

LIMBA ENGLEZĂ CONTEMPORANĂ. GRUPUL NOMINAL
Anul I Semestrul al II-lea (2 ore de curs + 1 oră de seminar / săptămână)

THE ENGLISH NOUN PHRASE
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SEMINAR on MORPHOLOGY

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SEMINAR on (NOUN) PHRASES

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SEMINAR on NOUN PHRASES: A GLIMPSE FROM SYNTAX

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SEMINAR on DETERMINERS

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SEMINAR on MODIFIERS

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SEMINAR on NUMBER

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SEMINAR on GENDER

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SEMINAR on GENITIVE

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SEMINAR on PRONOUNS

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SEMINAR on ARTICLES

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SEMINAR on ADJECTIVES

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Course # 1 Introduction to Morphology

- **Some Definitions of Grammar**
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SOME DEFINITIONS OF GRAMMAR

Linguistics, lexicology, morphology, syntax – are all covered in everyday speech by the more colloquial and rather loose blanket term *grammar*. Etymologically, *grammar* goes back (through French and Latin) to the Greek words *Grammatikia* [the art of writing] or *Gramma* [letter], but for a very long time this term has been used to incorporate the whole study of language or parts of it. For many people, for instance, grammar is about how sentences are constructed, a definition which basically equates grammar with syntax. While this is not essentially wrong, it is not entirely right either. Suffice it to quote Chomsky's famous example "colorless green ideas sleep furiously" (*Syntactic Structures*, 1957) to be reminded of the perfect possibility of constructing sentences that are grammatically acceptable and logically nonsensical at the same time. Seen in this light, a fairly decent rewriting of the aforementioned definition would be: "[By *grammar* I mean] the description of the ways in which English words are combined to form meaningful and acceptable sentences." (Seely, 2007: 2) Chomsky himself actually sees grammar as an utterly complex organism:

As anyone who has studied grammatical structures in detail is well aware, **a grammar is a tightly organized system**; a modification of one part generally involves widespread modifications of other facets. (Chomsky, 1970: 185)

To Kolln & Funk (2012), grammar usually means one of three things:

- 1) the system of rules in our heads
- 2) the formal description of rules
- 3) the social implications of usage, sometimes called "linguistic etiquette."

We will take these meanings in turn and enlarge upon them by providing our own examples.

Grammar 1: The system of rules in our heads. This subconscious system of rules is our "**language competence**." [For example: preposition *in* comes naturally to us after *interest(ed)*, and while we know that switching the normal word order¹ in both English and French (*i.e.* subject + verb) is used when asking questions, we are also aware that inversion does not necessarily signal a question.]

¹ Classical grammar states the order of constituents (misleadingly called *word order*) in terms of RULES such as sbj. (S), pred. (P), obj. (O). In this sense, language typology speaks of SVO-languages (such as English, French), VSO-languages (such as Welsh, Irish), SOV-languages (such as Japanese), languages with free word order (such as Latin, Russian) (Herbert Pilch, in Bantaş, 1996: 11).

Grammar 2: The formal description of the rules. This definition refers to the branch of linguistic science concerned with the formal description of language. It is about identifying the form and structure of sentences in an objective way. [Here's a descriptive look at the attribute: "In terms of general logic, including that of English grammar, the attribute may be defined as the secondary part of a sentence which determines or modifies the subject of the sentence or any other noun or noun equivalent, irrespective of the syntactical role it discharges." from a book called *Descriptive English Syntax* (Bantaş, 1996 : 165).]

Grammar 3: The social implications of usage, sometimes called "linguistic etiquette." This definition could be called "the *do's* and *don't's* of usage" rather than "grammar". For example, using certain words may be thought of as bad manners in particular contexts. This definition also applies when people use terms like "poor grammar" or "good grammar." (Kolln & Funk, 2012: 5) [e.g. *don't* use multiple negation or forms like *ain't* for *isn't*; the language we use betrays our social origin (see BBC soap-opera *East-Enders* character Dot Branning and her Estuary accent: "I ain't never heard of no licence." or the case of Black English.)]

Another helpful perspective on "grammar" is provided by Diane Larsen-Freeman (1997), who views grammar as involving three interrelated dimensions: **form**, **meaning**, and **use**. Grammar learning / teaching appropriately involves not just the grammatical structures (morphosyntax), but also the meanings they express (semantics), and the appropriate contexts in which they may be used (pragmatics).

Grammar is, finally, about **language awareness**².

TRADITIONAL / SCHOOL GRAMMAR

In Antiquity, standard reference grammars of Latin and Greek usually comprised three main sections:

- **inflection** (or "accidence")
- **derivation** (or "word formation")
- **syntax**.

Both Plato and Aristotle were very much concerned with making a clear-cut distinction between **parts of speech**. To Aristotle, nouns are "things and objects", while verbs and adjectives are "accidental properties" (*apud* Manoliu, 2014: 1). Later on, during the Middle Ages, with Latin as a language of excellence, scholars writing grammars could not but follow its (eight parts of speech) model.

Traditionally, grammar books sought to establish norms, standards or laws, the *do's* and *don't's* of "proper" speech. The purpose of teaching grammar was (and still is to some extent), in the words of the English philosopher John Locke (1693), "to teach Men not to speak, but to speak correctly and according to the exact Rules of the Tongue."³ These normative principles that Locke hinted at define the concept known today as **prescriptive grammar**.

A more modern approach to grammar is guided by the work of linguists, who look at language not in the abstract only, but also taking into account the way it is actually used while generally rejecting prescriptivism. "Rather than **prescribing** how language should be used, an accurate **descriptive grammar describes** the way people speak in everyday situations." (Kolln & Funk, 2012: 5-6)

Nevertheless, the interest in parts of speech did not entirely vanish; they are simply reconsidered from time to time. At the dawn of the twentieth century, for example, Danish linguists Otto Jespersen and Louis Hjelmslev reclassified grammatical categories into "first-degree" (nouns), "second-degree" (adjectives) and

² We employ the phrase literally here, while also alluding at Language Awareness as a trend in EFL. A general language awareness involves:

- a) awareness of some of the properties of language (e.g. creativity, playfulness, double meanings)
- b) awareness of the embedding of language within culture (see idioms and metaphor)
- c) a greater self-consciousness about the forms of the language (language is a system but sometimes the relation form-meaning is arbitrary)
- d) awareness of the close relationship between language and ideology (adapted from Carter, 1994: 5).

³ From *Some Thoughts Concerning Education*, quoted in Baron, *Grammar and Good Taste*, p. 121 (Kolln & Funk, 2012: 5).

“third-degree” (adverbs). Also, much of what we call **traditional / school grammar** is a scion of the Latin-based model and many of the grammar books and grammar lessons today still tend to focus on **parts of speech** (nouns, verbs, adjectives etc.), especially when teaching literacy is involved.

MODERN LINGUISTICS & GRAMMAR

Linguistics, the scientific science of language, witnessed important developments in its so-called “modern” era. Its emphasis on **objectivity** in describing the language and its word-classes led to new trends: **historical linguistics** and **Indo-European studies**, which flourished in the late 18th century, yielded their seat to **descriptive / structural linguistics** (the early 19th century), which was then competed by **generative linguistics / transformational grammar** (the late 1950^s), followed, from roughly 1980 onwards, by **pragmatic, functional, cognitive, semantic** and **discourse-oriented** approaches.

Structural Grammar. Structuralism or “**the new grammar**” pays attention to three linguistic aspects in particular:

- 1) **form** (how words change in sound and spelling)
- 2) **function** (how words are used in sentences)
- 3) **system** (the systematic nature of (a) language).

The description of the **form classes** is a good case in point. Their formal nature is systematic; for example, words that have a **plural** and **possessive form** are *nouns*; words that have both an **-ed form** (past tense) and an **-ing form** are *verbs*. For the structuralists, this systematic description of the language includes an analysis of the sound system (**phonology**), then the systematic combination of sounds into meaningful units and words (**morphology**), and, finally, the systematic combination of words into meaningful phrase structures and sentence patterns (**syntax**). (Kolln & Funk, 2012: 6-7)

Transformational Generative Grammar. This new linguistics began in **1957** with the publication of **Noam Chomsky’s** above-mentioned *Syntactic Structures*. Now, if the structuralists’ main concern was to examine the sentences actually uttered and to describe their systematic nature (see Grammar 2 *supra*), the transformationalists wanted to build a model of our internal rules, a model responsible for all the sentences we might ever produce. Martha Kolln and Robert Funk (2012) present this built-in language system by means of an analogy with a computer program; they also disambiguate the sentence *I enjoy visiting relatives* [think of who is doing the visiting, “me” or the “relatives”] in an attempt to exemplify how our internal linguistic computer but also how a transformationalist works.

Ambiguity lies, according to Chomsky, in the difference between **the “deep” and the “surface” structure** of linguistic expressions. The **deep structure** is the abstract form of a message, an underlying level of structural organisation which specifies all the factors governing the way the sentence should be interpreted, whereas the **surface structure**⁴ can be defined as the syntactic form it takes as actual sentences. The basic idea is that meaning, generated in the deep structure, can be transformed into a variety of surface structures (*e.g. Cats chase mice* and *Mice are chased by cats* have different surface forms, with the former sentence being in the active voice and the latter in the passive, but they have the same basic meaning).

So, in 1957 the study of grammar reached a turning point: from then on it would no longer be limited to what is said and how it is interpreted. *Grammar* became **internal grammar**: our innate, subconscious ability to generate language (see Grammar 1, *supra*).

⁴ Cf. “The **surface structure** of a sentence is the final stage in the syntactic representation of a sentence...” (Crystal, 2008: 466)

The general movement in the field of applied linguistics and language pedagogy is toward more “communicational” or “functional” approaches. The present book, being essentially descriptive, necessarily builds on a number of trends (structuralism, generativism, functionalism etc.)

LEVELS OF GRAMMAR

Largely and conventionally speaking, grammar has been approached lately in terms of **Morphology** (“**form / structure**”) and **Syntax** (“**function**”). This modern distinction is a no doubt useful but less than clear-cut⁵ structuralist tenet which early transformational grammarians took over mainly with the aim of blurring it even further. Moreover, according to John Seely (2007), although in English curriculum documents the main emphasis is on **words** (*i.e.* **morphology**) and **sentences** (*i.e.* **syntax**), we need to be aware that grammar actually works at several different levels⁶ and that jumping straight from word to sentence without the intermediary steps of clauses and phrases is a risky endeavour.

Levels of Grammar				
Texts ↓↑	<i>Then an elephant trumpeted, and they all took it up for five or ten terrible seconds. The dew from the trees above spattered down like rain on the unseen backs, and a dull booming noise began, not very loud at first, and Little Toomai could not tell what it was.</i>			
Sentences ↓↑	<i>Then an elephant trumpeted, and they all took it up for five or ten terrible seconds.</i>		<i>The dew from the trees above spattered down like rain on the unseen backs, and a dull booming noise began, not very loud at first, and Little Toomai could not tell what it was.</i>	
Clauses ↓↑	<i>The dew from the trees above spattered down like rain on the unseen backs</i>	<i>a dull booming noise began, not very loud at first,</i>	<i>Little Toomai could not tell</i>	<i>what it was</i>
Phrases ↓↑	<i>The dew from the trees above</i>	<i>spattered</i>	<i>down</i>	<i>like rain</i>
Words ↓↑	<i>The</i>	<i>dew</i>	<i>from</i>	<i>the</i>
Morphemes ↓↑	<i>tree+s</i> <i>un+seen</i> <i>back+s</i>	<i>boom+ing</i> <i>spatter+ed</i>		
Phonemes / Graphemes	[tri:z]	[bu:miŋ]		

(adapted from Seely, 2007: 6)

⁵ Practically speaking, one could never completely separate morphology from syntax, or the other way around, and we will see in what follows that resorting to syntax when talking about morphology is of utmost importance.

