Abdullah

# ENGLISH SYNTAX

Badan Penerbit UNM

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Cetakan pertama Februari 2022
Cetakan kedua Januari 2023

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ANGGOTA IKAPI No. 011/SSL/2010
ANGGOTA APPTI No. 006.063.1.10.2018



iii, 106 hlm; 21 cm

**ISBN 978-623-387-043-6**

# Preface

English Syntax is one of the compulsory courses for the English Department at FBS UNM or also at other universities.

This English Syntax book is a learning material or teaching material which includes definition and classification of words, types of phrases, clauses, and sentences.

This English Syntax book includes knowledge of language and linguistics theories as well as grammar and linguistics knowledge which is part of the English Syntax course. This English Syntax book is very helpful for students in the learning and teaching process because in this book the teaching materials are adapted to the curriculum and syllabus for students of the English Department.

This book consists of five chapters. The first chapter discusses the classification of words and types of words along with examples. Chapter two, phrases and types of phrases. Chapter three, clauses, which discusses the definition and types of clauses. Chapter four, sentences that discusses the definition and types of sentences. Chapter five, the grammatical function which discusses the function of the subject, verb and object.

**Makassar, January 2023**

**Abdullah**

# Abbreviation

N : Noun
V : Verb

| | |
|---|---|
| Adj | : Adjective |
| Adv | : Adverb |
| Aux | : Auxiliary |
| Conj | : Conjunction |
| Int | : Intensifier |
| NP | : Noun Phrase |
| VP | : Verb Phrase |
| AdjP | : Adjective Phrase |
| AdvP | : Adverb Phrase |
| PrepP | : Prepositional Phrase |
| GerP | : Gerund Phrase |
| InfP | : Infinitive Phrase |
| PartiP | : Participle Phrase |
| PPartP | : Past Participle Phrase |
| PredP | : Predicate Phrase |
| AbsP | : Absolute Phrase |
| TV | : Transitive Verb |
| IntV | : Intransitive Verb |
| Prep | : Preposition |
| Pro | : Pronoun |
| QW | : Question Words |

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# Chapter 1
# classification OF WORDS

The classification of words are divided into two main categories, they are **class words** and **function words,** (Fries, 1964). The classification is consistently based on form, The class word can be subdivided into: (1**) noun**, (2) v**erb**, (3) **adjective** and (4) **adverb.** These four classes of words which are called the parts of speech. The other words which do not belong to the four part of speech are called **function words,** namely**,** words which do not have lexical meanings. These function words always occur with the parts of speech to form phrases.

Based on the parts of speech they occur with, the function words can be divided into the following groups:
**(1) determiners (2) auxiliaries, (3) intensifiers, (4) preposition, (5) conjunctions,** and **(6) question words**

## A. CLASS OF WORDS

Content words are usually nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Those are the words that help us form a picture in our head; they give us the *contents* of our story and tell our listener where to focus his or her attention. We want our listener to be able to quickly grasp the main content of our story, so we make the content words easier to hear by bringing attention to them with added stress.

According to Bloomfield (1933) Word is a smallest unit of a language that has a meaning, for example **I**, is a word because it has a meaning (lexical meaning)

## 1. Noun

A noun is a word which is used to denote a person (*traffic warden, woman, Prime Minister, pianist*etc.), a concrete or abstract entity (*binoculars, fork, field, truth, incoherence* etc.) or a place (*office, garden, railway station*). These are all **common nouns**; there are also **proper nouns**which are the names of a specific person, place, event etc., usually starting with a capital letter, for example, *York* , *John*, *Christmas*, *Saturday*.

A noun can be extended to a noun phrase. In the example phrases given below, the noun (in the first example) and the noun phrase (in the remaining examples) is in bold. Note how much the noun phrase can be extended by adding extra information each time.

**Example:**

| | |
|---|---|
| *house* | *lake* |
| *computer* | *John* |
| *student* | *science* |

### Kind of nouns

### Pronoun

Pronouns are used in place of a noun that has already been mentioned or that is already known, often to avoid repeating the noun.

**For example:**
Kate was tired so **she** went to bed.
Michael took the children with **him**.
Kieran's face was close to **mine**.
**That** is a good idea.
**Anything** might happen

### Possesive pronoun

The personal pronouns *mine*, *yours*, *hers*, *his*, *ours*, and *theirs* are known as possessive pronouns: they refer to

something owned by the speaker or by someone or something previously mentioned.

**For example:**

That book is **mine**.
John's eyes met **hers**.
**Ours** is a family farm.

**Possesive adjective**

possessive adjectives are the words used to show a form of possession/ ownership or are used to express a close relationship with someone or something. Moreover, just like the article "*the*," a possessive adjective also implies definiteness. Some of the most basic possessive adjectives that are commonly used in the English language are: *my, your, our, its, her, his, their,* and *whose* (interrogative).

**For example:**

**His** name is Kevin.
**Her** name is Michaela.
**Our** cat is always licking its.
We sold **our** dune buggy yesterday.
The children thanked **their.**

**Reflexive Pronoun**

Reflexive personal pronouns
include *myself*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself, ourselves*, *yourselves*, and *themselves*. These are used to refer back to the subject of the clause in which they are used:

**For axample:**

**I** fell and hurt **myself**.
**Daisy** prepared **herself** for the journey.
**The children** had to look after **themselves**.

**Objective Pronoun**

The personal pronouns *me*, *you*, *us*, *him*, *her*, *it*, and *them* are called objective pronouns because they act as the objects of verbs and prepositions:

**For example:**

Catherine saw **her**.
Nick drove **us** home.
She waved at **me**.

**Countable / Uncountable Nouns**

Nouns can be either countable or uncountable. **Countable nouns** (or **count nouns**) are those that refer to something that can be counted. They have both singular and plural forms (e.g. *cat/cats*; *woman/women*; *country/countries*). In the singular, they can be preceded by *a* or *an*. Most nouns come into this category.

A smaller number of nouns do not typically refer to things that can be counted and so they do not regularly have a plural form: these are known as **uncountable nouns** (or **mass nouns**). Examples include: *rain, flour, earth, wine*, or *wood*. Uncountable nouns can't be preceded by *a*or *an*. Many abstract nouns are typically uncountable, e.g. *happiness, truth, darkness, humour*.

Some uncountable nouns can be used in the plural as well, depending on the meaning or context of the word. Take a look at these sentences:

| | |
|---|---|
| *Would you like some **coffee**?* | **uncountable** because it's referring to the drink in general |
| *He ordered **a coffee**.* | **countable**, because it's referring to a cup of coffee |
| *There's no **truth** in the rumours.* | **uncountable**, because it refers to the quality or state of being true |
| *The* fundamental ***truths*** *about human nature.* | **countable**, because it's referring to facts or beliefs that are true |

In the *Oxford Dictionary of English* and the *New Oxford American Dictionary*, nouns that are chiefly uncountable are described as 'mass nouns'. This type of noun entry may also include an example sentence showing a countable use of the type described above. For example:

**beer** noun [mass noun] an alcoholic drink made from yeast-fermented malt flavoured with hops: *a pint of beer* | [count noun] *he ordered a beer*.

There are some words that should only be used with countable nouns and some that you should only use with uncountable nouns. Here are the main examples:

| ***word*** | ***with countable noun?*** | ***with uncountable noun?*** | ***examples*** |
|---|---|---|---|
| few, fewer | ✓ | ✗ | *fewer students; few cars* |
| little, less, least | ✗ | ✓ | *less food; little time* |
| many, several | ✓ | ✗ | *several books; many changes* |
| Much | ✗ | ✓ | *much pleasure; much sleep* |

Collective pronoun

Collective nouns refer to groups of people or things, e.g. *audience, family, government, team, jury*. In American English, most collective nouns are treated as singular, with a singular verb:

The whole family **was** at the table.
In British English, the preceding sentence would be correct, but it would also be correct to treat the collective noun as a plural, with a plural verb:

The whole family **were** at the table.

**Abstark pronoun**

An abstract noun is a noun which refers to ideas, qualities, and conditions - things that cannot be seen or touched and things which have no physical reality, e.g. *truth, danger, happiness, time, friendship, humour.*

**For example:**

Ability
Adventure
Artistry
Awe
Belief

## 2. Verb

Verb is a word that characteristically is the grammatical center of a predicate and expresses an act, occurrence, or mode of being, that in various languages is inflected for agreement with the subject, for tense, for voice, for mood, or for aspect, and that typically has rather full descriptive meaning and characterizing quality but is sometimes nearly devoid of these especially when used as an auxiliary or linking verb.

**For example:**

*enjoy*
*purchase*
*visit*
*understand*
*believe*
*look forward to*

**Kind of verbs:**

**Transitive and intransitive verbs**

A **transitive** verb is one that is used with an object: a noun, phrase, or pronoun that refers to the person or thing that is affected by the action of the verb. In the following sentences, *admire, maintain*, *face*, and *love* are transitive verbs:

*I* **admire** *your courage.*
*We need to* **maintain** *product quality.*
*I couldn't* **face** *him today*.
*She* **loves** *animals*

Some transitive verbs can be used with a direct object and ***an*** indirect object:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| *Liza brought* | ***her*** | ***a glass of water.*** |
| | [indirect object] | [direct object] |
| *He sent* | ***her*** | ***a letter.*** |
| | [indirect object] | [direct object] |

Here is a short list of some common verbs that can take a direct and indirect object:

| **Verb** | **Example** |
|---|---|
| Give | *Pat* ***gave*** *me a book for my birthday*. |
| Buy | *Can I* ***buy*** *you a drink?* |
| Pass | *Paul* ***passed*** *her a cup of coffee.* |
| Make | *Shall I* ***make*** *us some lunch?* |
| Sell | *Jenny was trying to* ***sell*** *me her car*. |
| Take | *We* ***took*** *Maria some flowers and wine*. |

| | |
|---|---|
| Show | ***Show*** *me your holiday photos.* |
| Offer | *The company has* ***offered*** *me a job*. |
| Leave | ***Leave*** *me a message and I'll get back to you*. |
| Wish | *Everyone* ***wished*** *us all the best for the future*. |
| Lend | *Could you* ***lend*** *me £20?* |
| Cost | *Ben's mistake* ***cost*** *him his job*. |

An **intransitive** verb does not have an object. In the following sentences, *cry, work*, *laugh*, and *talk* are intransitive verbs:
*The baby* **was crying**.
*I* **work** *for a large firm in Paris.*
*They* **laughed** *uncontrollably.*
*We* **talked** *for hours.*

Here is a short list of some common verbs that can be transitive or intransitive:

| **Verb** | **Transitive** | **Intransitive** |
|---|---|---|
| Move | *Could you* ***move*** *your car please?* | *The trees were* ***moved*** *in the breeze*. |
| Start | *Taylor was found guilty of* ***starting*** *the fire.* | *The match* ***starts*** *at 3 p.m*. |
| Change | *Marriage hasn't* ***changed*** *her.* | *The area's* ***changed*** *greatly in the last decade*. |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Close | ***Close** your eyes; I've got a surprise for you.* | *Most shops here **close** at 5.30 p.m.* |
| Open | ***Open** the window; it's too hot in here!* | *The museum **opens** at 10 a.m.* |
| Stop | *Greg tried to **stop** her from leaving.* | *When the rain **stopped**, we went for a walk.* |
| Do | *Have you **done** your coursework?* | *Joe's **doing** well in his new job.* |
| Set | *Kate **set** a chair next to the bed.* | *The sun was **setting** and a red glow filled the sky.* |
| Run | *Michelle used to **run** a restaurant.* | *The path **ran** over the hill.* |
| Live | *Our cat **lived** till he was 10.* | *He was **living** a life of luxury abroad.* |
| Wash | *Have you **washed** your hands?* | *I **washed**, dressed, and went out.* |
| Write | ***Write** your name here.* | *Kevin couldn't read or **write**.* |

Regular and Irregular verbs

Many English verbs are **regular**, which means that they form their different tenses

according to an established pattern. Such verbs work like this:

| **Verb** | **3rd person singular** | **3rd person singular** | **past participle** | **present participle** |
|---|---|---|---|---|

| | present tense | past tense | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| laugh | he/she laughs | he/she laughed | Laughed | laughing |
| love | he/she loves | he/she loved | Loved | loving |
| boo | he/she boos | he/she booed | Booed | booing |

There are many **irregular** verbs that don't follow the normal rules. Here are the forms of some of the most common irregular verbs:

| Verb | 3rd person singular present tense | 3rd person singular past tense | past participle | present participle |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Be | Is | Was | Been | being |
| Begin | begins | Began | begun | beginning |
| Bite | bites | Bit | bitten | biting |
| Break | breaks | Broke | broken | breaking |
| Buy | buys | Bought | bought | buying |
| Choose | chooses | Chose | chosen | choosing |
| Come | comes | Came | come | coming |
| Dig | Digs | Dug | Dug | digging |
| Do | does | Did | Done | doing |

**Linking verbs**

A linking verb is a verb which connects a subject to its predicate without expressing an action. A linking verb is used to reidentify or describe its subject.

**For example:**
William **is** excited about his promotion.
She **appears** upset about the announcement.
The eggs **smell** rotten.
He **went** red after tripping on the rug.
Your plans for the wedding **sound** nice.

**Active and Passive verb**
When the verb is active, the subject of the verb is doing the action, as in these examples:

| | |
|---|---|
| *France* | ***beat*** *Brazil in the final.* |
| [subject] | [active verb] |
| *More than 300 million people* | **speak** Spanish. |
| [subject] | [active verb] |
| *Jack* | ***will take*** *the matter forward.* |
| [subject] | [active verb] |

When the verb is passive, the subject undergoes the action rather than doing it:

| | |
|---|---|
| *Brazil* | ***was beaten*** *in the final.* |
| [subject] | [passive verb] |
| *Spanish* | ***is spoken*** *by more than 300 million people worldwide.* |
| [subject] | [passive verb] |
| *The matter* | ***will be taken*** *forward by Jack.* |
| [subject] | [passive verb] |

The passive is formed with tenses of the auxiliary verb 'to be' and the past participle of the main verb. Here is a table showing the passive forms for most English verbs:

| Tense | Passive | Example |
|---|---|---|
| present simple | am/are/is + past participle | *He **is taken** to school by his mum.* |
| present continuous | am/are/is being + past participle | *They **are being bullied**.* |
| present perfect | have/has been + past participle | ***Have** you **been interviewed** for many jobs?* |
| past simple | was/were + past participle | *We **were told** not to touch anything.* |
| past continuous | was/were being + past participle | *Our computers **were being attacked** by hackers.* |
| past perfect | had been + past participle | *His mother **had been brought up** in India.* |
| Future | will be + past participle | *Arrangements **will be made** to move them to other locations.* |
| future perfect | will have been + past participle | *All the merchandise **will have been shipped** by tomorrow.* |

## 3. Adjective

The simplest definition of an adjective is that it is a word that describes or clarifies a noun. Adjectives describe

nouns by giving some information about an object's size, shape, age, color, origin or material.

