicate: a. in traditional grammar, such a group of two or more words. b. in transformational-generative grammar, a noun or verb construction consisting of one or more words 2 in speech, a word or group of words framed by pauses.
(www.nde.state.ne.us/READ/FRAMEWORK/glossary/general_p-t.htm)1.

1 Accessed on 15th June 2007
2 Accessed on 20th June 2007
3 Accessed on 15th June 2007
Roberts defines, “a phrase is a sequence of words that can function as a constituent in the structure of sentences” (1986:19).

According to these definitions it can be concluded that a phrase is a group of words which can function as a constituent in a clause or in a sentence. According to Quirk et al.(1985: 60) Phrases are named after a class of word which has a primary and indeed obligatory function within it.

This function varies in different types of phrases.

Phrase classifications are generally based on the headword, phrase function or phrase construction. The central element in English is named the head of the phrase. If the head is a noun then the phrase is usually called a noun phrase.

There is some overlap when describing phrases based on either the phrase headword or phrase function. The phrase headword can usually stand alone as a one-word phrase. The head word is the only English word that cannot be omitted from a phrase.

The essential phrase structure could be depicted in the following way.

In the above representation of the PP in the library the P is the head which is an obligatory element. The NP which occurs after the P consists of the Det and the N. The relationship between the constituents within the PP determines the word order in it. The same is applicable to

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1 Accessed on 20th June 2007
the other phrases such as the noun phrase, adjectival phrase, verb phrase, and adverbial phrase.

3.1.1. The Noun Phrase

A noun phrase is defined as:

“In grammatical theory, a noun phrase (abbreviated as NP) is a phrase whose head is a noun or a pronoun, optionally accompanied by a set of modifiers” (Wikipedia, The Free Encyclopedia).

The modifiers may be:

- determiners: articles (the, a)
- demonstratives (this, that)
- numerals (two, three etc)
- possessives (my, his)
- Quantifiers (some, many etc)
- Adjectives (the red ball)
- Complements in the form of a prepositional phrase (A man with a black hat)
- Relative clause (The book that I bought Yesterday)

According to Quirk et al. (1985: 74) a noun phrase is a group of words in which a noun functions as a head.

“Any phrase that can function as a subject is a noun phrase” (Roberts 1986: 34).

However, even a single noun or a pronoun can be considered an NP though it is impossible to talk about a word order in it.

(1)

a. Girl
b. The girl
c. Eating and drinking

The basic structure of the English noun phrase can be expressed as follows.

a. \( \text{NP}= (\text{Det}) + \text{N}^\prime \)
b. \( \text{N}'=(\text{Adjp})+ \text{N}' \)

c. \( \text{N}'=\text{N}+ (\text{PP}) \) (Van Valin 1997:145).

To the traditionalist the single noun did not constitute a noun phrase. The unit, *The clever boy* is considered a noun phrase but its other form *The boy who is clever* is considered a noun clause since it has a verb and the difference between the phrase and the clause is strictly maintained. According to Van Valin (1997:145) the phrase is considered merely as a unit and the clause is considered as an item which could itself constitute a sentence since it contains both a subject and a predicate within it.

The basic structure of a noun phrase in English is as follows. The items which can occur before and / or after the head noun can have word orders as shown below.

\[
(M(s)) \quad \underline{H} \quad (M(s))
\]

\[
| \quad | \quad |
N \quad N \quad \text{Adj}
| \quad | \quad |
\text{Det} \quad \text{Pron} \quad \text{Adv}
| \quad | \quad |
\text{Adj} \quad \text{Adj} \quad \text{pp}
| \quad | \quad |
\text{Intf} \quad \text{Nu} \quad \text{Cl}
| \quad | \quad |
\text{Claf}
| \quad | \quad |
\text{Adv}
\]

### 3.1.1.1. The Modifiers in the Noun Phrase

They are of two types: premodifiers and post modifiers.

- **Premodifiers**

  Premodifiers normally occur before the H in an NP. They are as follows:

- **Noun**

  A noun can be a premodifier in an NP.
his  life  story

Pre M  Pre M  H

- Determiners

They can be classified as:

i. Predeterminers: half, all, double

ii. Central determiners: the articles the, a/an

iii. Postdeterminers are numbers. Numbers are:

Cardinals: one, two, three......Ordinals: first, second, third.

(Quirk et al.1985: 253).

- Predeterminers(Predet)

The predetermines, which can occur before certain central determiners include:

i. all, both and half: all (the) girls, both those cars, half an hour

ii. the multipliers double, twice, three times: double the payment, twice my salary

iii. the fractions one-third, one-fifth: one-third the time

such, what: such a surprise! what a pity! (Quirk et al.1985: 261)

- The Word Order of Predeterminers in an NP

The Predets like such, what precede the Cdet a/an.

such  a  surprise (Look Ahead CD 2)
Predet which can be used with nouns are: *all, both, half.*

*All, both* and *half* have the “of” construction. They are optional with nouns and obligatory with personal pronouns. The word order of them is illustrated as follows.

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
\text{All (of)} & \text{the} & \text{meat} \\
\text{Predet} & \text{P} & \text{Cdet} & \text{H}
\end{array}
\]

The same word order applies for the following two examples.

a. *both (of) the students*

b. *half (of) the time*

Following are the examples for “of construction” with the personal pronoun.

a. *all of it*

b. *both of them*

c. *half of it*

“The frequent word order of these NPs is Det+ P +H. But *All* and *Both* can occur after the head” (Arts 1997: 27).

```
they  both
     H    Predet
```

- **Central Determiners (Cdet)**
The most common Cdet in English are the definite and indefinite articles, *the* and *a/an* respectively. The use of the articles is not the only possibility for determining nouns. The word *the* in the NP has a set of distributional equivalents, that is words which can slot into the same position in the phrase.

\[
\text{the, a} \\
\text{this, that} \\
\text{some, every, each}
\]

According to David (2003: 245) all of these words are required to come before the noun in English. The words which are distributional equivalents are traditionally called determiners.

“Like articles, these words are called central determiners” (Quirk et al.1985: 254).

According to Quirk et al.(1985: 254-255) thus, the central determiners are in a ‘choice relation’, *ie* they occur one instead of another. In this respect, they are unlike *all, many and white* which are in chain relation.

**all the many white shirt**

The Cdet can be divided into five types with respect to their concurrence with the noun classes such as singular count (*chair, book etc*) plural count (*chairs, books etc*) and no count nouns (furniture, information, news etc) as shown in the following way.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Singular count</th>
<th>Plural count</th>
<th>Non count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a.</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c.</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Co occurrence of central determiners and noun classes (Quirk et al. 1985: 256).

**Type a:** determiners of singular count, plural count, and non count nouns.

i. The definite article *the*: *the* pen, *the* elephants, *the* idea

ii. The possessive pronoun as determiners, *my, our* etc: *my* book, *our* house, *his* cars, *his* furniture

iii. The relative determiners *which, whose* etc: *which* car, *whose* books, *which* land


vi. The negative determiner *no*: *no* parking, *no* response

**Type b.** Determiners of plural count nouns and no count nouns

i. Zero articles: people *every* where.

ii. The assertive determiner *some* and the non assertive determiner *any*: *some* books, *any* bread, *some* person, *any* person

iii. The quantitative determiner *enough*: *enough* equipment

**Type c.** Determiners of singular count nouns and singular non count nouns are the demonstrative determiners: *this* and *that*: *this* book, *that* house

**Type d.** Determiners of plural count nouns: The demonstrative determiners *these* and *those*: *these* plays, *those* houses

**Type e.** Determiners of singular count nouns.
i. The indefinite article *a/an*: *a* pen, *an* apple

ii. The universal determiners *every* and *each*: *every* student, *each* student

iii. The nonassertive determiner *either*: *either* side

The negative determiner *neither*: *neither* party (Quirk et al. 1985: 257)

- **The Word Order of Central Determiners (Cdet) in an NP**

The Cdet of singular count, plural count, and non count nouns occur as premodifiers.

The order of definite article *the*:

```
the  pen
     |
Cdet  H
```

The Podet can occur after the central determiner.

```
the  first  day
     |
Cdet  Podet  H
```

The Cdet may be preceded by some Predet in noun phrases in English changing the order of Cdet.

```
a. both  the  teachers
       |
Predet  Cdet  H
```

```
b. double  the  salary
     |
H
```
Since the central determiners are in a ‘choice relation’, *ie* they occur one instead of another as shown in the following examples.

a. **which** car

b. **no** parking

c. **my** car

The indefinite article *a/an* as the Cdet also normally occurs before the H as shown in the following examples.

a. **a** pen

b. **an** orange

- **Postdeterminers (Podet)**

The Podet follows Predet or Cdets (if such determiners are present). But they precede any adjective and other premodifying items. Podets include:
a. The cardinal numbers: my three children, my good five cats

b. The ordinal numbers: the first day, the third person

c. The closed –class quantifiers many, (a) few, several occur only with plural count nouns: a few people, too many mistakes, very few people, several girls

“much and a little occur only with non count nouns: much money, a little money”( Paul 1962:21).

d. The open-class quantifiers: a large number of people, a plenty of students, lots of furniture

- The Word Order of Post Determiners (Podets) in an NP

The post determiners occur as PreMs in an NP.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{a.} & \quad \text{those} \quad \text{three} \quad \text{children} \\
& \begin{array}{c|c|c}
Cdet & Podet & H \\
\end{array}

\text{b.} & \quad \text{the} \quad \text{first} \quad \text{day} \\
& \begin{array}{c|c|c}
Cdet & Podet & H \\
\end{array}
\end{align*}
\]

It is evident that though the Podets occur after the Predet or Cdet they also function as premodifiers in an NP.