⁶ Linguists, too, often divide their enterprise into more or less separate fields of study which roughly correspond to these grammatic levels:

- phonetics and phonology (dealing with sounds)
- morphology (dealing with the shape of words)
- syntax (sentences and the ways words are combined into larger structures including sentences)
- semantics (meaning)
- pragmatics (language in a social context)
- discourse (texts or chunks of language larger than a sentence).

In the same line of reasoning, Quirk *et al.* (1985: 38) also emphasize the fact that in order to state general rules about the construction of sentences, it is necessary to refer to units smaller than the sentence itself: **CLAUSE**, **PHRASE**, **WORD**, and **MORPHEME** – which are in a **CONSTITUENCY** relation. The following table (Quirk, *op. cit.*, 39) labels the constituents of the sentence *The evenings have turned very cold recently* as instances of particular units, with three “sizes” of units: **clause**, **phrase**, and **word**, although a further level is also possible (**morphemes** as constituents of words: *evening*, *-s*, *recent*, *-ly*).

[*The evenings*] [*have turned*] [*very cold*] [*just recently*].

Clause							
Noun Phrase		Verb Phrase		Adjective Phrase		Adverb Phrase	
Determiner	Noun	Auxiliary	Main Verb	Adverb	Adjective	Adverb	Adverb
<i>The</i>	<i>evenings</i>	<i>have</i>	<i>turned</i>	<i>very</i>	<i>cold</i>	<i>just</i>	<i>recently.</i>

Therefore, in spite of the fact that the **morphology / syntax dichotomy** still stands for many a reputed linguist⁷ and that morphology is more often than not defined as a study of / on **words**, it is not only words but also phrases (their superordinates) and morphemes (their subordinates) that fall under its incidence.

MORPHOLOGY

Morphology vs. Syntax. Morphology as a sub-discipline of linguistics was named as such in 1859 by the German linguist **August Schleicher**, who used the term to refer to the internal structure of complex words. Although there has been little consensus ever since as to the precise definition of the scope and area of morphology, most scholars do acknowledge it is about the **forms of words**. So, **morphology** (of Greek etymology: *morphē* “form” + *logos* “word”, “reckoning”, “thought”) is “the study of the grammatical categories as sets of forms that the various parts of speech can take” (Duțescu-Coliban, 1986: 155); it is that branch of grammar which deals with the ways in which the forms of words are changed according to their use in phrases, clauses and sentences. This study of words is done “primarily through the use of the morpheme construct” (Crystal, 2008: 314).

Across board, all linguists agree that, within words, meaningful parts can be perceived; any exercise that is aimed at studying those meaningful elements within a word is said to be termed *morphology*.

Morphology therefore **is the study of the meaningful parts of words**. The word “teacher” for instance comprises two components namely *teach* (verb) and *-er* (suffix). This is what morphology seeks to explain. (Adeniyi *et al.*: 2010: 2)

The study of morphology must have been prompted by the 19th-century interest in classifying language families across the world (Adeniyi *et al.*: 2010: 1), but in the 20th century the internal structure of words turned into a subject *per se*, stripped of all philological concern.

Traditionally, morphology is distinguished from **syntax**⁸ (also Greek: *syntaxis* < *syntassein* “to join”, “to put together”, a compound of *syn* – “together” and *tassein* – “to arrange”), which deals with the systematic rules by which words are grouped in order to form phrases, clauses, and sentences.

⁷ See, for example, Jespersen’s view: “Apart from the phonological part which deals with sounds, grammar is usually divided into two parts: **accidence**—also called morphology—*i.e.* the doctrine of all the forms (inflexions) of the language, and **syntax**, *i.e.* the doctrine of sentence structure and the use of the forms.” (Jespersen, 2006: 4)

Morphology vs. Lexicology. Morphology is generally divided into two fields: the study of inflections (**inflectional morphology**) and the study of word-formation (**lexical** or **derivational morphology**). **Inflectional morphology** deals with syntactically relevant forms of words, with the “selection restrictions” of concord / agreement and government, *i.e.* the occurrence in specific contexts of one form of a word rather than another (*e.g.* *He speaks* / **speak*; *They speak* / **speaks*). **Lexical morphology**, on the other hand, is concerned with the word-building processes in the lexicon (*i.e.* affixation, composition, conversion etc.), although the area has been increasingly the concern of **lexicology**.

Morphology vs. Morphemics. When emphasis is on the technique of analysing words into morphemes, particularly as practised by American structuralists in the 1940^s and 1950^s, the term **morphemics** is used. “**Morphemic analysis** in this sense is part of a synchronic linguistic study; **morphological analysis** is the more general term, being applied to diachronic studies as well.” (Crystal, 2008: 314)

MORPHEMES

Because the word is not a particularly straightforward concept, linguists prefer to use the term **morpheme**. A morpheme can be defined as:

- “the smallest unit, which exhibits an internal structure and meaning of its own but which cannot be further broken up” (Adeniyi *et al.*, 2010: 2)
- “the minimal unit of grammatical analysis, the unit of lowest rank out of which words, the unit of next ‘higher’ rank are composed” (Lyons, 1974: 81, q. in Adeniyi *et al.*, 2010, *ibidem*)
- “a meaningful combination of sounds” (Kolln & Funk, 2012: 228)
- “a linguistic form which bears no parallel phonetic-semantic resemblance to any form” (Bloomfield, 1933: 24, q. in Adeniyi *et al.*, 2010: 3)
- “The minimal distinctive unit of grammar, and the central concern of morphology.” (Crystal, 2008: 313)

All these definitions of *morpheme* may sound like the definition of *word* and indeed, many morphemes are, in fact, complete words: take nouns *head* or *dog*, for example, adjectives *kind* or *active*, verbs *walk* or *talk*, they are all morphemes and they are all words, *i.e.* they are words consisting of a single morpheme (which are incidentally monosyllabic, but they need not always be). *Heads* and *dogs*, on the other hand, while also qualify as words, are made up of two morphemes {*head*+*s*, *dog*+*s*}⁹; the same goes for *dogless* and *headless*, as for *careless* or *penniless* {*dog*+*less*, *head*+*less*, *care*+*less*, *penny*+*less*}, with morpheme *-less* turning the nouns into adjectives. Also, *kind* = adjective (one word, one morpheme), whereas *unkindly* = adverb (one word, three morphemes); *talk* = verb (one word, one morpheme), whereas *talking* = participle (one word, two morphemes) a.s.o. In the following example, all the words in bold are made up of two morphemes or more, and the rest are monomorphemic:

*Dogless, niggerless, headless, what now remains for the unhappy Signora Psyche Zenobia?*¹⁰

We can see that in the series *dogless, niggerless, headless*, the morpheme {*-less*} (a suffix) does not change its meaning. These are the primary criteria that we use to identify the morphemes in a word:

- 1) they have meaning;
- 2) they appear with the same meaning in other words;
- 3) they are indivisible (hence the “minimal” and the “cannot be further broken up” in the definitions above).

⁸ Although Chomsky used to define syntax, too, by appealing to morphemes; in his 1957 study, he viewed **syntax** as the grammatical sequences of **morphemes** of a language. (1957: 32)

⁹ Morphemes are sometimes symbolised using brace brackets.

¹⁰ E. A. Poe, *A Predicament*.

We can also see **suffixes** in the examples above. In English, most grammatical morphemes are suffixes, though in the past English had “past-marker **prefixes**” (*yronne* = ran), reflexive prefixes (*methinks*), and possessive prefixes (*akin*, *afresh*). English also used to have a great many **infixes**, preserved in modern usage as “strong” forms of the past tense (*run* – ran, *bring* – brought, *steal* – stole) (Mullany *et al.*, 2010: 7). These three forms of **affix (prefix, infix, suffix)** are different from non-grammatical / non-inflectional affixes like {-less}, {-un}, {-ly}, {re-}, {-ness}¹¹ etc. in that they serve a primarily grammatical purpose.

BASES AND AFFIXES

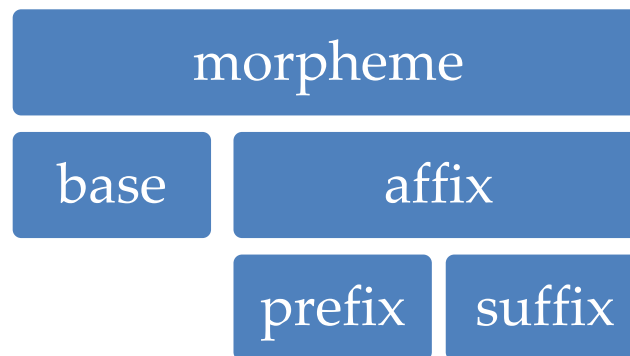
All words are therefore either single **morphemes** (e.g. *kind*) or **combinations of morphemes** (e.g. *unkindly*).

All morphemes are either **bases** (e.g. noun *will*) or **affixes** (*un-*, *-ing*, *-ness* in noun *unwillingness*).

All affixes are either **prefixes** (*un-* in *unkindly* or *unwillingness*, *re-* in *reconsider*) or **suffixes** (*-ly* in *unkindly*, *-ing* and *-ness* in *unwillingness*, *-less* in *dogless*, *niggerless*, *headless*, *careless*, *penniless*).

The **base** is thus the morpheme that gives the word its primary lexical meaning, an alternative to *root* or *stem*¹²; it is usually the **headword** (or **lemma**), the item which occurs at the beginning of a dictionary entry.

Affixation¹³ can be defined as the morphological process of attaching an affix to the root or base of a word.



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PRACTICE. Morphemes & Bases.** The following sets of words illustrate some of the relationships of morphemes. In each set find the common base. What does the base mean? Use dashes to separate morphemes.

section, bisect, intersection

novice, nova, renovation, innovate

construct, instruct, destruct, obstruct, restructure

BOUND AND FREE MORPHEMES

One other feature of morphemes concerns their ability to stand alone. In a word like *unkindly*, out of the three morphemes only *kind* can stand on its own because only *kind* carries meaning. “In self-explanatory fashion, morphemes that can stand on their own are called **free**, and ones that cannot are **bound**.” (Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002: 18)

¹¹ These last examples of word-forming affixes are very rarely infixed, except for creative oddities like *absobloodylutely*, *fan-bloody-tastic*, *any-blooming-where*, which are similar to *tmesis* (the separation of parts of a compound word by an intervening word or words, used mainly in informal speech for emphasis).

¹² For details on the series **base / root / stem**, have a look at **Appendix # 1**.

¹³ Cf. **Affixal morphology** = An approach to morphology which claims that the only permissible morphological operation is the combining of affixes and stems (other alternations, such as gradation or deletion, are part of the phonology). (Crystal, 2008: 16)

The **free / full morpheme** is more often than not a **base / stem / root**¹⁴ (*govern, light, dance, play*). **Bound / empty** morphemes also have meaning, but they need to be attached to a free morpheme in order to make it clearer (*anti-government, enlighten, dancing, playfulness*).