**For example:**
*heavy*
*difficult*
*careful*
*expensive*
*soft*
*fast*

**Kind of Adjectives**
**Attributive and predicative adjectives**
Most adjectives can be used in two positions. When they are used before the noun they describe, they are called **attributive**:
*a* **black** *cat*
*a* **gloomy** *outlook*
*a* **slow** *journey*
*a* **large** *suitcase*

When they are used after a verb such as *be*, *become*, *grow*, *look,* or *seem*, they're called **predicative**: *The cat was* **black***.*
*The future looks* **gloomy***.*
*The journey seemed* **slow***.*
*They were growing* **tired***.*

There are some adjectives that can only be used in one position or the other. For example, these two sentences are grammatically correct:
*She was* **alone** *that evening.* ['alone' = predicative ]
*It was a* **mere** *scratch.* ['mere' = attributive]
These sentences, on the other hand, are not correct:
** I saw an* **alone** *woman.* ['alone' cannot be used in the attributive position]

* *The scratch was* **mere**. ['mere' cannot be used in the predicative position]

**Comprative and Superlative adjectives**

Most adjectives have three different forms, the positive, the comparative, and the superlative:

| positive | comparative | Superlative |
|---|---|---|
| Sad | Sadder | Saddest |
| happy | Happier | Happiest |
| unusual | more unusual | most unusual |

The **comparative** form is used for comparing two people or things:

*He is **taller** than me.*
*This puzzle is **easier** than the last one.*
*The book was **more interesting** than the film.*

The **superlative** is used for comparing one person or thing with every other member of their group:

*He was the **tallest** boy in the class.*
*This puzzle is the **easiest** in the whole book.*
*It's the **most interesting** book I've ever read.*

**Gradable and Non-gradable adjectives**

Most adjectives are gradable. This means that their meaning can be modified (made stronger, weaker, or otherwise altered) by placing one or more adverbs in front of them.

**For example:**

*an expensive car*
*a* **very** *expensive car*

The adverbs *very, fairly*, and *extremely* are telling us where this particular car belongs on the scale of 'expensiveness'. By using them, we can make a significant difference to the meaning of an adjective.

**Non-gradable** adjectives are those with meanings which cannot be modified by adverbs. For example:
*the* **western** *side of the mountain*
**electronic** *devices*
*a* **nuclear** *reactor*

**Qualitative and Classifying adjectives**
Not all adjectives have a comparative and superlative form nor can they all be graded. This is because there are two types of adjective, known as **qualitative** and **classifying**.

**Qualitative** adjectives describe the qualities of a person or thing – whether they are large or small, happy or sad, etc. This type of adjective is gradable.
**For example:**
*a fairly* **tall** *man*
*a very* **boring** *film*
*a really* **long** *holiday*
*an extremely* **expensive** *car*

**Classifying** adjectives place people and things into categories or classes. Do you read a *daily* newspaper or a *weekly* one? Does your house have an *electric* oven or a *gas* oven? Here are some more examples of classifying adjectives:
*the* **western** *hemisphere*
*an* **annual** *event*

### 4. *Adverb*
Adverb is a word or phrase that modifies or qualifies an adjective, verb, or other adverb or a word group, expressing a

relation of place, time, circumstance, manner, cause, degree, etc. (e.g., *gently*, *quite*, *then*, *there*).

**For example:**

*slowly*
*carefully*
*sometimes*
*thoughtfully*
*often*
*suddenly*

**Kind of Adverbs:**

**Adverbials and Adjuncts**

An **adverbial** is a word (an adverb), phrase, or clause which modifies (changes, restricts or adds to the meaning of) a verb. An adverbial can be a noun phrase (*we met that afternoon*), a prepositional phrase (*we met* **in the cafe**), or a clause (*we met* **because we needed to talk**) as well as an adverb, but always functions to modify the meaning of a verb. A sentence can contain just one adverbial or several.

We typically use adverbials to talk about:
where something happens (place):
*I put my bag* **on the floor.**
*Don't just sit* **there***!*
*Could you let the cat* **out***?*

when something happens (time):
*W*e're *in Paris today, but where will we be* **tomorrow***?*
*The rain lasted* **all night**.
S*he'd been travelling* **for three days***.*

the way in which someone does something or something happens or exists (manner):
*The abbey now lies* **in ruins***.*
*You're acting* **as if you were still a teenager.**
*These shirts come* **in three sizes**.

An adverbial adjunct is a type of adverbial which adds more information to a sentence. It differs from other adverbials because if it is left out of a sentence, the rest of the sentence still makes sense. Adverbial adjuncts provide extra but optional information, whereas adverbials offer information that is integral to the meaning of the sentence.

Compare these two examples:
*I put my bag* **on the floor***.*
X *I put my bag*
[*on the floor* is an adverbial: the sentence isn't meaningful without it]
*I dropped my bag* **next to my seat** *and sat down*.
*I dropped my bag and sat down*.
[*next to my seat* is an adverbial adjunct; the sentence makes sense without it]

Adverbial adjuncts can provide extra information about:
*where* things happen:
*At* low tide *you can cross the bays* **on the beach***.*
*The children were playing* **upstairs***.*

*when* things happen:
*I can't sleep* **at night.**
*She visited her family yesterday.*

*how* things happen:
*I found out how to do this* **by accident**.
*why* things happen or are done:
*No one is turned away* **because of a lack of means.**
*I still send her a Christmas card each year* **for old times' sake**

*condition* (i.e. if this happens, then that happens):
*Leslie had left no letter for me to read* **in the event of his death***.*

*concession* (i.e. even if this happens, still that happens):
*Despite all their efforts, the dishwasher is still broken*.

*degree* (i.e. answering the question 'how much?'):
*I wouldn't worry* **at all.**

**Comprative and superlative adjectives**
Many adverbs can have three different forms, the positive, the comparative, and the superlative.

| Positive | Comparative | Superlative |
|---|---|---|
| loudly | more loudly | most loudly |
| fast | faster | fastest |
| well | better | best |

The **comparative** form is used for comparing two actions or states:
*She ate her lunch **more quickly** than Joe (did).*
*Can't we go any **faster**?*
*The company performed **better** this year (than last year).*
*I made my cough sound **worse** than it actually was.*

The **superlative** is used for comparing one action or state with all the others in the same category:
*The first stage of a divorce passes the **most quickly**.*
*We need people who are determined, not just those who can run the **fastest.***
*He's playing the kind of role that suits him **best**.*
***Worst** of all, we didn't have the rights to our own films.*
Note that it's not possible to have comparatives or superlatives of certain adverbs, especially those of time (e.g. *yesterday*, *daily, then*), place (e.g. *here*, *up*, *down*), and degree (e.g. *very*, *really*, *almost*).

**Positions of adverbs**
Adverbs can be used in three positions in ***a*** sentence or clause:
front (*perhaps they'll arrive this evening*)
mid (*she* **hardly** *knew him*)

end (*I left the bedroom and ran* **downstairs**)
Different types of adverbs go in different positions. Here are some general guidelines:

**Front position**
The main types of adverbs that can be used in this position are those that:
begin a sentence or clause that's linked in meaning to another:
*People tend to put on weight in middle age.* **However**, *gaining weight is not inevitable.*
*I'll begin with an overview of the product.* **Secondly**, *I'll talk about projected sales.*
refer to time or frequency**:**
***Afterwards**, we went out for a walk*.
***Sometimes** she wonders what life's all about.*
refer to place:
*There goes my bus!*
*Up he ran, soon disappearing from view.*
comment on the rest of the sentence or clause (sentence adverbs):
***Luckily**, our meal lived up to expectation.*
***Clearly**, more research is needed.*

**Mid position**
This term refers to adverbs that can be used in the middle of a sentence or clause. The main kinds of adverbs found in this position are those that:
refer to frequency:
*We* **always** *meet for coffee on Saturday.*
*She's* **neve***r been to Sweden.*
refer to manner**:**
*He carefully avoided my eye.*
*I* **slowly** *walked into town.*
make the meaning of a verb, adjective, or other adverb stronger or weaker:
*She* **nearly** *fell asleep at her desk.*
*These ideas are* **very** *complicated.*

comment on the rest of the sentence or clause:
*When we first heard this story,* **frankly***, we couldn't believe it.*

**End position**
The main types of adverbs which can be used at the end of a sentence of clause are those that:
refer to manner:
*It's an interesting plot twist, and one that works* **well***.*
*For some reason, his career progressed* **slowly***.*
refer to time or frequency:
*The troops flew home* **yesterday***.*
*They're sending hundreds of texts to each other* **monthly***.*
refer to place:
*They're sitting at the table over* **there***.*
*There was a sudden burst of laughter from the people who could see* **outside***.*

**Sentence adverbs**
Some adverbs refer to a whole statement and not just a part of it. They are called **sentence adverbs** and they act as a comment, showing the attitude or opinion of the speaker or writer to a particular situation.
Sentence adverbs often stand at the beginning of the sentence. Here are some examples:
***Clearly****, there have been unacceptable delays.*
(=It is clear that there have been unacceptable delays.)

***Sadly****, the forests are now under threat.*
(= It is sad that the forests are now under threat.)

***Curiously****, he never visited America.*
( It's curious that he never visited America.)

The sentence adverbs are used to convey the writer or speaker's opinion that it is clear/sad/curious that something happened or is the case. If you compare the way ***clearly, sadly,*** and ***curiously*** are used in the next three sentences,

you can easily see the difference between the meaning of the sentence adverbs and the 'ordinary' adverbs:

*He spoke* **clearly** *and with conviction.*
( He spoke in a clear way and with conviction.)

*She smiled* **sadly**.
( She smiled in a sad way.)

## B. FUNCTION WORDS

Function words are the words we use to make our sentences grammatically correct. Pronouns, determiners, and prepositions, and auxiliary verbs are examples of function words. If our function words are missing or used incorrectly, we are probably considered poor speakers of English, but our listener would probably still get the main idea of what we are saying. Since function words don't give us the main information, we don't usually want or need to do anything to give them added attention and the words remain unstressed. In addition, sometimes we do things to deliberately push function words into the background almost the opposite of stressing.

### 1. Articles / Determiners

Determiners are function words which always occur with nouns to from noun phrases. They always occur before nouns in the frame. So, to identify all determines in English, we can use the following frame.

**For example:**

*a/an*
*the*
*this*
*those*
*every*
*no*
*each*
*all*

**Words** like my, our, your, his, her, its, and their are known a possessive determiners. They come before nouns and indicate ownership of the noun in question, as their name suggest:
**My** leg hurts.
James sold **his** business.
Bring **your** children with you.

## 2. Auxiliaries

Auxiliaries are function words which always occur with verbs to form verb phrases. They always precede verbs in the frame. So, th auxiliaries can be identifed as follows.

**For example:**

*Might*
*Can*
*Will*
*Shall*
*Was*
*Had*

**Auxiliaries verb**

Are so called because they help to form the various tenses,moods,and voices of other verbs. The principal ones are be, do, and have.
Be is used with other verbs to continous tenses and the passive voice:
She **is** reading a book.
We **were** talking to them for ages.
England **were** beaten by Germany in the final.
Have is used to make perfect tenses:
The judge **had** asked her to speak up.
In two years,we will **have** established community gardens.

Do is used:
He **did** look tired.
**Do** you want a coffee?

**Does** She go?
I **don't** like meat.
**Didn't** he know how to play football?

**Modal**

There is a futher set of auxiliary verbs known as modal verbs or modal auxiliary verbs. These combine with other verbs to express necessity, possibility, intention, or ability. The modal auxiliary verbs are must, shall, will, should, would, ought(to), can, may, and might.

**For example:**

You **must** act promptly.
**Can** you speak Italian?
I **would** go if i **could** afford it.
He said he **might** reconsider his decision.
I **ought** to visit my family.
We **should** get to Korea before midday.
**May** i come in ?

### 3. Intensifiers

Intensifiers are function words that always occur with adjectives or adverbs to form adjective phrases or adverb phrases. They function as modifiers of adjectives or adverbs, they always preced the adjectives or advebs thet modify. So, intesifiers can be iddentified as follows

**For example:**

Very
Quite
Really
Too
Rather
Awfully

### 4. Prepositions

Prepositons are usually used in front of nouns or pronouns and they show the relationship between the noun or pronoun and other words in a sentence.

**For example:**
After
In
To
On
With
Up
For
From

**The positon of something**:
Her bag was **under** the chair.
The dog crawled **between** us and lay down at our feet.
His flat **over** the stop.

**The time when something happens**:
They arrived **on** Sunday.
The class starts **at** 9 a.m.
Shortly **after** their marriage they moved to Canada.

**The way in which something is done**
We went **by** train.
They stared at aech other **without** speaking.

**Some prepositions are made up of more than one word**
They moved here **because of** the baby.
We sat **next to** each other.
The hotel is perchad **on top** of a cliff.

## 5. Conjunctions

A conjunction also called a connective are used to connect phrases, clauses, and sentences.

**For example:**
*And*
*Because*
*But*

*If*
*For*
*Or*
*When*

**Coordinating conjunctions**
Coordinating conjunctions join items that are of equal importance in sentence:
You can have ice cream **or** srawberries.
He play football **and** cricket.
The weather was cold **but** clear.
**Subordinating conjunctions**

Subordinating conjunction connect subordinate clauses to the main clause of a sentence:
I waited at home **until** she arrived.
He went to bed **bacause** he was tired.

## 6. Question Words

Question words are function words used as signals of question sentences. They can be identified by using the following frames.
**For example:**
*What*
*When*
*Where*
*Who*
*Why*
*Which*
*Whom*
*Whose*
*How*

**What**
Asking for information about something, asking for repetition or comfirmation, and asking for a reason.

What is your name?
What? I can't hear you.

You did what?
What did you do that for?

**When**

Asking about time.
When did she leave?

**Where**

Asking in or at what place or position.
Where do you live?

