Speech organs

1 lips
2 teeth
3 alveolar ridge
4 hard palate
5 soft palate (velum)
6 uvula
7 pharynx
8 epiglottis
9 glottis – gap between vocal folds
10 larynx
11 tip/apex of the tongue
12 blade/lamina of the tongue
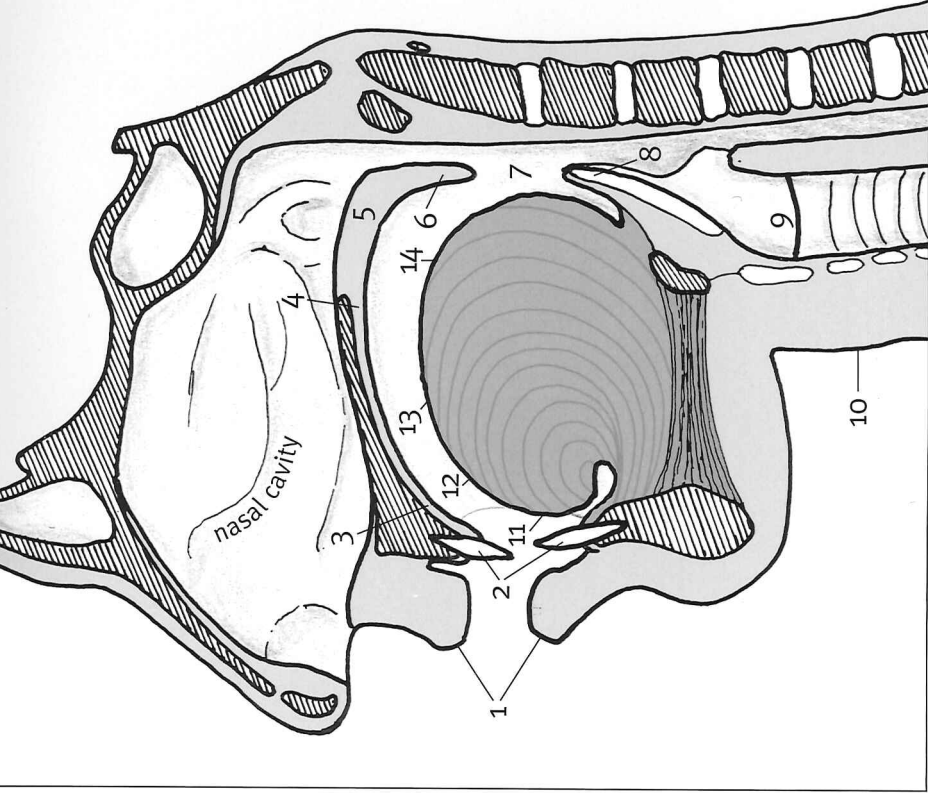13 front of the tongue
14 back/dorsum of the tongue

nasal cavity

Figure II.1

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IV Grammar: The ground plan of English

What will take centre stage in this and the next chapter is the basic formal structure of English, or what could also be called "the ground plan of the language". The most important structural characteristics of English will be presented from two different perspectives: in the current chapter by way of introducing the key concepts and terms in grammar, and in chapter V as part of a comparison of English and another West Germanic (and thus genetically closely related) language, namely German. In both chapters, we will adopt what may be called an 'enlightened traditional approach'. This means that we will for the most part use the traditional, long established terminology (some of which is over two thousand years old), but in a critically reflected way, i.e. including the scientific insights and developments of recent research in the field of grammar. This approach is particularly suitable for teaching (foreign) languages at schools, colleges and universities; it is therefore the approach preferred for the linguistic training of future foreign-language teachers. A similar approach is used by Hurford (1994), Huddleston (1988), and the three currently most important English reference grammars namely Quirk et al. (1985), Biber et al. (1999), and Huddleston/Pullum (2002).

Introduction

Leaving aside *grammar* as language theory (as in *generative* or *transformational grammar*; cf. chapter I), the term "grammar" can usually mean three different things:

- the study of the rule-based structure (or: the ground plan) of a language
- the object of study itself, i. e. the system of rules according to which a given language may combine words and the morphemes they consist of into larger units
- the book in which these rules are formulated and described

In the first sense, i. e. in terms of the study of the rule-based structure of a language, we can subdivide grammar into the grammatical structure of words (inflectional morphology, see section IV.1) and the grammatical structure of phrases, clauses and sentences (syntax, see sections IV.2 and IV.3). The linguistic units under investigation can be represented in the following hierarchy:

<div align="left">grammar</div>
<div align="left">inflectional-morphology   syntax</div>

inflectional morphemes ‹ words (including word forms)
‹ phrases ‹ clauses ‹ sentences

descriptive – prescriptive

Examining some central aspects of English grammar from an 'enlightened' traditional perspective also means using a descriptive – as opposed to a prescriptive (or: normative) – approach. Among the grammarians of the 18th and 19th centuries, it was common practice to lay down rules – which often appeared to be arbitrary – for the correct or 'educated' use of English widely accepted among the higher social classes (how English should be spoken). This is not, however, the perspective taken in this book. We will instead be looking at English as it is actually spoken today, at the turn of the 21st century. The reader will not find any criticism on such phenomena as the so-called *split infinitive* (e. g. *to quickly go*), the use of *I will* instead of *I shall* as future-tense marker, of sentence-final prepositions or the missing use of *whom* (e. g. the latter two in *She's the woman who I'd like to talk to*). Note that this does not mean that descriptive grammars follow an 'anything goes' principle. It simply means that each variety of a language has its rules, but that these rules are not necessarily the same for each variety. Above all it must be noted that, from a linguistic perspective, no variety is inherently 'better' than, or superior to, other varieties (which is why we especially disapprove of terms like "sub-standard"). On the contrary: the reason why standard varieties enjoy a privileged status (cf. also chapter VIII.1) is that they enable people from different dialect areas to communicate with each other. The standard therefore seems especially suitable for use in the mass media, in schools and universities and in foreign language teaching (think of *TESOL–Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages*). In this chapter, it is the structural core of the different standard varieties of English, notably British and American English, which will be examined in some detail.

Bound morphemes which are exclusively used to encode grammatical information are called inflectional morphemes. Only eight of the numerous inflectional morphemes found in Old English are still in use today. As mentioned in earlier chapters, English has developed into an isolating or analytic language. The few inflectional morphemes that have survived are used in the declension of nouns, the conjugation of verbs and the comparison of adjectives (see Table IV.1).

IV.1 Inflectional Morphology

Table IV.1 English inflectional morphology				
word class	**kind of inflection**	**inflectional morphemes**	**examples**	**number of word forms**
noun	declension	{PLURAL}: {-s} {'GENITIVE'}: {-s}	two boy-s the boy-s toy	rule: 2 exception: 4
verb	conjugation	{3SG. IND. PRES}:{-s} {PAST}:{-ed} {PRES. PART}:{-ing} {PAST PART}:{-ed}	he work-s he work-ed he is work-ing he has work-ed	rule: 4 exception: 5 (8)
adjective	comparison	{COMPARATIVE}:{-er} {SUPERLATIVE}:{-est}	strong-er strong-est	rule: 3

As a result of the dramatic loss of inflectional morphemes in the course of the history of English, each of the three word classes mentioned above contains far fewer word forms in Present-Day English than, for example, in German.

If we consider only those lexemes that follow the productive pattern (again compare Table IV.1), we see that the English noun can occur in only two word forms (e. g. *boy, boy's = boys*), the English adjective in no more than three (*strong, stronger, strongest*), and the English verb in no more than four word forms (*walk, walks, walked, walking*). Even the irregular nouns and verbs – of which there are

English – a strongly analytic language

relatively few in English – have hardly more different forms. Irregular nouns can take on four – instead of two – word forms (e.g. *child, child's, children, children's*) and so-called "strong verbs" have five – instead of four – different forms (e.g. *sing, sings, sang, singing, sung*). Only the verb *to be* has eight forms (*be, am, are, is, was, were, being, been*). English has lost most of the inflectional morphemes it once possessed, resulting in a language in which each lexeme can appear in but a small number of word forms. It is therefore often characterized as a language of largely invariable words, i.e. as an analytic or isolating language (cf. also chapter V.2.1). Another peculiarity resulting from this development is a phenomenon called "conversion" (already mentioned in chapter III.3.3).

That English is indeed an analytic language also becomes clear from the many grammatical categories which can be formed synthetically (i.e. by using inflectional morphemes) as well as analytically. Take the comparison of English adjectives as an example. The decision whether the comparative and superlative of a certain adjective are formed by using *more* and *most* largely depends on the phonological complexity of the stem of the adjective (i.e. on how many syllables it has).