INFLECTIONAL AND DERIVATIONAL MORPHEMES

The (generally bound) morpheme is of two kinds: **inflectional** and **derivational**. An **inflectional morpheme** cannot change the grammatical class of the stem to which it is attached; it is a mere grammatical indicator / marker that plays four grammatical roles in English:

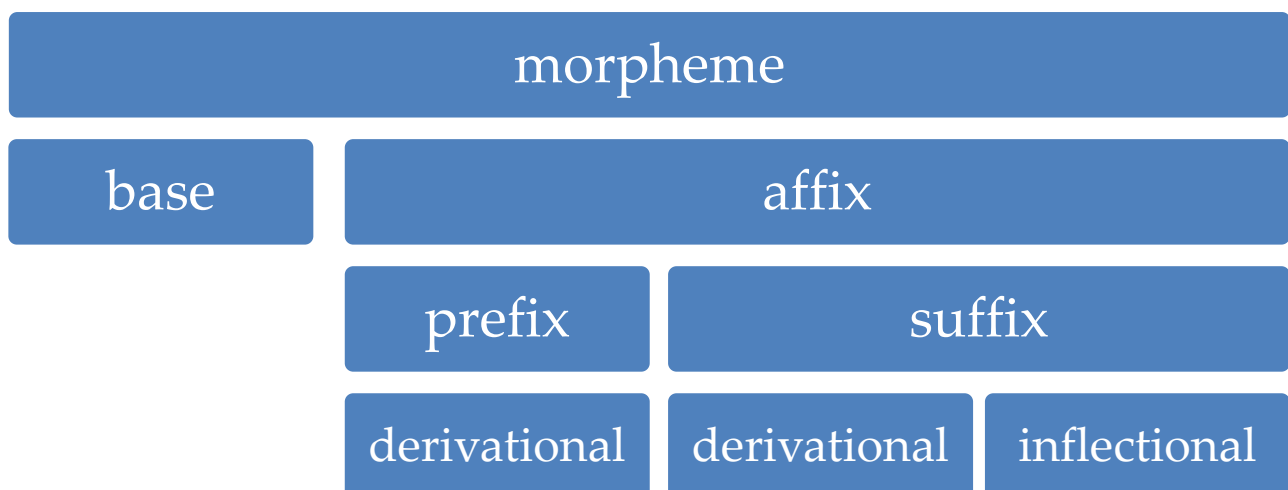
- 1) it indicates **tense** (*talks, talked, talking*)
- 2) it indicates **number** (*books, tables, schools*)
- 3) it indicates **possession** (*teacher's*)
- 4) it indicates **comparison** (*bigger, quickest*)

Only eight morphemes are **inflectional** and they concern four parts of speech (verbs, nouns, adjectives and adverbs):

-s (plural of "regular" nouns)	Noun inflections
-s (possessive)	
-s (3rd-person singular, present tense)	Verb inflections
-ed (past tense)	
-en (past participle)	
-ing (present participle)	
-er (comparative of superiority)	Adjective and adverb
-est (superlative of superiority)	inflections

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All the other suffixes and prefixes are **derivational**. As a matter of fact, as the branching diagram shows, all prefixes are derivational, whereas suffixes are either derivational or inflectional:



¹⁴ Most free morphemes are content or lexical words and most bound morphemes are affixes; however, "[i]n reflections, even the base is bound; *flect* is not a word that can stand by itself. We call this a **bound base**. Other examples of words without free morphemes are *concur, conceive, depict, expel*, and many others with these common prefixes. There are also a few **affixes** that are **free**, such as *-able, -like, and -less*. A free morpheme is a word; a bound morpheme is not." (Kolln & Funk, 2012: 229-230)

Unlike inflectional morphemes, derivational morphemes can change:

- 1) the grammatical class of the stem to which they are attached (*kind* > *kindly*)
- 2) the meaning of the stem to which they are attached (*kind* > *unkind*)
- 3) both the grammatical class and the meaning (*kind* > *unkindly*).

Unlike inflectional morphemes, derivational morphemes are:

- 1) used to derive new words
- 2) arbitrary / unsystematic (e.g. different adjectives take different affixes in order to become verbs: *able* > *enable*; *broad* > *broden*; *legal* > *legalise*; sometimes there are different specialised meanings for the same base: *liquid* > *liquidise* / *liquidate* / *liquify*; adjectives can become nouns by means of various suffixes: *happy* > *happiness*; *free* > *freedom*; *generous* > *generosity*; *supreme* > *supremacy* a.s.o.)

ALLOMORPHS

Sometimes the base morphemes have variations because of the suffixes they are used with. For example, a word ending in /f/ often takes a *v* in the plural (*elf* > *elves*; *knife* > *knives*; *leaf* > *leaves*; *wife* > *wives*). *Elv*, *kniv*, *leav* and *wiv* are called **allomorphs** of *elf*, *knife*, *leaf* and *wife*.

Suffixes also have allomorphic variation. Thus, the morpheme of plurality represented orthographically by the -s in *cats*, *dogs* and *horses* has the allomorphs represented phonetically by {-s}, {-z} and {-iz} respectively.

WORD-CLASSES IN ENGLISH

Traditional grammar classifies words as *parts of speech* according to the role they play in the sentence. These are “notional”, yet circular definitions, based on meaning rather than form. **Nouns** are considered to be ‘naming’ words because they name persons, animals, things, places, states, actions etc. whereas **Verbs** are ‘doing’ words, as they refer to actions and activities.” (Collins, 1998, *apud* Manoliu, 2014: 1-2)

Modern grammar, on the other hand, prefers **word-classes** to *parts of speech*; this change in terminology occurs because “prominence is given to **function** (that is, what the particular word is doing in the sentence) more than mere classification”; what are we to make, for example, of one and the same word (e.g. *round*) being able to serve several grammatical functions, as shown by Adeniyi *et al.* (2010: 35-36)?

- 1) *The boxer was defeated in the third **round**.* [*round* = noun]
- 2) *The bus driver **rounded** the corner at 12 noon.* [*round(ed)* = verb]
- 3) *The earth has been proved to be **round**.* [*round* = adjective]
- 4) *He showed the president **round** the two teams.* [*round* = adverb]
- 5) *The old woman tied a girdle **round** her waist.* [*round* = preposition]

This proves that a word is in a particular word-class depending on the context in which it is used.

Word-classes are generally divided into two major categories: **open classes** and **closed classes**.¹⁵

Open classes (also called **form classes**) are made up of “content” words, *i.e.* words with a lexical content, words that can be looked up in a dictionary, such as:

- 1) **nouns** (*John, doll, palace, hope*)
- 2) **adjectives** (*happy, new, scarlet*)
- 3) **lexical / full verbs** (*read, write, run*)
- 4) **adverbs** (*happily, newly, readily*).

¹⁵ According to Biber *et al.* (1999: 56), there is also a third (relatively newly recognised) category, namely **inserts**. They do not form an integral part of a syntactic structure, but are inserted rather freely in the text. They characteristically carry emotional and interactional meanings and are frequent in spoken texts. In writing, they are often marked off by punctuation:

Hm, hm, very good.
Cheers, man!

These classes are described as “open” because “their membership is in principle indefinite or unlimited” (Crystal, 2008: 340); new items, new terms are continually being added, as new ideas or inventions emerge (e.g. *lifestreaming* is a fairly recent, Facebook-related concept).

Closed classes, on the other hand, also called **closed-class items** / **grammatical words** / **function words** / **structure words**, are made up of:

- 1) **pronouns** (*he, they, anyone, which*)
- 2) **prepositions** (*at, for, in, onto*)
- 3) **conjunctions** (*and, or, but*)
- 4) **articles** (*the, a, that, some, every*)
- 5) **demonstratives** or **indefinite pronouns** used adjectivally, to determine nouns (*this / some / much time*)
- 6) **modal verbs** (*can, must, should*)
- 7) **primary auxiliary verbs** (*be, have, do*).

These classes are described as “closed” in the sense that they are exceptionally (if ever) extended by the creation of new members. Moreover, closed class items are **mutually exclusive**, that is the use of one item in a structure will exclude the possibility of using any other (e.g. *a pen* – **a the pen*).

In-between these categories we have two borderline items, resembling both open classes and closed classes: **numerals** and **interjections**, which Quirk *et al.* (1985: 67-68) call “lesser categories” (with interjections “marginal and anomalous”).

WORDS							
OPEN CLASSES / FORM CLASSES				CLOSED CLASSES / STRUCTURE CLASSES			
nouns	adjectives	verbs	adverbs	pronouns	prepositions	articles	conjunctions
<i>student</i>	<i>studious</i>	<i>study</i>	<i>studiously</i>	<i>they</i>	<i>since</i>	<i>the</i>	<i>and</i>

THE FORM CLASSES

The four word-classes that we call **open** or **form classes** — **nouns**, **verbs**, **adjectives**, and **adverbs** — constitute over 99 percent of our vocabulary. They are so called because they can be identified by their **forms** (particular endings or suffixes).

NOUNS

Nouns are by far the most frequent lexical word-class; on average, every fourth word is a noun. (Biber *et al.*, 1999: 65)

Etymologically, **noun** means “name” (Lat. *nomen*). Everybody has some idea of what a noun is, but as it turns out, the simpler a concept might seem, the more difficult it is to define. Here are some definitions:

- “By a noun we mean a sound significant by convention, which has no reference to time, and of which no part is significant apart from the rest.” (Aristotle, *On Interpretation*, 350 BCE, translated by E. M. Edghill)¹⁶
- “The noun is the class of words (including compounds) that name classes of things; centrally, concrete objects and persons, but also abstractions, processes, relations, states, and attributes: **whatever can stand for a pronoun**, as Quine (1948) suggests (‘Pronouns are the basic media of reference; nouns might better have been named propronouns’).” (Halliday, 2002b: 58)

¹⁶ Retrieved from <http://classics.mit.edu/Aristotle/interpretation.1.1.html> (January 2017).

- “The noun is the one substantive universal of syntactic theory; [...] nouns are primary, in the sense that they are linked referentially with ‘things’ (in the ‘nuclear’ instances)”. (Lyons, 1966, q. in Halliday, 2002b: 62)
- “We traditionally define *noun* on the basis of meaning, as the *name* of a person, place, thing, idea, event, or the like, and that definition works fairly well.” (Kolln & Funk, 2012: 239)
- “The class of NOUNS includes words that typically refer to entities that have clear boundaries and are easily distinguished from their environments, *e.g. tree, king, mausoleum* etc. These are concepts that tend not to change very much over time, and which can be referred to repeatedly in discourse as the same thing.” (Payne Th., 2011: 71)
- “A noun is a word that can be made plural and / or possessive; it occupies the headword position in the noun phrase; it is usually signaled by a determiner.” (Kolln & Funk, 2012: 18)

ENTITIES (referred to by nouns)	EXAMPLES
Persons:	Jane, Dr. Zhivago, the Flintstones, professor
Places:	Europe, Empire State Building, Central Park
Objects & Things:	book, bicycle, refrigerator, teddy-bear, comment
Qualities & Attributes:	honesty, bravery, enthusiasm
Feelings:	happiness, anger, euphoria
Concepts:	knowledge, freedom, patriotism, morphology
Activities:	tweeting, dancing, eating
Events:	The Olympics, Thanksgiving
Measures:	year, hundred, kilogram, mile

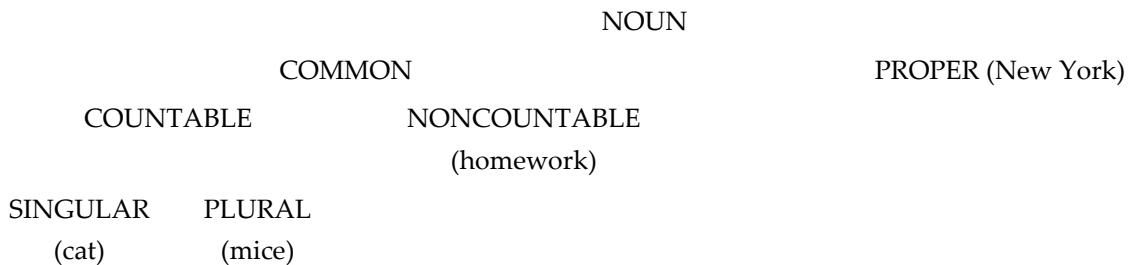
Form classes can be differentiated from one another without reference to either meaning or context, simply on the basis of their **derivational suffixes** (*e.g. -ion, -ment, -age, -al, -ure, -er* usually convert verbs into nouns: *reflect > reflection; accomplish > accomplishment; cover > cover(age); arrive > arrival; depart > departure; sing > singer*) and **inflectional suffixes**. Nouns only have two grammatical inflexions: one indicating **number (plural)** and one indicating **case (possessive)**.

SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR POSSESSIVE	PLURAL POSSESSIVE
cat	cats	cat's	cats'
dog	dogs	dog's	dogs'
horse	horses	horse's	horses'
mouse	mice	mouse's	mice's

(Kolln & Funk, 2012: 242)

Nouns have a number of semantic features which affect their distribution. They can be classified into:

- **common / proper** (*playwright / William Shakespeare*)
- **countable / uncountable** (some nouns countable only: *book, tree, child*; other uncountable only: *money, homework, information, milk*; some nouns both countable and uncountable: *experience, cake, beauty*)



Interestingly enough, in some languages, *e.g.* Finnish, it seems impossible to find any criteria in flexion that distinguish substantives from adjectives. Starting from this piece of knowledge, Otto Jespersen (and other linguists) proposed an alternative terminology (that did not fully catch up) in English as well:

Adjectives and substantives have much in common, and there are cases in which it is difficult to tell whether a word belongs to one or the other class; therefore it is convenient to have a name that comprises both, and in accordance with the old Latin terminology which is frequently found also in recent continental works on grammar, I shall use the word *noun* (Lat. *nomen*) for the larger class of which substantives and adjectives are subdivisions. English scholars generally use the word *noun* for what is here called *substantive*; but the terminology here adopted gives us on the one hand the adjective *nominal* for both classes, and on the other hand the verb *substantivize* when we speak, for instance, of a substantivized adjective. (Jespersen, 1958: 72)

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PRACTICE. Nouns from Verbs*. Turn the following verbs into nouns by adding a derivational suffix. Some of them may have more than one noun form.

1. retire
2. retrieve
3. seize
4. steal
5. vary

VERBS

"The traditional definition of *verb*, like that of *noun*, is based on meaning: a word denoting **action, being, or state of being**. When we look for the verb in a sentence, we look for the word that tells *what is happening*, and most of the time this method works." (Kolln & Funk, 2012: 250) Another reliable criterion for defining *verb* is that of **form**. Like nouns, verbs have **derivational suffixes** (*e.g.* *-ify, -en, -ate, -ise*, even *-l* usually convert nouns or adjectives into verbs: *clarify, widen, activate, prioritise, kneel*), but also **derivational prefixes** (which either turn adjectives or nouns into verbs or change the meaning of other verbs: *en-, be-, de-, dis-*, as in *enable, bewitch, dethrone, disable*). As for the verb's inflectional suffixes, the most reliable are the distinctive *-s* and *-ing*.

ADJECTIVES

Very simply put, **adjectives** are words that describe other words (*i.e.* they denote a quality such as size, age, shape, colour, origin, temperament etc.). Kolln & Funk (2012: 252) propose the following reliable way to discover if a word is an adjective – the “**adjective test frame**”, claiming only an adjective will fit into both slots:

The _____ NOUN is very _____ .

The **diligent** student is very **diligent**.

The **ordinary** house is very **ordinary**.

There are also some **derivational suffixes** to signal adjectives, the most prolific being *-ous* (*gorgeous, famous, courageous, contagious*), followed by *-ful* (*beautiful, wonderful*), *-y* (*funny, scary*), *-ic* (*terrific, horrific*), *-ish* (*childish, reddish*), *-ate* (*fortunate*), *-ary* (*fragmentary*), *-ive* (*active*), *-able* (*variable*), *-ible* (*responsible*). Sometimes, adjectives end in *-ly*, like adverbs (*early, surly, lovely, ugly*), or, like verbs, in *-ing* (present participles: *charming*) or *-ed* (past participles: *beloved, learned*). The inflectional suffixes that pattern with adjectives are *-er*, the sign of the comparative degree, and *-est*, the superlative:

Positive:	big	young	smart
Comparative:	bigger	younger	smarter
Superlative:	biggest	youngest	smartest

The problem is that this inflection is not exclusive to adjectives, nor is it applied indiscriminately.

1. In the first place, not all adjectives take *-er* and *-est* for the comparative and superlative (of superiority), only the short, monosyllabic ones and some disyllabic ones (*early, friendly, narrow, clever*); the rest of the adjectives pattern with *more* and *most* (*more important, (the) most interesting*), which are **allomorphs** of the morphemes *-er* and *-est*.
2. Secondly, there are some adjectives (*dead, former, main*) which are non-gradable (*i.e.* they have no comparative or superlative forms at all).
3. Thirdly, *-ly* adverbs (especially those derived from adjectives) can also be used with *more* and *most* (*more quickly, (the) most frequently*) and also have comparative and superlative versions: *more quickly, most frequently*.
4. A small group of words that have comparative and superlative forms can serve as either adjectives or adverbs (*e.g. early, late, fast, hard, high, low, long*), so the inflectional test is not completely reliable in identifying a word as an adjective.
5. *Near* (*nearer, nearest*), which can serve not only as an adjective and an adverb, but also as a preposition (*e.g. Our seats were near the fifty-yard line.*) — **the only preposition that takes inflections.** (after Kolln & Funk, 2012: 253-254)

ADVERBS

If **adverbs** were sentient, we might pity them. Sometimes, they are treated as **nothing more than adjectives** crudely tarted up with some **minor ornamental morphology**. At other times, they are treated as the “**wastebasket category**”, because “**adverb**” is what you call a word when you’ve run out of other names to call it. All sorts of **stray mystery particles** have been described as **adverbs**, for the most tenuous of reasons or for no particular reason at all. Worse still, the term is often taken to include not just a motley assortment of scarcely-related lexical riffraff, but **whole phrases** without regard to their syntactic category. Loiter around the peripheries of a clause for too long, and you too

might be accused of being an **adverb**.

To be mistreated unjustly is bad. It's worse when it's precisely what you deserve. The prototypical exemplars of adverbs are genuinely **very adjective-like**, and languages don't always bother to make the distinction. (Morzycki, 2016: 186, emphasis added)

The text above is especially striking by its use of personification in depicting adverbs but, stylistics and rhetoric aside, it does confront us quite mercilessly with an unavoidable truth: that adverbs are the hardest to pin down as a form class. Although the *-ly* ending serves as a signal for many of them, others are notoriously problematic in terms of form and position: they have no distinguishing affixes and no fixed position in the sentence. Thomas Payne's definition is equally discomfiting: "Any full lexical word that isn't clearly a noun, a verb, or an adjective is often considered to be an **adverb**." (Payne Th., 2011: 73).

Moreover, in modern linguistics the class commonly called "adverb" differs from the class identified as such in traditional grammar:

You'll recall the **traditional definition** as "**a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.**" This definition includes words that we call "**qualifiers,**" words that intensify or qualify the meaning of adjectives and adverbs: *very nice, quite slow, rather quickly*. But even when we leave out adjectives and other adverbs from the traditional definition, we are left with a definition of "adverbial"—that is, the definition of a function, not a word class. (Kolln & Funk, 2012: 257, emphasis added)

Nevertheless, form classes are definable on the basis of derivational and inflectional suffixes rather than function, therefore we must mention the *-ly* ending, as unreliable as it is (*slowly, quickly, beautifully*) among the **derivational suffixes**. And although it seems safe to say that many adjectives turn into adjectives with this derivational morpheme (*slow > slowly*), there are some restrictions on the process:

Not all adjectives can become manner adverbs. These **restrictions** are **related to meaning**. Some adjectives describe a **state**, such as *tall* and *old*, or a **fixed or inherent characteristic**, such as *Norwegian*; others describe characteristics that change, such as *weak, active, and industrious*. Another distinction can be drawn between **objective characteristics**, such as *tall* and *old*, and **subjective ones**, such as *nice* and *splendid*. **The adjectives that refer to objective or stative or inherent qualities rarely become manner adverbs:** *tall, old, fat, young, short, thick, large, flat, round, red*. **When they do, they are likely to have a specialized, often metaphorical, meaning:** *shortly, hardly, flatly, squarely, widely*. (*ibidem*, 258, emphasis added)

Besides *-ly, -ward* and *-wise* also produce adverbs (*forward, backward, upward, downward* – signalling direction; *otherwise, timewise, weatherwise* – signalling manner). As for the **inflectional morphemes**, they are the same as those used with adjectives for the comparative and superlative degree (only rarely *-er, -est*; mostly *more*, but sometimes *most* also: *most favourably, most ingeniously*).

Now is as good a time as ever to point out the following three categories of adverbs which stand out from the crowd:

- 1) The words that can be used either as **adjectives or adverbs** (*early, late, hard, fast, long, high, low, deep, near*), usually referred to as **flat adverbs**. They are among the few (together with *soon*) to be used with *-er* and *-est* for comparison.
- 2) The words that can be used either as **prepositions or adverbs** (*above, around, behind, below, down, in, inside, out, outside, up*).
- 3) The words that have neither derivational nor inflectional affixes that distinguish them as adverbs, but can be recognised by their meaning, position or movability in the sentence:

Time:	now, today, nowadays, yesterday
Duration:	already, always, still, yet
Frequency:	often, seldom, never, sometimes, always
Location:	there, here, everywhere, somewhere, elsewhere, upstairs, abroad, nearby
Direction:	away, thence
Concession:	still, yet
Sequence:	afterward, next, then

(Kolln & Funk, 2012: 259)

PRACTICE. Form Classes & Word Families*. Fill in the blanks with variations of the words shown on the chart, changing or adding derivational morphemes to change the word class.

	NOUN	VERB	ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
1.	success			
2.		please		
3.			abundant	
4.				ably
5.			black	

THE STRUCTURE CLASSES

Pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, articles, modal verbs, auxiliaries, all count as **structure classes**. However, for the purposes of this book, we will only present those items which are relevant for the study of the noun phrase, namely **determiners, qualifiers** and **prepositions**.

Determiners are words that mark **nouns** (e.g. articles *a, an, the*; demonstratives *this, that, these, those* and other indefinite words like *some, both, each* etc.). They are detailed in **Chapter # 3**.

Qualifiers are words that mark **adjectives** and **adverbs**, increasing or decreasing the quality of the word they modify (e.g. *very disappointing, rather carelessly*).

Prepositions are words (*in, on, to, for, from* etc.) that combine with a **NP** in order to (adjectivally or adverbially) modify another, englobing / enclosing NP.

QUALIFIERS

Here are some of the most common qualifiers in English (though a number of these words have other functions as well):

very, quite, rather, somewhat, more, most, less, least, too, so, just, enough, indeed, still, almost, fairly, really, pretty, even, a bit, a little, a (whole) lot, a good deal, a great deal, kind of, sort of

Qualifiers and **qualification** are two other terms used differently by different linguists, as shown in David Crystal's definition:

qualification (*n.*) A term used in syntax to refer to certain types of structural dependence of one grammatical unit upon another. In some traditional grammars, for example, dependent items in a noun phrase (such as adjectives, prepositional phrases) were said to **qualify** the noun (act as **qualifiers**). In

Hallidayan grammar, on the other hand, the term is reserved for structures following the head of the noun phrase: *the car in the street* would be analysed in terms of M–H–Q, standing for modification–head–qualification. (Crystal, 2008: 424)

The first conception of qualification entails that qualifiers either change / modify the meaning of another word or phrase, and in that qualification is very similar to modification. In the present book, we embrace a more restricted view of qualifiers, as words (more often than not adjectives and adverbs) which calibrate (either intensify or downtone) the meaning of other adjectives and adverbs. This perspective is a simplified version of the one pioneered by Quirk *et al.* (1985) or Paradis (1997) – who use specialised terms like *intensifiers* or *downtoners*, to refine this category of words.