**Who**

Asking what or which person or people (subject)
Who opened the window?

**Why**

Asking for reason and asking what ... for
Why do you say that?

**Which**

Asking about choice
Which colour do you want?

**Whom**

Asking what or which person or people (object)
Whom did you see?

**Whose**

Asking about ownership
Whose are these keys?
Whose turn is it?

**How**

Asking about manner and asking about condition or quality.
How does this work?
How was your exam?

# Chapter 2
# PHRASE

## DEFINITION OF PHRASE

A phrase is a group of two or more words that can be used as a grammatical unit in a sentence (Richard, et al. 2002). Kridalaksana (1988) defines phrase as a combination of two or more words which are not predicative, the joint can be tight; stretchable; for Example Mountain: **High Mountain** is a phrase because it is a no predicative construction. This construction differs from **the mountain that is high**, which is not a phrase because it is a predicative.

A phrase is a group (or pairing) of words in English. A phrase can be short or long, but it does not include the subject-verb pairing necessary to make a clause.

A phrase, therefore, is a group of words which has no finite verb in it and acts to complete the sentence for making it meaningful.

> "A phrase is a small group of words that form a meaningful unit within a clause."

Oxford Dictionary (1986)
"In linguistic analysis, a phrase is a group of words (or possibly a single word) that functions as a constituent in the syntax of a sentence, a single unit within agrammatical hierarchy."
Osborne, Timothy, Michael Putnam, and Thomas Gross (2011)

### Endocentric Construction

Some types of phrase contain **a head** word and have the same formal function in their clause as the single head would:

very dreadful

rather more *surprisingly*
must be obeyed

**Exocentric Construction**
Containing no element that is functionally equivalent to the whole structure (non-headed or unheaded) Some phrases are always exocentric

***on the burning deck***.
***in the iron mask?***

A basic English sentence (consisting of subject and predicate) is always exocentric, since neither part can stand for the whole:
The boy / stood on the burning deck

**Noun Phrases**
A noun phrase is a group of two or more words that is headed by a noun (a person, place, or thing) that includes modifiers (e.g., 'the,' 'a,' 'of them,' 'with her')
A noun phrase plays the role of a noun. In a noun phrase, the modifiers can come before or after the noun.

Note: A noun phrase can also be headed by a pronoun.

**For Example:**
the dog with fleas
the one with fleas
(This is a noun phrase headed by a pronoun. In the infographic, "None of us" is another example.)

**Examples of Noun Phrases**
In normal writing, nouns nearly always feature in noun phrases. It is rare to find a noun functioning by itself (i.e., without any modifiers) in a sentence.
Man proposes, but God disposes. (German canon Thomas à Kempis)
(This example features two nouns without any modifiers. That's rare. In other words, there are no noun phrases in this example.)

In real life, it is far more common for nouns to feature in noun phrases, i..e, to be accompanied by modifiers. Here is a list of noun phrases. In this list, every noun phrase consists of a head noun (highlighted) and at least one modifier.

**People**: the soldier, my cousin, dopey Alan, the lawyer with the big nose
**Animals**: that aardvark, one rat, a shark, funny Mickey
**Places**: the house in the corner, inner London, dirty factory, no shelter
**Things**: this table, our London Bridge, the sharp chisel, that nitrogen, last month, an inch, her cooking
**Ideas**: utter confusion, some kindness, your faith, the Theory of Relativity, a joy

So, a noun with any sort of modifier (even it's just "a" or "the") is a noun phrase.

**The Function of Noun Phrases**

Like any noun, a noun phrase can function as a subject, an object, or a complement within a sentence. In each example below, the noun phrase is in bold and the head noun is highlighted.

**Singing in the bath** relaxes me.
(Here, the noun phrase is the subject of the verb "relaxes.")
I know **the back streets**.
(Here, the noun phrase is the direct object of the verb "know.")

She was **the devil in disguise**.
(Here, the noun phrase is a subject complement following the linking verb "was.")
It follows therefore that a noun phrase functions as a noun in a sentence. We can test this because we know that a noun can be replaced by a pronoun (e.g., *he*, *she*, *it*, *them*). Looking at the examples above, we can replace each noun phrase with a pronoun.

**It** relaxes me.
I know **them**.
She was **him**.

Here are some real-life examples of noun phrases as subjects, objects, and complements:

> **This man** has **a nice smile**, but he's got **iron teeth**. (Soviet Foreign Minister Andrei Gromyko on Mikhail Gorbachev)

("This man" is the subject of the verb "has." The phrase "a nice smile" is the direct object of "has." The noun phrase "iron teeth" is the direct object of the verb "got." Here's the "pronoun test": **He** has **one**, but he's got **them**.)

> I never learned from **a man who agreed with me**. (Science-fiction writer Robert Heinlein)

(The noun phrase "a man who agreed with me" is the object of the preposition "from." Here's the "pronoun test": I never learned from **him**.)

> **Every man of courage** is **a man of his word**. (French dramatist Pierre Corneille)

("Every man of courage is" the subject of the verb "is." The noun phrase "a man of his word" is a subject complement following the linking verb "is." Here's the "pronoun test": **He** is **one**.)

It can get complicated. It's not unusual for nouns and noun phrases to be embedded within noun phrases. Looking at the last example, "courage" and "word" are both nouns, but they are not the head nouns of the phrases. They are both objects of the preposition "of," sitting in prepositional phrases that modify the head nouns.

### Verb Phrase

A **verb phrase** consists of an auxiliary, or helping, verb and a main verb. The helping verb always precedes the main verb.

A helping verb includes forms of *be*, such as *am, is, are, was, were, being*, and *been*; forms of *have*, such as *has* and *had*; forms of *do*, such as *does* and *did*; forms of *can*, such as *could, will, would*, and *shall*; and forms of *should*, such as *may*, *might*, and *must*.

**Verb Phrase Examples:**

Verb Phrase Example: **Do** you **think** she will join us?

(Do *think* is the verb phrase. *D*o is the helping verb, and *think* is the main verb. *You* is a pronoun functioning as a subject. It is not part of the verb phrase.)

Verb Phrase Example: **Could** Elizabeth **bring** us our coats?

(*Could bring* is the verb phrase. *Could* is the helping verb, and *bring* is the main verb. *Elizabeth* is a noun functioning as a subject. It is not part of the verb phrase.)

Verb Phrase Example: Due to the extreme heat, we **did** not **go** to the beach.

(*Did go* is the verb phrase. *Did* is the helping verb, and *go* is the main verb. *Not* is an adverb and is not part of the verb phrase.)

Verb Phrase Example: Theresa **will** soon **have** her dream job.

(*Will have* is the verb phrase. *Will* is the helping verb, and *have* is the main verb. *Soon* is an adverb and is not part of the verb phrase.)

**Phrase Is the Predicate of the Sentence**

Following are some verb phrase examples where the verb phrase is the predicate of a sentence. In this case, the verb phrase consists of the main verb plus any auxiliary, or helping, verbs.

She **was walking** quickly to the mall.
He **should wait** before going swimming.
Those girls **are not trying** very hard.
Ted **might eat** the cake.
You **must go** right now.
You **can't eat** that!
My mother **is fixing** us some dinner.
Words **were spoken.**
These cards **may be worth** hundreds of dollars!
The teacher **is writing** a report.
You **have woken up** everyone in the neighborhood.

**Adjective Phrase**

An adjective phrase is a group of words headed by an adjective that describes **a** noun or **a** pronoun.
In English grammar, an *adjective phrase* is a group of words that functions as an adjective in a sentence. An adjective headword may be accompanied **by** modifiers**,** determiners, and / or qualifiers (all of which are called *dependents*). Also known as an *adjectival phrase*.

Adjective phrases modify nouns. They may **be** attributive (appearing before the noun) or predicative (appearing after **a** linking verb), but not all adjectives can be used in both positions.

**Examples of Adjective Phrases**
In each example below, the adjective phrase is shaded and the head adjective is bold.

She had ***extremely blue eyes.***
(This adjective phrase describes the noun eyes. The adjective "blue" heads the adjective phrase.)

She wore **very expensive** shoes.
(This adjective phrase describes (or **"**modifies" as grammarians say) the noun "shoes." The adjective "expensive" heads the adjective phrase.)

Sarah was ***very humble***
The movie was **not too terrible.**
A person **smarter than me** needs to figure this out.
The final exams were **unbelievably difficult.**
This pie is **very delicious** and **extremely expensive.**
(This adjective phrase modifies the noun "Sarah." The adjective "hostile" heads the adjective phrase. Like a normal adjective, an adjective phrase can be used before the noun it's modifying (as in the first two examples) or afterwards (as here)

**Real-Life Examples of Adjective Phrases**
Here are some real-life examples of adjective phrases (with the head adjectives in bold)
An overly **sensitive** heart is an unhappy possession on this shaky earth. (German writer Johann Wolfgang von Goethe)

(This adjective phrase modifies the noun "heart.")
I'm a fairly **intelligent** person, but I don't think my grades reflected that. (American footballer Barry Sanders)

(This adjective phrase modifies the noun "person.")
People are *so sick* of these Twitter tirades. They want to be **proud** of their leaders. (US politician Tom Perez)

(The first adjective phrase modifies the noun "people." The second modifies the pronoun "they." Obviously, adjectives can modify pronouns too.)

There is always someone **better** than you and more **talented** than you. Always. (Restaurateur David Chang)
(The adjective phrases modify the pronoun "someone.")

**Adverb Phrase**
An adverb phrase is simply a group of two or more words that function as an adverb in a sentence. Just as **an** adverb can modify a verb, adjective or another adverb, an adverb phrase of more than one word can further describe a verb, adverb, or adjective**.**
Adverb phrases typically answer the questions how, where, why or when something was done, as you'll see in the adverb phrase examples below.
Consider the following sentences:

I parked the car **very well**
I parked the car ***right here*.**
I parked the car ***right here under the bridge*.**

The first sentence does not contain an adverb or adverb phrase at all. The second sentence contains the adverb "here" to describe where the car was parked. The third sentence contains the adverb phrase "right here," which emphasizes where the car was parked and employs a phrase instead of a single adverb.

The final sentence of the group contains a longer, more informative adverbial phrase. Note that "right here under the bridge" is a prepositional phrase that uses the preposition "under" and the object "bridge." In this case, the prepositional

phrase *functions as an adverb* in the sentence. Since it modifies the verb to describe location, it is both a prepositional phrase and an adverbial phrase.

**Adverb Phrases Show How, Where, Why, When**
A simple adverb phrase usually contains an adverb and at least one other word before or after it, though a prepositional phrase or infinitive phrase can also act as an adverbial.

**Adverb Phrases Describing How**
Surprisingly well
In total silence
Often under duress
Very carefully
Quite easily

**Adverb Phrases Describing Where**
Near the edge
Through the looking glass
Over the rainbow
By the mailbox
Around the sun

**Adverb Phrases Describing Why**
To understand better
For her happily ever after
For pity's sake
To make the most of it
To end discrimination

**Adverb Phrases Describing When**
As quickly as possible
Any time
Yesterday afternoon
After a few minutes
Never at midnight

**Adverb Phrase in a Sentence**
Adverb phrases can be used in any position in a sentence. Consider these adverb phrase examples so you'll know what you're looking for:

Bob nodded *like a bobblehead*.

Meet me at the mall *later this evening*.
Without thinking, he turned *down the road*.
They must kiss *before sunset* to break the spell.
She went online *for more information*.
*In the forest*, many creatures snarl and growl.

**Prepositional Phrase**
A prepositional phrase is a group of words that consists of **a** preposition, its object (which will be **a** noun or a pronoun), and any words that modify the object.

**Easy Examples of Prepositional Phrases**
In these examples, the prepositional phrase is shaded and the preposition is in bold.

A singer **with** passion
A town **near** London
Keep **in** time.
He acts **without** thinking.

It is a little bit more complicated than shown above because the noun can be anything that plays the role of a noun. For example:

It's a present **from her.**
(Remember that the "noun" can be a pronoun.)
She stole it **from** the man across the street.
(Here, the noun is a noun phrase**.**)
It's obvious **from** what he said.
(Here, the noun is a noun clause.)

The noun that follows the preposition (i.e., everything that's shaded but not bolded in the examples) is called the object of a preposition. There will often be modifiers in the object of the preposition making it a noun phrase. For example:

I sat **with** Simba.
(There are no modifiers in this example.)
I sat **with** the wonderful Simba.
(With the modifiers "the" and "wonderful," the object of the preposition is now a noun phrase.)

Here is another example:
He beat Lee **without** trying.
(There are no modifiers in this example. The object of the preposition is a noun. In this case, it's a gerund)
He beat Lee **without** overly trying.
(With the modifier "overly," the object of the preposition is a noun phrase.)

**Appositive Phrase**
An **appositive** is a noun or noun phrase (**appositive** phrase) that gives another name to the noun right next to it. It adds descriptive words about a specific thing (the noun), which helps make a sentence more detailed; or, it adds essential information to make the sentence's meaning clear.

**Examples of an Appositive Phrase**
An appositive noun or phrase can come before or after the main noun. It can be at the beginning, middle, or end of a sentence, as long as it is right next to the noun it describes. In the examples, appositives are red, and nouns are green.

> ***The smallest state in the US**, **Rhode Island** is in the northeast.*
> ***The dog**, **a beagle**, is great at following a scent.*
> *The apartment had **bugs**, **big brown cockroaches**!*

As you can see, the appositives add information about the nouns. For instance, "a beagle" describes the type of dog, while "a cockroach" describes the bug in the cereal.

**Types of Appositive Phrases**
Apposite phrases follow two forms: a noun followed by apposite phrase, or appositive phrase followed by a noun. You can identify an appositive phrase because it is what adds details to the main noun, so, depending on the sentence's style, sometimes it comes before, and sometimes it comes after.

**a. Noun followed by an appositive**

The most common way to use an appositive phrase is by putting it after a noun, like this:

***Sparky**, **the dog who loved popcorn**, was well known around the neighborhood.*

***The dog**, **who loved popcorn**, could often be spotted at the fair.*

*The dog **named Sparky** was loved by everyone.*

*At the fair, we saw **Sparky**, **the friendly neighborhood dog**.*

Even though it might add important information, an appositive phrase shouldn't affect a sentence's grammar. So, a sentence should make sense without it:

***Sparky** was well known around the neighborhood.*

You can see that though the sentence is less detailed, it is still grammatically correct!