- The Word Order of an Adj in an NP as a Modifier

i. Adj as a premodifier (PreM)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{good} & \quad \text{man} \\
& \begin{array}{c|c}
PreM & H \\
\end{array}
\end{align*}
\]
An Adj can occur as PreM with Cdet.

```
the red frock
   Cdet PreM H  
```

More than one Adj can occur as PreMs.

```
the red short frock
   Cdet PreM PreM H  
```

**ii. An Adj as a postmodifier (PoM)**

```
something beautiful
  H PoM  
```

An Intf and an Adj can occur as PoM.

```
something very beautiful
  H PoM PoM  
```

An Intf, an Adj and also a Claf occur as premodifying elements.

**a. the very tall girl**

```
Cdet Intf Adj H  
```
b. the very innocent school boy

$\begin{align*}
&\text{Cdet} & \text{Inf} & \text{Adj} & \text{Claf} & \text{H} \\
&\text{the} & \text{very} & \text{innocent} & \text{school} & \text{boy} \\
\end{align*}$

- The Word Order in a Genitive (Gen) as a Modifier

The construction can have two possible orders: one in which the genitive precedes the noun and functions as the PreM, the other in which the genitive follows the noun determining the word order as Cdet+Gen+H and Cdet+H+Gen respectively as follows.

a. the box’s cover

$\begin{align*}
&\text{Cdet} & \text{Gen} & \text{H} \\
&\text{the} & \text{box’s} & \text{cover} \\
\end{align*}$

b. the cover of the box

$\begin{align*}
&\text{Cdet} & \text{H} & \text{Gen} \\
&\text{the} & \text{cover} & \text{of the box} \\
\end{align*}$

David notes:

The of genitive (via a preposition) and the s genitive also make the word order change in NPs. The s genitive is traditionally known as the Saxon genitive (2003: 257).

a. a computer of my friend
b. my friend’s computer

In a of genitive and in b s genitive (saxon genitive) decide the order of the items in each phrase respectively.

In English, the group genitive which is a type of multiple predeterminations is possible in the following rigid word order where the s genitive is preceded by saxon genitive (of genitive).
The wife of my friend’s brother

- The Word Order of a Participle Verb as a Modifier

i. The participle forms as a PreM

The both present and past participle verbs can occur as PreMs in NPs.

a. the sleeping student

b. the colored picture

The participle verbs function as PeMs compounded with other elements.

the hard-working person

Both participle forms can occur as PreM proceeded by the Intf ‘very’.
ii  The participle form as a PoM

a. something very alarming

| H | PoM | PoM |

d. person very offended

| H | PoM | PoM |

• The Word Order of an Adv in an NP as a Modifier

i.  Adv as a PreM

the far-away places

| Cdet | PreM | H |

Adv can occur with Intf as PreM

the very far-away places
3.1.1.2. The Extended Noun Phrase

A noun phrase with more than one noun can be defined as an extended noun phrase. There are two types of extended noun phrases. One is that a noun phrase with more than one noun. The second is those that go with prepositions; the connecting preposition and the preposition governed by the noun.

(1) a. The cat, the dog and the man in the garden
(2) a. The pen in my hand
    b. The book on the table
    c. The house in the wood
    d. The weather in England
    e. The prospect for peace

The extended noun phrases may contain various sorts of modifiers after the head noun as presented in the above examples. Most of the prepositional phrases are themselves on the extreme right branch of noun phrase. Structures of this general sort are called right branching. Hence, the extended noun phrase can be considered as structurally expanded one.

The possible structures of an extended noun phrase are as follows.

1. The H with a PP as a PoM
2. The H with more than one PoM
3. The H with a clause as a PoM
4. The compound H with PoMs

5. Post modification in a compound NP

1. The H with a PP as a PoM

```
the book on the table
```

```
Cdet H PoM
```

2. The H with more than one PoM

```
the man in the corner talking to John
```

```
Cdet H PoM PoM
```

3. The H with a clause as a PoM

```
the boy who is wearing a white shirt
```

```
H PoM
```

The H with apposition can have more clauses as PoM.

```
foot ball, his main interest in life which gives him pleasure
```

```
H PoM PoM
```

4. The compound H with PoMs

```
the man and woman in the corner talking to John
```

```
Cdet CH PoM PoM
```

Many other complex NPs with the same pattern occur where the modifying phrase may itself be further modified.

\[
\text{the man and woman in the corner nearest the door talking to John}
\]

In the above example the PoM in the corner modifies the CH and the same phrase is modified by the PoM nearest the door.

5. Post modification in a compound NP (CNP)

\[
\text{the man in the corner and woman in the corner nearest the door}
\]

An apposition which is typically a relationship of NPs will be a PoM.

a. Andrew, my best friend

\[
H \quad \text{PoM}
\]

The PoM in a can also occur as the PreM as in b.

b. my best friend Andrew

\[
\text{PreM} \quad H
\]

In extended noun phrases some part can be postponed. According to Quirk et al. (1985: 1397) the most commonly affected part is the post modification of a noun phrase, and the units most readily postponed are nominal (in this case appositive) clauses.

a. a rumor circulated widely that he secretly engaged in a business
Through the movement of elements, the following construction can be derived from a.

\[
\text{the widely circulated rumor that he secretly engaged in a business}
\]

3.1. 2. The Adjectival Phrase

A phrase which is centered on adjective is called adjectival phrase.

a. rather dubious

b. too modest

c. somewhat difficult

An adjectival phrase is a phrase with an adjective as its head.

a. full of toys

Adjectival phrases may occur as post modifiers to a noun or as predicative to a verb as in example (c) below.

b. a bin full of toys

c. a bin is full of toys (Wikipedia- The Free Encyclopedia).

\[\text{1 The postponed element}\]
They are composed of the adjectives and the elements that modify the adjectives. They can occur inside noun phrases perform as modifiers to a noun phrase or act as complements.

a. **very important** book

b. **He is** **very obedient**

In the first example, the adjectival phrase *very important* is in the noun phrase and it modifies the noun *book* while in the second *very obedient* functions the complement of the pronoun *He* with the copula verb *is*.

“As like Noun phrase (NP), an Adjectival phrase can consist of an unmodified head, a simple adjective”  
(Roberts 1986: 60).

a. **very colorful** flower

b. **slightly different** person

The Adjp *very colorful* modifies the noun *flower* and in the adjectival phrase the simple adjective *colorful* functions as the head of the Adjp. In the example (b) the Adjp *Slightly different* modifies the noun *person* and function as the head of the Adjp.

The basic structure of an adjectival phrase in English and the order of items which can occur before and/ or after the H can be as follows.

(M(s))______________ H ______________(M(s))

- The H in an Adjp can be:

1. An adjective
According to Leech, Deuchar and Hoogenraad (1990: 65) an Adj which may be simple *big* comparative *bigger* or superlative *biggest*.

2. A noun

- The PreM of an Adjp can be:

  1. A determiner

    a. *the* quite comfortable

    b. *a* rather nervous

51
c. the best three

2. An intensifier

a. very good

b. so beautiful

3. An adverb

a. just manageable

b. terribly busy
• The PoM in an Adjp can be:

1. An adjective

   brave   enough
   \[H\]   \[PoM\]

   (Strat 2006: CD 1)

2. A prepositional phrase

   rather   hot   for comfort
   \[PreM\]   \[H\]   \[PoM\]

   (Leech, Deuchar & Hoogenraad 1990: 65).

   popular   in 1980
   \[H\]   \[PoM\]

   (Strat 2006: CD 1)

3. A clause

   too   hot   for me to drink
   \[PreM\]   \[H\]   \[PoM\]

   younger   than I thought

   \[\]   \[\]
The function of an Adjp

An Adjp can function:

1. attributively as a PreM of an N in an NP

\[
\text{extremely busy} \quad \text{person} \\
\text{PreM} \quad \text{N}
\]

In the above NP the Adjp \text{extremely busy} modifies the H \text{person} functioning attributively in the NP. The Adj \text{busy} modifies the N \text{person}. The intensifier \text{extremely} modifies the Adj \text{busy}.

2. predicatively

a. \text{This is very old}

\[
\text{S} \quad \text{Pred}
\]

b. \text{This room is very comfortable}

\[
\text{S} \quad \text{Pred}
\]

3.1.3. The Verb Phrase

A verb phrase is defined as:

A verb phrase is a part of a sentence which contains the main verb and also any object(s), complement(s) and
Tom gave a watch to his son.

The italicized part of the above sentence is called the verb phrase. The structure of a verb phrase could be depicted in the following way.

```
VP
  Aux
    T       (M) (Prog) (Perf)
  Verbal
    MV
      Other items
        (NP) (Adv(s)) (PP(s))

  Pres +may be+ing have+en write
    might have been writing a book quietly in his room
```

The VP consists of a main verb which either stands alone as the entire VP, or is preceded by Auxv.

1. He writes a book
   \[ NP \quad VP \]

2. He might have been writing a book
   \[ NP \quad VP \]

In 1 the verb writes is a lexical verb (main verb) which stands on its own whereas in 2 the verb writing is preceded by auxiliaries might have been.

The verb phrase can be:

1. a finite verb phrase
2. a non- finite verb phrase
1. A finite verb phrase:

A Fvp is a phrase in which the verb carries the tense.

a. He eats rice.
b. He ate rice.

In a and b the verb phrase *eats rice and ate rice* consist of two finite verbs *eats* and *ate* which represent the present and past tenses respectively.

A finite verb phrase can occur as the verb phrase of an independent clause.

a. He could play cricket.
b. They are eating rice.

2. A non finite verb phrase:

According to Quirk et al. (1985: 150) the infinitive ((to) call), the –ing participle (calling) and the ed- participle (called) are the non finite forms of the verb.

Hence, any phrase in which one of these verb forms is the first or only word is called a non finite verb phrase.

a. He wants to buy a new house.
b. Buying a new house needs money.
c. I found him looking for a new house.
d. I heard his name called twice. (Tickoo, Subramanian and Subramanian 2005:172).