(1) Comparison of adjectives: synthetic or analytic?
   a. 1 syllable: usually synthetic (*old-older-oldest*); but some adjectives may also take the analytic strategy (*mad, brave*)
   b. 2 syllables: both strategies are possible (*polite*); inflection is preferred for adjectives with an unstressed final vowel, /l/ or /ə(r)/: *easy, narrow, noble, clever* (vs. *severe*)
   c. > 2 syllables: exclusively analytic (*beautiful, interesting*); exception: adjectives with the prefix *un-* (*untidy*)

In a similar way, possessive relationships can be marked either synthetically by using the so-called "genitive" (more adequately called "possessive") or analytically by using the *of*-construction (*my uncle's house* vs. *the house of my uncle*). The analytic nature of English becomes even more obvious when looking at other grammatical categories which are always formed analytically, i.e. by using so-called periphrastic constructions "periphrastic constructions". Periphrastic constructions, such as *he is working* (Present Progressive) or *he has arrived* (Present Perfect),

consist of more than one word, at least one of which is a function word (e.g. an auxiliary or a preposition). It perfectly ties in with the overall picture that these two eminently important constructions (cf. IV.3.2) became obligatory only during the Middle English and Early Modern English periods, and that they have continuously conquered new territory, thus clearly qualifying as two strengthened grammatical categories of Late Modern and Present-Day English. On the other hand, all inflectional categories of the noun are weakened categories. From the relatively elaborate case system of Old English nouns only two cases have survived: the unmarked common case and the possessive. English has completely lost its grammatical gender distinction (in German: *der Baum, die Tasse, das Mädchen*), nowadays distinguishing nouns either by natural (e.g. *the boy – he, the girl – she, the tree – it*) or, marginally, metaphorical gender (e.g. *the sun – he, the moon – she, England – it/she, car – it/she*). Table IV.2 illustrates the marginal role inflectional morphology plays in the marking of grammatical categories in Present-Day English. We will take a closer look at the individual categories in sections IV.2, IV.3 and in chapter V.

strengthened – weakened categories

Table IV.2 Grammatical categories in English

categories	formal contrasts	kind of marking	marked on/ relevant for
gender	masculine – feminine – neuter	no inflectional category neither synthetic nor analytic	only pronouns (*he-she-it, his-her-its*), natural gender (*the man-he, the girl-she, the table-it*) and metaphorical gender (*sun-he/it, moon-she/it, ship, truck-she/it*)
case	common case – possessive	synthetic; possessive also analytic	nouns (possessive: *the kids' toys – the toys of the kids*); some pronouns additional object case: *he-his-him, who-whose-whom*
number	singular – plural	synthetic	nouns, pronouns, verbs (*he put-s*, plural only for *be*: *are/were*)
person	1st/2nd/3rd person	synthetic	verbs: only 3SG ind. pres. active (*he sing-s, is/has/does*); only for *be*: also 1st and 2nd person: *I am, you are*
tense	past – non-past	synthetic	verbs (*walk-ed versus walk*)

Table IV.2 Grammatical categories in English

categories	formal contrasts	kind of marking	marked on/ relevant for
aspect	(a) progressive – non-progressive	analytic	verbs (*be* + V-*ing*)
	(b) perfect – non-perfect		verbs (*have* + V-*ed*)
mood	indicative – subjunctive	marginally synthetic, analytic	verbs: ind.; subj. only marginally (for *be*: *I wish I were…*; *I insist that he go*/*should go*)
voice	active – passive (– mediopassive)	analytic	verbs (*be* + V-*ed*)
comparison	absolute – compara-tive – superlative	synthetic, analytic	adjectives (-*er*, -*est*, *more, most*), adverbs (*more, most*)

Inflectional morphology is the link or interface between morph-ology and syntax. This is shown most clearly by the fact that it is syntax which makes certain word forms necessary:

(2) a. Alice live_ in London, and ha_ live_ there all ___ life.
      b. Yesterday Alice walk__ past Fred_ uncle_ house, one of many house_ along the way.

The examples in (2) show that the most important function of inflectional morphemes is to establish agreement (or: concord), meaning the formal agreement between syntactically closely related units with regard to their grammatical categories. We have already observed two areas where inflectional morphology acts as the connecting link between morphology and syntax: the comparison of adjectives and the marking of the possessive case. Both can be marked synthetically as well as analytically, although in many cases only one strategy is possible (cf. (1) above). The close connection between inflectional morphology and syntax also becomes clear when considering the fact that English has one inflectional suffix which may be attached not to the stem of the noun it actually modifies but to the whole phrase containing the noun as its head:

(3) a. the Museum of Modern Art's new Director
      b. the boy next door's bicycle

This so-called "group genitive" is one of the rare instances where a suffix appears to have started to 'emancipate itself' and develop into a postponed preposition (i.e. a postposition like English *ago* or German *halber*). On the other hand, there is the opposite phenom-enon (observed in many languages) of formerly free morphemes developing into bound morphemes. For example, it can be argued that the English negation suffix –*n't* is developing into a clitic which has started losing its independence and leans towards 'the left' to become the ninth inflectional suffix used with auxiliaries (as in *isn't, doesn't, don't, won't*). All of these examples illustrate that there are transition zones between (inflectional) morphology and syntax.

This becomes even more evident when comparing different lan-guages. There are instances where a grammatical category which, in one language, is marked by inflection, can or even must be coded syntactically in another language. In Latin, for example, the perfect and future tenses are synthetic (*amavit* = he has loved, *amabit* = he will love), whereas English and German use analytic tenses (*he has loved, he will love*). Languages like Latin use inflection (more precisely case marking) to indicate which argument of the verb is the subject and which the direct object of a given sentence. The nominative case indicates subject function, while the accusative case marks the direct object (consider e.g. *puella videt puerum* = the girl sees the boy). In such languages, word order is relatively irrelevant or 'free'. The three sentences *puella videt puerum*, *puella puerum videt* and *puerum videt puella* have the same basic meaning. In analytic or isolating languages like English, this is totally different. Here it is through word order that we recognize the subject and object of a sentence (compare *the girl sees the boy* and *the boy sees the girl*). By fixing the word order (subject-verb-object: SVO), syntax assumes the function fulfilled by inflection in such languages as Latin. For this reason, Latin represents a language type diametrically opposed to English, namely a synthetic or inflectional language. We can therefore classify different language types according to their morphological characteristics. We call this "morphological typology". Pairs of contrasting properties are syn-thetic – analytic and inflectional – isolating. It should be kept in mind, though, that *synthetic* does not necessarily equal *inflectional*, and *analytic* does not necessarily equal *isolating*. Rather, inflectional lan-guages are a special type of synthetic languages, and isolating lan-guages can be seen as the most radical type of analytic languages. In the past, European languages have undergone a change from synthetic to analytic (e.g. French as compared to Latin, or the modern

Germanic languages as compared to the Germanic languages used over a thousand years ago). German, too, has lost part of its inflectional system and has become more analytic. Even so, it is still clearly a synthetic language – consider the case marking in sentences like *Der Mann gab de<u>m</u> Jungen de<u>n</u> Schlüssel* (subject – nominative, indirect object – dative and direct object – accusative). English, on the other hand, underwent a much more radical typological change, losing a large part of its former inflectional system. Compared to Old English, it is now a strongly analytic, almost isolating language where a single lexeme hardly ever exhibits more than one word form (see the "language of largely invariable words" mentioned above).

The basic properties of the different morphological language types are summarized in (4); the relationships between the different language types can be seen in Figure IV.1 (note that the language types are idealized types and the relationships between them are simplified). It goes without saying that there are fuzzy boundaries between the different language types, and that there are many languages which do not (or only to a certain extent) possess all properties of a given language type. In Figure IV.1 one more synthetic language type relevant for the European languages is introduced: agglutinating languages, such as Turkish or Finnish. The basic difference between

inflectional and agglutinating languages is that in agglutinating languages every grammatical morph carries exactly one piece of information (i.e. there is a 1:1 relationship between form and meaning), whereas in inflectional languages one morph usually carries several pieces of information. The ending -*us* in Latin *dominus*, for example, signals not only nominative (case) but also masculine (gender) and singular (number). An agglutinating language would ideally use one inflectional morph for the encoding of each of these grammatical categories.

(4)	a. synthetic:	rich inflectional system; many word forms for each lexeme; subject-object marking by means of inflection; free word order
	a1. inflectional:	mapping of different kinds of grammatical information on one morph; often morphophonemic alternation (e.g. Latin *pater-patres,* German *gib-gab*); therefore no clear segmentation into morphemes possible
	a2. agglutinating:	1:1 relationship between form and meaning/function for grammatical morphs; transparent morphological structure (→ segmentation into morphemes easily possible)
	b. analytic:	poor inflectional system; few word forms for each lexeme; periphrastic constructions; subject-object marking by means of word order (→ fixed word order)
	b1. isolating:	complete loss of inflectional endings; no word forms; usually monomorphemic words

Morphological language types

synthetic — analytic

inflectional (Latin, Greek, German, Russian) — agglutinating (Japanese, Turkish, Finnish) — isolating (Chinese, Vietnamese, English)

Before concluding this section, let us return to the difference between inflectional and derivational morphemes. Chapters III and IV.1 have brought out a number of differences between these two types of morphemes and the corresponding morphological processes (see the summary in Table IV.3). Most of them are also valid for languages other than English, but they are not universal. There are languages, for example, which have a much greater variety of inflectional than derivational morphemes.