**Appositive followed by a Noun**

Though not as common as the examples above, sometimes appositive phrases come before the noun, like this:

Named Sparky, the dog was well known around the neighborhood.

A lover of popcorn, Sparky was often spotted at the fair.

The neighborhood's favorite dog, Sparky was friendly to everyone.

Here, the appositive phrase describes the noun that follows it. Again, if you remove the appositive phrase, the sentences still make sense, like this:

***The dog** was well known around the neighborhood.*

**Gerund Phrase**

A gerund phrase is a phrase that begins with a gerund, and functions as a noun. Let's break down this definition to understand it better. A gerund is a verb ending with –ing, but, it works as a noun and can act as a subject, object, or complement in a sentence. Meanwhile, a phrase is a group of words that contains either a subject (noun) or a verb but not both. So together, a gerund phrase can also act as a subject,

object, or complement, while adding more details to the sentence.
First, here is an example of a gerund phrase in a sentence
***Eating a slice of pie quickly*** is a recipe for disaster.
So, we can breakdown the gerund phrase like so:
The gerund in the sentence is ***eating***. (Remember, a gerund is a noun that is formed by adding the *-ing* suffix to a verb.)
The Gerund phrase object in the sentence (the thing being acted upon, in this case by eating) is ***a* slice of *pie***.
The modifier in the sentence is ***quickly***.

**Gerund Phrase Examples**
While the rules of gerund phrases set out earlier help us recognize them in a sentence, gerund phrases have various uses in a sentence. They have a variety of roles in a sentence and can be acted upon in varying ways: Sometimes the gerund phrase is the subject; sometimes it is the object or indirect object; other times it is the object of a preposition; and finally, it can also be the predicate nominative.
Examples of gerund phrases for each group are given below:

**Subject Examples**
In the following examples, the gerund phrase is acting as the subject of the sentence. The subject is the thing or person that carries out the action of the verb.
***Sleeping through the night*** is difficult for me.
***Making noise*** is what happy children and almost all teenagers do best.
***Watching bad television*** defined my teenage years.
***Running with scissors*** on a slippery floor was a terrible idea.
***Travelling across France*** should be a rite of passage for all writers.

**Direct Object Examples**
In the following examples, the gerund phrase is acting as the direct object in the sentence. The direct object is the noun or pronoun that receives the action of the main verb.
I love ***sleeping through the night***.

My parents prefer ***eating dinner alone***.
We would not recommend ***travelling without insurance***.
His daughter enjoys ***fixing broken bicycles***.
Do they like ***swimming with dolphins***?

**Indirect Object Examples**

In the following examples, the gerund phrase is acting as the indirect in the sentence. The indirect object is affected by the action of the verb, but it is not its main object.

As part of her new wellness regimen, Jenny made ***sleeping through the night*** her priority.
Clinton gave ***running for president*** her best shot.
We make ***writing three poems*** a requirement to pass our course.
Men don't always see ***raising children well*** as an accomplishment.
Why don't you make ***completing a marathon*** your main goal?

**Predicate Nominative Examples**

In the following examples, the gerund phrase is acting as a predicate nominative. A predicate nominative completes the linking verb and renames the subject. For example, in the examples below the gerund phrases answer or define the first part of the sentence.

My biggest difficulty is ***sleeping through the night***. (What is my biggest difficulty? It is ***sleeping through the night***.)
Our top priority was ***getting everyone on the plane***.
The critical issue of his arrest wasn't ***driving without a license***.
Her favorite thing was ***listening to music***.
A good career for her might be ***coaching soccer***.

**Object of a Preposition**

In the following examples, the gerund phrase is acting as the object of the preposition in the sentence. The object of a preposition is simply a word or phrase that is preceded by a preposition and completes its meaning.

The doctor suggested drinking warm milk

for ***sleeping through the night***. (For what?
For ***sleeping through the night***.)
By ***crying like a baby,*** you won't get anywhere in life***.***
Exercise is futile without ***eating healthily***.
He wanted to learn more about ***riding a bike***.
Detectives were relieved after ***finding the evidence***.

**Infinitive Phrase**

An infinitive phrase is the infinitive form of a verb plus any complements and modifiers.
The complement of an infinitive verb will often be its direct object, and the modifier will often be **an** adverb.

**For example:**

He likes **to knead the dough slowly**.
(The infinitive verb is "to knead." The complement is its direct object ("the dough"). The modifier is the adverb ("slowly"). They all make up the infinitive phrase (the shaded text).)

**Examples of Infinitive Phrases**

Here are some examples of infinitive phrases (shaded):
He helped **to build the roof**.
The officer returned **to help the inspectors**.
Let me show you the best way **to fit a door quickly**.
She tells you **to dance like no one** is watching.

**Present Participle Phrase**

A participial phrase is a group of words consisting of a participle and the modifier and/or nouns, pronouns or noun phrases that function as the direct objects, indirect objects, or complements of the action or state expressed in the participle. Guide to Grammar and Style For example:
**Removing his pants**, Ron jumped into the water to save the child.
The participial phrase functions as an adjective modifying 'Ron'. Removing (participle) his pants (direct object of action expressed in participle)
Theresa observed **her father jogging along the path**.

The participial phrase functions as an adjective modifying ‘father’. jogging (participle) along the path (prepositional phrase as adverb)

Tots **interested in music early** develop powerful intellectual skills.
The participial phrase functions as an adjective modifying ‘tots’. interested (in) (participle) music (direct object of action expressed in participle) early (adverb)

**Having been a pole vaulter**, Gale knew the importance of exercise.
The participial phrase functions as an adjective modifying ‘Gale’. Having been (participle) a pole vaulter (subject complement for Gale, due to state of being expressed in participle)

**Participle Phrases**
In each of these examples, the participle phrase is shaded and the participle is in bold.

Look at **the panther climbing** the tree.
(The participle phrase describes "the panther.")
Sebastian reached across for the pipe, **signalling** his agreement with the chief's proposal.
(The participle phrase describes "Sebastian.")

**A Participle Phrase Can Start with a Past Participle or a Present Participle**
Here is a quick revision about participles. Remember that a participle is a verb form that can be used as an adjective. There are two types of participles:
Present Participles (ending "-ing"). Here is an example of one as an adjective:

**The rising tide**
Past Participles (usually ending "-ed," "-d," "-t," "-en," or "-n"). Here is an example of one as an adjective:
**The risen cake**

**Past Participle Phrase**

A past participial phrase includes a past participle and any modifiers. Past participial phrases function adjectivally to give more information about a noun or a pronoun in a sentence.
A past participial phrase can come right after the noun or pronoun it describes. If the past participial phrase provides information that is essential to understand the noun or pronoun, the past participial phrase should not be set off by commas.

- **Leroy tossed a rope to the man** thrown overboard.
- **The library book damaged** by water needs to be replaced.
- **The team defeated in Super Bowl XL** had been expected to win.
- **A student confused by the assignment** asked the instructor for extra help.

A past participial phrase that provides information that is non-essential to understand a subject should be set off by commas.

- Roberto, thrown overboard, struggled in the water until Leroy tossed him a rope.
- The Denver Broncos, defeated in Super Bowl XL, had been expected to win.
- My television andstereo, stolen in the burglary, will be replaced by insurance.
- Maria, Confused by the assignment, asked her instructor for extra help.

**Phrase with Past Participle**

1. **The boy wanted by the police** hid among the crowd.
2. **The man invited by mother** is Aris.
3. **Surprised by the gift,** my mother was speechless.
4. **Lost many years ago,** that coin has never been found.
5. **The museum destroyed by a fire**, was never rebuilt.
6. **Ara nervously watched the woman,** alarmed by her silence.

**Predicate Phrase**
A predicate phrase is a linguistic phrase with a predicate phrase head (typically a verb) that states something about the linguistic subject.

**Context:**
It can (typically) not include a Phrase Subject.
It can range from being a Clause Predicate to being a Sentence Predicate.
It can have a Predicate Phrase Modifier, which is typically have a Sentence Object**.**
It can range from being a Simple Predicate Phrase to being a Complex Predicate Phrase.

**Example(s):**
"*ate*" in "*John **ate**.*"
"*walked home*" in "*John **walked home**.*"
"*barked very loudly*" in "*The dog **barked very loudly**"*
"*gave Joe a gift*" in "*Jay **gave Joe a gift**.**"*** (with predicate-argument structure **o**f [A Jay] gave [A Joe] [A1 a gift])
"*Managers [expect increases in pay]*." (with Predicate Argument Structure of [A Managers] expect [A1 increases in pay]).
Normative Predicate, such as "*is good*".
Descriptive Predicate, such as "*is red*".

**Counter-Example(s):**
Verb Phrase**.**
Subject (Grammar).

**Absolute Phrase**
An **absolute** phrase is a phrase that modifies a *whole* independent clause (a full sentence); not just one word. It generally combines a noun and a participle, so it can be as short as two words, or sometimes have other modifiers and objects, too.
Absolute phrases are not full sentences on their own, but they can add very important details to sentences that make them more informative or relevant.

**Examples of Absolute Phrase**

Unlike a normal modifier that just modifies a word in a sentence, an absolute phrase modifies a **whole sentence**. Below, the absolute phrases are orange:

*Sally waited for her friends to arrive, muffins baking in the oven*.

*Muffins baking in the oven*, Sally waited for her friends to arrive.

*Her muffins freshly baked*, Sally waited for her friends to arrive.

*Sally waited for her friends to arrive, her muffins freshly baked and ready*.

What's more, absolute phrases are not full sentences on their own; they only modify full sentences. As you can also see, they are NOT connected to the full sentence by a conjunction (like *and*).

**For Examples of Absolute Phrase:**

**My cousin finally returning to the homeland**, we will be able to have fun in the family gatherings like before.

**The singer's performance in the concert**, the organizers were so happy.

Jeff is waiting for his friends, **having the food cooked in the microwave oven**.

**Having the work done early**, I decided to go home.

**The concert finished**, we all were ready to go the restaurant.

**Being a doctor,** you should know it.

**The exam over**, the friends were ready to hang out.

# Chapter 3
# CLAUSE

## A. DEFINITION OF CLAUSE

According to Richards, Platt and Weber (2002), clause is a group of words which form a grammatical unit and which contains a subject and a finite verb, clause forms a sentence or part of a sentence and often function as a noun, adjective or adverb. Furthermore, Chaer (2003) argues that the clause is a syntactic unit in the form of a series of words with a predicate construction.

A *clause* is a group of words that contains a subject and a predicate. A clause may be either a sentence (an **independent clause**) or a sentence-like construction within another sentence (**a dependent or subordinate clause**).

## B. KINDS OF CLAUSE

### 1. Independent Clause

Main (or independent) clause is a clause that expresses a complete thought and can stand as a sentence.

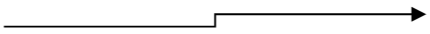
**Examples :**

**I met the boy** who had helped me.
**She is wearing a shirt** which looks nice.
**The teacher asked a question** but no one answered.
**He takes medicine** because he suffers from fever.
**He became angry** and smashed the vase into peaces.

In the above sentences each underlined part shows main clause. It expresses complete though and can stand as a sentence that is why a main or an independent clause is normally referred as a simple sentence.

**Kinds of Independent Clause**

1) **Transitive Clause** is action verbs that have an object to receive that action. In the first sentence above, the direct object *ball* received the action of the verb *hit*.
**Examples:**




*I baked some cookies.* → *object*

*I rode the bicycle.*

*I moved the chair.*

*I stitched a quilt.*

Al
be

2) **Intransitive Clause** is *action verbs* but unlike transitive verbs, they do not have an object receiving the action. Notice there are no words after the verb *sang.*
**Examples:**

*I laughed.* → *intransitive*

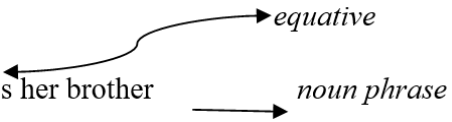
In all rming the
actior ction.
*I cried.*

is walked transitive or intransitive? Think about the rules. Since walked has words coming after it, the verb must be transitive, right? WRONG! The phrase *to the park* is a prepositional phrase and *today* is an adverb. There is no object receiving the action of the verb *walked* so the verb is intransitive.To recap, a transitive verb must be an action verb plus there must be an object to receive that action.

3) **Equative Clauses** are clauses whose predicates are filled by equative verbs, like be, become, grow, seem,

appear, look, etc. These verbs are commonly followed by complement slots filled by nouns, noun phrases, adjectives, or adjective phrases.

**Examples*:***




**2. Depe**

De

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**Kinds of I**

**1) Nominal Clauses** are dependent clauses that function or act like noun. They can fill the subject, object, or complement slots at the clause level. At the sentence level, they can fill the margin slot. Nominal clauses can be transitive, intransitive or equative clauses.

**Example :**

I don't know where he lives

What you have said is not clear

Nominal clauses are commonly introduced by relaters like what, where, who, why, that,etc.

Like a noun, a nominal clause names a person, place, thing, or idea. A nominal clause may function in a sentence as any of the following: **Subjec, subjective complement, appositive, object of preposition, direct object, indirect object, retained object.**

Nominal clauses may begin with interrogatives:

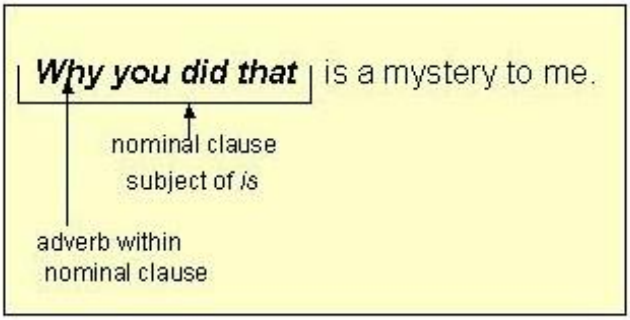
***who whom what which whoever whomever whatever when where how why***

An interrogative beginning a nominal clause has a function **within** the nominal clause.