According to Tickoo and Subramanium (2005:172) the words *to buy*, in sentence (a), *buying* in sentence (b), *looking* for in sentence (c) and *shaken* in sentence (d) are forms of words called non- finites. They have none of the tense, have no number and take no modals.
According to the structure of a verb phrase it can be classified as;

1. a simple verb phrase
2. a complex verb phrase

1. A simple verb phrase:
A simple finite verb phrase consists of one verb which may be present, past or imperative.

a. He runs home.
b. He ran home.
c. Work hard.

Examples for simple non finite verb phrase are;

a. to eat
b. eating

2. A complex verb phrase

A complex verb phrase is a phrase which contains more than one item.

a. He has written a book.

“There are four basic types of complex verb phrases” (Quirk et al.1985: 150).

The modal, perfective, progressive and passive auxiliaries follow a strict word order in a complex verb phrase.

A. Modal auxiliary is always followed by an infinitive as in

He would visit-\textit{Auxv+ Inf}

Type B. Perfective, is always followed by an –ed form, as in

He had visited-\textit{Auxv+ Past part}

Type C. Progressive, is always followed by an-ing form as in

He was visiting- \textit{Auxv+ ing}

Type D. Passive, always followed by a –Past part as in

The book is written \textit{(Quirk et al.1985: 51)}
These four basic constructions also enter into combination with each other.

\[ \text{AB: } \textit{may have examined} \]
\[ \text{AC: } \textit{may be examining} \]
\[ \text{AD: } \textit{may be examined} \]
\[ \text{BC: } \textit{has been examining} \]
\[ \text{BD: } \textit{has been examined} \]
\[ \text{CD: } \textit{is being examined} \]
\[ \text{ABC: } \textit{may have been examining} \]
\[ \text{ABD: } \textit{may have been examined} \]
\[ \text{ACD: } \textit{may be being examined} \]
\[ \text{BCD: } \textit{has been being examined} \]
\[ \text{ABCD: } \textit{may have been being examined} \] (Quirk et al. 1985:51).

It is clear that verb phrases are headed to the extent that they are composed of two kinds of element, auxiliaries and main verbs, such that every unreduced verb phrase contains a main verb but auxiliary is not obligatory.

3.1.4. The Adverb Phrase

An adverbial phrase is a linguistic term for a phrase with an adverb as a head.

a. \textbf{oddly enough}

b. \textbf{very nicely}

c. \textbf{quickly}

d. \textbf{reasonably well}  (Look Ahead - BBC English CD 4)

Adverbial can be defined as follows.
Adverbial phrases are composed of the adverbs that modify verbs, adjectives, or clauses. Adverbial phrases may occur with more than one word. The extra adverb is called an intensifier (www.eslincanada.com/english)\(^2\).

a. **very** quickly
b. **quite** accidentally

Likewise, the phrase very slowly is a constituent of the same type as phrases like very slowly, rather quickly, somewhat rudely-i.e. a phrase whose head (slowly, quickly, rudely) is in each case an adverb, so such phrases are named as adverbial phrases.

“Adverbs are adjunct elements which adjoin to phrases” (David 2003: 163).

The basic structure of an adverb phrase in English and the order of items which can occur before and/ or after the H can be as follows.

\[(M(s))\text{---------}H\text{---------}(M(s))\]

The H in an Advp phrase can be an Adv only.

a. **very** **courageously**
b. **so** **happily**

The italicized items in the above examples are Advs which occur as the H of the Adjps.

- **The Pre M of an Advp can be:**

  1. An intensifier

    a. **very** **clearly**
b. so quickly

- The PoM of an Advp can be:

1. An Adv

   so quickly indeed

   (Look Ahead CD 03)

   PreM H PoM

2. a clause

   as clearly as I could

   PreM H PoM

1. Function of an Advp

According to the Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics (1985) the Adverb phrases function as adjunct, conjunct, or disjunct. An adjunct is a basic structure of the clause or the sentence in which it occurs, and modifies the verb.

a. I have almost finished.

b. Hendry admitted everything frankly.

In examples a and b the italicized constituent functions as an adjunct and tells us about the manner of the action. As it is mentioned in Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia, there is a semantic function in adjuncts which can be classified as follows.
• Temporal:
Temporal adjuncts establish when, for how long or how often a state or action happened or existed.

  a. He arrived in the morning.
  b. She studied French last year.
  c. He drinks in that bar every day.

In example a, the PP in the morning, in b and c noun phrases last year and every day function as disjunct (Temporal).

• Locative:
Locative adjuncts establish where, to where or from where a state or action happened or existed.

  a. She sat on the table.
  b. She went to London.

In examples a and b the PPs on the table and to London function as disjunct (Temporal).

• Modicative:
Modicative adjuncts establish how the action happens or the state existed, or modifying its scope.

  a. He ran with difficulty. (manner)
  b. He stood in silence. (State)

• Instrumental:
Instrumental adjuncts establish the instrument of the action or state.

  The baby writes a letter with a pen. (The PP functions as an adjunct (instrumental)

According to Roberts (1986: 106) conjunct is not a part of the basic structure of the sentence. They show how what is said in the sentence
containing the conjunct connects with what is said in another sentence or sentences. Conjunct adverbials are very loosely associated with the rest of the sentence. Nevertheless, therefore, furthermore, however, thus, incidentally are considered as conjunct adverbial phrases.

a. Altogether, it was a happy week.

b. However, the whether was not good.

Roberts adds further insights to our understanding of the function of adverbial phrases:

It should be highlighted that when conjunct is present, the sentence sounds rather odd out of context. This is because conjunct is used to indicate what kind of relation holds between the sentence and its linguistic context (1986: 106).

They have no function in respect of any element within the sentence that they modify. They serve to link sentences into a coherent discourse. Disjunct is adverb which shows the speaker’s attitude to or evaluation of what is said in the rest of the sentence.

In a sentence the adverbials intervenes between the subject and the rest of the sentence.

They quickly feed the animals.

In this sentence the adverb precedes the main verb but in a sentence with a modal auxiliary the adverb will not be able to precede the model.

He may quickly feed the animals.

The adverb like perhaps will occur between the subject and the auxiliary verb.

He perhaps should be leaving.

However, in the sentence level adverb phrases in English have flexible word order.

a. Fortunately he passed the examination.

b. He fortunately passed the examination.
c. He passed the examination **fortunately**.
The adverbial phrases are similar to adjectival phrases in their structure, except that they have an adverb, instead of an adjective, as their head.

### 3.1.5. The Prepositional Phrase

The prepositional phrase is defined in the Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics (1985) as:

> Preposition is a word used with nouns, pronouns and gerunds, to link them grammatically to other words. The phrase so formed, consisting of a prepositional and its complement is a prepositional phrase.

Radford notes that “A phrase whose head is a preposition is called a prepositional phrase” (1981: 37).

Prepositions may express such meaning as possession (eg. *the leg of the table*), the direction (eg. *to the bank*), Place (eg. *at the corner*), time (eg. *before now*).

Prepositional phrases are composed of the preposition and a following noun phrase which is used either adjectivally to modify nouns or adverbially to modify verbs, adjectives, or clauses.

**a. The man in the house rented it.** (Prepositional phrase)
The italicized item is the prepositional phrase functioning as an adjective as it modifies the noun *The man.*

**c. The child is playing in the garden.**

In example (b), the prepositional phrase *in the garden* modifies the verb *is playing*.

A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition followed by a prepositional complement which is characteristically a noun phrase or a Wh- clause or V-ing form.
The order of these phrases in English is preposition and then the noun governed by the preposition.

Some complex preposition phrases consist of more than one word.

i. P+N+P
   a. by means of
   b. in comparison to
   c. in front of (Quirk et al. 1985: 157).

The noun in some complex prepositional phrase is preceded by a definite or indefinite article.

a. in the light of
b. as a result of

3.1.5.1. The Function of the Prepositional Phrase

Prepositional phrases may function as:

i. an object.
   She listens to the radio.

ii. An adjunct adverbial at the initial and the end positions of the sentence.
   a. On the other hand he has to do it.
   b. The people were sitting in the garden.

iii. A disjunct adverbial at the initial position of the sentence
   To my surprise, the doctor phoned.
iv. A PoM in a noun phrase

The people in the bus were singing.

v. A complementation of a verb

We depend on you.

vi. A complementation of an adjective.

I am sorry for his parents.

Some prepositional phrases occur as conjuncts at the sentence level

b. He on the other hand has to do it. (As conjunct)

3.2. The Word Order at the Clause Level

The clause is a group of words which form a grammatical unit and which contain a subject and a finite verb.

A clause is always a sentence but sentence may be a clause.

He is a teacher is a clause and also a sentence. He is a teacher and stopped working is a sentence with two clauses. But sentence may be a clause but it is not always the same.

According to this definition a clause is a phrase that has a full verb. Full verb means any of the basic tenses or continuous tenses or perfect tense.

a. He was running for the bus.

A clause is a division of a sentence, containing a verb with its subject. Hence the term clause may refer to the main division of the complex sentence, or it may be applied to the others,—the dependent or subordinate clauses.

Of the different types of clauses there are two types of clauses as independent and dependent. Independent clause is a one that does not depend on anything else, which means it can stand by its own.
b. I ate a chocolate and he ate a biscuit.

This is a sentence with two independent clauses which can give their full meaning without depending on others. The word order within these kinds of clauses in English is very rigid. Interestingly, the dependent clauses follow as same pattern as phrases. The dependent clauses can be classified as:

1. The nominal clause
2. The adjectival clause
3. The adverbial clause
4. The conditional clause

The components of a clause are as follows.