Table IV.3 Differences between inflection and derivation

| inflection	derivation
part of the grammar	part of the lexicon
produces word forms (by means of suffixation)	produces lexemes (by means of prefixation or suffixation)
never changes word class	can change the word class
usually fully productive within one word class (e.g. possessive –s for all nouns)	only productive for subgroups of word-classes (e.g. -*ity* versus -*dom*)
very small inventory of inflectional morphemes with few very general meanings	large inventory with many relatively specific meanings
the meaning of the word form is predictable (e.g. *boys, walked, higher*)	the meaning of a new lexeme is not always predictable (*singer* = somebody who sings, but not *sweater* = somebody who sweats)

Table IV.3 Differences between inflection and derivation

inflection	derivation
closed (two possible candidates for additional inflectional morphemes: negation and adverb-forming -LY)	more open (e.g. *-hood, -dom, -(a)holic* in *workaholic, chocaholic, shopaholic*)
further away from the root (only after the derivational suffixes)	closer to the root
strongly syntactically determined	hardly syntactically determined

IV.2
Syntax: Building blocks and sentence patterns

Syntax (from Greek *syntaxis* = order, arrangement) refers to both the study of the rules which make it possible to combine smaller linguistic units into well-formed (i.e. grammatically correct) sentences, and to the rule system itself. What is understood by *sentence* is the largest independent (!) syntactic unit of a language which is not embedded in any larger construction. The smaller building blocks sentences are formed of, their so-called "constituents", may vary in size and are hierarchically ordered:

(5) constituents
- sentences — contain one or several
- clause(s) — contain one or several
- phrase(s) — contain one or several
- word(s) — contain one or several
- morpheme(s)
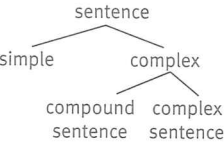
Sentences which consist of one clause only, i.e. sentences with no more than one simple subject-predicate structure (*The boy went to school*), are called "simple(x) sentences". Sentences with more than one clause may contain either several main clauses (compound sentences like 6a) or one main clause and at least one subordinate clause (complex sentences, as in 6b). The two main clauses in (6) are underlined in red, the subordinate clause in (6b) is underlined in black (also compare (9) below):

(6)
a. The girl went to school and/but her brother stayed at home.

b. The girl went to school although her brother stayed at home.

The example in (7) illustrates a simplified syntactic analysis of a complex sentence. Each word is underlined, the phrases are put in square brackets, the clauses in angle brackets, and the sentence as a whole is indicated by curly brackets. The basic difference between phrases and clauses is that phrases have no subject-predicate structure:

(7) {<[A [very old] man] [left]> <after [the bus] [had arrived] [at [the station]]>}

a. clauses: *a very old man left* (main clause)
after the bus had arrived at the station (subordinate clause)

b. phrases: *very old* (adjective phrase); *a very old man, the bus, the station* (noun phrases);
left, had arrived (verb phrases);
at the station (prepositional phrase)

In what follows, we will present the most useful ways of classifying the syntactic units mentioned in (5). We will work our way up from smaller to larger units, starting with the classification of words. In section IV.3 we will then take a closer look at the most important phrase of the sentence, namely the verb phrase. In doing so the focus will always be on the special properties of the English verb phrase. In chapter V, these and further distinctive features of English syntax will be examined from a contrastive perspective by comparing them with German.

2.1 Parts of speech

The classification of words, or more precisely lexemes, into different syntactic categories (or: parts of speech) goes back to traditional grammars of antiquity, notably to the works by Aristotle and Dionysius Thrax. Their classifications and terminology are still widely used (*noun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition,* etc.), but some of the basic assumptions underlying their classifications are no longer shared. Especially the mixing of purely formal (i.e. morphological and syntactic) and semantic criteria are nowadays rejected. If a noun is defined as "name of a person, place or thing", there is, for example, a problem for all abstract expressions (*freedom, permission*). By contrast, it is completely legitimate to classify a lexeme as a noun if it can be morphologically marked for possessive and plural, if it can appear as head in phrases like *many/much* _____ or *in the/a* _____, and if it can function as the subject or object of a verb (as in [*Many tourists*]$_S$

like [*a* <u>drink</u>]$_0$ *in the* <u>garden</u>). Similar arguments based on their morphological and syntactic behaviour, especially their inflectional properties and syntactic distribution, can be found for the classification of lexemes as verbs, adjectives, adverbs, articles, prepositions, conjunctions, etc. Several problems need to be taken care of, however. First of all – and this is especially important for English – a word form can belong to more than one word class (*round*, for example, can be a noun, verb, adjective, adverb or preposition; cf. chapter III.3 on conversion). This means that multiple classifications are possible. Secondly, alternative classifications are also possible, which means that a certain lexeme or even a whole class of lexemes can be classified as belonging to either one word class or another. As will be shown later on, there are indeed reasons for relating function words like *after* or *before* not to three different parts of speech (*after school* – preposition, *after he left* – (subordinating) conjunction, *the day after* – adverb), but to one part of speech only, namely prepositions, which is subdivided into several groups. The third point to remember is that some parts of speech are more heterogeneous than others. This is especially true for adverbs, a part of speech which, due to its various modifying functions (notably as modifiers of verbs (*run* <u>quickly</u>), of adjectives (<u>very</u> *quick*) and of adverbs (<u>very quickly</u>)), has often been the 'waste bin' for those lexemes which could not be clearly assigned to any other part of speech. Just think of a group of adverbs as heterogeneous as *quickly, yesterday, here, very, rather, only* and *however*. But what is even more important to understand is that basically all parts of speech are heterogeneous in themselves, which means that not all members of a certain word class exhibit all characteristics usually ascribed to that word class to the same degree (especially not the semantic ones). If you compare, for example, the adjectives *quick, tired, top* and *asleep*, you will notice that only *quick* behaves like a prototypical adjective. It has a synthetic comparative (*quicker*) and superlative (*quickest*), it can be used attributively (*a quick man*) as well as predicatively (*the man was quick)*, and it can serve as the root for an adverb formed by adding the suffix {-ly} (*quickly*). As shown in Table IV.4, the adverbs *tired, top* and *asleep* behave differently. Compared to these three, *quick* can therefore be considered the 'best' (meaning the prototypical, most representative) adjective, while *asleep* is least prototypical.

Table IV.4 and the remarks above it point to a phenomenon that can be found on all levels of language and linguistics: there are

Table IV.4 The internal heterogeneity of the word class ADJECTIVE

	morphology			syntax		
	comp.	superl.	adverb in {-ly}	attrib.	predic.	*very*-intens
quick	X	X	X	X	X	X
old	X	X		X	X	X
top				X	X	X
asleep					X	

transitions and fuzzy boundaries between different categories, and there are gradations (from most to least representative) within categories. It is thus useful to represent the internal heterogeneity of categories with the help of continua or gradients (also termed *clines*; compare chapters I and VI).

Table IV.5 summarizes what has been said (including information in previous sections) on the various parts of speech and their most important properties. The most important criterion for the classification in this table has repeatedly been mentioned above: the distinction between lexical (open) and grammatical (closed) word classes. Interjections (like *Hey!, Ouch!, Golly!, Gosh!, Yuk!, Blast!,* etc.) have not been included here. Although they are traditionally treated as an independent word class, the status of interjections is often disputed due to their extremely idiosyncratic character.

Table IV.5 Lexical versus grammatical word classes

	lexical	grammatical (or: functional)
parts of speech:	noun, verb, adjective, adverb; in more recent syntactic theories also prepositions (incl. conjunctions)	articles, pronouns, numerals, auxiliaries; in traditional grammars also prepositions and conjunctions
phonologically:	at least one stressed syllable; nucleus of intonation unit	normally neither stressed nor nucleus of intonation unit; in connected speech: weak forms
morphologically:	open for neologisms; can be inflected (N, V, A); cf. Tab. IV.2	for the most part closed; no regular inflection
syntactically:	function as heads of phrases (NP, VP, AP, AdvP; cf. Tab. IV.2); depending on the theory: also prepositions (PP)	cannot function as heads of phrases; exceptions: some types of pronouns (NP)
semantically:	language-external, referential meaning (autosemantic terms)	exclusively language-internal, functional meaning (synsemantic terms)

2.2 Phrases and clauses

The syntactic criterion mentioned in Table IV.5 leads us on to phrases. These may consist of either a single word (as in [*John*]$_{NP}$ [*saw*]$_{VP}$ [*me*]$_{NP}$) or of several words. In most phrases one central, obligatory element (the head) is extended by adding one or several modifying elements (modifiers). The whole phrase is classified according to the syntactic category of its head. The head of a phrase also determines its position in the sentence. A noun phrase, for example, has the distributional properties of a noun (compare *The man was reading a book* with *John was reading Shakespeare*) while a verb phrase has the distributional properties of a (lexical, main) verb. Most phrases exhibit the same distribution as their heads; they are called *endocentric phrases*. Those phrases which, by contrast, have neither the same syntactic distribution as their head nor that of any other of their constituents are called *exocentric phrases*. The best example are probably prepositional phrases (*in London, at the station, on the roof*), where the phrase as a whole can take neither the position of the preposition nor that of the noun phrase it is in connection with:

(8) a. John sat in the garden.
     b. *John sat in.
     c. *John sat the garden.

Table IV.6 Types of phrases

	head	term	examples
ENDOCENTRIC	noun	noun phrase (NP)	Mary, she, the boy, a green apple, the man with the beard, the girl who stood at the corner
	verb	verb phrase (VP)	(has/was) asked, may ask, is asking, may have been being asked
	adjective	adjective phrase (AP)	(really) old, young and ambitious
	adverb	adverbial phrase (AdvP)	(very) quickly, right here
EXO-CENTRIC	preposition	prepositional phrase (PP)	at work, in the garden, on the roof, after the match, after the match had finished

The examples in Table IV.6 show that the complexity of phrases can vary quite considerably. At one end of the complexity scale there are phrases consisting of a single word, such as *Mary* (NP) or *asked* (VP), while at the other end we find phrases containing a whole clause. Relative clauses – as in *the girl who stood at the corner* – are almost always part of a noun phrase. Some prepositions can take not only arguments consisting of a single noun phrase but also arguments consisting of a whole clause (e.g. *after the match, after the match had finished*). This is one reason why, especially in more recent syntactic theories, conjunctions introducing a subordinate clause (subordinating conjunctions) are classified as a subgroup of prepositions.