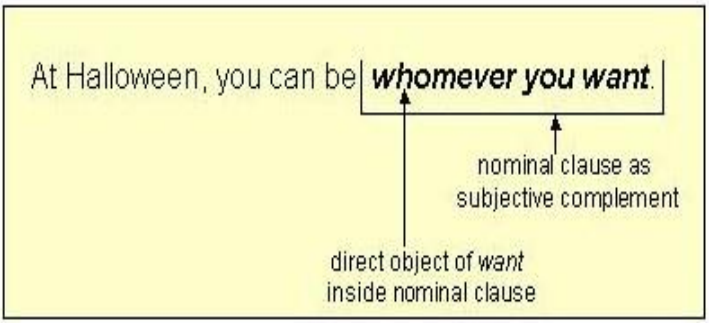
Each of the following examples illustrates

- a nominal clause
- the function of the nominal clause within the sentence
- the function of the interrogative within the nominal clause

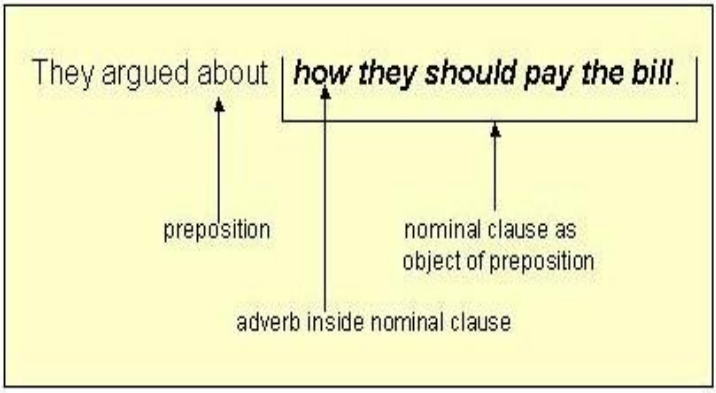
**Nominal clause as subject in sentence**



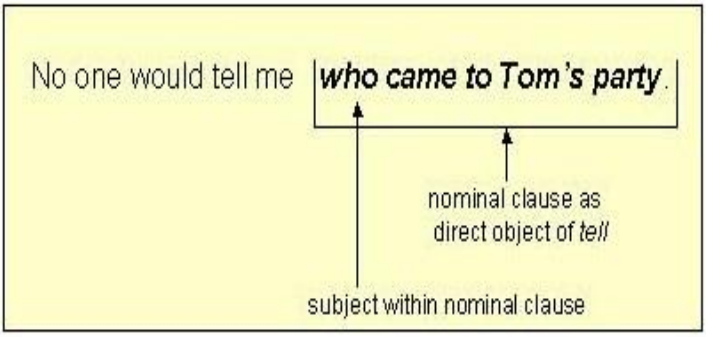

**Nominal clause as subjective complement in sentence**



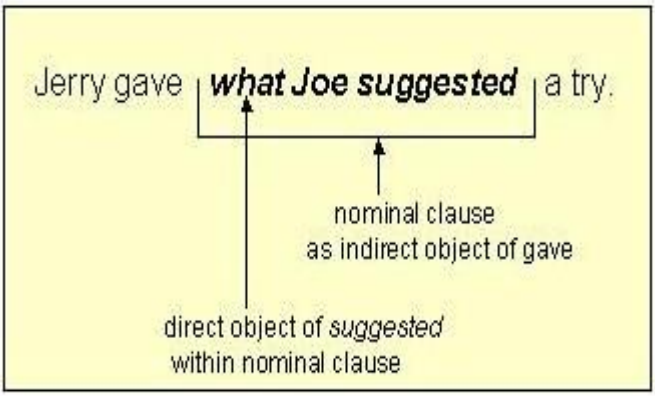

**Nominal clause as object of preposition in sentence**



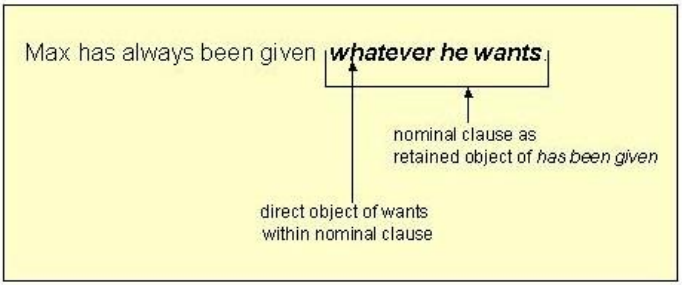

**Nominal clause as direct object in sentence**




**Nominal clause as indirect object in sentence**




**Nominal clause as retained object in sentence**

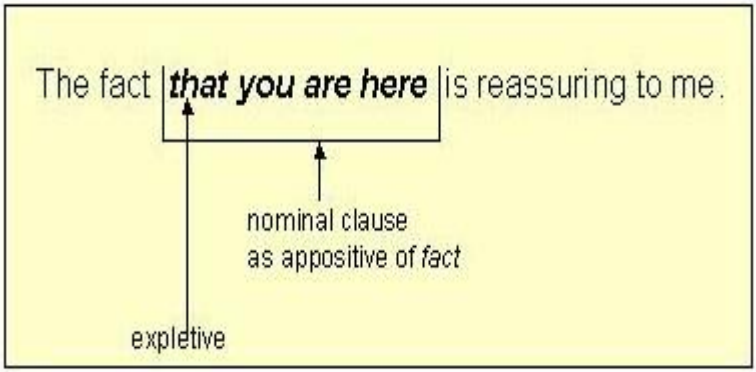



Nominal clauses may also begin with expletives:

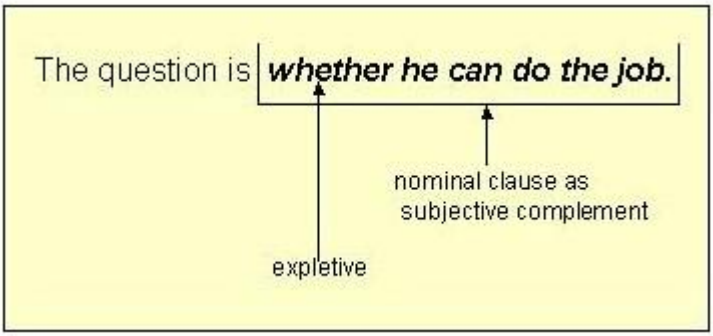
***that*** ***whether*** ***if***

An expletive beginning a nominal clause has **no function** within the nominal clause.

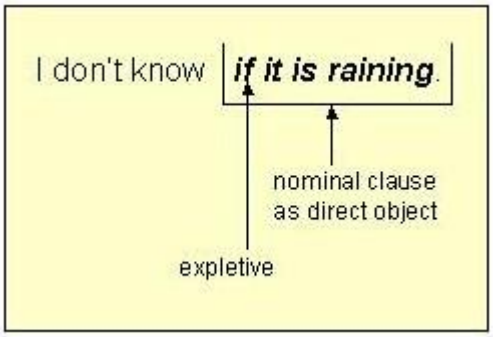
**Nominal clause beginning with expletive *that***




**Nominal clause beginning with expletive *whether***




**Nominal clause beginning with expletive *if***




**2)** **Adjectival Clauses** are dependent clauses that function like adjectives. They can fill the modifier slot at the phrase level . like nominal clauses, adjectival clauses can be transitive, intransitive or equative clauses.

**Example :**

The man**,** ***who came yesterday***, is his uncle

The book, ***that you bought last week***, is very interesting

He sent some money to his son ***who studies English in the USA*** Like a single-word adjective, an adjectival clause describes a noun (in the sentence's main clause) and answers one of these questions

**which one*?*** **what kind*?***

An adjectival clause usually begins with a relative pronoun, which makes the clause subordinate (dependent).

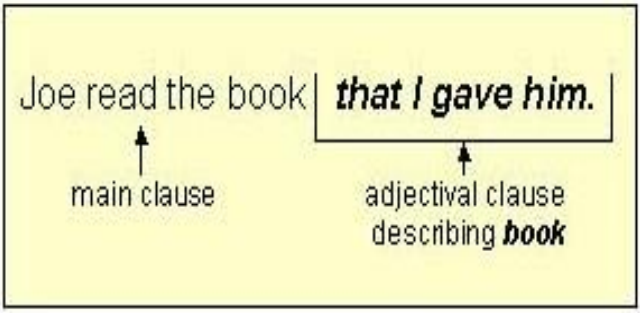
**Common relative pronouns:**

*that* *which* *who* *whom* *whose*

***NOTE:*** Use *who, whom, and whose* to describe people.
Use *that* and *which* to describe things.

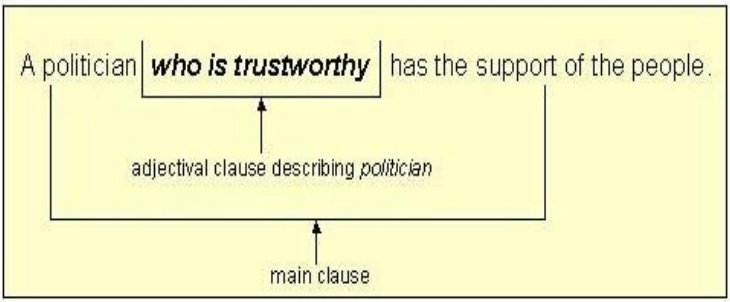
Adjectival clauses always follow the person, place, or thing they describe, usually immediately.

**Example of adjectival clause answering *which one?***




*Which* book did Joe read? **Answer:** the one that I gave him

**Example of adjectival clause answering *what kind?***

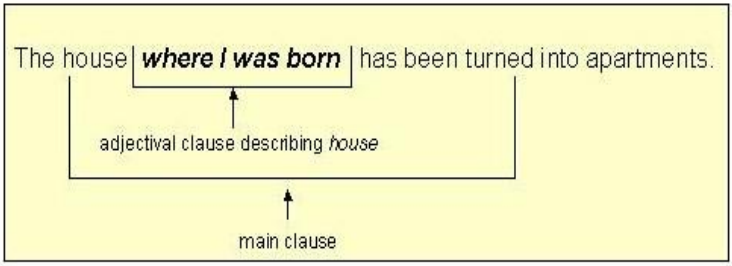



*What kind* of politician has the support of the people? **Answer**: one who is trustworthy

Adjectival clauses may also begin with selected subordinating conjunctions:

***when* - to describe a time**

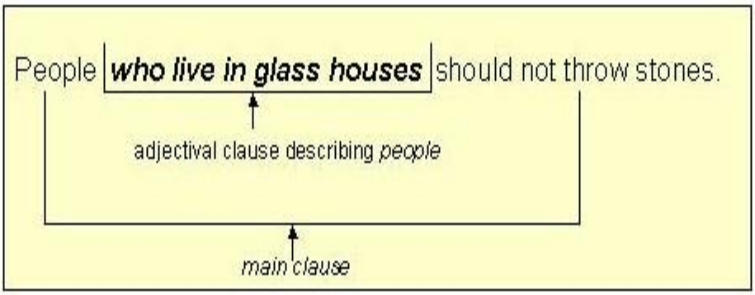

***where* - to describe a place**

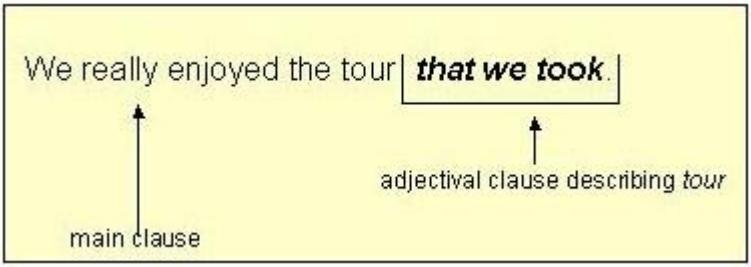



***why* - to describe a reason**


Comma use with adjectival clauses depends upon **essentiality** of the adjectival clause.
If the adjectival clause is essential (or "needed"), no commas should be used to separate it from the main clause.
Generally, essential adjectival clauses should not begin with *which*.

**Examples**

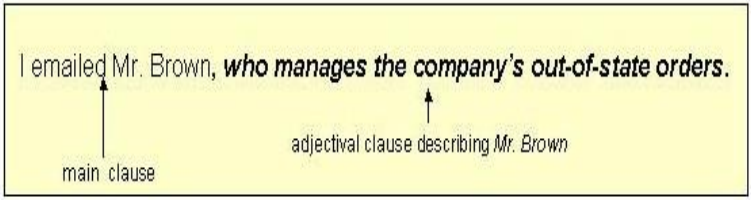


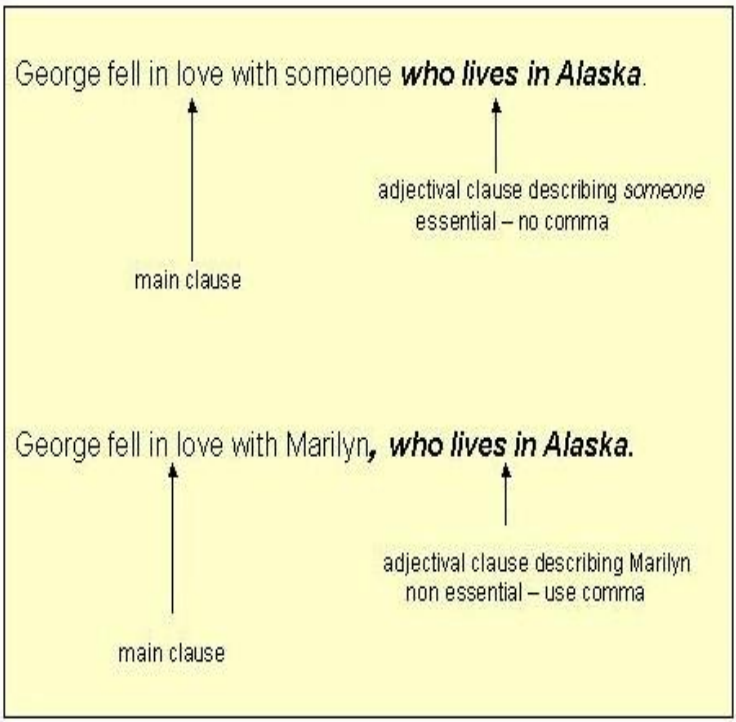

Since the adjectival clauses in the above examples are **needed** to clarify the noun that they describe, they are **essential** and should not be separated from the rest of the sentence with commas.