Subject ——— S
Verb ——— V
Object ——— O
Direct object [DO]
Indirect object [IO]
Complement ——— C
Subject complement [Sc]
Object complement [Oc]
Adverbial ——— A
Subject related [Sa]
Object related [Oa]

The clause types are determined by the verb class to which the main verb within the verb constituent belongs. Different verb classes require different complementation [DO, IO, Do, Io, A] to complete the meaning of the verb. In case of the verb being intransitive, no complementation is required. Accordingly, there are seven major types of clauses in English as shown in the following table.
Table: 3.1.
The Major Clause Types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>S(subject)</th>
<th>V(erb)</th>
<th>O(object)(s)</th>
<th>C(compliment)</th>
<th>A(adverbial)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SV</td>
<td>The new year</td>
<td>[Intrans] dawns</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVO</td>
<td>He</td>
<td>Monotrans helps</td>
<td>me[DO]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVC</td>
<td>She</td>
<td>[Copula] seems</td>
<td>happy[Sc]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVA</td>
<td>My pen</td>
<td>[Copula] is</td>
<td></td>
<td>[Sa] on the table</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVOO</td>
<td>He</td>
<td>got[Trans] a present</td>
<td>her[IO] [DO]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVOC</td>
<td>He</td>
<td>found</td>
<td>her [DO] very helpful[Oc]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVOA</td>
<td>She</td>
<td>got</td>
<td>herself</td>
<td></td>
<td>into trouble</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: (Quirk et al.1985: 58) (Modified by the researcher).

3.2.1. Syntactic Function of Clause Elements

There are five elements in the structure of a clause in English as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause Elements</th>
<th>Label</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i. Subject</td>
<td>S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii. Predicator</td>
<td>Pred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii. Object</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iv. Complement</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v. Adverbial</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Leech, Deauchar & Hoogenraad 1990:75).
i. **Subject**

The subject is one of the important elements in a clause. It can be defined as:

“The subject is a word or a group of words about which something is stated in a sentence” ([http://www.sharedvisions.com/explore/english/subject.html](http://www.sharedvisions.com/explore/english/subject.html))¹.

\[ \begin{array}{c|c}
  \text{a. The cat} & \text{devoured} & \text{the rat} \\
  S & Pred \\
\end{array} \]

\[ \begin{array}{c|c}
  \text{b. The rat} & \text{devoured the cat} \\
  S & Pred \\
\end{array} \] (Arts 1997: 8)

It is clear these sentences contain exactly the same words, but differ in meaning. This difference results from the different roles played by various constituents. In sentence \( a \) and \( b \) distinct entities namely *the cat* and *the rat* carry out the action denoted by the word *devoured*.

“We will call the words that denote the action verbs” (Arts 1997: 8).

However, the sentence \( a \) is telling us more about *the cat* while the sentence \( b \) is telling more about *the rat*.

According to Arts (1997: 8) subject of a sentence can be defined as the constituent that on the one hand tells us who performs the action denoted by the verb. (i.e. who is the agent?) , and on the other hand tells us who or what the sentence is about.

But this definition is not true every time since in addition to the referent of a subject sometimes not performing any kind of action, a subject can be an element that is meaningless.

\[ \begin{array}{c|c}
  \text{a. It is raining in England.} \\
\end{array} \]

---

¹ Accessed on 17 July 2007
b. It was hot.

c. There were three birds in the cage.

The element *it* in sentences a and b is often called *non referential it* since it does not refer to anything. *There* in sentence c is called *existential there* because it is used in proposition that has to do with existence. Arts notes:

Non referential *it* and existential *there* are said to be meaningless because all they seem to be doing in the sentences they occur is fill the subject slot (1997: 10).

The characteristics of a subject are:

1. **Form**: The subject of a clause can be a:
   - proper noun
   - pronoun
   - noun phrase
   - nominal clause

In each of the following examples the underlined item represents the subject.

a. **Perera eats rice**- A proper noun as a subject.

b. **He plays cricket**- A pronoun as a subject.

c. **Living in a good weather is good for health**- An NP as a subject.

d. **What I knew was very dangerous**- Noun clause as a subject.

e. **To go there is difficult**- An infinitive clause as a subject.

f. **Going there is difficult**. A verbal noun can be used as a subject.

There are three types of subject:

- Simple subject: a noun or a pronoun
  - He, she, it, man
- Complete subject: a noun or a pronoun with a modifier or modifiers.
a. the black dog

PreM N

b. the trees across the bay

N PoM

• Compound subject: two or more subjects joined by a conjunction.

  a. Mitch or Amy

  b. The cat and the dog

  (http://www.scientificpsychic.com/grammar/engram5.html)\textsuperscript{1}

  2. Position: The subject normally occurs before the verb in a declarative clauses and after the operator in yes-no interrogative clauses.

  a. Every body has gone home.
  b. Has every body gone home?
  c. Who did the work?

  In a cleft sentence the real subject takes the postponed position. So, it is called the postponed subject.

  d. It is Perera who did the task.

3. The Syntactic function

  a. A subject is an obligatory element in a finite clause except in an imperative where it is normally absent but implied.

  He drinks water.

  Please come inside [Imperative]

\textsuperscript{1} Accessed on 20\textsuperscript{th} August 2007
b. In a finite clause the subject determines the number and person, where relevant, of the verb.

**He**[S]drinks [V] water. [Third person singular]

**They**[S]drink [V] water. [Third person plural]

c. The subject normally determines the number of the subject complement when it is a noun phrase.

**He**[S] is my teacher[C]

**They**[S] are my teachers[C]

d. The subject determines the number and, where relevant, the person and gender of the reflexive pronoun as direct object, indirect object, subject complement, or prepositional complement. The same concord relation generally applies when emphatic genitive my own etc is used.

**I** [S] shaved myself [O] with my own razor [C]

**He** cooked himself [O] with his own cooker [C]

According to Quirk et al.(1985: 725) there is a syntactic correspondence between an active and a passive clause. In that the direct or indirect object of an active clause becomes the subject of a passive clause. The subject of the active clause is omitted or made a complement in a by-agent phrase”

**He**[S] has written a letter [O] - Active sentence

**The letter** [S] has been written by her - Passive sentence

ii. The predicator (Pred)

As defined in The Wikipedia- The Free Encyclopedia, the predicator is the element which is a verb phrase. The subject of a clause normally precedes the predicator and, there is an
agreement between subject and the predicator with regard to number, person etc.

a. He prefers cricket

b. They prefer cricket

Arts notes:

Predicators are pivotal elements which specify what we could call the bare-bone content of the sentences in which they occur, that is, the main action or process denoted by the verb (1997: 14).

According to these definitions the predicator in a sentence is everything except the subject. In sentences a and b the italicized items can be called the predicator.

The predicator must contain a verb, and the verb requires other sentence elements to complete the predicator. The elements are: objects [direct and indirect], adverbials etc. in the following examples the predicator is underlined.

John reads the book.
John gave me a present.
She listened to the radio.
They elected him president.

According to these examples it is clear the predicator gives information about the subject.
iv. The object
The object is very closely connected to the predicator in terms of meaning, and typically denotes the person or thing most intimately affected by the action or state denoted by the verb.

1. Form

“There are three types of objects; direct object, indirect object and the retained object” (http://www.usingenglish.com)\(^1\).

The direct object refers to an entity that is affected by the action denoted in the clause.

“The direct object of a verb is created, affected or altered by the action of a verb, appreciated or sensed by the subject of the verb” (http://www.usingenglish.com)\(^2\).

She eats rice.

In this example *She* is the doer of the action and it is called the subject [S]. The word *eat* denotes the action so, it is called the verb [V]. The entity affected by the action is denoted by the word *rice*, so, it is called the direct object [DO].

The indirect object refers to an animate being that is the recipient of the action. This is called the recipient participant. The indirect object is not directly affected by the action, but can either receive the direct object or have the action done for it (http://www.usingenglish.com)\(^4\).

We paid them the money.

In the clause the word *them* is the recipient participant position.

He gave me [IO] a book. [DO]

---

\(^1\) Accessed on 20th August 2007
\(^2\) Accessed on 19th July 2007
\(^3\) Accessed on 19th July 2007
\(^4\) Accessed on 19th July 2007
“The retained object is an object in a passive sentence that would also be the object in an active sentence”. 
(http://www.usingenglish.com). 

a. She was given a job by the previous manager.  
b. The previous manager gave her a job. 

A job is the retained object. It was the direct object in the active sentence of the ditransitive verb gave and is still an object in the passive voice as the indirect object has become the subject of the corresponding active sentence. 

2. Positions 

The object normally follows the subject and the verb. If both direct and indirect subjects are present, the indirect object normally comes before the direct object. 

He sends me [IO] a letter [DO] 

4. The syntactic function 

a. If an object is a pronoun it takes the particular case forms [accusative case] 
My father gave me [IO] a pen ![DO] 

b. If an object is co referential with the subject in person, in number and gender, similar agreement is required for an emphatic genitive. 
You can treat yourself ![DO] 
They have done their own work ![DO] 

1 Accessed on 19th July 2007 
2 Accessed on 19th July 2007
c. The indirect object generally corresponds to a prepositional phrase which is generally placed after the direct object.

\[
\text{I gave a pen to him.}
\]

In this kind of construction the IO to him is in the dative case.

d. The object of the active clause becomes the subject of the corresponding passive clause.

\[
\text{I have written a book.}
\]

\[
\text{The book has been written by me.}
\]

According to Quirk et al. (1985: 727) when both objects are present, it is often possible to make either the subject in a corresponding passive clause.

\begin{itemize}
  \item[a.] I gave my friend [Io] a book [DO].
  \item[b.] My friend [S] was given a book [DO].
  \item[c.] A book [S] was given to my friend [IO].
\end{itemize}

iii. Complement

The word complement denotes the constituent which is required in order to complete the grammatical structure of the sentence. The term complement in a general sense, according to Leech & Svartvik (2004: 271) means something that is necessary to complete a grammatical construction.