Unlike phrases, clauses have a subject-predicate structure, with the predicate being either finite (tensed) or non-finite (non-tensed). Finite verbs are inflected and marked for agreement with the subject, as in (9a,b). The infinitive ((*to*) V), the present participle (V-*ing*) as well as the past participle (V-*ed*), on the other hand, are non-finite verb forms (see the verb forms in bold print in 9c-e). A finite verb can serve as the only predicate in a simple sentence, whereas non-finite predicates by themselves are possible only in subordinate clauses:

(9) a. John leaves and Mary stays.
     b. If John leaves, I'll leave too.
     c. Someone wants John **to leave**.
     d. **Leaving**, I waved goodbye.
     e. **Left** by John, Mary was sad.

As in (6), main clauses are underlined in red, subordinate clauses in black. In other words, (9a) is a compound sentence whereas (9b-e) are complex sentences (for details on the different types of subordinate clauses, see below and section IV.4).

2.3 Grammatical relations

In the preceding chapters we primarily focused on formal aspects when classifying the constituents of a sentence. What will stand at the centre of interest in the present section are the syntactic functions of individual phrases and clauses in a sentence, i.e. the grammatical relations they express in a sentence. Many of the relevant terms are familiar from school grammars: "subject, object (direct or indirect), complement, predicate" and "adverbial". The latter three terms require a few words of comment, especially the term complement, for which varying definitions can be found. Note that here this term will be used in the narrowest possible sense, namely as referring to predicative complements of either the subject ("subject complements", as in (10a)) or the direct object ("object complements", as in (10b)) without which the relevant sentence would be incomplete.
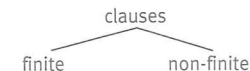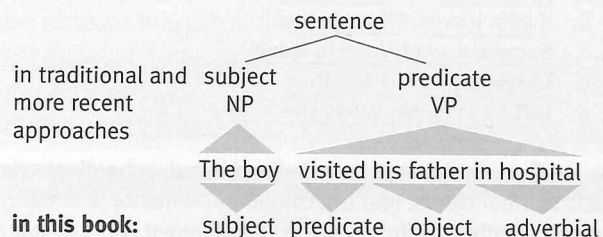
(10) a. My father is <u>a teacher</u> /<u>very old</u> /<u>as happy as a lark</u>.
b. I consider him <u>a hero</u> /<u>really witty</u>.

The term "predicate" will also be used more narrowly here than in traditional grammar. Typically, a predicate is one of the two indispensable core constituents of a sentence, containing all obligatory constituents except for the subject (i.e. the verbal nucleus, object(s), complement(s) and adverbial(s)). The assumption underlying this view is that every sentence consists of two parts: one part about which something is said (the subject) and the thing that is actually said (the predicate). The same view is adopted in more recent syntactic theories which favour a broader definition of the verb phrase, treating every sentence as a binary construction which can be divided (or: parsed) into a noun phrase (functioning as the subject) and a – sometimes very complex – verb phrase (i.e. the rest of the sentence):

(11)

```
                          sentence
                         /        \
in traditional and    subject      predicate
more recent             NP            VP
approaches
                     The boy   visited his father in hospital

in this book:        subject  predicate  object    adverbial
```

Below, the terms "predicate" and "verb phrase" will exclusively be used as referring to the verbal nucleus of the sentence. This nucleus can consist of up to five verb forms (cf. section IV.3), that is of up to four auxiliaries followed by one main verb (*he might have been being interviewed$_V$*), or one finite verb form followed by up to four non-finite verb forms (*he might$_{fin}$ have been being interviewed*). It can also consist of non-finite forms only (*Having arrived at the station, I bought a city map*). As far as adverbials (sometimes also known as *adjuncts*) are concerned, recall that, while this function can actually be served by adverbs (i.e. members of the word class 'adverb') (*We left early*), it is very often phrases (usually prepositional phrases as in *We left in the morning*, but also noun phrases as in *We left the same morning*) and clauses which function as adverbials (*We left as soon as we had finished breakfast*). Moreover, different from other grammatical functions, adverbials are often optional (as in *He (always) runs*

(*quickly*) (*along the river*)) – although certain verbs do of course require a special adverbial (e. g. a subject adverbial as in *She lives in Manchester*, or an object adverbial as in *He put the watch on the shelf*). Adverbials are usually considered part of the sentence periphery. This is also reflected by the fact that they predominantly occur at either of the margins, i.e. beginning or end, of sentences.

Having established this inventory of grammatical functions or relations, we are now in the position to describe the seven basic sentence patterns of English. In Table IV.7, the abbreviation "V" stands for "predicate" or "verb phrase" as defined above. The extent to which these sentence patterns are determined by different types of main verbs will be discussed in section IV.3.1.

Table IV.7 The seven basic sentence patterns

| pattern	subject	predicate/verb	object(s)	complement	adverbial
SV	The girl	was sleeping			
SVO	Her mother	was dressing	the baby (O_d)		
SVC	Little James	seemed		very happy (C_s)	
SVA	He	was sitting			on the table
SVOO	Mrs Bates	gave	her children (O_i)		
			all her love (O_d)		
SVOC	Most people	considered	her (O_d)	a perfect mother (C_o)	
SVOA	She	had spent	all her life (O_d)		in the village

A simple sentence consists of at least one subject and one predicate. In English, this 'minimal sentence' can be followed by a maximum of two obligatory constituents. If it is followed by only one obligatory constituent, this constituent can be either a direct object, a subject complement or an adverbial; if it is followed by two obligatory constituents, the first is an object and the second either another object, an object complement or an adverbial. In so-called *double-object constructions* (as *He gave the boy the book*) the indirect object always precedes the direct object. In English, there is thus a syntagmatic differentiation of the two objects, whereas inflectional languages use a paradigmatic strategy, i.e. different case-marking, to distinguish between direct and indirect object. Word order plays no role in these languages (compare German *Er gab dem Jungen$_{Oi}$ das Buch$_{Od}$* with *Er gab das Buch$_{Od}$ dem Jungen$_{Oi}$*). The basic

ground plan of the English sentence can thus be reduced to the formula in (12).

This formula captures the word order (or more precisely the constituent order) in normal declarative sentences in English. In initial position (i.e. at the beginning of a sentence or as the first of the five constituents mentioned above) we find the subject, followed by the predicate which may or may not require further constituents (i.e. argument slots to be filled). If there are two constituents following the predicate, the first will always be an object. This is how we can typologically classify the English language as a language with a fixed word order, more precisely with an SV(O) pattern. This pattern may only be reversed in interrogative sentences and in a few other contexts which underlie very special and rigid restrictions. In such contexts, the subject follows the finite verb (*Did you know?, Never have I laughed like this*) – a phenomenon called "inversion". Except for *imperative sentences*, the subject slot in English sentences always needs to be filled, even if only by a so-called "dummy" element like *it* or *there*. As opposed to German (e.g. *Mir ist kalt* or *Jetzt wird aber geschlafen!*), English has no sentences without subjects. The SV(O) order in English does not only apply to main clauses but also to subordinate clauses. This is another remarkable difference compared with German (*Er ging nach Hause* vs. *Ich weinte, weil er nach Hause ging*; for more details see chapter V.2.2).

One reason why the basic sentence pattern in (12) is also valid for sentences that are more complex than those represented in Table IV.7, is that a clause or sentence can have several adverbials (as in [*Frankly,*]$_A$ [*as a child*]$_A$ he [*always*]$_A$ ran [*quickly*]$_A$ [*along the river*]$_A$ [*looking for dead fish*]$_A$). Each of these constituents can be much more complex. As already mentioned (see, for instance, the examples in Table IV.6), they can be extended by additional modifying elements (e.g. [*Most of the almost two thousand people in her village*]$_S$ [*considered*]$_P$ [*her*]$_{Od}$ [*an absolutely perfect mother loved and admired by her family*]$_{CO}$). Besides individual words or phrases, whole clauses (subordinate clauses) can function as the subject, object, complement or adverbial of a sentence. Depending on which grammatical function they express, they can be classified as either subject, object or complement clauses, on the one hand, or adverbial clauses, on the other hand. Because the first three have a grammatical function similar to that of noun phrases (13), they are subsumed under the heading of nominal clauses.

(12)
fixed word order SV(O)

$$SV \left((O) \left\{ \begin{matrix} O \\ C \\ A \end{matrix} \right\} \right)$$

types of subordinate clauses

nominal clauses — adverbial clauses
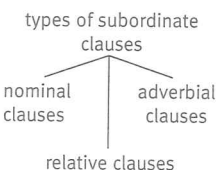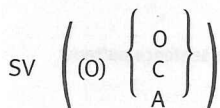
relative clauses

Relative clauses, by the way, are excluded from our discussion here because they are always part of a noun phrase. Adverbial clauses specify the circumstances under which the situation described in the main clause takes place. Among others, we distinguish adverbials of time, place, manner, cause, condition, concession, result and purpose (14). The vast majority of adverbial clauses is finite and introduced by a subordinating conjunction (more precisely an adverbial subordinator, e.g. *while, if, because, although*). English is special among the Germanic languages in that it makes relatively frequent use of adverbial clauses in which the predicate is a participle, most frequently a present participle (so-called "adverbial participles" as in (14h); also compare (9d, e)).