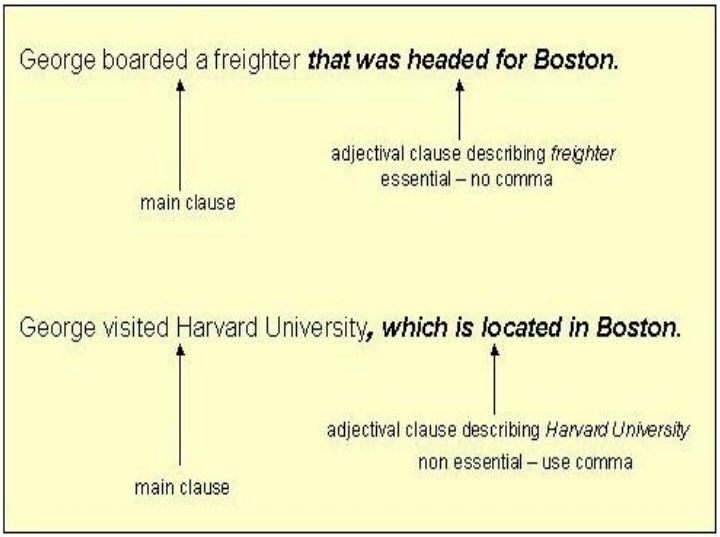
If the adjectival clause is nonessential (or "not needed"), commas should separate it from the main clause. Nonessential adjectival clauses should not begin with *that.*

**Examples**




Since the adjectival clauses in the above examples are **not needed** to clarify the noun that they describe, they are **nonessential** and should be separated from the rest of the sentence with commas.
Note the difference between the sentences in each pair:






**3)** **Adverbial Clause** are dependent clauses that function as adverbs. They fills slots adverbs, namely, the slots of location, time or temporal, manner, reason, and purpose.
**Based on the slots they occupy, adverbial clauses are several types :**
**Place / Location Clauses**
I left the book **where I found it.**
Thay visited the place **where many people gathered together**.

**Time / Temporal Clauses**
He was watching a TV program **when I came**.
He went to the office **after he had read the morning newspaper.**

**Manner Clauses**
He behaves **as if he were drunkard**.
She always plays with children **like her mother does**.

**Reason Clauses**
He didn't go to class yesterday **because he was sick.**

**Purpose Clauses**
He has tried to improve his English **so that he can study at an American college.**
John left the house early **in case he should miss the last train.**

**Conditional Clauses**
John will drive to California **if he has a car next summer**.
Betty won't pass chemistry unless she works hard.
Like a single-word adverb, an adverbial clause describes a verb (in the sentence's main clause) and answers one of these questions

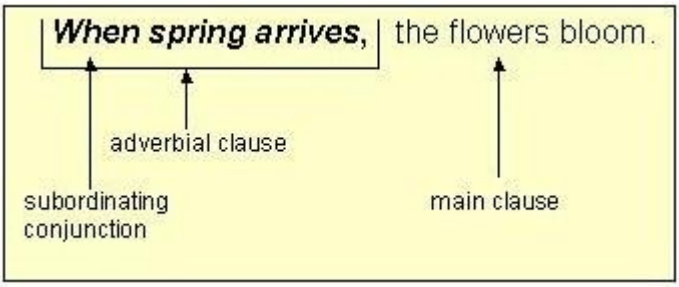
**where*?*** **why*?*** **how*?*** **when*?*** **to what degree*?***

An adverbial clause begins with a subordinating conjunction, which makes the clause subordinate (dependent).

**Common subordinating conjunctions:**

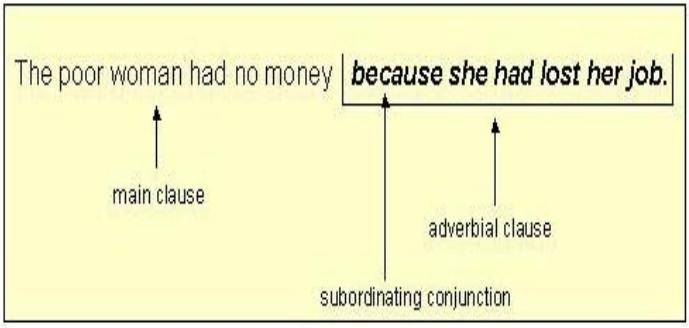
| | | |
|---|---|---|
| *After* | *in order (that)* | *unless* |
| *Although* | *insofar as* | *until* |
| *As* | *in that* | *when* |
| *as far as* | *Lest* | *whenever* |
| *as soon as* | *no matter how* | *where* |
| *as if* | *now that* | *wherever* |
| *as though* | *Once* | *whether* |
| *Because* | *provided (that)* | *while* |
| *Before* | *Since* | *why* |
| *even if* | *so that* | |
| *even though* | *supposing (that)* | |
| *How* | *Than* | |
| *If* | *That* | |
| *inasmuch as* | *Though* | |
| *in case (that)* | *Till* | |

**Example of adverbial clause answering *when?***




*When* will the flowers bloom? **Answer:** when spring arrives

**Example of adverbial clause answering *why?***



# Chapter 4
# SENTENCE

## A. DEFINITION OF SENTENCE

Sentence is the largest grammatical unit that contains word classes, such as nouns, verbs, adverbs and uses grammatical classes, such as words, phrases, and clauses Bloomfield (1933)

The standard definition of a **sentence** is that it is a group of words containing a subject and a predicate and expressing a complete thought. But for this definition to be helpful, you must be able to recognize a subject and a predicate and understand what is meant by "a complete thought."

A sentence has a **subject** (what or whom the sentence is about) and a predicate. The **predicate** tells what the subject does or is or what is done to the subject *(*for example, The books *were left* outside). The **simple subject** is a noun or pronoun. The **complete subject** is this noun or pronoun and the words that modify it. The **simple predicate** is a verb or verb phrase (for example, *has walked, will have walked)*. The **complete predicate** is the verb or verb phrase and the words that modify or complete it.

A sentence is the largest independent unit of **grammar:** it begins with a capital letter and ends with a period, question mark, or exclamation point. On the other hand, (Hadumo Bussmann, "Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics." Trans. by Lee Forester et al.

Routledge, 1996) stated that "A sentence is a unit of speech constructed according to language-dependent rules, which is relatively complete and independent in respect to content, grammatical structure, and intonation." According to Ba'dudu (2008), the sentence level is the level at which clauses are combined into larger units. The sentence is a grammatical unit, a construction in which the constitute is any utterance with final intonation contour, and the constituents are the clauses, connecting particles, and intonation patterns. A sentence is the largest independent unit of grammar: it begins with a capital letter and ends with a period, question mark, or exclamation point. The word "sentence" is from the Latin for "to feel." The adjective form of the word is "sentential." The sentence is traditionally (and inadequately) defined as a word or group of words that expresses a complete idea and that includes a subject and a verb.

## B. THE TYPES OF SENTENCES

### 1. Based on internal structure

### a. Complete sentence

Sentences work as a framework for individuals to properly express their thoughts and feelings in the form of words. It isn't difficult to recognize a complete sentence from an incomplete one, especially if you're familiar with its standard components. Generally, a complete sentence has most, if not all, of the following characteristics:

It starts with a capital letter.
It must have a subject and a predicate (verb).
It must convey a complete thought.
It ends with a period (**.**), a question mark (**?**) or an exclamation point (!).

**For example:**

**The teacher explained the main topic of the subject very well in the classroom at 7.30 A.M yesterday**

A complete sentence must have a subject, which tells us "who" or "what" is being referred to, along with a predicate, which is the action of the subject. The predicate may even contain compliments, which are words that accompany the verb. Another important characteristic to take note of is to see whether or not the sentence expresses a complete thought. If you're left hanging or feel as if there's something missing from it, then it's probably an incomplete sentence.

However, there are instances when a statement starts with a capital letter and ends with a punctuation mark, yet cannot be considered as a complete sentence. This is because it may be missing the main clause. The main clause in the sentence consists of both the independent subject and verb. If it lacks either of the two, you may have written a fragment as opposed to a complete sentence.

**Let's take this for example:**
Because a group of great white sharks swam by the shore.
Because a group of great white sharks swam by the shore, Blake and Leighton decided to return their surfboards back to the van.

The first line represents a fragment, while the second line is a complete sentence. You can see that by adding a main clause to the fragment, it helps complete the overall thought of the given statement. Complete

sentences may consist of a number of clauses, as long it has one main or independent clause present.

**b. Incomplete sentence**

Another way to tell if a sentence is complete or incomplete is to see if the sentence expresses a complete thought. If there is not a complete thought, if you feel left hanging when you read the sentence, it probably is incomplete. An incomplete sentence also referred to as a sentence fragment, is surprisingly a common mistake even in today's age. While they may be acceptable in spoken English, they can cause confusion and misunderstanding in writing. For example : Here are some 'sentences' that are incomplete because they are missing subjects:

**'Went to the store.'**
**'Ran into the woods.'**
**'Ate three plates of nachos.'**

**2. Based on the response**

**a. Command Sentence**

**Command sentences** are used when you are telling someone to do something. Commands usually start with an **imperative verb** , also known as a 'bossy verb', because they tell someone to do something. Just like that, Commands are sentences by which someone tells his hearer to do something or not to do anything. Commands are used to give orders or to make requests.

**For example :**

**Open the door!**
**Go to the market now!**
**Shut the door, please!**
**Fetch me some biscuits**!

In this example, 'fetch' is the imperative verb. You should also use commands when you are writing instructions telling someone how to do something.

**b. Imperative Sentence**

An imperative sentence is a lot similar to a declarative sentence in form but is easily distinguished through the message being conveyed. Imperative sentences, which consist of requests and commands, are typically an exception to the rule. Even without indicating the subject in the sentence itself, it is still implied. Imperative sentences are used to issue a command or instruction, make a request, or offer advice. Basically, they tell people what to do. ***Examples:***

**Get my keys from the drawer.**
**Please lead the way.**
**Get down from there.**

Imperative sentences can be in **positive** or **negative** form, and can refer to **present or future time**.

**The function of an imperative sentence**

The usual function (job) of an imperative sentence is to give a command or instruction. It tells us to do something.

**Look at these examples:**

Help!
Go now!
Don't sit there.

**How do we use an imperative sentence?**

Although we use imperative sentences to give direct commands, we can also use them to give instructions more politely than a straight command. Instructions like this are quite common, for example in a user guide to

explain how to operate a machine. Imperatives can also be used with words like "please" or "kindly" to add politeness.

Look at these positive and negative examples. You will notice that some of them refer to present time, some to future time and some to both:

| **example context** | **Positive** | **negative** |
|---|---|---|
| Army | **Shoot**! | **Don't move**! |
| user guide | **Remove** the packaging. **Open** the blue box and **connect** the two wires. | **Do not dispose** of battery in the trash. |
| school | Now **wash** your hands! | **Don't forget** your homework. |
| airplane | Please **remain** seated until the seatbelt sign is off. | **Do not smoke** in the toilets. |
| Hotel | Kindly **help** yourself to fruit. | Please **don't forget** your belongings. |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| friends | Please **be** waiting when we arrive. | Don't **be** late! |

**c. Interrogative sentence**

These sentences ask questions. Accordingly, they end with a question mark. This type is simple to understand as it helps in asking a question. You use a question mark at its end. For framing your question, choose words like "why," "what," "when," "where," "do," or "how."

**For example:** Has anyone seen my torch?
What's the capital of Peru?
Shall we ask Simon or Jonesy?

Interrogative sentences can be in **positive** or **negative** form, and in **any tense**.

**Example :**

| | |
|---|---|
| (+) How long have they been married for? | (-) Haven't they lived together for over thirty years? |

**What is the function of an interrogative sentence?**

The basic function (job) of an interrogative sentence is to ask a direct question. It asks us something or requests information (as opposed to a statement which tells us something or gives information). Interrogative sentences require an answer. Look at these **examples:**

Is snow white? (answer → *Yes.*)
Why did John arrive late? (answer → *Because the traffic was bad.*)

Have any people actually met an alien? (answer → *I don't know.*)

**How do we use an interrogative sentence?**

We use interrogative sentences frequently in spoken and written language. They are one of the most common sentence types. Here are some extremely common interrogative sentences:

Is it cold outside?
Are you feeling better?
Was the film good?
Did you like it?
Does it taste good?
What is your name?
What's the time?
Where is the toilet please?
Where shall we go?
How do you open this?

**There are three basic question types and they are all interrogative sentences:**

Yes/No question: the answer is "yes or no", for example:
**Do you want dinner?** (No thank you.)
Question-word (WH) question: the answer is "information", for example:
**Where do you live?** (In Paris.)
Choice question: the answer is "in the question", for example:
**Do you want tea or coffee?** (Tea please.)

**3. Based on Action**

**a. Active and Passive**

The active voice describes a sentence where the subject performs the action stated by the verb. It follows a clear

subject + verb + object construct that's easy to read. In fact, sentences constructed in the active voice add impact to your writing.

With passive voice, the subject is acted upon by the verb. It makes for a murky, roundabout sentence; you can be more straightforward with active voice. As such, there are many ways to change the passive voice to the active voice in your sentences.

**To change an active voice sentence to a passive voice sentence:**

1. Make the object of the active sentence into the subject of the passive sentence.
2. Use the verb "to be" in the same tense as the main verb of the active sentence.
3. Use the past participle of the main verb of the active sentence.

Here are some active and passive voice examples to help!
**Active:** People drink champagne on New Year's Eve.
**Passive:** Champagne **is drunk** on New Year's Eve.
**Active:** Chefs use these machines to mix the ingredients.
**Passive:** These machines **are used** to mix the ingredients.
**Active:** They renovated the restaurant in 2004.
**Passive:** The restaurant **was renovated** in 2004.
**Active:** The teachers informed the students that the class had been cancelled.
**Passive:** The students **were informed** that the class had been cancelled.

### 4. Based on the Presence

**Affirmative Sentences**

Affirmative sentences are the opposite of negative sentences because affirmative sentences state things positively. In

English, we create negative sentences by the word after the auxiliary, or helping, verb. An example of an auxiliary verb is the helping verb 'be.' There are different forms that 'be' takes, including 'am,' 'is,' 'are,' 'was,' and 'were.'

**For example** : David is a happy person.
The clouds were blocking the sun's rays.

**Negative Sentences**

A negative sentence is a sentence that states that something is false. In English, we create negative sentences by adding the word 'not' after the auxiliary, or helping, verb. An example of an auxiliary verb is the helping verb 'be.' There are different forms that 'be' takes, including 'am,' 'is,' 'are,' 'was,' and 'were.'