A complement is the part of a sentence that comes after the verb and is needed to make the sentence complete.
1. Form:
   - Subject complement

   \[
   \text{He} \quad \text{is} \quad \text{a teacher}\\
   S \quad V \quad C
   \]

   \[
   \text{He} \quad \text{is} \quad \text{a good scholar}\\
   S \quad V \quad C
   \]

   - . Object complement

   \[
   \text{I} \quad \text{found} \quad \text{it} \quad \text{very important}\\
   S \quad V \quad O \quad C
   \]

   - Adjectival complement

Adjectival complements can be *that*-clauses, to infinitives and prepositional phrases.

a. \[
\text{I} \quad \text{am} \quad \text{happy} \quad \text{that you work hard}\\
S \quad V \quad Adj \quad C
\]

b. \[
\text{I} \quad \text{am} \quad \text{happy} \quad \text{to hear that}\\
S \quad V \quad Adj \quad C
\]
c. I am happy of your success

- Prepositional compliment

According to Murcia & Freeman (1983:483) the prepositional complement is usually a noun phrase.

**The principle** inquired about **the absence of the teacher**

But it can be a *Wh* clause.

*The committee* argued about *what ought to be changed in the document*

Or an *ing clause*. (Leech and Svartvik 2004: 271).

*The committee* argued about **changing the wording of the document**

Murcia and Freeman note:

Sensory verbs *hear, feel, smell, taste, notice, observe, and watch* take two kinds of complements: the *–ing* participle and the base form (1983:484).

The word order of these complements at the sentence level is inflexible.
a. I saw Doug running across the field.
b. I saw Doug runs across the field.
c. I hear you reading well.
d. I hear you read well.

- The Word Order of a Complement:

In informal conversation, it is quite common for a speaker to front an element particularly the complement and to give it a nuclear stress.

a. *His eyes* looked *very strange* - *very strange* his eyes looked

b. *He serves here* excellent food - *excellent food* he serves here

According to Leech & Svartvik (2004: 212) it is as if the speaker says the most important thing in his or her mind first, adding the rest of the sentence as an afterthought.

v. Adverbial

McKercher defines the adverbial as:

The label ‘adverbial’ extends the range to prepositional phrases, noun phrases, and clauses, all of which may have the same modifying functions as adverbs (1996:1).

Accordingly the term *adverbial* extends this class of modifiers to include prepositional phrases, noun phrases, and clauses, all of which may be functionally coextensive with the single word adverbs.
He goes home very rarely

The adverbial *very rarely* modifies the verb *goes* and it can occur at the initial position of the sentence as well.

Very rarely he goes home

Table: 3.2.
The Types of Adverbials

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adverbial Type</th>
<th>Eliciting question</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Place</td>
<td>Where?</td>
<td>in a box</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direction</td>
<td>Where to/from?</td>
<td>to/from York</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>When?</td>
<td>on Sunday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duration</td>
<td>How Long?</td>
<td>for a month</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>How often?</td>
<td>once a week</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manner</td>
<td>How? In what manner?</td>
<td>quickly, with confidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agency</td>
<td>By whom?</td>
<td>by a tall dark stranger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal</td>
<td>To/for whom?</td>
<td>to Mary, for himself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reason</td>
<td>Why?</td>
<td>because of her mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition</td>
<td>In what circumstances?</td>
<td>If you do the dishes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>How much? How far?</td>
<td>Completely, to some extent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence adverbial</td>
<td>Expresses attitude, connection etc</td>
<td>In fact, consequently</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Leech, Deauchar & Hoogenraad 1990:75
• The Word Order of an Adverbial in a Clause

Leech, Deauchar and Hoogenraad observe (1990:75) that there is no fixed number of adverbials in the clause; in this they are rather like modifiers in the NP.

a. Actually she works at home very rarely these days

Leech & Svartvik observe that the most adverbials are mobile, so they can occur in different places in a sentence. Therefore they can occur at different places in the clause; in the initial position, mid position and the end position (2004:239).

b. She very rarely works at home these days actually

c. These days she very rarely works at home actually

Since adverbials are not obligatory elements, they can be omitted from the clause with some loss of meaning as in c.

a. He works at home very rarely

80
b. He works at home

\[ S \quad V \quad A \]

c. He works

\[ S \quad V \]

3.2.2. The Nominal Clause

A nominal clause is a dependent clause that can be used in the same way as a noun or pronoun. It can be a subject, predicate, direct object, indirect object, or object of the preposition. Some of the words that introduce noun clauses are: *that, whether, who, why, whom, what, how, when, whoever, where, and whomever.*

Nominal clauses function as nouns and are subordinated by one of the following subordinating conjunctions: *how, that, what, when, where, whether, which, who and why.* Nominal clauses may be replaced with pronouns.

(1) a. **How you did it** is not my concern. (That is not my concern)

b. **That I wanted a ball** was irrelevant in the discussion. (It was irrelevant).

According to Leech and Svartvik (2004:325) the nominal clause takes the place of a noun or a noun phrase.

**What I knew was very dangerous**

\[ Nc \]
a. The types of nominal clauses:

There are five main types of nominal clauses namely:

I. *that* clause:

II. Interrogative sub clauses

III. Nominal relative clause

IV. Nominal *to*- infinitive clause

V. Nominal *ing*- clause (Leech and Svartvik 2004:326).

b. The syntactic function

i. *that* clause:

According to Bakshi (2005: 208) *that* clause can occur as subject, direct object, subject complement or adjective complement.

- *that* clause as:
  - a subject: **That we are still alive is a luck**
  - a direct object: **We can accept that proposal**

According to The Wikipedia-The Free Encyclopedia, just as the object, noun, pronoun, infinitive, etc., is retained after a passive verb. So, the object clause is retained, and should not be called an adjunct of the subject; for example, we are persuaded *that a thread runs through all things*.

- a subject complement:

The terms of admission to this spectacle are **that he has a certain solid and intelligible way of living** (Wikipedia-The Free Encyclopedia).
• an adjective complement:

I am glad that you are working hard  

\[ Nc \]

ii. Interrogative sub clauses

According to Leech and Svartvik (2004:327) the interrogative sub clauses are introduced by *Wh- interrogative* words, including *how*. They can function as subject, direct object, subject complement or adjective complement.

• *Wh* interrogative subclause as:

a subject:

How she develops her writing skills will depend on her dedication  

\[ Isc \]

• a subject complement:

This is how she worked through the year  

\[ Isc \]

• an adjective complement:

I am not sure which house we want to buy  

\[ Isc \]
When the *Wh* element is a prepositional complement, the preposition can be in either initial position or in the final position.

a. David cannot remember **in which place he lived**

   \[ \text{Pc} \]

b. David cannot remember **which place he lived in**

   \[ \text{Pc} \]

Yes-no interrogative subclauses are formed with *if* or *whether*:

a. I wander **whether he can do it well or not**

   \[ \text{Isc} \]

b. Do you know **if / whether he comes today?**

   \[ \text{Isc} \]

iii. Nominal relative clause

Nominal relative clauses are also introduced by different *Wh-* words. They also can function as:

- a subject

   **What we need is to pass the examination**

   \[ \text{Nrc} \]

- an object

   **I will find what you need**

   \[ \text{Nrc} \]
• a subject compliment

The school is where we started our education

Nrc

• a object complement

You can call me whatever name you want

Nrc

• a complement of a preposition

This raises the question as to whether we should abandon the place

S V O C

iv. Nominal to- infinitive clause

Nominal to- infinitive clause can function as:

• a subject

To travel by bus is difficult

Infc

• a subject compliment

The purpose of hard working is to finish Ph.D

Infc
• a complement of an adjective

I am happy to work through out the day

V. Nominal ing- clause

Nominal participle clause can function as:

• a subject

Working in winter is difficult

• an object

I consider students working well in the examination

• a subject complement

What I like is reading books

• A prepositional complement

David respects his father by following his way of life
3.2.3. The Adjectival Clause

An adjective clause also called an adjectival or relative clause will meet three requirements. First, it will contain a subject and a verb. Next, it will begin with a relative pronoun who, whom, whose, that or which or a relative adverb when, where or why finally, it will function as an adjective, answering the questions what kind? How many?, Which one? The adjectival clauses can function as same as adjective in a sentence as follows.

a. The person who went there is my friend.

The structure of an adjectival clause would be:

1. Radv+ S+ V
2. Rpr+ V+ O

The following diagram illustrates the above structures.
According to these diagrams it is evident that these two constructions bear two constituent structures; since in the first construction relative adverb occurs in the initial position, the subject occurs in the mid position and the verb follows it. In the second construction it sticks to the unmarked SVO order in English. However, within both the constructions the order of the constituents is inflexible.

An adjectival clause does not express a complete thought, so it cannot stand on its own as a sentence. To avoid writing fragment, the Adjectival clause should be connected to the main clause. It should be noted that the Adjectival clause follows the word that it describes.

\[
\text{The person who is wearing a white shirt is my friend}
\]

**The Function of the Adjectival Clause**

Adjectival clause may function as the post modifier of:

1. The subject:

   **Those who see the Englishman only in town are apt to form an unfavourable opinion of his social character.**

2. The object:

   **He tells a tale that sounds untrue.**

**3.2.4. The Adverbial Clause**

Adverbial clause is a clause which functions as an adverb. In other words it contains a subject and the predicate and it modifies the verb.

a. **I saw Joe when I went to the store.**

b. **He sat quickly in order to appear polite.**
Adverb clauses express *when*, *why*, opposition and conditions and are dependent clauses. This means that an adverbial clause can not stand by itself - in other words, *When he went to New York* is not a complete sentence. It needs to be completed by an independent clause. For example, *He went to the Guggenheim museum when he was in New York.*

According to Greenbaum and Quirk (1990:10), adverbial clauses function mainly as adjuncts or disjuncts. In those functions they are like adverbial phrases, but in their potentiality for grater explicitness, they are more often like prepositional phrases.

a. *We left after the speech ended.* (Adverbial clause)

   b. *We left after the end of the speech.* (Prepositional phrase)

The constituent order of an adverbial clause can be identified as:

1. where he was
   
   [Adv S V]

2. because I was tired
   
   [Adv S V C]

3. when I went home
   
   [Adv S V O]

4. while I was eating
   
   [Adv S Aux V]
However, it is evident that adverbial clause is a kind of dependent clause and in other words it cannot stand on its own. The adjectival clause has to go with the noun to which it refers but the adverbial clause does not have to.

a. **Because I was tired** I felt asleep
   
   Advc

b. I felt asleep **because I was tired**
   
   Advc

c. **When I went to the university** my mother gave me good advice
   
   Advc

d. **My mother gave me good advice when I went to the university**
   
   Advc

According to David (2003:328) these clauses are named as adjunct clauses. Adjunct clauses fall into two main classes: those that relate the prepositions expressed by the two clauses in terms of time and those that link the clauses via a relation of cause or reason.

a. **Before he arrived**, the train had left.

b. **When he arrived**, the train had left.

b. **After she went**, father wept.
The function of the adverbial clauses as adjunct can be classified as follows:

- **The Function of the Adverbial Clause**
  
  - **Causal:**

    Causal adjuncts establish the reason for or purpose, of an action or state.

    a. **The ladder collapsed because it was old.** (Reason)
    
    b. **She went out to buy some bread.** (Purpose)

- **Concessive:**

  The concessive adjuncts establish the contrary circumstances.

  a. **He went out although it was raining**

     (Wikipedia- The Free Encyclopedia).