(13)	a.	subject clause:	That you are here is a miracle.
	b.	object clause:	We knew (that) he was a lousy driver.
	c.	complement clause:	The problem is how to stay away from trouble.

(14)	a.	adverbial of time:	We left as soon as we had finished breakfast.
	b.	adverbial of place:	He waited where I had left him.
	c.	adverbial of manner:	She behaves as if she has problems.
	d.	adverbial of condition:	If you leave now, you'll still reach the train.
	e.	adverbial of cause:	I was angry because he came late.
	f.	adverbial of concession:	Although I love good food, I eat very little.
	g.	adverbial of purpose:	He came (in order) to help me.
	h.	adverbial participle:	Walking along the river, he watched the fishermen.

So far in this section, the building blocks or constituents of a sentence have been classified according to formal aspects (complexity, syntactic categories) and functional aspects (grammatical relations). In conclusion, it needs to be mentioned that different grammatical relations (sometimes also termed syntactic roles) are linked to different semantic (or: thematic) roles:

semantic roles

| (15) | The man | stroked | the dog. |
| | NP | subject | **agent** | NP | object$_d$ | **patient** |
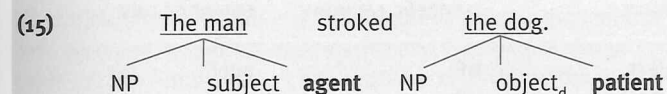
In a prototypical active sentence, the subject is the element which carries out an action (the agent), while the direct object typically is the element affected by the action (the patient), the indirect object is the goal of the action and frequently also the element which profits from

it (the recipient or benefactive). Adverbials often assume one of the semantic roles of time, place, source, goal or instrument. A comparison with a play may help illuminate the notion of semantic roles. One could say that they define the participants involved in a certain situation, the actors of a play, as it were. The number of actors and the parts they play are determined by the verb. A verb like *think* requires only one actor, namely a subject with the semantic role of an experiencer (speaking of an agent would be inappropriate in this case). The verb *give* requires three actors: a subject serving as agent, a direct object serving as patient and an indirect object assuming the semantic roles of recipient or benefactive. Once again, therefore, as pointed out in our discussion of the major sentence patterns of English, the verb turns out to be the dominating element, the anchor of any clause or sentence; in terms of the play analogy, we can say that it is the verb that gives the play its name or title. Note that concerning semantic roles, English has a special property. Frequently (at least much more often than in German), the subject is not an agent and the direct object not a patient. Just consider the examples in (16) and (17) (for more details cf. chapter V).

(16) a. <u>The car</u> burst a tyre. (possessor)
     b. <u>The bucket</u> was leaking water. (source)
     c. <u>This tent</u> sleeps ten people. (place)

(17) a. They fled <u>the capital</u>. (source)
     b. The seagull was riding <u>the wind</u>. (place)

Table IV.8 provides an overview of the various grammatical relations, including for each of them the prototypical syntactic category/-ies and the prototypical semantic role(s).

Table IV.8 Grammatical relations and semantic roles

grammatical relation	prototypical syntactic category	prototypical semantic role
subject	NP	agent
predicate	VP	
object (direct)	NP	patient
object (indirect)	NP	recipient, benefactive
complement	NP, AP	
adverbial	AdvP, PP	time, place, instrument

There are two reasons why the verb phrase deserves a section of its own. The first is of a general nature and valid for all languages: the verb phrase, more precisely its head, i.e. the main verb, is the central element on which the entire sentence hinges. It is the main verb that determines how many obligatory constituents there are in a sentence, that is whether, besides a subject, it is necessary to add one or two objects, a complement, or an adverbial. In other words, for any given English sentence the main verb is responsible for selecting the appropriate basic sentence pattern from those given in (12). The second reason specifically relates to English: both from a synchronic and from a diachronic point of view the verb phrase simply is the most interesting phrase. In no other phrase more has happened in the course of the history of English and currently is happening in terms of interesting innovations – from an English-specific as well as from a cross-linguistic point of view. Although the English verb, like other parts of speech, has experienced a loss of inflectional markers for certain grammatical categories (person, number, subjunctive), it is especially in the verb phrase where Present-Day English has developed the greatest number of so-called "strengthened categories" (especially the progressive and the perfect). It is here, too, where we can observe the development of new and the strengthening of old verb types and syntactic options which in part compensate for the dramatic loss of inflectional morphemes and the fixing of word order. The development of English into a strongly analytic language with a fixed word order is best illustrated with examples taken from the verb phrase. Not surprisingly this is also where some of the most important grammatical differences between English and German as well as between the different standard varieties of English can be observed (cf. chapters V and VIII).

The English verb phrase has a highly transparent modular structure. It consists of a maximum of five verb forms (typically fewer), the last of which is always the main verb, i.e. the head of the phrase, and the first of which is always a finite verb. The order of the auxiliaries preceding the main verb is strictly determined: the grammatical categories modality, perfect, progressive and passive are always marked in this order. Additionally, every auxiliary determines the form of the verb following it, which means that a modal verb (*may, must, can, could, would*, etc.) needs to be followed by an infinitive, a form of *have* by a past participle, and a form of *be* either by a present participle (when marking the progressive) or a past participle (when marking the passive). All examples in (18) follow this pattern:

(18)	modal aux	perfect aux (HAVE + past part.)	progressive aux (BE + pres. part.)	passive aux (BE + past part.)	main verb
			is	being	interviewed
		has		been	interviewed
	may	have			interviewed
	may	have	been		interviewing
	may	have	been	being	interviewed

In what follows, starting out from the distinction between main verbs and auxiliaries and the central role of the (main) verb in determining the basic sentence pattern, we will first present different types of verbs (IV.3.1) before giving an account of the most important grammatical categories of the English verb phrase (IV.3.2).

3.1 Verb types

main verbs versus auxiliaries

A fundamental distinction within the word class of verbs is the one between lexical and grammatical verbs, i.e. between main verbs and auxiliaries. It is one of the distinctive characteristics of English that, in the course of its history, it has developed an increasingly strict division between these two types of verbs. As a result, English auxiliaries nowadays form a separate group which – morphologically as well as syntactically – is very different from that of main verbs. The basic differences are summarized in Table IV.9:

Table IV.9 A comparison of auxiliaries and main verbs

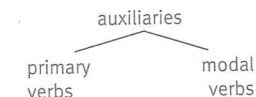|	auxiliary verbs		main verbs	
the only verb in the sentence	no	(*He has), except in answers to questions of the type Has/Is/Does he ...?	yes	(He comes every day)
inversion (V_fin S)	yes	(Has he come?)	no	(*Comes he?)
negative contraction	yes	(isn't, hasn't, can't, mustn't)	no	(*comen't, *walkn't)
do-support				
in negations	no	(He hasn't come; not: *He doesn't have come)	yes	(He doesn't come; not: *He comes not)
in questions	no	(Has he come?; not: *Does he have come?)	yes	(Does he come?; not: *Comes he?)

Table IV.9 A comparison of auxiliaries and main verbs

for emphasis	no	(He HAS come, not: *He DOES have come)	yes	(He DOES come)
in cases of ellipsis of main verb after first occurrence	no	(John will come and so will ___ Mary)	yes	(John came and so did Mary)

additionally:		modal verbs		main verbs
bare infinitive	yes	(He can come, not: *He can to come)	no	(*He comes see me; but: He comes to see me)
non-finite forms	no	(*to can, *canning, *canned)	yes	(walk, walking, walked)
3rd sg. ind. pres. -s	no	(*he cans, *she musts)	yes	(he walks, she comes)
past tense in simple declarative sentences has always past meaning	no	(He could/might come tomorrow)	yes	(*He came tomorrow)

auxiliaries
```
          auxiliaries
         /          \
   primary          modal
   verbs             verbs
```

In some respects, of course, the distinction between these two verb types is not clear-cut. Thus it makes sense to place main verbs like *see, walk* or *jump* and modal verbs like *can, may* or *must* at the two opposite ends of a continuum, putting (modal) verbs such as *dare, need* and *used to* or so-called "semi-auxiliaries" like *have to* and *be going to* at the centre of this continuum. Clearly, the massive strengthening of English auxiliaries as a grammatical word class is closely linked to the development of English into an analytic language; it even needs to be seen as an important outcome of this development.

The term "auxiliary" goes back to the traditional grammar of verbs which have the same function as inflectional endings. This can be seen, for example, when considering the English perfect, progressive, passive, the analytic future formed with *will/shall* or English modal verbs, some of which have practically taken over the functions of the subjunctive formerly marked on the verb stem (for details see IV.3.2). Both as regards their semantics and, especially, their morphology and syntax (cf. Table IV.9), modal verbs differ from the second major group of auxiliaries: the so-called "primary verbs" *be, have* and *do*. The use of primary verbs is compulsory for the marking of different grammatical categories (*be, have*), but also when forming questions and

negating main verbs (cf. the so-called "do-support"). A further basic difference between modal verbs, on the one hand, and *be/have/do*, on the other hand, is the fact that only primary verbs may also be used as main verbs:

(19) a. Mary has a new car.
  b. Mary did nothing to help me.
  c. Mary is ill/a teacher/in the garden.