Very could be considered the prototypical qualifier that alters (intensifies) the meaning of both adjectives and adverbs. Apart from *very*, other versatile qualifiers like *really*, *fairly*, *quite*, *pretty*, *mighty*, *rather*, *awfully* and *too* can be used with adjectives (positive form) as well as with adverbs of manner, like *quickly*.

very / really / fairly / quite / pretty / mighty / rather / awfully / too	good quickly
--	---------------------

A second group of qualifiers can be used with the comparative degree of adjectives, such as *better* and *nicer*, and with comparative adverbs, such as *sooner*, *later*, *nearer*, and *farther*:

still / some / no / even / much	better / nicer sooner / later / nearer / farther
---------------------------------	---

Yet another group has a limited distribution: *right now*, *just about there*, *almost there*, *wide awake*, *just so*. Some other qualifiers are used in colloquial expressions: *damn sure*, *real pretty*.

Some of the adverbs of manner, the *-ly* adverbs, are themselves used as qualifiers with certain adjectives: *dangerously close*, *particularly harmful*, *technically possible*, *absolutely true*, *especially difficult*.

According to Kolln & Funk (2012: 272-273), who provided many of the examples above, “**the qualifier, like the determiner**, can be thought of as **both a word class and a sentence function**. It has attributes of both. In their relationship to the form classes, the qualifiers are different from the determiners and auxiliaries in that they are **optional**; all the adjectives and adverbs they modify can appear without them.” (Kolln & Funk, 2012: 272-273)

PREPOSITIONS

The preposition (meaning “placed before”) is a **structure word** found in pre-position to—preceding—a noun phrase or other nominal. Prepositions are among our most common words in English; in fact, of our twenty most frequently used words, eight are prepositions: *of*, *to*, *in*, *for*, *with*, *on*, *at*, and *by*.¹⁷

Prepositions can be classified according to **form** and **content**.

From as the point of view of form, they are either **simple (one-word)** or **phrasal (multiple-word)**.

¹⁷ This frequency count, based on a collection of 1,014,232 words, is published in Henry Kucera and W. Nelson Francis, *Computational Analysis of Present-Day English* (Providence, RI: Brown University Press, 1967) (Kolln & Funk, 2012: 275, footnote 1).

Simple Prepositions. The following list includes the most common simple prepositions:

aboard, above, about, across, after, against, along, amid, among, around, as, at, atop
 before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond, but (except), by
 concerning
 despite, down, during
 except
 for, from
 in, into
 like
 near
 of, off, on, onto, out, outside, over
 past, per
 regarding
 since
 through, throughout, till, to, toward
 under, underneath, until, up, upon
 with, within, without

These words can be labelled as prepositions only when they are followed by a noun / NP (*i.e.* only when they are part of prepositional phrases). Take *up*, for instance; it is not always a preposition, it can also function as an adverb (*Prices go **up** again.*) or as a particle in phrasal verbs (*back up, break up, come up* etc.)

Phrasal Prepositions can be made up of two words (preposition preceded by an adverb / adjective / conjunction) or three words (made up of preposition + noun + preposition):

two-word prepositions	three-word prepositions
according to along with because of except for out of prior to thanks to	by means of in accordance with in charge of in spite of in front of on behalf of in case of

Prepositional Meaning. From the point of view of content, prepositions can express a wide range of things, some of which shown in the following table:

place	<i>a stranger in the house</i> <i>a stab through the heart</i>
position	<i>an attack below the belt</i> <i>people throughout the country</i>

direction	<i>the cemetery across the street</i> <i>the shop down the road</i>
movement	<i>a walk across the park</i> <i>a stroll along the beach</i>
time / duration	<i>a jogging session before breakfast</i> <i>a shrub blossoming through the year.</i>
manner	<i>He got in life through thoroughness.</i> <i>She performed it with great skill.</i>
purpose	<i>I went to Vienna for a business conference.</i> <i>an instrument used for drawing lines</i>
reason / motive	<i>Jeremy's arrest for drunk driving</i> <i>She did it out of kindness.</i>
cause	<i>a failure due to poor preparation</i> <i>flight cancellation on account of bad weather</i>
origin / source	<i>It tastes of mint.</i> <i>a new bike from my parents</i>
material	<i>a dress of silk</i> <i>a bar of iron</i>
means	<i>They travelled by plane.</i> <i>Communication by phone is vital in business.</i>
agency	<i>a thriller written by Christie</i> <i>a surprise party planned by the family</i>
instrument	<i>a will written in ink</i> <i>We saw it with our own eyes.</i>
support / opposition	<i>two votes for the new idea</i> <i>a vote against it</i>
concession	<i>He got the job in spite of the pressure.</i> <i>They enjoyed the trip despite the bad weather.</i>
accompaniment	<i>happy with the news</i> <i>a party without a leader</i>
exception	<i>all fruit except for oranges</i> <i>460 people excluding the crew</i>
addition	<i>Jill as well as Jane</i> <i>What other books do you read besides thrillers?</i>

Obligatory Prepositions. Certain nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs and pronouns are always used with a given preposition. Here are some common examples:

nouns	<i>abundance of</i> <i>dominion / reign / rule / supremacy over</i> <i>interest in</i> <i>objection to</i> <i>surprise at</i>
adjectives	<i>bereft of</i>

	<i>deprived of</i> <i>devoid of</i> <i>exempt from</i> <i>famous / known / renowned for</i> <i>fond of</i> <i>free from</i> <i>incumbent (up)on</i> <i>interested in</i> <i>rid of</i>
verbs	<i>to account for</i> <i>to allude to</i> <i>to count / rely on</i> <i>to resort to</i>

Marginal Prepositions. Quirk *et al.* (1985: 667-668) make up a special list of prepositions which behave like prepositions but also have affinities with other word-classes (usually verbs or adjectives), in which they include: *regarding, concerning, including, excepting, save, following, given, minus, plus* etc.

Given his age, he is remarkably fit.

*She's had mumps **plus** measles.*

Prepositions vs. Other Word-Classes. As shown above (*Prices go **up** again.*), some of the words which are prepositions also belong to the class of **adverbs**.

*A car drove **past** the door.* [*past* = preposition]

*A car drove **past**.*¹⁸ [*past* = adverb]

*The bird flew **out** the window.* [*out* = preposition]

*We went **out** last night.* [*out* = adverb]

*My grandparents live just **up** the road.* [*up* = preposition]

*The price of oil went **up** again.* [*up* = adverb]

Words like *up, down, in, out* etc. also function as **adverbial particles** in **two-word** (or **particle-phrasal**) **verbs** such as *bring up, give up; wake up; fall down, cut down; give in, call in, hand in; find out, stand out, hand out* etc.

Prepositions as such can also be part of phrasal verbs:

Grandma is looking after the children. [*after* = preposition; *look after* = prepositional phrasal verb]

Who can put up with that? [*up* = particle; *with* = preposition; *put up with* = particle-prepositional phrasal verb]

Other prepositions may overlap with **adjectives**:

*Martha sat **opposite** George.* [*opposite* = preposition]

*Martha saw George coming from the **opposite** direction.* [*opposite* = adjective]

PRACTICE. Prepositions*. Fill in with the correct preposition:

1. They sell coffee the kilogram.
2. I came to Bucharest the 15th of September.
3. The principle of civil supremacy the military is an important principle of the American constitutional government.
4. I could never learn anything heart.
5. In case his temperature rises, send the doctor.
6. Casey took your pen mistake.

¹⁸ Example from Quirk *et al.* (1985: 713).

7. Why go foot when you can go horseback?
8. It's such a long trip; you definitely should consider travelling air.
9. I am quite interested the history of food.
10. The natives went out one one.

THE THREE RANKS. FROM WORD TO PHRASE

All the four form classes, we have seen, may be identified by means of derivational and inflectional affixes as well as various other indicators; so, from this point of view at least, they seem to be all equal. In other respects, though, some form classes are “more equal than others”. If in the beginning was the word, this word must have been either a noun or a verb; anthropologically, too, nouns and verbs are proven to have preexisted other parts of speech. Nouns and verbs are accordingly largely seen as fundamentally irreplaceable in human language, the basic tools to get our message across, whereas the lesser, easily disposable adjectives or adverbs are “mere ornaments”. This hierarchy also stands when we try to put the respective words in context. If we leave verbs aside, nouns tend to co-occur and collocate with adjectives, and adjectives tend to pattern with adverbs. These three parts of speech are very often used in verbal strings or grammatical structures and they make sense together provided they stick to a given “organigram”.

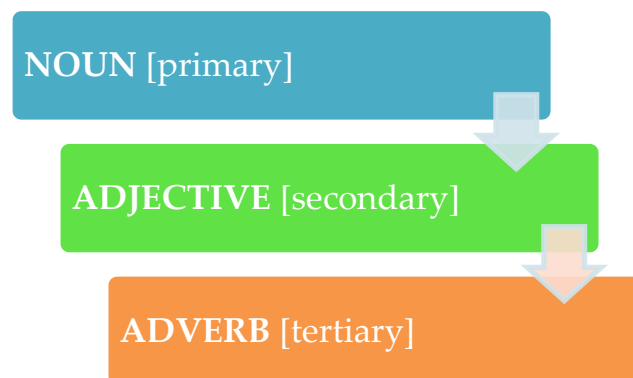
Danish linguist Otto Jespersen described this interconnectedness between the form classes in terms of *ranks*:

In any composite denomination of a thing or person [...], we always find that there is **one word of supreme importance** to which the others are joined as subordinates. This chief word is defined (qualified, modified) by another word, which in its turn may be defined (qualified, modified) by a third word etc. We are thus led to establish different “**ranks**” of words according to their mutual relations as defined or defining. In the combination *extremely hot weather* the last word *weather*, which is evidently the chief idea, may be called **primary**; *hot*, which defines *weather*, **secondary**, and *extremely*, which defines *hot*, **tertiary**. (Jespersen, 1958: 96, emphasis mine)

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So, according to Jespersen, whenever they are used together in different configurations, these three form classes are never on the same footing: substantives (or nouns) are primary, adjectives as secondary, and adverbs are tertiary. Adverbs are not in the same league as adjectives; they are subordinate, they determine the adjectives. Adjectives, in their turn, determine nouns and are therefore noun-subordinate.

While he acknowledges the fact that a tertiary may in some cases be further determined by a word that is subordinated to it, and this again by a fifth word, as in *a not very cleverly worded remark*, Jespersen (*op. cit.*) still maintains that there are three hierarchical degrees only, because *not* and *very* in this example as tertiaries in the same way as *cleverly*.



SEMINAR on MORPHOLOGY

COURSE # 1 IN A NUTSHELL

- **Grammar:** the description of the ways in which English words are combined to form meaningful and acceptable sentences.
- **Levels of grammar:** sounds → morphemes → words → phrases → clauses → sentences → texts.
- **Morphology:** the branch of grammar which studies the structure or forms of words.
- **Morpheme:** the smallest meaningful / meaning-bearing unit of language.
- Morphemes are either **bases** (e.g. noun *will*) or **affixes** (*un-*, *-ing*, *-ness* in noun *unwillingness*).
- Affixes are either **prefixes** (*un-* in *unkindly* or *unwillingness*, *re-* in *reconsider*) or **suffixes** (*-ly* in *unkindly*, *-ing* and *-ness* in *unwillingness*).
- Morphemes are either **free** (if they can stand alone and be recognised as words: e.g. *cat*, *play*, *sea*) or **bound** (if they cannot stand on their own but are fixed onto words to affect their grammar, leaving their basic meaning unaffected: e.g. *happy* > *happiness*).
- Some compound words consist of two free morphemes (e.g. *blackbird*).
- Bound morphemes are either **inflectional** (i.e. they indicate tense, number, possession or comparison) or **derivational** (i.e. they are used to derive new words; they change either the grammatical class of the stem or its meaning).
- One or more morphemes make a word. All words are therefore either single **morphemes** (e.g. *kind*) or **combinations of morphemes** (e.g. *unkindly*).
- Historically, **traditional / school grammar** has focused on **parts of speech** (nouns, verbs, adjectives etc.). Modern grammar, on the other hand, prefers **word-classes** to **parts of speech**.
- Word-classes are generally divided into two major categories: **open classes** (nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs) and **closed classes** (pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, articles and other determiners, modal verbs, primary auxiliary verbs). Numerals and interjections are considered borderline items.
- **Nouns** only have two grammatical inflexions: one indicating **number (plural)** and one indicating **case (possessive)**.
- **Verbs** have two most reliable inflectional suffixes: *-s* and *-ing*.
- **Adjectives** pattern with *-er*, the sign of the comparative degree, and *-est*, the superlative.
- **Adverbs** are commonly recognised by derivational suffix *-ly* and pattern with inflectional morphemes like *more*, *most*.
- **Qualifiers:** words (usually adverbs) which are used to intensify the meaning of other adjectives and adverbs (e.g. *very*, *really*, *quite*, *rather*, *too* etc.)
- **Prepositions** can be simple or phrasal and cover a wide range of meanings (i.e. spatial, temporal, concessive, agentive, instrumental etc.)