In these examples, it is evident that the word order of clauses function only as causal and concessive is free.

The adjunct clauses introduced by the temporal complementizer *before, when, and after*, the word order is free since they can be adjoined on either side of the main clause.

a. **Before the police came he had escaped.**

b. **He had escaped before the police came.**

c. **He was asleep when father arrived.**

d. **When father arrived he was asleep.**

It should be noted that these clauses can occur between embedding complementizer and the subject as follows.

**I thought that after finishing my job I will be free.**

However, the internal structure of these clauses is fairly straightforward and they are headed by the temporal complementizer which takes tense complement.

**after the police had left**

In considering the word order in clauses in English we find that within the clause the word order is very rigid. The change of the order of noun
clauses in sentences gives different meaning but the order of adverbial clauses can be changed without changing the meaning.

3.3. The Word Order at the Sentence Level

3.3.1. The Compound Sentences

According to Quirk et al. (1985:987) a compound sentence consists of two or more coordinated main clauses; the clauses of a compound sentence provide classic instances of a paratactic relationship that is they have equivalent function.

According to Wijesingha (2002: 53) when we join sentences with “and” or “but”, the separate sections or clauses can stand by themselves.

a. She plucks tea and her husband works in the factory.

b. He bought her a flower but she refused to go out with him.

A compound sentence consists of at least two independent clauses; no dependent clauses.

He finally read the book, or so I thought.
“The two independent clause are joined by a comma and the coordinating conjunction or (http://www.ucalgary.ca/)\(^1\)

A compound sentence contains two independent clauses joined by a coordinator.

The coordinators are as follows:

“For, and, nor, but, or, yet, so. Except for very short sentences, coordinators are always preceded by a comma” (http://www.eslbee.com/sentences.htm)\(^2\).

a. I tried to speak Spanish, and my friend tried to speak English.
b. Peter Smith played football, so Mary Smith went shopping.
c. Peter Smith played football, for Mary Smith went shopping.
   (Look Ahead, BBC English CD 4)

The above three sentences are compound sentences. Each sentence contains two independent clauses, and they are joined by a coordinator with a comma preceding it. The conscious use of coordinators can change the relationship between the clauses. Sentences b and c, for example, are identical except for the coordinators. In sentence b, which action occurred first? Obviously, Peter Smith played football first, and as a consequence, Mary Smith went shopping. In sentence c, Maria went shopping first. In sentence c Peter Smith played football because, possibly, he didn't have anything else to do, for or because Mary Smith went shopping.

In spoken English though the unmarked word order in positive sentences is SVO, it may change as SOV as exemplified in the following dialogue.

a. A. What would you like to have for breakfast?

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\(^1\) Accessed on 24\(^{th}\) August 2007
\(^2\) Accessed on 27\(^{th}\) Sep 2007
b. B. **Bread** I like (Look Ahead, BBC English CD 2)

\[ O \quad S \quad V \]

3.3.2. The Complex Sentence

According to the Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics (1985) the complex sentence a sentence which contains one or more dependent clauses in addition to its independent clause is called a complex sentence.

Baskervill & Sewell note:

A complex sentence is one containing one main or independent clause (also called the principal proposition or clause), and *one or more* subordinate or dependent clauses (1896: 368).

**Kumar who is in the third year works hard**

\[ Dc \]

A complex sentence has an independent clause joined by one or more dependent clauses. A principal, main, or independent clause is one making a statement without the help of any other clause. A subordinate or dependent clause is one which makes a statement depending upon or modifying some word in the principal clause ([http://www eslbee com/sentences htm](http://www.eslbee.com/sentences.htm))\(^1\).

A complex sentence always has a subordinator such as *because, since, after, although, or when* or a relative pronoun such as *that, who, or which*. A complex sentence contains one main clause and one or more

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\(^1\) Accessed on 21\(^{st}\) Sep 2007
subordinate clauses. The structure of a complex sentence could be as follows.

When it rained, we went inside

Dependent clause [subordinate clause] [Dc] - Independent Clause[Ic]
(Main clause)

In many complex sentences the order of clauses is flexible.

a. When it rained, we went inside

  Dc       Ic

b. We went inside when it rained

  Ic       Dc

c. While he was singing, I was dancing

  Dc       Ic

When a complex sentence begins with a subordinator such as sentences a and c, a comma is required at the end of the dependent clause. When the independent clause begins the sentence with subordinators in the middle as in sentences b and d, no comma is required.

d. I was dancing while he was singing

  Ic       Dc

A complex sentence with one depended clause and one compound clause:
While it was raining, my father stayed at home but I went to school

The sentences containing adjective clauses [or dependent clauses] are also complex because they contain an independent clause and a dependent clause.

a. The woman whom my mother talked is educated

The bold items indicate the independent clauses.

b. The book that Perera read which in red colour is on the self

c. The house which Abraham Lincoln was born in is still standing

d. The town where I grew up is in the United States

The complex sentences with infinitive in spoken English have a flexible word order.

a. The best thing would be for you to tell everyone.

b. To tell everyone would be the best thing for you.

The infinitive without “to” and the subject of the sentence also has free word order.
a. All I did was hit him on the head.
b. Hit him on the head was all I did.

When the subject of adverbial participle clauses is expressed, it is often introduced by with.

a. With the changing of the government, we are benefited.
b. We are benefited with the changing of the government.

3.3.2.1. Cleft Sentences

Cleft and pseudo cleft are special constructions in English which enable the language users to highlight a particular constituent in a sentence. Heavy NP shifts in a sentence would include the focus construction which is called cleft.

The structure:
The structure of a cleft sentence is described as follows.

“Cleft sentences usually begin with *it* + form of the verb *is*, followed by the element which is being emphasized” (Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics 1985)

It+ Be  form + the element to be focused +clause

It was Mr Smith who gave Mary a dress.

It was a dress that Mr. Smith gave Mary.

Arts notes:

Both cleft and pseudo cleft always contain a form of the copular verb *be*. The position following this copular verb is called the focus position. The elements that occur here receive special prominence (1997: 212).

a. It is Mary who writes.
b. It is Honda that she bought.
Depending upon the element to be focused, a simple sentence may have several cleft sentences. This can be considered a way of making complex sentences.

Simple sentence: David had ice cream at the party last night.
Cleft Forms:

a. It was David who had ice cream at the party last night.

b. It was ice cream that David had at the party last night.

c. It was at the party that David had ice cream last night.

d. It was last night that David had ice cream at the party.

Pseudo cleft in English also contributes to the word order changes in complex sentences.

In English, a sentence with a Wh-clause (eg. What I want) as subject or complement is known as a pseudo cleft sentence.

a. A good holiday is what I need

b. What I need is a good holiday

3.3.2.2. The Conditional Sentences

In a sentence, a clause where the action proposed in the main clause is dependent on the fulfillment of the subordinate clause.
“This subordinate clause is named a conditional clause”
(http://www.tiscali.co.uk/reference/dictionaries/english)\(^1\)

The most common kind of conditional sentence contains two clauses, one of which will start with the word *if*, as in *If it rains, we’ll have to stay at home*. The clause without the *if* is the main clause of the sentence, while the *if* clause is subordinate. The order of the two clauses is generally not that important to the meaning of the sentence; so the *if* clause can occur at the end position of the sentence without representing the meaning. Most grammar books tend to recognize four basic configurations of tenses in conditional sentences which vary in structure according to the time that we are talking about (past, present or future) and the meaning.

“These four types are normally referred to as the *first*, *second* and *third* conditionals”
(http://www.waylink.co.uk/?page=3134)\(^2\).

The conditional sentences are also known as **Conditional Clauses** or **If Clauses**.

The conditional sentences in English can be classified as follows.

**Zero-type conditionals**

**Form and meaning**

The form of the zero conditional causes no problems since the present tenses are used in both clauses.

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\(^1\) Accessed on 27\(^{th}\) Sep 2007
\(^2\) Accessed on 27\(^{th}\) Sep 2007
Table: 3.3.
Zero-type conditionals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zero-type conditionals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If clause/conditional clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If + Present tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you heat water</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: [http://www.waylink.co.uk](http://www.waylink.co.uk)¹

“The zero conditional is normally used to talk about facts and to general truths” [http://www.waylink.co.uk](http://www.waylink.co.uk)².

First-type conditionals
Form and meaning

The basic form for this type of conditional sentence can be seen in the chart below. As before, the order of the clauses can be changed with no change in meaning.

This type refers to future possibilities that are certain or probable.

Table: 3.4.
First-type conditionals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First-type conditionals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If clause/conditional clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If + Present tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If they don’t arrive soon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If they are late</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: [http://www.waylink.co.uk](http://www.waylink.co.uk)³

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¹ Accessed on 29th Sep 2007
² Accessed on 29th Sep 2007
³ Accessed on 29th Sep 2007
It is noted that on the if side of the sentence any present tense can be used, while in the main clause the speaker is free to choose any future that helps to express any meaning that the speaker wants to express.