In (19c), *be* is a so-called "linking" or "copula verb" (or simply "copula"), i.e. a verb which establishes a link between the subject of a sentence and a certain property or attribute. That *be* in (19c) is not an auxiliary but has the formal properties of a main verb is easily shown by the fact that it can be combined with auxiliary verbs, and even with the progressive form of *be* (*Mary has been ill for quite some time, Mary will soon be ill, Mary is being a teacher*). Copula verbs form but a small group; they include verbs or certain uses of verbs like *seem, look, appear, become, remain, turn or grow* (*Yesterday she ..... ill*).

Copula verbs lead us straight back to our discussion of basic sentence patterns in section IV.2. It was repeatedly stated that sentences are formed around main verbs, and that main verbs therefore determine sentence patterns. Verbs determine both the number and the nature of their arguments by specifying their syntactic function in the sentence (i.e. their grammatical relation) as well as their semantic role. Copulas, for example, are responsible for the sentence pattern subject-predicate-complement because they require two obligatory arguments – a subject and a complement which attributes a certain property to the subject. In its spatial sense ('to be' somewhere) *be*, together with other spatial verbs such as *live, stay or lurk*, is also responsible for the sentence pattern subject-predicate-adverbial, the adverbial in these cases being one of place (*John is/lived/stayed in London, John lurked behind a tree*). The same sentence pattern (but with an adverbial of time) is required by another type of verbs, namely verbs which indicate duration (e.g. *It'll last/take five minutes*).

The other five basic sentence patterns found in English can all be explained by classifying verbs according to their "valency". This term (borrowed from chemistry) is used in linguistics to describe the ability, especially of verbs, to open up slots around themselves which must or can be filled. The two terms related to this property which are well-known from school grammars are "transitive" and "intransitive".

Intransitive verbs require only one argument, namely a subject (e.g. *John* slept/snored/smiled); they are therefore monovalent. Transitive verbs, on the other hand, normally require not only a subject but at least one more argument, namely a direct object (e.g. *John wrote/read/forgot the message*), and can therefore be passivized (*The message was written by John*; for more details on the passive see the end of section IV.3.2). Transitive verbs which, apart from the direct object, require no further argument are monotransitive or divalent. But there are also trivalent verbs or uses of verbs; these require either an additional indirect object (ditransitive verbs as in *John gave/passed Mary the message*), an object complement (*Mary considered/called John a fool*) or an object adverbial (*Mary put/hid the message in her pocket*). Verbs like *consider* or *put* are sometimes described as "complex-transitive verbs".

We have now derived all seven basic sentence patterns found in English from different types of main verbs (compare Table IV.10). For the sake of completeness, it needs to be mentioned that the minimal sentence pattern consisting of one subject and one predicate is not only required by intransitive verbs but also by so-called "avalent verbs", i.e. verbs with zero valency. Given their semantics, they do not even require a subject. In English, it is only due to the fixed word order that the subject slot of weather verbs such as *rain, snow, sleet, hail, drizzle* and *freeze* is filled, namely by the so-called "dummy it" (e.g. *it rains, it snows*).

Table IV.10 Verb types and sentence patterns

required arguments	valency type	transitivity type	examples	sentence pattern
0	avalent	–	rain, snow, freeze	SV
1	monovalent	intransitive	sleep, sit, walk	SV
2	divalent	– (copula)	be, become	SVC
2	divalent	–	live, stay, last	SVA
2	divalent	monotransitive	read, take, build	SVO
3	trivalent	ditransitive	give, offer, pass	SVOO
3	trivalent	complex-trans.	consider, call	SVOC
3	trivalent	complex-trans.	put, hide, spend	SVOA

Many English verbs can be grouped with more than one class concerning their valency or transitivity since they can be used either transitively or intransitively. Transitive verbs, for example, can be used

intransitively simply by leaving the second required argument implicit (as in *Mary was eating* or *John writes/drinks/plays*). This is usually the case with verbs of personal hygiene, so-called "verbs of grooming" such as *wash, comb, dress, shave*, etc., which are used reflexively, i.e. where the referent of the subject takes care of him-/herself (*Mary dresses, John shaves*). On the other hand, basically intransitive verbs can develop transitive uses, as in (20b) and (20d):

(20) a. The policemen stood, the bank robbers lay on the ground.
　　 b. The policemen stood the bank robbers against the wall.
　　 c. She ran.
　　 d. She ran a horse in the derby.

The meanings of the verbs in (20b) and (20d) can roughly be paraphrased as "make someone or something VERB". Such verbs are called causative verbs. *Stand* and *run* in the examples in (20) are instances of word-class internal conversion, a word-formation process which can be observed quite frequently in English (cf. also chapters III.3.3 and V.2.2).

The distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs is also valid for another English verb type, which has become more and more important over the last 200 years: so-called "phrasal verbs", such as look after, look up, take off, take in, give in, give up, give away.

(21) a. intransitive: John gave in. John looked up.
　　 b. transitive:　 Mary gave the secret away.
　　　　　　　　　　 Mary looked the word up.

At first glance, phrasal verbs are very similar to prepositional verbs (e.g. *believe in, invest in, thank for, wait for, pull down*), but they differ from the latter in various respects (cf. Table IV.11):

Table IV.11　A comparison of phrasal and prepositional verbs

	phrasal verbs	prepositional verbs
status of the particle following the verb:	adverb and/or preposition	preposition only
position of the particle:	(a) preceding or following the NP which follows the verb (*look the word up, look up the word*)	only preceding the NP (*wait for the rain, *wait the rain for*)
	(b) if NP is a pronoun, only following the pronoun (*look it up,*look up it*)	only preceding the NP, even if the NP is a pronoun
	(c) not at the beginning of relativeclauses (**the word up which he looked*)	possible at the beginning of a clause (the rain for which I waited)
	(d) not at the beginning of questions (**Up what did he look?*)	possible at the beginning of questions (*For what did I wait?*)
stress on the particle:	usually yes (frequently nucleus of the intonation unit: *It was the word he had looked UP*)	usually no (**Here at last was the rain I had been waiting FOR*)

There is a subgroup of prepositional verbs (rather found in colloquial language use) which combine a phrasal verb with a prepositional phrase. Examples of such phrasal-prepositional verbs are *put up with, get away with, do away with, look in on, face up to* and *let someone in on*. Note that in traditional grammar, the term *prepositional object* usually refers to entire prepositional phrases (*Fiona believes in me*), but it may also be used to refer only to the noun phrase following the prepositional verb (*Fiona believes in me*).

3.2 Grammatical categories

The central grammatical categories of the English verb phrase are tense and aspect. Simple sentences or main clauses obligatorily require a finite verb, and finiteness is primarily defined by tense marking (which is why the term "tensed verb/predicate" is sometimes used instead of "finite verb/predicate"). By way of introduction, we may consider the seemingly simple question: How many tenses are there in English? There is more than one answer to this question, depending on how wide or narrow our definition of the term "tense" is. The lowest possible number of tenses is 2, the highest possible number 16; but in the relevant literature we also find arguments in favour of 3, 6, 8, 12 tenses and yet other values between 2 and 16 (compare Table IV.13 below).
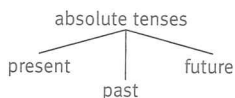
Let us take a closer look at some of the possible values. If we regard as tenses only what can be marked inflectionally directly on the verb stem, English has no more than two tenses. In fact, English has only one inflectional suffix with an exclusively tense-marking function, namely the past-tense marker {-ed} (*walk-ed*). This word form stands in contrast to the unmarked form (*walk*), which is more adequately called "non-past" (instead of "present") because it can also be used to refer to both past (22a) and future events (22b):

(22) a. (Listen what happened to me yesterday.) This bloke walk<u>s</u> up to me and say<u>s</u>: ... (historical present)
b. The train leaves at six a.m. tomorrow.

If tense is not defined as a purely inflectional category, it makes sense to postulate three tenses for English, one tense each for placing a situation in the three time spheres past, present and future. In that case, the third tense is the future tense, coded by the analytic *will/shall* + infinitive construction. The *will/shall*-construction is the most neutral of the different constructions which are used to refer to events in the future. It is the one which is least restricted to a certain context, and therefore the most grammaticalized construction. All other constructions in (23) express slightly different meanings.

(23) a. The parcel will arrive tomorrow. (neutral prediction)
b. The parcel is going to arrive tomorrow. (future result of present action or intention)
c. The parcel is arriving tomorrow. (future result of an action that is already under way or is already completed)
d. The parcel will be arriving tomorrow. (future event as a matter of course)
e. The parcel arrives tomorrow. (future event is a fact, often a scheduled event)

absolute tenses

perfect forms

Since they take as an anchor point the here and now of the speaker, present, past and future tense are also called "absolute tenses". Tense thus qualifies as a deictic category (from Greek *deiknym-* = to show), i.e. as a grammatical category which locates a situation on the time line, always judging from the moment of utterance. We take a different view when assuming that English has more than these three tenses, for example six (adding the three perfect tenses Past Perfect, Present Perfect and Future Perfect). These perfect tenses are often called "relative tenses" or "absolute-relative tenses", because they express anteriority to some reference point in the past (Past Perfect), in the present (i.e. the moment of utterance; Present Perfect) or in the future (Future Perfect; for more details see below).

relative tenses

(24) a. When my parents arrived we <u>had left</u> already.
b. Sorry, Mum. We<u>'ve left</u> already. (speaking from a car phone)
c. Mum, we're about to leave. When you arrive we<u>'ll have left</u> already.