**For example** : David is not a happy person.
The clouds were not blocking the sun's rays.

## 5. Based on number of clauses

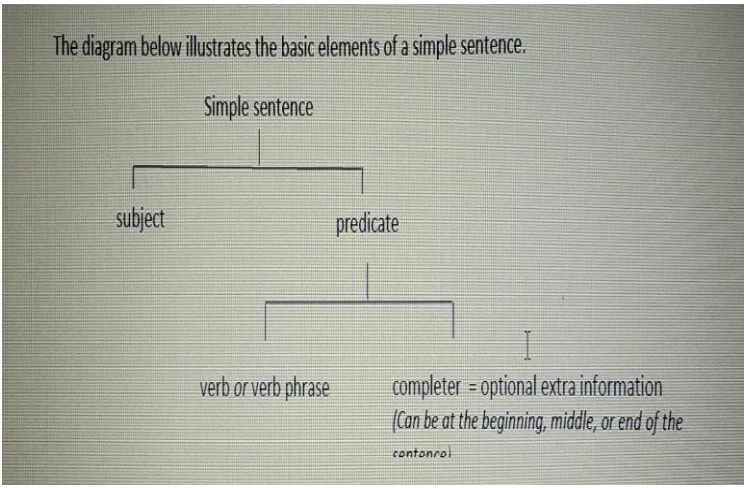
**Simple Sentences**

A **simple** sentence has only **one clause**, which must be an **independent** clause. The word "*simple*" does not necessarily mean "*easy*"; simple sentences can also contain phrases, so they are often long and complicated. However, they still have only **one subject** and **one finite verb**.

A simple sentence has one independent clause and no subordinate clauses.

A simple sentence contains a subject and a verb.

It expresses a single complete thought that can stand on its own.




**Examples:**

1. The baby cried for food.
   (There is a subject and a verb that expresses a complete thought)
2. Professor Maple's intelligent students completed and turned in their homework.
   (A simple sentence does not necessarily have to be short. It can have adjectives. In this case, there are two verbs "completed" and "turned in." However, the sentence expresses one complete thought and therefore is a simple sentence)
3. Megan and Ron ate too much and felt sick.
   (Although there are two subjects and two verbs, it is still a simple sentence because both
   verbs share the same subjects and express one complete thought)

**Compound Sentences**

A compound sentence has two independent clauses. An independent clause is a part of a sentence that can stand alone because it contains a subject and a verb and expresses a complete thought.

Basically, a compound contains two simple sentences. These independent clauses are joined by a conjunction (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so).

**Examples:**

1. The shoplifter had stolen clothes, he ran out, and he saw the police.
   (Both sides of the conjunction **and** are complete sentences. "The shoplifter had stolen clothes" can stand alone and also he ran out, and he saw the police. Therefore, this is a compound sentence)
2. They spoke to him in Spanish, **but** he responded in English.
   (This is also a compound sentence that uses a conjunction to separate two individual clauses)
3. John goes to school with his friend **or** he stays at home to do the work.
   (two independent clauses joined by or)

**Complex Sentences**

A complex sentence is an independent clause joined by one or more dependent clauses. A dependent clause either lacks a subject or a verb or has both a subject and a verb that does not express a complete thought.

A complex sentence always has a subordinator (as, because, since, after, although, when) or relative pronouns (who, that, which).

**Examples:**

1. **After** eating lunch at The Cheesecake Factory, Tim went to the gym to exercise.
   (The independent clause is 'Tim went to the gym to exercise." The subordinating clause before it is dependent on the main, independent clause. If one were to say "after eating lunch at The Cheesecake Factory," it would be an incomplete thought)

2. Opinionated women are given disadvantages in societies **that** privilege male accomplishments.
   (The subject is "opinionated women" and the verb is "are given." The first part of the sentence "opinionated women are given disadvantages in societies" is an independent clause that expresses a complete thought. The following "that privilege male accomplishments" is a relative clause that describes which types of societies)

3. The woman **who** taught Art History 210 was fired for stealing school supplies.
   (The dependent clause in this sentence is "who taught Art History 210" because if removed, the rest of the sentence would stand as an independent clause. "Who taught Art History 210" is an adjective clause that provides necessary details about the subject, woman)

   In this type of sentence, each clause has **equal** (or nearly equal) **importance**.

The clauses can be joined in **three** ways:

1. With a **coordinating conjunction**
   ie. and, but, or, for, nor, yet, so
   e.g. Diversity has become a strategic imperative for corporations, and the term has already entered the corporate vocabulary.3
   or with a **correlative conjunction**

e.g. not only ... but also
e.g. Not only have conservationists been successful in bringing issues to the attention of governments, but they have also achieved considerable success in having policies and institutions introduced or changed to meet their demand.

2. With a **semi-colon (;)**
   e.g. Astute depositors could see what was happening to the value of the land that was supporting the assets of the banks; they moved quickly to remove their deposits for cash.

3. With a **semi-colon** and another kind of **link word** called a **conjunctive adverb**
   e.g. furthermore, however, therefore, in contrast, similarly
   e.g. These obvious contamination problems have long been known; **however**, what is not often realised is the organic matter carried in ground water can contaminate samples.

**Compound-Complex Sentences**

A compound-complex sentence has two or more independent clauses and at least one dependent clause. Compound-complex sentences are the most complicated sentences, as their name implies. A compound-complex sentence has at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent clause. In simple terms, an independent clause can be a sentence on its own while a dependent clause cannot. Compound-complex sentences help us express longer more complicated thoughts, with more parts than other sentences. They're good tools for explaining complicated ideas or describing long chains of events.

**Examples:**

1. **After** the two soccer players lost their game, they joined their other teammates for lunch, and they went to the movies.
   (If we remove the dependent clause "after the two soccer players lost their game," we have a compound sentence. The dependent clause makes this sentence compound-complex)
2. The man believed in the system, and he knew that justice would prevail **after** the murderer was sent to jail.
3. When the new structure was proposed in 2003, the Council at first refused to discuss the plans with community groups, but the Environment Court over-ruled the decision and insisted on a full consultation process.

## C. SENTENCE STRUCTURE

### 1. Phrase Structure Rules

Phrase structure rules **specify the well-formed structures of a language pre cisely and concisely**. They express the regularities of the language and make explicit a speaker's knowledge of the order of words and the grouping of words into syntactic categories (phrases)

Phrase structure rules are **a type of rewrite rule used to describe a given language's syntax** and are closely associated with the early stages of transformational grammar, proposed by Noam Chomsky (1966).
The Phrase Structure Rules (PSR) of English are as follows:

PSR 1 = S → NP + VP

PSR 2 = VP → Aux + MV + (AdvP) + (AdvP +PrepP)

PSR 3 = Aux → Tense + (M) + (have+en) + (be+ing)

PSR 4 = Tense → { Present, Past }

PSR 5 = MV → { Be + { NP, AdjP, Place }, V + (NP) }

PSR 6 = NP → (Det) + (Num) + (AdjP) + N + (PrepP/S)

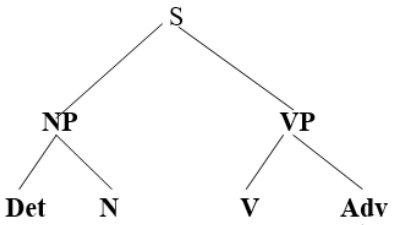
PSR 7 = AdjP → (Int) + (Adv) + Adj

PSR 8 = AdvP → (Int) + Adv

PSR 9 = PrepP → Prep + NP

**Notes:**

S : Sentence
NP : Noun Phrase
VP : Verb Phrase
AdjP : Adjective Phrase
AdvP : Adverb Phrase
MV : Main Verb
PrepP : Pre
Aux : Au
M : Mo
Prep : Pre
Adv : Ad

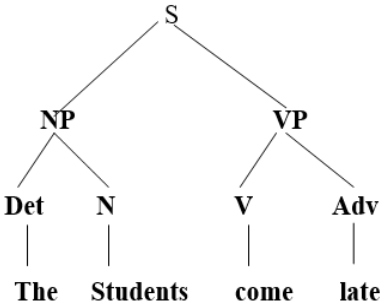



Based on th ula of the
Sentence st ntence
analysis by :

**2. The students come late**

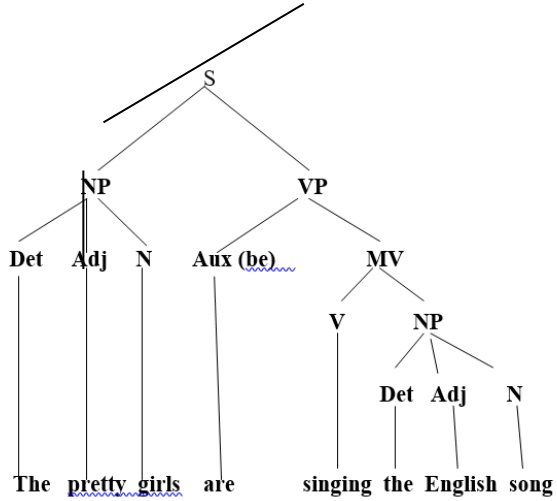
S = NP + VP
NP = Det + N (The + Students)
VP = V + Adv (come + late)

**3. The pretty girls are singing the English song**




**S = NP + V**
**NP = Det + Adj + N (The pretty girls)**
**VP = Aux + MV + NP (are + singing + the English song)**

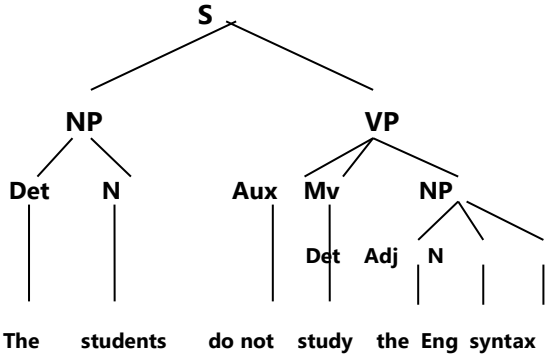
**4. Do the students come late ?**




**S**
**NP**

**VP = V + Adv**
**Aux = Do**

**6. The students do not study the English Syntax**




**S =NP +VP**
**NP = Det + N**
**VP = Aux + V + NP**

# Chapter 5
# Grammatical functions

The grammatical functions have seen that in a given clause the verb can be regarded as the head, controlling the other major phrases. Two sets of concepts bear on the relationship between the verb in a clause and its complements; one is the set of grammatical functions or grammatical relations, that is, subject, direct object, indirect object/second object and oblique object, and the other is the set of roles such as Agent and Patient. The first three terms used to be familiar to anyone who studied any of the foreign languages normally offered in British schools French, German, Spanish, and Latin, They are in constant use in grammars of languages from every part of the world and have been deployed for centuries in the study of European languages, yet it turns out to be far from straightforward to define the concepts, and it has yet to be determined whether they apply to languages which differ greatly from English in their grammar.

**Subject**

The most complex grammatical function is that of subject. Consider the example in (1).

(1) The tigers hunt prey at night.

*Tigers* precedes the verb. It agrees with the verb in number, as becomes clear when it is made singular: *The tiger hunts its prey at night*. In the active construction, it is never marked by any preposition. The corresponding full passive clause, is *Prey is hunted by the tigers at night* ; in the passive clause, the subject of *the tigers*, turns up inside the prepositional phrase *by the tigers*.

The above criteria – agreement in number with the verb, never being preceded by a preposition, occurring in the *by*

phrase in the passive – are grammatical, and the noun they pick out in a given clause is the **grammatical subject** of that clause. *Tigers* has another interesting property:

It refers to the Agent in the situation described by (1). Many analysts consider that *tigers* refers to the Agent in the passive sentence too, although it is inside the *by* prepositional phrase and at the end of the sentence. They call *tigers* the **logical subject**, by which is meant that in either syntactic construction *tigers* denotes the Agent. That is, its role inthe situation does not change.

Other analysts maintain that in the passive sentence *tigers* no longer denotes the Agent but rather the Path by which the action reaches and affects the prey. Such arguments lead us into a very old and unresolved controversy as to whether language corresponds directly to objective reality or whether it reflects a mental representation of the outside world. For the moment, we put this controversy aside; but it will return (possibly to haunt us) when we take up the topic of roles. All we need do here is note the assumptions that lie behind the notion of logical subject, and to understand that in any case the grammatical subject NP in an active construction of English typically denotes an Agent. This follows from the fact that most verbs in English denote actions.

A third type of subject is the **psychological subject**. In (1), *tigers* is the starting point of the message; it denotes the entities about which the speaker wishes to say something, as the traditional formula puts it. Example (1) is a neutral sentence: it has a neutral word order, and the three types of subject coincide on the NP *tigers*. Psychological subject and grammatical subject need not coincide. In *This prey tigers hunted*, the psychological subject is *this prey.* (It is what was called 'topic'.

In contemporary linguistic analysis, the notion of psychological subject has long been abandoned, since it encompasses various concepts that can only be treated

properly if they are teased apart. Again, the details need not concern us. That is important is that in sentences such as (1) the grammatical subject noun phrase typically denotes the Agent and typically denotes the entity which speakers announce and of which they then make a prediction.

It is the regular coincidence of grammatical subject, Agent and psychological subject in English and other languages of Europe that makes the notion of subject so natural to native speakers and to analysts. Here, we take the grammatical criteria to be the most important and explore them further. Consider the following examples:

a. Fiona hoped to meet the Prime Minister.
b. Susan intends to reach Kashogi.
c. Arthur tried to bake a cake.

All these examples contain infinitive phrases: *to meet the PM*, *to reach Kashogi*, *to bake a cake*., such infinitives are nowadays regarded as non-finite clauses, one of their properties being that they have understood subjects: for example, *Fiona* is the understood subject of *meet the PM*; Fiona is, so to speak, doing the hoping and Fiona is the person who is to do the meeting.

The infinitive *meet* is dependent on the main verb *hoped,* and the grammatical subject of the main verb, *Fiona*, is said to control the understood subject of the infinitive.

In the sentences in (2), the main verbs have only one complement, the infinitive. In the examples in (3), the verbs have two complements, a noun phrase and an infinitive.

(2) a. Fiona persuaded Arthur to bake a cake.
b. Susan wanted Jane to study German.

In (3a, b), the verbs *persuaded* and *wanted* are followed by a noun phrase, *Arthur* and *Jane*, and then by an infinitive phrase. These infinitive phrases too have understood

subjects controlled by the noun phrases *Arthur* and *Jane* to the right of the verb; Arthur underwent the persuasion and did the baking; Jane was the target of Susan's wishes and was to do the studying. Suppose we expand (3a) to include the 'missing' constituents:

(3a) Fiona persuaded Arthur: Arthur to bake a cake.