COURSE # 1 FURTHER PRACTICE

PRACTICE. **Number of Morphemes*.** How many morphemes are there in the following words? Arrange the words according to their number of morphemes (smallest to largest).

1. actively
2. antidisestablishmentarianism
3. cover
4. corner
5. messier

6. pseudopseudohypoparathyroidism
7. smartens
8. undeniable

PRACTICE. Bound Morphemes.** Underline the bound morphemes in the following words.

1. befriended
2. blackbird
3. blackboard
4. disrespectfully
5. impossible
6. intervene
7. kingdom
8. livingroom

PRACTICE. The -er Suffix*. Is the -er suffix in the following words inflectional or derivational?

1. beaver
2. fighter
3. loser
4. louder
5. smarter

PRACTICE. Form Classes.** Indicate the form class of the underlined words in the following sentences (noun, verb, adjective, or adverb).

1. The graveyard was a melancholy place for him.
2. Please come on the stage to please the public.
3. Price alone is not a reliable indicator of quality.
4. A dream you dream alone is only a dream. A dream you dream together is reality.¹⁹
5. At the very end of her life, his great-grandmother was still a very together person.

¹⁹ A quote from John Lennon.

Course # 2 (Noun) Phrases

Language forms do not just consist of sequences of words
put together like beads on a string.
They can be broken down into units (or **constituents**),
which can again be analysed hierarchically
into successively smaller units.
(Biber *et al.*, 1999: 94)

- **Lexical Categories vs. Phrasal Categories**
- **What's in a Phrase?**
- **The Noun Phrase** (Definitions. The Principle of Substitution. Pre-Head, Head, Post-Head. Structure of the Noun Phrase: Determiner vs Modifier; Models for Noun Phrases: Embedded Phrases; Embedded Determiners. Types of NPs: Discontinuous Noun Phrases. Conceptual Organisation of Noun Phrases. A Question of Terminology: Noun Phrase vs Nominal Group)
- **The Verb Phrase** (The Participle Phrase. The Gerund Phrase. The Infinitive Phrase.)
- **The Adjective Phrase**
- **The Adverb Phrase**
- **The Prepositional Phrase** (Internal Structure of the Prepositional Phrase. Adjectival vs. Adverbial Prepositional Phrases. Discontinuous Prepositional Phrases)
- **The Appositive Phrase**
- **The Absolute Phrase**

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LEXICAL CATEGORIES vs. PHRASAL CATEGORIES

The word-classes or parts of speech dealt with in the previous chapter (noun, adjective, preposition etc.) are **lexical categories**, *i.e.* they consist of units which do not have internal syntactic structure themselves. A noun, for instance, may have morphological structure (*i.e.* affixes) but it is not made up of syntactically distinct units. **Phrasal categories**, on the other hand, that will be discussed in this chapter, are much more likely to have internal syntactic structure. Thus, a noun phrase may contain either one unit only – a noun – or a noun + other units that “clump together” (Payne Th., 2011: 165) with the noun, like adjectives, clauses or other phrases. Many lexical categories have phrasal counterparts, as shown below:

Lexical Category	Phrasal Category
Noun (N)	Noun Phrase (NP)
Verb (V)	Verb Phrase (VP)
Adjective (ADJ)	Adjective Phrase (AdjP)
Adverb (ADV)	Adverb Phrase (AdvP)
Preposition (P)	Prepositional Phrase (PP)

WHAT'S IN A PHRASE?

One cannot define a phrase without delving into syntax, as shown in the following definitions:

- "Words can be joined together to form larger grammatical elements called *phrases*." (Seely, 2007: 71).
- "A word or group of words that forms a CLAUSE ELEMENT (e.g. the SUBJECT) is called a PHRASE." (Seely, 2007: 20)
- "A PHRASE is a group of related words that does not include a subject and verb. (If the group of related words does contain a subject and verb, it is considered a CLAUSE.)"²⁰
- "A phrase is a group of words that work as a single unit within a clause." (Seely, 2007: 71)
- "A phrase is a word or group of words that functions as a unit within the sentence." (Kolln & Funk, 2012: 18)
- "[A phrase is] a combination of words put together in order to form a sense unit." (Jespersen (1976 [1914]: 15), q. in Pastor Gómez, 2009: 6)
- "A phrase is a group of words without both a subject and predicate. Phrases combine words into a larger unit that can function as a sentence element. For example, a participial phrase can include adjectives, nouns, prepositions and adverbs; as a single unit, however, it functions as one big adjective modifying a noun (or noun phrase)."²¹
- "A *phrase* is a related group of words that functions as a part of speech and does not contain both a subject and a verb." (Umstatter, Jack, 2010: 39)
- "[T]he term PHRASE has traditionally been applied to a unit consisting of more than one word, and this has meant some inconsistency in the interpretation of grammatical constituency. Avoiding this inconsistency, many modern grammarians have used the term 'phrase' to refer to a constituent consisting either of *one word* or of *more than one word*..." (Quirk *et al.*, 1985: 40)
- "In everyday use, the word *phrase* applies to a group of at least two words, whereas in grammar, the term *phrase* is used even if there is just the main / head-word alone." (Manoliu, 2014: 3)
- "[Phrases are] composite forms which are hierarchically organised." (Hockett, 1958: 152-154, q. in Pastor Gómez, 2009: 6)

All these definitions share a common core: grammarians seem to be almost unanimous in that a phrase is made up of a word / a group of words functioning as a unit. While it is true that sometimes a single word will function as a unit in itself, whenever there is more than one word, there is usually also hierarchy, there are ranks. The examples we presented previously (*extremely hot weather*, *a not very cleverly worded remark*) are all phrases and, again Jespersen's borrowing words, we know they all contain "**one word of supreme importance** to which the others are joined as subordinates" (Jespersen, 1958: 96). This word of supreme importance in a phrase is called *head* or *headword*. Each type of phrase is named after the class of word upon which it is based – upon its headword. If the headword is a noun, then we are dealing with a noun phrase; if it is a verb, then we are dealing with a verb phrase a.s.o. Since Jespersen's examples revolve around nouns (*weather*, *remark*), the phrases are accordingly **noun phrases**.

Here are some examples of types of phrases, with their respective heads:

Noun Phrase (NP)	<i>a very difficult exam</i>	headword: noun <i>exam</i>
Verb Phrase (VP)	<i>must have been sleeping</i>	headword: verb <i>sleep(ing)</i>
Adjective Phrase (AdjP)	<i>very strong</i>	headword: adjective <i>strong</i>
Adverb Phrase (AdvP)	<i>very carefully</i>	headword: adverb <i>carefully</i>
Prepositional Phrase (PrepP/PP)²²	<i>in the beginning</i>	headword: preposition <i>in</i>

²⁰ Retrieved from grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/phrases.htm (August 2016).

²¹ Retrieved from learningnerd.com/2006/09/06/english-grammar-types-of-phrases/ (February 2017).

²² PPs are a special case because they contain two normally obligatory elements: the preposition and the prepositional object / complement. Some linguists call this a *non-headed* construction (Quirk *et al.*, 1985: 60), while others an *exocentric* construction (see Manoliu, 2014: 4).

Apart from these, there are also **gerund phrases** and **infinitive phrases** (generally used as NP substitutes), all of which can be used appositively (thus earning the right to be called **appositive phrases**), and also **participle phrases** and **absolute phrases**. However, the three commonest types of phrase are **noun phrases**, **verb phrases** and **prepositional phrases**, which will be dealt with in detail as follows.

THE NOUN PHRASE

a) <i>they</i> b) <i>cats</i> c) <i>the cats</i> d) <i>the black cats</i> e) <i>the black cats in the corner</i> f) <i>the green-eyed black cats in the corner</i> g) <i>all the green-eyed black cats in the corner</i>	are all noun phrases
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Definitions

Although nouns are not always easy to define, nor do phrases lend themselves easily to definition, noun phrases are paradoxically a fairly graspable concept:

- “A noun phrase is word group with a noun or pronoun as its head.”²³
- “A noun phrase is either a pronoun or any group of words that can be replaced by a pronoun.”²⁴
- “A noun phrase is a sequence of words including a noun which can be substituted for a single noun in a sentence. It may consist of one word or many dozens of words, in a variety of constructions. The single central noun is the **head**.” (Falinski, 2011: 15)
- “A noun phrase (NP) is a grouping of words that includes an obligatory head noun and all other structures—determiners and modifying elements—which attach to it (Biber et al., 1999; Cowan, 2008; Crystal, 2004; Hillier, 2004; Ni, 2003). A noun phrase may consist of just one head noun, but the word *phrase* speaks to the potential of expansion for that noun (Crystal, 2004; Eggins, 2004). In the English noun phrase, the head noun acts as the center or core of the NP upon which its constituents can build.” (O’Malley, 2013: 16)
- “The noun phrase [is] a headed phrase²⁵ in which the head is the only obligatory constituent.” (Aarts & Aarts, 1988: 10-14)

Rephrasing the above, we understand the following things about the noun phrase:

²³ Geoffrey Leech, Benita Cruickshank, Roz Ivanic, *An A-Z of English Grammar & Usage*, 2nd ed. Pearson, 2001), retrieved from grammar.about.com/od/mo/g/nounphraseterm.htm.

²⁴ <https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/noun-phrase>.

²⁵ A **noun phrase is headed** to the extent that it has a central constituent or head, to which other elements can be optionally added. But if we change the plural noun phrase in [1] into a singular one in [2], the head can no longer stand alone :

The room contains (some) (beautiful) (Flemish) vases. (1)

The room contains a (beautiful) (Flemish) vase. (2)

For a large class of noun phrases, in fact, a **DETERMINATIVE** element such as *a* in [2] is obligatory. In another respect, too, noun phrases do not behave like headed constructions: members of one class of words, that of personal pronouns (*I*, *him*, *her* etc.), although they act as heads of noun phrases (in the sense that *I* can function alone as subject, *him* as object, etc), cannot normally have optional elements, such as articles and adjectives, added to them. Thus in some noun phrases the head must be accompanied, and in other noun phrases it cannot (normally) be accompanied, by another element. Such observations make it clear that **phrases, like clauses, cannot be described by a single structural formula**, and that various subclassifications have to be made of phrases and of the elements they contain. (Quirk *et al.*, 1985: 61, emphasis added)

- a) that it is either a word (head) or a group of words
- b) that the head is usually a noun or a pronoun
- c) that substitution is the infallible test to run if we want to identify a noun phrase.

The Principle of Substitution

The Principle of Substitution states that noun phrases can be replaced by pronouns. The noun phrases in the following example are in bold.