Arguing in favour of English having six tenses therefore implies that tense is no longer considered a strictly deictic category, because the moment of utterance is no longer the direct point of reference for all tenses.

When combining these six constructions with the English progressive (*be* + present participle), we end up with twelve different 'tenses'. But if we decide to adopt this perspective, tense no longer exclusively defines the position of a situation as a whole on the time line, but also applies to the internal make-up of the situation, e.g. whether it is in progress at a given point in time or not. The meaning of the term "tense" would be watered down even more if we additionally included *would/should* + infinitive constructions and their corresponding perfect and progressive forms. At least in direct speech, these constructions are no longer primarily responsible for situating events on the time line, but rather express different kinds of modality or speaker attitude (assumption, obligation, possibility, probability, necessity, etc.). If we included these constructions, too, English would end up being a language with 16 tenses; indeed, English is represented as such in many school grammars.

combinatorial options

We should not, however, confuse the picture by lumping everything together, but rather try to bring out the modular structure of the English verb phrase and the possibilities of combining the different grammatical categories. An alternative way of arranging and classifying the 16 verb constructions discussed above differently is the following (also compare (18) above). The first step is to treat constructions with *would* and *should* (sometimes called "conditional tenses") as combinations of a modal verb and a grammatically marked (full) verb construction: *would have said* would thus be analyzed the same way as *must have said* or *may have said*. The second step is to classify

the contrast between progressive and simple form (*he is singing* vs. *he sings*) not as a contrast in tense but as an aspectual contrast.

"Aspect" (from Latin *aspectus* = viewpoint, perspective) is a grammatical category that allows us to comment on the internal temporal make-up of a situation, where *situation* is used as generic term for conditions or states and different types of actions, events, etc. In English, the progressive form (also known as "expanded form") provides a grammatical means which allows, and sometimes even compels, the speaker to indicate explicitly whether he or she regards a certain action as completed or still in progress. Therefore, aspect – as opposed to tense – has a strongly subjective component. In many cases, however, it is not optional but obligatory, as can be seen in (25a):

aspect

progressive form — *simple form*

(25) a. John is walking to work. (now, at the time of utterance)
  b. John walks to work. (usually, as a habit; not necessarily now)

It is not easy to identify a core meaning of the progressive. It is true to say, though, that the progressive describes a situation surrounding a certain point of reference (the so-called "temporal frame"), highlighting a certain phase of this situation – as if observing it through a magnifying glass or as if activating the frame-freeze function of a video recorder. The progressive therefore describes only part of the situation while the simple form covers the situation as a whole. The reference point indispensable for the progressive is generally introduced in the context, either by a time adverbial (26a,b) or simply by a tense marker (such as *looked* in (26c) or the present tense in (25a)). Since the progressive always needs a temporal reference (or: anchor) point, i.e. a point on the time line where we can place our magnifying glass, it can by itself never advance an action or, e.g. in a novel, the plot on the time line, and thus cannot be used for describing sequences of actions like the one in (26d):

(26) a. I was having a nap at three.
  b. When she arrived, he was cooking dinner.
  c. Jack turned and looked at his sister. She was laughing.
  d. He opened the fridge, took out a pie and went back to his room.

The progressive has conquered a lot of new territory in the course of the history of English, and continues to do so, especially in spon-

taneous spoken (including all non-standard) varieties of English (cf. chapter VIII.3.1). As a result, it can nowadays be used in a much wider variety of contexts and for the expression of subtle differences in meaning (e.g. as future marker in (23c)), although not all of these uses can be attributed solely to the progressive interacting with different types of predicates (situation types, or so-called "aktionsarten"). Some effects resulting from this interaction between progressive aspect and the aktionsart of a verb occur regularly, though. Take, for example, the effect of rapid repetition when the progressive is used with momentary verbs (27a), or the effect of incompletion (27c) or not reaching the endpoint of an action (27e) when using the progressive with so-called "telic verbs" (from Greek *telos* = aim or goal), i.e. verbs with an inbuilt endpoint.

(27) a. John was knocking on the door. (several times)
  b. John knocked on the door. (only once)
  c. John was writing a letter. (letter not finished yet)
  d. John wrote a letter. (letter is finished)
  e. John was drowning. (danger of drowning)
  f. John drowned. (drowned)

Excluding both the *would/should* and the progressive constructions, we are left with only six of the original sixteen candidates for English tenses. From these, we can subtract another three, namely the perfect forms. The contrast between *perfect* (as a cover term for Present Perfect, Past Perfect and Future Perfect) and non-perfect forms is often treated as a second aspectual contrast besides the progressive/ non-progressive one. This is primarily due to the contrast between Present Perfect and Simple Past. In contexts where the Present Perfect is neither obligatory (28a) nor impossible (28b), it depends solely on the view of the speaker which form is used to describe a situation in the past. Is the situation still relevant at the moment of utterance ('current relevance'; 29a), or is it considered completed (in the speaker's mind as well as in actual fact; 29b)?

Present Perfect versus Simple Past

perfect

Present Perfect — Future Perfect — Past Perfect

(28) a. adverbials of time which include the moment of utterance: *at present, so far, as yet, lately, before now, to this hour, for some time now, since Monday,* etc. (can never combine with the Simple Past)
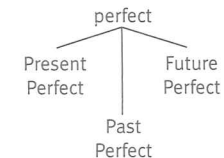
b. adverbials of time which refer to a specific moment or period in the past preceding the moment of utterance: *long ago, yesterday, the other day, last night, at that time, then, on Tuesday*, etc. (can never combine with the Present Perfect)

(29) a. A. Will you come to the party?
   B. Sorry, I've broken my leg and have to stay in bed.
   b. A. How was the weekend?
   B. Great! I broke my leg, my car was stolen and my girl friend left me.

Yet there are also good reasons for adopting a different view of the category perfect, namely as a third category, independent of both tense and aspect. The main function of this category is to establish a relationship of anteriority between a certain situation and a point of reference on the time line in the way described above. Similar to the category of tense, the perfect localizes an entire situation on the time line, but it does *not* use the moment of utterance as an immediate point of reference, and it *always* involves a relationship of anteriority. Similar to aspect, perfect is a non-deictic category which may depend on the speaker's perspective, but it does *not* give us any information about the internal structure of a situation. The differences and similarities of these three categories can be represented as in Table IV.12:

Table IV.12 The categories tense, perfect and aspect

	tense	perfect	aspect
localizes a situation on the time line	yes	yes	no
deictic	yes	no	no
fixed sequence of situation and reference time	no	yes (anteriority)	no
focus on the internal make-up of a situation	no	no	yes (prog.)

Table IV.13 is an attempt at representing the complex tense and aspect system of English in its entirety. First, however, consider the three main uses of the Present Perfect in (30):

(30) a. (Would you shut the window, please?) I've (just) had a bath. (*resultative perfect*)
   b. Have you seen the Dali exhibition (yet)? (*experiential perfect, indefinite past*)
   c. I've known him for years. (*continuative perfect*)

Table IV.13 Tense and aspect system

			The 16 verb forms resulting from the combination of different categories:			
nr. of tenses?	form	term	tense (referential)	perfect (*have +V-ed*)	aspect (*be + V-ing*)	modal constr.
2	walk	present	x			
	walked	past	x			
3	will/shall walk	future	x			
6	have walked	present perfect	x	x		
	had walked	past perfect	x	x		
	will have walked	future perfect	x	x		
8	would/should walk	conditional I	x			x
	would/should have walked	conditional II	x	x		x
12	6+ 6 x be walking	... progressive	x	x	x	
16	8+ 8 x be walking	... progressive	x	(x)	x	x

All the grammatical categories discussed in this section so far (mood, tense, perfect and aspect) can be combined with each other without any problems. However, the complete meaning of the resulting complex constructions cannot always be derived from the categories involved; it is therefore not always easy to prove that the meanings of the complex constructions are fully compositional (cf. also chapter VI). It needs to be admitted that sometimes, after all, the meaning of the whole is more than a mere sum of the meaning of its parts. What is still missing in this system of combinable verb categories is the so-called "genus verbi" or "voice", which largely concerns the distinction between active and passive. Only transitive verbs have a passive voice (not all, but most of them), which, in English, is

compositionality

voice
active — mediopassive
passive
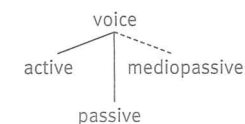
an analytic construction with either a form of the auxiliary *be* and a past participle (*Jerry was chased by Tom*) or *get* and a past participle (*He got (himself) arrested*). The *get*-construction is not quite as formal and is used to indicate that the speaker is emotionally involved in the situation he or she describes and/or that, especially when using a reflexive pronoun, the speaker considers the subject of the passive sentence as partly responsible for what has happened to him or her. The prototypical subject of a passive sentence has the semantic role of a patient (31a) or a benefactive (31b). Compared to other languages, English is special in that it cannot only convert the direct object (31a) and the indirect object (31b) of an active sentence into the subject of the corresponding passive sentence, but that it can do the same with the 'objects' of prepositions (31c,d). In English, it is even possible to passivize an intransitive verb if the verb is followed by a prepositional phrase functioning as an adverbial of place (31d):

(31) a. The award was given to the actor.
      b. The actor was given the award.
      c. This problem must be disposed of.
      d. This bed has been slept in.