**If he’s sleeping, he won’t wake up until morning.** (The Present Continuous in the first part of the sentence expresses the present temporary nature of the situation and the will in the second part is making a prediction about the future.)

**David is going to give me the phone, if he finds it.** (In the first clause I am expressing Alan’s intention so going to is the best future to use, while the second clause contains a Simple Present tense.)

**If you have finished the essay, leave it on my desk.** (By using the Present Perfect tense in the if clause is stressing the completed nature of the action, while in the second clause the imperative, which has a future meaning is used)

**Second-type conditionals**

**Form and meaning**

This type is often called the hypothetical or ‘unreal’ future conditional since it is usually used to speculate about either very unlikely future situations or present and future impossibilities.
Table: 3.5. Second-type conditionals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>If clause/ conditional clause</th>
<th>Main clause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If + Past tense</td>
<td>would + verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I had time</td>
<td>I would drop you off at school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I had wings</td>
<td>I would fly</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: [http://www.waylink.co.uk](http://www.waylink.co.uk)

Other examples are:

---

If you were coming with us, you would have a great time.

(Either I am not expecting you to come or you have already told me that you do not intend to come, so the situation is very unlikely to happen.

- If I were you, I’d call back later (This is a fixed expression used for giving advice, but since I can never be you, I use the future hypothetical conditional; you should note that many people would say if I was you and this is becoming increasingly common.)

Third-type conditionals

Form and meaning

This type refers to hypothetical situations in the past. In this case we use the Past Perfect tense in the “if clause” and would + have in the main clause.

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1 Accessed on 29th Sep 2007
Table: 3.6.
Third-type conditionals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>If clause/ conditional clause</th>
<th>Main clause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>If</em> + Past Perfect tense</td>
<td><em>would have</em> + past participle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>If I had known about his condition</em></td>
<td><em>I would have phoned you earlier</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>If we had known about the storm</em></td>
<td><em>we wouldn’t have started our journey</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: [http://www.waylink.co.uk](http://www.waylink.co.uk)\(^1\)

The main uses of the third conditional are for speculating about the past, expressing regrets, excusing our own actions and criticizing others. Some of the uses tend to overlap in practice as the examples below demonstrate:

- **If we’d taken the first turning, we would have been at home by now.**
- **If I’d bought the lottery ticket, we would have won millions.**
- **If I’d realized you were going to be so sensitive, I’d have kept quiet.**
- **The meeting would’ve finished before 1:00 if you’d said less.**

There is one other major variation to the form given in the chart above; in place of the more usual.

**If I had known about his condition.**

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\(^1\) Accessed on 29\(^{th}\) Sep 2007
The following order is also possible in English.

**Had I known about his condition**, where the *if* is omitted and the subject and auxiliary verb are inverted.

**Mixed conditionals**

The four types of conditional sentence discussed above appear to fit into very rigid patterns of form and meaning but often find exceptions to these rules.

In many cases we may want to talk about events that happened or did not happen in the past and the present results of those events. Therefore, we will often need to mix clauses from different conditional types in order to get our meaning across clearly and unambiguously ([http://www.waylink.co.uk](http://www.waylink.co.uk))

**If I’d bought the lottery ticket, we would be millionaires now.**

In this sentence it is needed to refer to something that did not do in the past (and probably regret) and the possible effect that this action might have had on the present – so the third-conditional *if* clause and a second-conditional main clause are used. Swapping around these two types also get:

**If he was going to come, he would have arrived by now** (with a second conditional *if* clause and a third conditional main).

This kind of mixing of conditional types is not uncommon.

**3.3.3. The Word Order in Question**

In question, the word order subject(S) – verb (V)-object (O) - is the same as in affirmative sentences. The only thing that is different is that it

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1 Accessed on 29th Sep 2007
is needed usually to put the auxiliary verb before the subject. Interrogatives are put at the beginning of sentences.

“Further more, the subject is the part of the sentence that changes its position as we go from statement to question” (Quirk et al.2005:23).

**What did you tell me?**

In case of not using the auxiliary verb, the interrogative simply takes the place of the subject.

**Who asked you?**

According to Radford (1981: 146), questions in natural language can be classified into a number of types. One major typological division, for example, is between *yes-no questions* and *wh-questions*.

### 3.3.3.1. Types of Question

#### 3.3.3.1.1. Yes-No Question

Yes – no questions are so named because they permit *yes-no* as an appropriate replies.

The verb is moved to the front in order to form *yes-no* question in English.

“The movement of element to the front of the sentence is called *fronting*” (Rutherford 1998:90).

**A:** *Are* you from around here?

**B:** Yes, I am.

**A:** *Do* you come here often?

**B:** Yes, I do.

**A:** *Can* I buy you a drink?

**B:** No, thanks.
A: **Have you finished your work?**

B: Yes, I have

(Look Ahead, BBC English CD 3).

The yes-no questions can be formed placing the operator before the subject.

a. **He is in the office now**

b. **Is he in the office now?**

(Look Ahead, BBC English CD 3).

To form a question from a statement, first it is needed to count the number of verbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John is a doctor.</td>
<td>Is John a doctor?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jane drives a sports car.</td>
<td>Drives Jane a sports car?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joan played basketball last night.</td>
<td>Played Joan played basketball last night?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jan is eating her dinner.</td>
<td>Eating Jan is eating her dinner?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June has rented an apartment.</td>
<td>Rented June has rented an apartment?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jen has been living there since 1969.</td>
<td>Living Jen has been living there since 1969?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If there is *one verb* in the statement and the verb is a form of *be*, the question can be formed changing the positions of the S and V.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John is a doctor.</td>
<td>Is John a doctor?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Jensens are here.</td>
<td>Are the Jensens here?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
If there are *two verbs*, questions are formed changing the positions of the subject and *first* verb.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jan is eating dinner.</td>
<td>Is Jan eating dinner?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June has rented an apartment.</td>
<td>Has June rented an apartment?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jen has been living here since 1969.</td>
<td>Has Jen been living here since 1969?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“If there is one verb, and the verb is not a form of *be*, the process is more complex” ([http://www.eslgold.com/](http://www.eslgold.com/))².

1. *‘Do’* to the beginning of the sentence is added.

   The Johnsons live in that house.  Do the Johnsons live in that house?

2. If the main verb "carries" a third person singular *s*, the *s* suffixed to *Do*, making it *Does*.

   Jane drives a car.  Does jane drive a car?

1. If the main verb "carries" past tense, move the *past tense* to *Do*, making it *did*.

   John played cricket last night- Did Joan play cricket last night?

In conversation, most questions are asked of the *second* person [you] and answered in the *first* [I].

A: Are you from [California]?
B: No, I'm from [Oregon]. Where are you from?
A: Yes, I'm from Hollywood.

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¹ Accessed on 2nd Oct 2007
² Accessed on 2nd Oct 2007
B: Do you know any movie stars?
A: No, I don't go out at night (http://www.eslgold.com/)¹.

In British English, the main verb *has* sometimes functions like *be* in questions. This is not common in American English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You have a pet ferret.</td>
<td>Have you a pet ferret? (British)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Do you have a pet ferret? (American)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.3.3.1.2. Wh Question

Radford defines the *Wh question* as follows.

*Wh-questions are so-called because (in English) they typically involve the use of an interrogative word beginning with *Wh*- (eg. who, why, what, when, where, which,-but also how) (1981: 147).*

You will buy **which car** tomorrow

```
Wh movement
```

**Which car will you buy tomorrow?**

*Thus, the Wh question formation in English invokes two movement operations: fronting of the Wh – element and subject auxiliary inversion which in other words can be termed as the change of normal word order.*

¹ Accessed on 2nd 2007
According to Radford (1981: 146) the Transformation (= movement rule) of this kind is called *Wh* movement (Also *Wh* preposing, *Wh-*fronting etc).

Berk elaborates the word order of *Wh* questions as follows.

Information seeking questions, also called *Wh* questions, always contain an information seeking word- who, what, where, when, why, whose, which, or how, and this form is usually first in the sentence. These are typically called *Wh* words, even though how is not spelt with *Wh*. The word order in a *Wh* question is always the same (1999: 154-155).

a. **What** John can do?

b. **What can** John do?

Movement of various kinds plays an important role in English. In the analysis of a sentence like *What did you ask?* The question elements originated as object of ask and moved in its *Wh*-form to sentence initial position.

English reveals a certain asymmetry with regard to extraction phenomena. That is *Wh* –extraction from within a complementizer phrase [Cp], complement of a verb is possible from object position but not subject position.

a. **Who do you think that Mary saw?**

The *Wh* –forms *What* and *Which* do allow a complement though. Both can combine with nominal phrases to form a larger *Wh* determiner phrases.

**What kind of actor is he?**

*Wh*-expressions are perfectly well formed in sentences like the following, where they are apparently in their base form.

a. **Andrew saw who?**

b. **Jason gave the poisoned cloths to whom?**
According to David (2003:352) these are called echo-questions and they are well-formed under a particular interpretation which is usually to occur at the end of the clause. In addition, English allows multiple Wh-questions, where there is more than one Wh-expression in the clause.

**a. Who poisoned who?**

**b. Who did what to whom?**

Rutherford (1998:84) claims that in theses questions Wh words occur usually in the initial position, mid position and the end position of the sentence. In linguistics this is called *fronting* and *backing*. Wh question occurs in the embedded contexts. In this context the Wh word occurs just after the verb of the matrix clause.

**a. You remember how we met.**

**b. I enquired when we could leave.**

**c. You live in what kind of home?** (Look Ahead, BBC English CD1).

In subject Wh questions in English the Wh word usually occurs at the initial position of the clause.

**a. Who has drunk the poison?**

**b. Which one will help us?**

If we replace simple Wh words with a more complex expressions containing *Which* then both orders of Wh expression are well formed:

**a. Which poet wrote which poem?**

According to David (2003: 163) this effect is known as *Discourse Linking Effect*, since it occurs when the Wh determiner ranges over elements which are already established in the discourse.