***My grandfather** left **his entire fortune** to **my sister**.*
***He** left **it** to **her**.*

PRACTICE. The Substitution Test*. Applying the substitution test is useful in both identifying noun phrases and figuring out the line between the subject and the predicate. Underline the subject noun phrase (the opening noun phrase) in each of the following sentences. Substitute a personal pronoun (*he, she, it, they*) for the subject. Remember that the personal pronoun stands in for the entire noun phrase, not just the noun headword.

Example:

This new chocolate cake recipe is perfect for any celebration.
***It** is perfect for any celebration.*

1. The mayor's husband is a successful inventor.
2. The 15 most profitable small-business industries list was published yesterday.
3. Today's teens vs. yesterday's teens is the topic of the debate.
4. The road accident news came as a terrible shock for the family.
5. Uncle Sam's coin collection has been stolen.
6. Their paternal grandmother is a terrific dog-walker.
7. The surgeon's spouse came to deliver the news.

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Head. Pre-head. Post-head.

The head is the center or core of the noun phrase. This single central word can be:

- a **proper noun** or a **common noun** (*Jane is a **writer** / a kind-hearted **person** / a primary school **teacher**.*), in which case we speak of a **nominal head**
- a **nominal –ing form** (*Swimming is healthy.*)
- a **nominalised adjective** (*the beautiful, the rich, the Dutch, the unknown*), in which case we speak of an **adjectival head**
- a **nominalised participle**, either present or past (*the dying, the wounded*)
- a **whole phrase** (*Live and let live is a good philosophy.*)
- a **pronoun**, either **personal** (*He left it to her.*) or **replacive** (*the elder one²⁶, those of lace*).

According to Downing & Locke (2006), NPs refer semantically to those aspects of our experience that we perceive as **entities**. The term "entity" obviously refers here not only to concrete entities such as persons, objects, places, institutions and other "collectives", but also to the names of actions (*swimming, laughter*), abstractions (*thought, experience*), qualities (*beauty, speed*), emotions (*anger, excitement*) and phenomena (*thunder, success*), among others. **Prototypical entities** are those which are concrete, with well-defined

²⁶ One / ones are also called **substitute heads**.

outlines and relatively stable in time (“person”, rather than “weather”). The following description of the sale of the painting known as *L’Absinthe* includes a number of noun phrases, which represent several classes of entities.

One Saturday morning in February 1893, a sale was in progress at the smart new rooms of a London art dealer in a street leading to the flower market in Covent Garden. Smartly dressed wealthy art lovers had come from all over the country to bid for pictures from the estate of Henry Hill. Lot 209, showing a man and a woman in a Paris café, was brought in by staff and placed on the easel. Instead of quiet appraisal, a hush fell on the gallery, followed by low groans of disgust, then the sibilant sound of hissing anger. Bizarrely, a group of well-off English art lovers was jeering a painting by the acknowledged master Edgar Degas. (The article appeared under the ironic title “Fairy Liquid” in The Times Weekend Review) (Downing & Locke, 2006: 401)

Following Downing & Locke’s line of reasoning, whenever we name an entity, we usually add some information about it which shows how we “experience” or perceive it. In expressing this “experiential” information about an entity, some of it is placed **before the noun** and some **after** it. So, the **semantic nucleus of the noun phrase** (the **head**, or the entity named) may be accompanied by other constituents of various categories, which come as a series of slots before or after the noun head, branching to the left and to the right, **pre-modifying and post-modifying**, and capable of great complexity. (Falinski, 2011: 15)

Take one of the noun phrases given as example above: *the green-eyed black cats in the corner*. Its head is obviously *cats*. There is plenty of information about these cats placed both before and after the head: article *the* and adjectives *green-eyed* and *black* precede the head, they are thus in **PRE-head** position, whereas *in the corner* represents the **POST-head** information.

Pre-head	Head	Post-head
<i>the green-eyed black</i>	<i>cats</i>	<i>in the corner</i>

The following table displays some of the NPs contained in the example text given by Downing & Locke (*op. cit.*, 402), where we can see that the post-head information also contains nouns with their own pre-head and post-head information [sometimes under the shape of *embedded NPs*²⁷]:

	Pre-head	Head	Post-head
1	one Saturday	morning	in February 1893
2	a	sale	
3	the smart new	rooms	of a London art dealer
4	a	street	leading to the flower market in Covent Garden
5	smartly dressed wealthy art	lovers	
6		pictures	from the estate of Henry Hill

²⁷ Embedding: “A term used in generative grammar to refer to the process or construction where one sentence is included (**embedded**) in another, *i.e.* in syntactic subordination. **Embedding** is distinct from conjoining (coordinating). A relative clause within a noun phrase is an example of embedding, *e.g.* *The man who has a suitcase is in the bar*. In a process view, this sentence could be derived from *The man has a suitcase*, which is embedded within the matrix sentence *The man is in the bar*. Embedded clauses can also be complements, as in *the discussion of his new book*.” (Crystal, 2008: 166-167). In the Downing & Locke table there are quite a few embedded noun phrases, especially in post-head position (*e.g.* *a street leading to the flower market in Covent Garden*, *pictures from the estate of Henry Hill*, *lot 209 showing a man and a woman in a Paris café*).

7		lot 209	showing a man and a woman in a Paris café
8		staff	
9	quiet	appraisal	
10	a	hush	
11	the	gallery	
12	the low	groans	of disgust
13	the sibilant	sounds	of hissing anger
14	a	group	of well-off English art lovers
15	a	painting	by the acknowledged master Edgar Degas

The *cats* example and the table also show the nature of the pre-head information as compared to the post-head information. Statistically, **articles** (*a, the*) and **adjectives** (*green-eyed, black, smart, new, quiet, low, sibilant* etc.) are among the most common **pre-head constituents**. As for the **post-head information**, it conspicuously contains a lot of prepositions (*in the corner, in February, from the estate, of disgust, of hissing anger, by the acknowledged master* etc.) which make up **prepositional phrases**.

Articles (*a book, an airplane, the cats*), as well as numerals (*five little pigs, the fifth amendment*), demonstrative pronouns (*this / that / these / those house(s)*), possessive nouns and possessive pronouns (*Lucy's friend, my notebook*) function as (head) noun signallers, or markers, and are commonly known as **determiners / determinatives**²⁸. Adjectives and prepositional phrases, on the other hand, usually fill the slot of **modifiers**. Noun Phrases are, therefore, "nouns plus their determiners and any other modifiers." (Halliday, 2002b: 58)

Now, we have seen that the head can have words on either side of it. Still, if some modifiers (take adjectives, for example) prefer pre-head position (in which case they are called **PRE-modifiers**) while others can occur in post-head position only (in which case they are called **POST-modifiers**), **determiners** are only placed **before the headword**. "Determiners give referential information about the head noun (...) and need to be first in line in noun phrase structure." (O'Malley, 2013: 16-17)

	Pre-head		Head	Post-head
	<i>Determiner</i>	<i>Pre-modifier</i>		<i>Post-modifier</i>
	(d)	(m)	(h)	(m)
h			cats	
dh	the		cats	
dmh	the	black	cats	
dmhm	the	black	cats	in the corner

²⁸ In some modern theories of grammar, noun phrases with determiners are analysed as having the determiner rather than the noun as their head; they are then referred to as *determiner phrases*. (see https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Noun_phrase).

	Pre-head		Head	Post-head
	<i>Determiner</i>	<i>Pre-modifier</i>		
	(d)	(m)	(h)	(m)
h			morning	
dh	one		morning	
dmh	one	Saturday	morning	
dmhm	one	Saturday	morning	in February 1893

PRACTICE Pre-head, Head, Post-head**. Arrange the following jumbled phrases into the table provided:

	Pre-head	Head	Post-head
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			
5.			

- on the top shelf, the, book, bulkiest
- cookies, mother's, fresh-baked, his
- rise, stunning, a, in temperature
- black, meowing in the corner, those, all, cats, green-eyed
- cat-like, orange, the, animal, jumping over the fence, big

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Kolln & Funk's definition of a nouns given earlier ("A noun is a word that can be made plural and / or possessive; it occupies the headword position in the noun phrase; it is **usually** signalled by a determiner.") alerts against the fact that nouns in noun phrases are usually (but not always) signalled by a determiner. Whenever noun phrases are single words (*Cats fight. Jane laughed.*), we cannot speak of determiners. Nevertheless, it is safe to assume that most noun phrases do begin with determiners and that coming across a determiner means coming across a noun phrase.

PRACTICE Determiners & Heads**. Identify and underline the noun phrases in the following sentences. For each of them use (H) to indicate the headword and (D) for determiners.

- Their many odd habits were finally over.
- This new chocolate cake recipe is very easy.
- Our new neighbours became our worst enemies.
- David's roommate has just come from a long trip.
- Her paternal grandmother makes an annual pilgrimage to Jerusalem.
- Both my sisters went to Paris.
- The same three questions were now addressed to the second team.

Structure of the Noun Phrase

“The noun phrase is possibly the most varied of all syntactic units in the grammar.” (Falinski, 2011: 168). As previously stated, it consists of a **head** (usually a noun) and all the words or groups of words that cluster around it (**determiners** and / or **modifiers**).

The four basic constituents of the English NP²⁹ are therefore (in this particular order):

DETERMINER + PREMODIFIER + HEADWORD + POSTMODIFIER

Determiners (articles, demonstratives, possessives, numeratives etc.) come first. These are **deictic elements** of **determining**, **defining** and **quantifying**. They serve mainly to indicate the referent of the head, whether in the linguistic or the situational context.

Premodifiers come next. They can be:

- ☐ adjectives (e.g. *a fine day*)
- ☐ participles (e.g. *running water*, *a broken chair*)
- ☐ nouns (e.g. *chicken egg*, *arms race*)
- ☐ even whole phrases and clauses (e.g. *blue-skies* politics, his *who-cares* attitude).

They serve to **evaluate, describe and classify the head**.

Post-modifiers come last, as they follow the headword. The main post-modifying elements are:

- ☐ prepositional and participial phrases (e.g. *the figure on the right*, *the shape appearing*)
- ☐ relative clauses (e.g. *the person who did that*, *the girl I met*)
- ☐ various appositive elements (e.g. *that man, a well-known member of the community, is...*). (after Falinski, 2011: 16)

DETERMINERS	PRE-MODIFIERS	HEADWORD	POST-MODIFIERS
the	noun	phrase	in question
the	London	eye	
the	best	place	to be
Cary's		books	
	children's	books	
the		catcher	in the rye
some	chocolate	cake	
	candid	camera	
that	wonderful	gift	you brought me

Postmodification sometimes involves complementation³⁰, too, as in Quirk *et al.*'s examples (1985: 62)

²⁹ In X-bar theory in linguistics, phrases are made up of **specifiers**, **heads**, **complements** and **adjuncts**. One phrase can only have one specifier. In the English NP, determiners are usually specifiers (e.g. articles *the*, *a*; demonstratives *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*; quantifiers such as *no*, *some*, *every*; possessives like *Simon's* or *my sister's*). Verb phrases can also be preceded by specifiers like the quantifier *all*. In adjective phrases and adverbial phrases, qualifiers like *very*, *extremely*, *rather*, *quite* are usually treated as specifiers, too. These **specifiers** are so called because they serve to further specify or qualify the category of the head in the phrase. (text adapted from <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Specifier>)

³⁰ “We reserve the term COMPLEMENTATION (as distinct from complement) for the function of a part of a phrase or clause which follows a word, and completes the specification of a meaning relationship which that word implies. As such, complementation may be either obligatory or optional on the syntactic level. Complementation also overlaps with other functions, such as adverbials and modifiers.” (Quirk *et al.*, 1985: 65)

I remember	determinative	premodification	head	postmodification	
					complementation
			him.		
			Peter.		
	Alice's		wedding.		
	that		girl	with red hair.	
	all those	fine warm	days	in the country last year.	
	a	better	story		than that.
	the	best	trip		that I ever had.
	a	good	trip	that I once had.	