Also possible in many cases is the intransitive use of transitive verbs. In such mediopassive (or: middle voice) constructions the noun phrase functioning as the subject of the seemingly active sentence with an intransitively used verb is, from a semantic point of view, rather the direct object of a transitive verb, fulfilling the semantic role of a patient. In example (32a), it is not Kafka who translates something, but it is his work which cannot be (easily) translated. Bill in (32b) is not unable to scare other people but is not easily scared himself. In other words: in mediopassive constructions the supposed agent is affected himself. In English, this reflexive relationship between the actual grammatical subject and the "logical" direct object is not indicated by the use of a reflexive pronoun (as opposed to other Germanic languages; compare German *Kafka übersetzt sich nicht gut, Kafka lässt sich nicht (gut) übersetzen*).

mediopassive

(32) a. Kafka doesn't translate.   b. Bill doesn't scare easily.

The opposition between dynamic and statal passive, corresponding to the opposition between the *sein* and *werden* passive in German, is usually marked by the formal contrast between progressive and simple form:

(33) a. Dinner is being prepared.
         (still in preparation; dynamic passive)
      b. Dinner is prepared. (dinner is ready; statal passive)

Further contrasts between the grammatical structures of English and German will be discussed in chapter V.

Checklist Grammar – key terms and concepts

adjective
adverb
adverbial
adverbial clause
agreement/concord
aktionsart
argument
aspect
attributive ↔ predicative
case
clause (main, subordinate, declarative, interrogative, imperative)
clitic
comparison
complement (subject, object)
compositionality
conjugation
constituents
declension
deictic category
descriptive ↔ prescriptive / normative
distribution
endocentric ↔ exocentric phrase
finite ↔ non-finite
gender
gradient

grammatical categories (strengthened ↔ weakened)
grammatical relation/function (subject, object$_{d/i}$, complement$_{s/o}$, predicate, adverbial)
group genitive
head
imperative
inflectional ↔ isolating
inflectional morphology
inversion
modality
morphological typology (synthetic ↔ analytic, isolating ↔ agglutinating ↔ inflectional)
nominal clause (subject, complement, object)
noun
number
object (direct ↔ indirect)
passive (medio-)
perfect (present, past, future)
periphrastic construction
phrase (noun phrase, verb phrase, prepositional phrase)
predicate

preposition
progressive (form)
reference grammar
reflexivity
relative clause
sentence
compound sentence ↔ complex sentence
semantic role (e.g. agent, patient, goal, benefactive)
situation
subject
subordinating conjunction (adverbial subordinator)
syntagmatic differentiation
syntax
tense: absolute (present, past, future) ↔ relative
valency
verb (auxiliary ↔ semi-auxiliary ↔ main/full verb; copula; modal; primary; transitive ↔ intransitive; causative; particle; prepositional; telic verb)
voice (active ↔ passive ↔ middle/mediopassive)
word class
word form
word order

1 Which grammatical categories are marked on English nouns and verbs?

2 a. Identify in traditional terms all parts of speech occurring in the following sentence: *Then the boy rubbed the magic lamp and suddenly a genie appeared beside him.*
   b. *Round* belongs to as many as five different word classes. Give one example for each of them.

3 a. Provide the appropriate labels for the following phrases and state which of them do not have a head: *below the window, rather slowly, Tom and Jerry, has been saying, fast and expensive car.*
   b. Where else in this book did we talk about heads and modifiers? Can you make any generalizations about the preferred order of heads and modifiers in English?

4 Identify all phrases and their grammatical functions in the following sentences:
   a. He spends all his money on horses.
   b. John called me an idiot.
   c. Mary left the next day.
   d. They may be staying until next June.
   e. His face turned pale when he saw me.

5 a. Identify the adverbs and adverbials in the following sentence: *Honestly, I did see him briefly in the park yesterday when he was feeding the ducks.*
   b. Give typical properties of adverbials, and then specify what is unusual about the adverbial in the following sentences: *The whole thing lasted a mere thirty seconds.*

6 Underline and identify the different types of subordinate clauses in the sentences below:
   a. That cities will attract more and more criminals is a safe prediction.
   b. This shows how difficult the question must have been.
   c. Being a farmer, he is suspicious of all governmental interference.
   d. We knew that he was a lousy driver.
   e. I am very eager to meet her.
   f. The problem is who will water my plants when I am away.

   g. No further discussion arising, the meeting was brought to a close.
   h. I'll show you what you can open the bottle with.

7 There are two main types of relative clauses. *Restrictive* (or: *defining*) *relative clauses* provide necessary information about the head noun whereas *non-restrictive* (or: *non-defining*) *relative clauses* provide additional, but non-essential information. Identify these two types in the examples below and determine the structural differences between them.
   a. My daughter, who studies medicine, will come and visit me today.
   b. My daughter who studies medicine will come and …
   c. My daughter studying medicine will come and …
   d. The car she'll be using is our old Austin Mini.
   e. *The car, she'll be using, is our old Austin Mini.
   f. The car that she'll be using is our old Austin Mini.
   g. *The car, that she'll be using, is our old Austin Mini.

8 Which of the following statements are true, which are false?
   a. English is a language with grammatical gender.
   b. Normally, only transitive verbs can be passivized.
   c. Modal verbs lack participles.
   d. All copulas have the valency zero.
   e. English has no inflectional future.
   f. Languages with little or no inflectional morphology need a fixed SVO order.
   g. All verbs demanding an object complement also demand an object, but not vice versa.
   h. The subjects of active and passive sentences differ with regard to their prototypical semantic roles.
   i. English is relatively rich in mediopassive constructions and adverbial participles.
   j. There is an inflectional subjunctive in the sentence *We insist that the director resign.*

9 a. Which of the following verbs are phrasal verbs and which prepositional verbs? *rely on, believe in, take in, take away, fill up, dispose of, blow up*
   b. There are two possible syntactic analyses of prepositional verbs and the NP following them: either as an intransitive verb fol-

lowed by a PP (see A) or as a transitive verb followed by a direct object (see B):

A. [They] [trusted] [in a friend]

B. [They] [trusted in] [a friend]

If you consider the following sentences which is the preferred analysis? But note that there are also arguments for the alternative analysis: Try to find some of them.

a. A friend in whom they trusted.

b. In whom did they trust?

c. They trusted steadfastly in a friend.

d. *They trusted in steadfastly a friend.

10 The Progressive has constantly extended its territory in the course of the history of English. One example of this development is the construction in the sentences below. Describe this construction and specify its meaning. Can all types of adjectives be used with the progressive? Do different types of adjectives yield different effects when used in this construction? Note that noun phrases, too, can be used in this construction instead of adjectives. Give examples and specify the meaning of the relevant construction.

a. For once I am being practical.

b. I think you are being unfair to take these things up now.

c. I hope I'm not being unduly rhetorical.

d. I'm just being polite to Arthur.

e. I'm being very, very good.

f. I may be being a bit cynical about it.

11 Draw up a list of arguments taken from different domains of grammar which illustrate that English is a strongly analytic language.

12 The following text should make you say goodbye to English grammar with a big smile. But there is also a task connected with it. Try to spot all grammatical and otherwise language-related terms, and ask yourself what exactly it is that creates the humourous effect in the individual cases. So off we go with a stirring courtroom-drama: *The murder of the English language* – sometimes known as *The accusative case*.

Prosecution: Are you Very Quickly, adverbial phrase?

Accused: I am.

P: Very Quickly, you're accused of splitting an infinitive! Say, how do you plead: Guilty or not guilty?

A: Not guilty, not guilty.

P: A double negative. How then would you explain your past imperfect?

A: I was going through an awkward phrase. There's no substantive proof. Now and then I just colon friends for a quick imperative before lunch.

P: And is that all?

A: Well no, there is a rather pretty feminine gender in the case, a Miss Pronunciation, who lives in suffix with her grammar and grandpa.

P: When was your first dative?

A: I met her at a participle! There she was supine and in a passive mood. She was superlative, absolutely pluperfect.

P: Mr. Quickly, would I be correct in this preposition that you were aiming at an unlawful conjugation with this feminine gender? Answer the interrogative: How far did you get?

A: I made a parse at her, but she declined. She said her parentheses would object. And in many ways she's about to become a noun.

P: Was this news neuter you?

A: Affirmative.

P: Thank you. What nationality is she?

A: Italic.

P: Mr. Quickly, you're in quite a predicate I can tell you. Officer, put him in brackets! You are also accused of immoral earnings from prose – and even verse, evasion of syntax.

Judge: And now the sentence: Off with his prefix!

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V Contrastive Linguistics: English and German

Introduction

bundles of contrasts

The present chapter aims to give an overview of the most important structural differences between English and German. It will reconsider some issues discussed earlier in this book, albeit from a decidedly different point of view. It will be explored how the basic structural differences between English and German are related to each other. The focus of this chapter will thus be on clusters or bundles of contrasts, each of which can be derived from a fundamental structural difference between the two languages. The overarching objective, then, will be to show how it is possible to bring order to the large variety of superficially unrelated contrasts between English and German which, after all, are two otherwise closely related languages. Thus, we will increasingly take a bird's-eye view of the two languages: the task will be to work out their most essential characteristics and to trace back our findings concerning what they have and have not in common to general tendencies among the world's languages. One crucial insight is going to be that many of the differences between English and German are not restricted to these two languages but represent more general contrasts between languages which – like English and German – represent different language types. Along these lines, we will have