### 3.3.3.1.3. Question Tags

The Question Tags follow statements and they seek affirmation of the proposition contained in the statement.
He works hard. \textbf{Doesn’t he?}
She is working hard. \textbf{Isn’t she?}
Those kids are sweet. \textbf{Aren’t they?}
He took your books. \textbf{Didn’t he?}

Tag questions are frequent in many languages, but the “canonical” type of tag question with reversed or constant polarity, as in (1) through (4), is typical of English:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Anchor</th>
<th>Question Tag</th>
<th>Polarity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) It makes you really think, doesn’t \textit{it}?</td>
<td>Positive–Negative (+/−)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) Oh it’s not very valuable, \textit{is it}?</td>
<td>Negative–Positive (−/+)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) So this is the letter he sent, \textit{is it}?</td>
<td>Positive–Positive (+/+)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) Yes, they don’t come cheap \textit{don’t they}?</td>
<td>Negative–Negative (−/−)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This type of tag question consists of two clauses, an \textit{anchor} and a \textit{tag}. The subject in the anchor can be a full noun phrase, a pronoun, or \textit{there}, but in the tag, it must be either a personal pronoun, \textit{there}, or \textit{one}. The verb in the anchor can be a lexical verb, an auxiliary, or a modal verb; the verb in the tag must be an auxiliary or a modal. We use the term \textit{question tag} for the combination of anchor and tag. There can be reversed polarity (positive–negative or negative–positive) in the anchor clause.

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1 Accessed on 2\textsuperscript{nd} Oct 2007
2 Accessed on 3\textsuperscript{rd} Oct 2007
The creation of a question tag in English is a very elaborate operation. The speaker has to be able to identify the pronominal form of the subject and the first auxiliary in the VP; these appear in reverse order in the tag question. Then, the speaker must determine whether the sentence is affirmative or negative and construct a tag that is opposite

a. Lara is going to Sweden  - Isn’t she?

b. Lara isn’t going to Sweden- Is she? ” (Berk 1999: 156).

The rules for question tag formation:

i. The tag will contain a pronoun that has the subject of the main verb as its antecedent:

Jose washed his car, didn't he?

Auxv + Npart S

The order of words in the tag is: Auxv+Npart+S

Jose did not wash his car, did he?

Auxv S

ii. The base statement and the tag have opposite negative marking: if the base is positive, the tag is negative; if the base is negative, the tag is positive:

a. Jose didn't wash his car, did he?

Auxv S
b. Jose washed his car, didn't he?

iii. The verb in the tag must be either an auxiliary verb or the verb be. If the base sentence has no auxiliary verb, do appears:

a. Jose is tall, isn’t he?

b. Jose will wash his car, won’t he?

c. Jose has washed his car, hasn’t he?

d. Jose likes cars, doesn't he? (No Auxv in base sentence; tag has do)

e. Jose has a new car, doesn't he? (American) (No Auxv in base sentence; tag has do)

f. Jose has a new car, hasn't he? (British)

(http://cla.calpoly.edu/~jrubba/syn/Syntax_sentences.html)¹

¹ Accessed on 3rd 2007
3.3.4. The Word Order in Negation

They are two types:

i. The modal negation

ii. The non-modal negation

i. The modal negation

The structure of modal negation is:

\[ S + Mo + Npart + V \]

An infinite modal negative can be generated according to this structure:

a. You may not have another cookie

\[ \begin{array}{cccc}
S & Mo & Npart & V \\
\end{array} \]

b. I can not speak English

\[ \begin{array}{cccc}
S & Mo & Npart & V \\
\end{array} \]

In the modal negation, the model is negated postposing the Npart as in a and b.

“In the model negation, the negation of model is natural. The case with the model that it is most like a main verb” (Palmer 1974: 34).

As Palmer observes there is no distinction between negating the model and negating the full verb. Wu notes:

Modal auxiliaries usually carry complex semantic meanings, which are different from other auxiliaries such as do, have and be. However, the scope of modal negation may or may not include the meaning of the modal auxiliaries. There are different semantic meanings of the
same syntactic structure derived from the same phrase structure (2005:53).

a. You may not smoke here.
(= You are not allowed to smoke here.)
b. My sister may not like the color.
(= It is possible that my sister doesn’t like the color.) (Wu 2005:53)
In example a may carries the meaning of permission and its negative may not carries the meaning of prohibition. In example b, may carries the meaning of possibility in both its affirmative and negative sentences.

ii. The non-modal negation
The non-modal negation includes negatives composed of such auxiliary verbs as do, have and be.

a. He is not a teacher.
b. They haven’t done it.

According to Leech and Svartvik (2002:321), in this kind of example, the positive clause contains an auxiliary (be, have) that can serve as operator (i.e. first auxiliary in a verb phrase). When there is no such operator present, the auxiliary do has to be introduced as operator. This is called the do – construction or do-support. Like model auxiliaries, do is followed by the bare infinitive.

a. He likes books. (Positive sentence)
b. He doesn’t like books. (Negative sentence)

According to Radford (1997: 234) The negative phrase is occupied n’t rather than not. Since n’t is a suffix (and cannot be used as an independent word standing on its own), n’t cliticizes to the preceding auxiliary does adjoining to does in the manner represented as follows.

She doesn’t trust him.
Radford finds that (1997: 234) when \( n't \) is attached to the auxiliary *does* it forms a negative auxiliary which behaves like any other auxiliary in being able to undergo inversion in questions such as:

**Doesn’t she trust him?**

However, data suggests that \( n't \) can be suffixed only to some items, but not others. In this way *not* will be a free form and \( n't \) be a bound form.

\[ \text{c. She may not come.} \]
\[ \text{d. She mayn’t come.} \]

*All … not…construction*

In the structure of “all … not …” construction, the negative particle can occur just after the verb or in the initial position of the sentence.

\[ \text{a. All that glitters is not gold.} \quad (= \text{It is not true that all that glitters is gold.}) \]

\[ \text{b. Not all that glitters is gold.} \quad (= \text{It is not true that all that glitters is gold.}) \]

\[ \text{c. All the money in the world won’t make you happy.} \quad (= \text{It is not true that all the money in the world will make you happy}) \]

\[ \text{d. Not all the money in the world will make you happy.} \]
\[ (= \text{It is not true that all the money in the world will make you happy.}) \]

Wu highlights that (2005:55). Obviously, the structure “All … not …” and “Not all …” have the same deep structure in English, and shifting the negative *not* to the beginning of the sentence does not change its meaning. Therefore, there is a semantic equivalence in both structures

**Not …. because …Construction**

* not an accepted form.
Another special case of negative form in English is the sentence structure “not … because …” In this structure, what is negated is not the word right after the negative particle.

**He isn’t happy on account of his wealth, but on account of his good health.**

**Negative pronouns and determiners**

In English there are a number of expressions with negative pronouns like *no one, no body, none, neither*, and with negative determiner *no*.

a. **No one** will do it.
b. **No body** can answer.
c. **None of them** will pass the exam.
d. **Neither of your** answer is correct.
e. **There are no books** for you.

**Other negative words**

i. **Neither……..no** [Coordinating conjunction]

*Neither* government *no* the private sector provides jobs.

ii. **Never** [adverb of time]

**I never** believe those rumors.

iii. **Nowhere** [adverb of place]

**This tradition exists nowhere in Sri Lanka.**

Following words also indicate negative meaning though they do not appear negative in form.

i. **Hardly** (almost not)

**There is hardly any money** in my pocket.

ii. **Few** (hardly any)

**Few people can speak** English well.

iii. **Rarely** *(not often)*(hardly ever)
Not-transportation
It is possible in English that the negation of a main clause may yield the same meanings as the negation of its clause does.

a. I don’t think that she is right. (= I think that she is not right.)
b. We don’t expect he will come. (= We expect he will not come.)
c. We couldn’t believe it is true. (= We believe it is not true.)
d. I don’t feel I can stand it much longer. (= I feel I cannot stand it much longer.) (Wu 2005:54-55).

The above examples show that transporting not of the main clause to the objective clause doesn’t change its meaning at all. However, it would be preferable to put not in the main clause other than in the objective clause.

Some negative items can be placed at the initial position of the clause. This leads to the inversion of subject and operator determining the order as operator+ subject.

a. Rarely in American history has there been a political campaign that clarified issues less.

b. Never was a greater fuss made about any man than about Lord Byron. (Leech and Svartvik 2002: 324).

3.3.5. The Word Order in Imperative Construction
A sentence which is in the form of command is called an imperative sentence.

a. Look up the dictionary.
b. Look what you have done now.

According to Van Valin (1997: 41) in this construction, the second person subject is normally omitted and is interpreted as the addressee, and the verb is in a special, usually tense less form.

a. Open the door!
b. Finish!
c. Take a rest! (Look Ahead, BBC English CD 3).

In all these constructions the addressee is understood to be the subject of
the verb, and it is reasonable to expect that this would be the case for
everywhere.

Imperative clauses are traditionally said to be finite.

Radford notes:

The subjectless imperative clauses have traditionally been
assumed to have an ‘understood’ –second person subject
(i.e. our terms might be analyzed as an empty second
person pronominal singular or Quirk and Crystal plural
subject which we might designate as YOU) (1988: 333)

a. Don’t hurt yourself.
b. Do be careful.
c. Don’t lose your temper.

According to Bouton (1990:37) in English, the imperative is sometimes
followed by a tag consisting of an auxiliary verb and its subject. This is
true whether the imperative itself has an explicit subject or not.
a. Someone give me a hand here, can you?
b. Go home, will you?

3.4. Summary

Though the word order in English is considered to be very rigid
particularly at the phrase level, there are some peculiarities. The SVO
order is not fixed even at the clause and sentence level of the language
so as English language cannot be considered as a language with a very
rigid word order.