Suppose we relate the infinitive to a finite clause: *Arthur baked a cake*. The path from the finite clause to the infinitive involves deleting a constituent; the affected constituent is always the grammatical subject of the non-finite clause, which is why analysts see the subject as pivotal to the infinitive construction.

The sentences in (4) exemplify a different construction.

(3) a. Ayala went to the ball. Ayala chatted to Jonathan Stubbs.
b. Ayala went to the ball and chatted to Jonathan Stubbs.

The two sentences in (4a) yield the single sentence in (4b) by the ellipsis of the grammatical subject, *Ayala*, in the second sentence. Only the grammatical subject can be ellipted. Example (5a) cannot be converted into (5b) by the ellipsis of the non-subject *Ayala* in the second sentence.

(4) a. Ayala went to the ball. Jonathan Stubbs chatted to Ayala.
b. *Ayala went to the ball and Jonathan Stubbs chatted to.

It does not matter whether the grammatical subject NP denotes an Agent, as is demonstrated by the combining of active and passive sentences in (6).

(5) a. Ayala went to the ball. Ayala was chatted to by Jonathan Stubbs.
b. Ayala went to the ball and was chatted to by Jonathan Stubbs.

In this construction, too, the grammatical subject is pivotal, in the sense that it is a grammatical subject that is omitted on the way from the (a) to the (b) examples.

Furthermore, the understood subject of the second clause in (4b) and (6b) is controlled by the initial grammatical subject.

A third construction in which the grammatical subject NP is central is exemplified in (7)

(6) All the Tringles came to Merle Park.
b. The Tringles all came to Merle Park.
c. Both Jane and Elizabeth were at home.
d. Jane and Elizabeth were both at home.

In (7b), the word *all* is part of the noun phrase *all the Tringles*. That noun phrase is the subject, and *all* can 'float' out of the NP to a position next the finite verb, as in (7b). Similarly, *both* can be part of the subject noun phrase as in (7c) but can float to the same position, as in (7d).

Only subject NPs allow *all* and *both* to float. In (8a), *all* is part of the non-subject phrase *all the foxes* and cannot float to the left of the finite verb, as shown by the unacceptable (8b), nor to the right, as in the un-acceptable (8c). Nor can *both* in (8c) and (8d).

(7) a. Larry Twentyman hunted all the foxes.
*Larry Twentyman all hunted the foxes.
*Larry Twentyman hunted the foxes all.
b. George built both the houses.
c. *George both built the houses.
d. *George built the houses both.

As with the missing subject in the conjoined clauses in (5) and (6), quantifiers can float out of subject noun phrases in both active and passive clauses, as shown by (9a, b).

(8) a. All the foxes were hunted by Larry Twentyman.
b. The foxes were all hunted by Larry Twentyman.

One final property of grammatical subjects is worth mentioning, namely that just as subjects control the understood subjects of non-finite clauses, so they control the

interpretation of reflexive pronouns inside single clauses. This is shown in (10), where *Augusta* and *herself* refer to the same woman called Augusta.

(9) Augusta blamed herself for what happened.

In the above discussion, we have talked of grammatical subject noun phrases as having particular properties, but to talk in this way is to take the notion of grammatical subject for granted. The present the state of affairs more accurately if we say that in English various properties attach to noun phrases: denoting an Agent, specifying the entity the speaker wishes to say something about, acting as the pivot of various constructions (coordination, infinitives, *both* and *all* floating, reflexives), being involved in person and number agreement with the finite verb. In the neutral active declarative construction of English, these properties converge on one NP, which is accorded the title of grammatical subject. As the discussion of psychological subject showed, the properties do not always converge on one noun phrase. The psychological subject of

(10) is *thee documents*, which does not agree with *is* in number and person and is not the grammatical subject.

(11) These documents Elizabeth is checking at this very moment.

One property must be added to the list. It is not relevant to English (apart from the pronoun system) but it is central to other Indo-European languages such as Russian. The property is that of taking nominative case, as exemplified in (12).

(12) a. Ivan tolknul Mashu ('Ivan – pushed – Masha')
b. Masha tolknula Ivana ('Masha – pushed – Ivan')

In (12a), *Ivan* is in the nominative case (as the traditional formula puts it) and *Mashu* is in the accusative case. In (12b), *Masha* is in the nominative case and *Ivana* is in the accusative case. Analogous changes only show up in the pronouns in English, as in *I pushed him* and *He pushed me*.

**Morpho-syntactic properties**:
There are two semantic properties. One is simply that grammatical subjects typically refer to Agents. The second is that they refer to entities that exist independently of the action or state denoted by the main verb, whereas there are many verbs whose direct object does not have this property (see section 8.3 below on direct objects.) For example, in *Skilledmasons built the central tower in less than a year* the direct object, *the centraltower*, denotes an entity that does not exist independently of the action for the simple reason that it is created by the activity of building. Note that the passive clause *The central tower was built by skilled masons in less than a year* does not contradict what has just been said. *The central tower* is certainly a subject and denotes the entity created by the building activity, but the passive construction is not basic.

### a. Direct object

The concept of direct object is as widely used as that of subject and has just as long a tradition. Nonetheless, it too turns out to be elusive. As with grammatical subject, it is possible to provide criteria for direct objects in English, but the criteria do not necessarily carry over to other languages. Keeping to the [ACTIVE DECLARATIVE] construction, we can say that in sentences such as (13) the NP following the verb is the direct object.

(13) a. Louise broke the cup.
b. Alison drove the car.
c. Martha chewed the bread.

The direct object NP is never preceded by a preposition in the sentence *Martha chewed on the bread*, *bread* is not a direct object, and the entity it denotes is not completely affected by the action of chew in. One of the properties of the English NPs called direct objects is that they correspond to the grammatical subjects of passive sentences. This is shown in (14a–c), the passive counterparts of (13a–c).

(14) a. The cup was broken by Louise.

b. The car was driven by Alison.
c. The bread was chewed by Martha.

Even for English alone, difficulties appear. One problem is that the criteria, even with the help of the weasel adverb *typically*, do not extend unequivocally to other constructions. Consider the passive sentences in (15).

(15) a. How is a girl to be chatted to if she does not go out? (AnthonyTrollope, *Ayala*).
b. These fields were marched over by all the armies of Europe.

These passive sentences contain grammatical subjects (on the criteria applicable to English), but their active counterparts do not contain direct objects – compare (16).

(16) a. How is someone to chat to a girl if she does not go out?
b. All the armies of Europe marched over these fields.

In (16), the correspondents of the grammatical subjects in (15) are inside prepositional phrases: *to a girl*, *over these fields*. The examples show that either more than direct objects can be converted to grammatical subjects in the passive construction or we have to regard *chat to* and *march over* as single verbs that take direct objects.

Another difficulty with English is that some apparent active transitive clauses have no corresponding passive: *That car weighs two tons* is not matched by **Two tons are weighed by that car*, *Arthur measures six feet* is not matched by **Six feet are measured by Arthur*, *Her daughters resemble Lucy* is not matched by **Lucy is resembled by her daughters* and *The cage contained a panda* cannot be converted to **A panda was contained by the cage*. It has been suggested that, for example, in *The cage contained a panda*, *the panda* is not a Patient (compare Chapter 11), but nobody has suggested that *the panda* is not a direct object.

In spite of the reservations mentioned above, in the [NEUTRAL, ACTIVE DECLARATIVE] construction of English we do have criteria for recognizing direct objects with most

verbs combining with two NPs. (The exclude the copula construction, 'copula' including. Another criterion that has been proposed for direct objects in English relates to the positions occupied by particles such as *back*. There a verb combines with two NPs, the particle occurs after the verb, but before or after the direct object NP, as in (17).

(17) a. Ayala sent back the diamond necklace.
b. Ayala sent the diamond necklace back.

In clauses with three NPs, the occurrence of the particle is limited.

(18) a. Ayala sent her cousin the diamond necklace.
b. *****Ayala sent back her cousin the diamond necklace.
c. Ayala sent her cousin back the diamond necklace.
d. Ayala sent her cousin the diamond necklace back.

Example (18b) is bad, although *back* is in the same position as (17a), between the verb and the immediately following noun phrase. Example (18c) is not acceptable to all speakers, although *back* follows the NP immediately to the right of the verb. To be balanced against this criterion is the fact that *her cousin* in (18a) can become the grammatical subject of the corresponding passive: *Her cousin was sent back the diamond necklace by Ayala*. Thick of the two criteria is to be given precedence: the position of *back* or becoming grammatical subject of the passive?

Another complication that deserves mention is that pronouns behave differently from full NPs with respect to *back*. Example (18c) merits no more than a question mark, but the substitution of *him* for *her cousin* yields an acceptable sentence: *Ayala sent him back the diamond necklace.* (Interestingly, other particles, such as *away*, exclude potential direct objects. They allow prepositional phrases, as in *Ayala sent away the diamond necklace to her cousin* ; but compare **Ayala sent her cousin awaythe diamond necklace*.)

The general picture of direct object in English is fragmented, unlike the picture of grammatical subject. The latter can be recognized for any construction, but for direct object only one

construction provides solid evidence, the basic active declarative construction, both in itself and in its relationship with the passive. As for the concept of subject, one criterion can be added for some languages other than English; as shown in (12a) and (12b), direct object nouns are in the accusative case.

**b. Oblique object and indirect object**

Recent work in syntax deploys the concept of oblique object; in English, any noun phrase that is the complement of a preposition is an oblique
object, where the prepositional phrase is itself the complement of a verb. In (19), *to Onegin*, *to Egilsay* and *for Jane* are oblique objects.

(19) a. Tatiana wrote to Onegin.
b. Magnus went to Egilsay.
c. Frank bought a piano for Jane.

Phrases such as *to Onegin* used to be analyzed as containing indirect object nouns, but this concept of indirect object is problematical. Grammars of English would merely refer to verbs, which occur in the construction V $NP_1$ TO $NP_2$ or V $NP_2$ $NP_1$: compare *Celia gave the car to Ben* vs *Celia gave Ben the car*, where *the car* is $NP_1$ and *Ben* is $NP_2$. The indirect object was said to be the noun phrase preceded by *to*, and the relevant verbs were either listed individually or divided into classes labelled 'verbs of saying', 'verbs of giving' and so on in order to avoid the label 'indirect object' being assigned to phrases such as *to Dundee* in *He went to Dundee*.

In fact, it is difficult to separate indirect objects from adverbs of direction. It is sometimes suggested that the two can be distinguished on the grounds that indirect object NPs contain animate nouns, whereas adverbs of place contain inanimate nouns denoting countries, towns and other places. If this were correct, we would expect inanimate nouns not to occur immediately to the right of a verb such as *sent* in (20) and (21).

(20) a. Lucy sent a letter to Isadore.
b. Lucy sent Isadore a letter.

(21) a. The Government sent an envoy to China.
b. (*) The Government sent China an envoy.

It has been suggested that (21b) is not correct, but the fault is semantic and not syntactic. Example (21b) has the interpretation that a person is sent to China so that China can use him/her as an envoy. This is a rather unusual situation – at least out of context, (21b) seems odd. The oddness can be removed by substituting different lexical items, as in (22).

(22) The company sent China its senior mining engineers to help plan the new mines.

Example (22) presents China not just as a geographical area but as a body that is to benefit from the engineers. Thith the appropriate interpretation, then, an inanimate noun can occur to the right of the verb.

Another suggestion is that indirect objects can occur immediately to the right of the verb but not immediately to the right of genuine adverbs of direction. (Genuine adverbs of direction would not include *China* in (22).) This suggestion is correct, but it still fails to distinguish indirect objects, because an indirect object noun cannot always occur immediately to the right of the verb, as shown by (23).

(23) a. *The experts attributed Raphael this picture.
b. *I forwarded Thinifred the letter.
c. *The manager presented the foreman a gold watch.
d. *Kick John the ball.
e. *Monica hit Martina the ball.
f. *The critics ascribe Shakespeare this play.

The particular examples in (23) have been tested on many classes of students at all levels. Some have accepted some of the examples, especially (23b), but the vast majority have not accepted any of them.

Other evidence that attacks any clear distinction between indirect objects and adverbs of direction is presented in (24)–(25), which illustrate certain syntactic patterns common to indirect objects and adverbs of direction. The first shared

property is that both can occur in The interrogatives with the preposition *to* at the end or beginning of the clause.

(24) a. Thho did John send a book to?
b. To whom did John send a book?

(25) a. Thhat place did you travel to?
b. To what place did you travel?

Another property in common is that both can occur in active interrogative The clauses with *to* omitted, but not in passive The interrogatives.

(26) a. Thho did John send the book?
b. That place did John send the book?

(27) a. *Thho was the book sent by John.
b. *That place was the book sent by John?

Indirect objects and adverbs of direction can occur at the front of clauses preceded by *only*. In such constructions, the preposition *to* cannot be omitted, and compare the indirect object in (28) and the adverb of direction in (29).

(28) a. Only to the best students would he give this book.
b. *Only the best students would he give this book.

(29) a. Only to Glasgow would he go by train (because the service isfast).
b. *Only Glasgow would he travel by train.

The same applies to the cleft construction in (30) and (31), where the indirect object *to the best students* in (30) and the adverb of direction *to Storminess* in (31) are preceded by *it is*.

(30) a. It is to the best students that he gives this book.
b. *It is the best students he gives this book.

(31) a. It is to Stromness that he is going.
b. *It is Storminess' that he is going.

There is one difference (concealed by the use of *what place* in (25)): indirect objects are questioned by *who … to* or *to whom*, but adverbs of direction are questioned by *where*.

However, this is one difference to be set against a number of similarities, and it could in any case be argued that the difference does not reflect a syntactic category but a difference in the sorts of entities that are the end point of the movement, *where* being reserved for places, *who* for human beings.

The analysis indicated by the above data is that we cannot maintain the traditional concept of indirect object as the *to* phrase with verbs such as *give* and *show* and that all verb complements introduced by a preposition should be treated as one category, namely oblique objects. The concept of indirect object is not dead, however. Some traditional analyses applied it to, for example, the phrase *to Harriet* in (32) and to the phrase *Harriet* in (33).

(32) Emma gave advice to Harriet.
(33) Emma gave Harriet advice.

The label 'indirect object' is useful for *Harriet* in (33). It can be declared to reflect the fact that while *Harriet* is an object – compare *Harriet was given advice by Emma* – it is felt by many analysts to be less of a direct object than *advice*, even though *advice* in (33) is not next to the verb.

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