(Quirk *et al.*, 1985: 62)

Other elements that may appear in NPs are **adverbs** or **qualifiers** (e.g. *just the other day*, a *slightly* better environment; three *very* interesting articles; a *rather* awkward smile.)

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Determiner vs. Modifier. For some people, determiners and (pre)modifiers, both placed before the headword, are difficult to tell apart. This usually stems from the fact that both *determiner* and *modifier* have meant different things to different linguists. Moreover, clear-cut distinctions cannot be easy when one comes across definitions which involve both terms, like: „A determiner is a modifier of a noun...”³¹. The easiest way out of this conundrum would be providing plenty of examples from both categories (e.g. articles are determiners by excellence; adjectives are modifiers by excellence). Another is to emphasize and illustrate how **determiners signal a usage or a function**, whereas **modifiers add information** (to a noun, verb or other element in the sentence). The determiner, being “an element in the syntactic or ‘logical’ structure of the NG [nominal group]” (Downing & Locke, 2006: 424), usually indicates:

- (in)definiteness (e.g. *cats* vs. *the cats*)
- quantity (e.g. *much time*)
- proximity (e.g. *this laptop*)
- number (e.g. *seven dwarfs*)
- possession (e.g. *my car*).

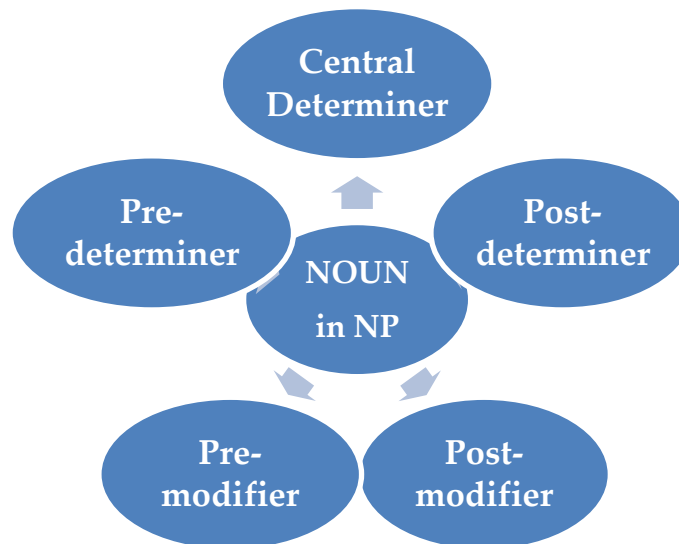
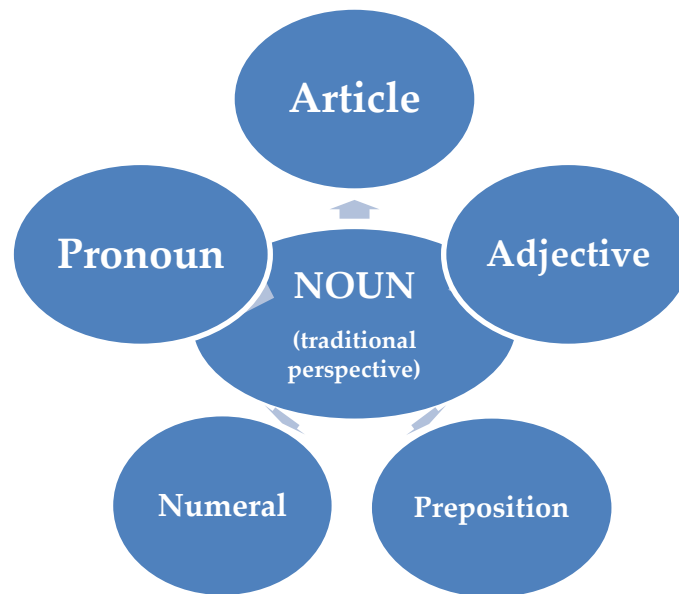
The modifier, on the other hand, often a dispensable ornament, is used to categorise, classify, label (e.g. *a children's book*; *an electric train*) or describe (e.g. *a red apple*, *a beautiful woman*) the head noun.

The **pre-modifier** (experientially the **epithet** and the **classifier**) is **different from the determiner** in certain ways. While the **determiner** function is realised by **closed class items** which **define** and **select** the referent, the **pre-modifier** function **describes** or **classifies** the referent by means of **open-class items**, mainly **adjectives** and **nouns**. Unlike the determiner, these are **optional**. Furthermore, and again unlike determinatives, there is **no grammatical constraint on the number of modifiers placed before a noun**. (Downing & Locke, 2006: 436)

³¹ Retrieved from grammar.yourdictionary.com/parts-of-speech/nouns/what/what-is-a-determiner.html (March 2015).

Models for Noun Phrases

When talking about (noun) phrases, word-classes are no longer as relevant as they used to be in traditional grammar. The noun is no longer perceived by itself only, but accompanied by its “satellites”. The noun’s satellites, in modern linguistics, remain the same, but are not grouped according to their grammatical / morphological value (as in: article, adjective etc.), but according to a different criterion: namely the way in which they AFFECT the noun in question (by determining it or by modifying it).



We have seen (especially in the *green-eyed black cats* examples) that noun phrases have a virtually unlimited potential for expansion. Expansion allows for a significant amount of content information to be packed into a small amount of text. Here are some more patterns (the boldfaced word represents the head noun in each noun phrase):

Jonathan Gili was	a collector .
	a discriminating collector .
	a highly discriminating collector .
	a highly discriminating collector of sardine tins.
	a highly discriminating collector of sardine tins and Star War figures.
	a highly discriminating collector of sardine tins, fridge magnets and Star War figures.

(adapted from Seely, 2007: 71)

- a) a **table**
 b) a kitchen **table**
 c) a wooden kitchen **table**
 d) a Chinese wooden kitchen **table**
 e) a brown Chinese wooden kitchen **table**
 f) a dark brown Chinese wooden kitchen **table**
 g) an old dark brown Chinese wooden kitchen **table**
 h) an expensive old dark brown Chinese wooden kitchen **table**
 i) those two expensive old dark brown Chinese wooden kitchen **tables** etc.

(Ruiz de Mendoza Ibáñez, 2015: 152)

spiders
 the three **spiders**
 the three redback **spiders**
 the three shiny redback **spiders**
 the smallest of the three shiny redback **spiders**
 the smallest of the three shiny redback **spiders** in the corner
 the smallest of the three shiny redback **spiders** spinning their webs in the corner

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A head noun and its modifiers. From Eggins, *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics* (2nd ed.) by S. Eggins, p. 96. Copyright 2004 by Continuum International. (O'Malley, 2013: 16-17)

muscles
 your four **muscles**
 your four shoulder **muscles**
 your four strong shoulder **muscles**
 the biggest of your four strong shoulder **muscles**
 the biggest of your four strong shoulder **muscles** on each side
 the biggest of your four strong shoulder **muscles** connected by tendons on each side

(Swierzbinska, 2014, n.p.)

The basic patterns for noun phrases can thus be summarised as follows:

BASIC PATTERNS	EXAMPLES ³²
Pronoun	They
Noun alone	Apples
Proper noun	Apple [Martin]
Determiner + noun	The apples
Determiner + modifier + noun	The biggest apples
Determiner + noun + extension	The apples in this box
Determiner + modifier + noun + extension	The biggest apples in this box

The *extension* mentioned in the table above often means a phrase introduced by a preposition, but sometimes it can be an infinitive (e.g. *the ability to think outside the box*) or a clause (e.g. a relative clause, as in *the professor whom I met at the conference*). Identifying the nature of the clause involved counts among the **steps** Bonnie Swierzbina recommends taking in **analysing NPs**:

1. identify noun phrases
2. classify the parts of a noun phrase (determiner, premodifier, head noun, postmodifier)
3. classify each postmodifier as a phrase or a clause; if it is a clause, classify it as finite or non-finite
4. categorise each noun phrase as simple or complex. (Swierzbina, 2014, n.p.)

Embedded³³ Phrases & Determiners. A **complex noun phrase** usually contains **embedded phrases (phrases within phrases)**, such as in the aforementioned example *a street leading to the flower market in Covent Garden* (with headword *street*, determiner *a*, and multiple post-modification: prepositional phrases answering the questions *leading where? which market?*). Other examples are written below in bold:

*Suddenly there was a flash of light, and in front of Cinderella stood **a man dressed in loose-fitting, all-cotton clothes and wearing a wide-brimmed hat.***³⁴

*It was **the last event in a series of incidents in Twin Peaks.***

Both pre-head information (premodification) and post-head information (postmodification) can be embedded; however, embedded postmodification is more common and can be more complex than premodification.

Embedded Premodification: Take the noun phrase *a call centre worker*, for example: its headword is noun *worker*; it has a determiner (indefinite pronoun *a*) and is premodified by a(nother) noun phrase, namely *call centre* [*centre* = headword; *call* = nominal premodifier]. *English noun phrase structure* is made up of headword *structure* plus premodifying noun phrase *English noun phrase*, which in its turn is made up of the noun phrase *noun phrase* (premodifier: *English*). Finally, *noun phrase* itself has *phrase* as head and *noun* as premodifier. Embedded premodification can be ambiguous, as in *international law conference*:

[(*international law*) conference] [a conference on international law; *international* and *law* are modifiers of headword *conference*]

[*international* (*law conference*)] [an international conference on legal matters; *international* is modifier of the NP *law conference*, which is made up of headword *conference* and modifier *law*]

Embedded Postmodification: The underlined NP in the following sentence contains embedded postmodification. Much like a **nesting** or **stacking doll**, the larger NP unfolds another NP which in turn holds another one a.s.o.

³² Retrieved from <http://linguapress.com/grammar/noun-phrases.htm> and revised.

³³ **Embedding / Nesting:** "A term used in generative grammar to refer to the process or construction where one sentence is included (**embedded**) in another, i.e. in syntactic subordination." (Crystal, 2008: 166-167) More broadly, *embedding* refers to the inclusion of any linguistic unit as part of another unit of the same general type.

³⁴ James Finn Garner, *Cinderella*.

The debate over the fight with the new members lasted two hours and a half.

[the debate [over [the fight [with [the new members]]]]]	Noun Phrase
[over [the fight [with [the new members]]]]	Prepositional Phrase
[the fight [with [the new members]]]	Noun Phrase
[with [the new members]]	Prepositional Phrase
[the new members]	Noun Phrase

Postmodification can also be ambiguous sometimes, as in *the man in front of the building facing the hotel*, which can be interpreted either as a NP with **aligned postmodification** [the man who was in front of the building and **who** was facing the hotel] or a NP with **embedded postmodification** [the man who was in front of the building **which** was facing the hotel].

Embedded Determiners: Determiners, in their turn, are not always simple (e.g. *the / some / my / those cats*); they can also be **embedded**, as in *the film's premise*, *other people's affairs* or *my grandmother's pets*:

- [(the) film's] *premise*
premise = headword
the film's = determiner with its own determiner, article *the*
- [(other) people's] *affairs*
affairs = headword
other people's = determiner with its own determiner, *other*
- [(my) grandmother's] *pets*

NP

my grandmother's *pets*

Determiner Head

my *grandmother's*

Determiner Head

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Types of Noun Phrases. Here is an inventory of the elements in the noun phrase which determine special types of NPs:

Embedded noun phrases:	▫ <i>the indication of gender in the English noun</i> ▫ <i>a highly discriminating collector of sardine tins</i> ▫ <i>smartly dressed wealthy art lovers</i>	Complex Noun Phrases Inside the NPs given as example there are prepositional phrases, adjective phrases etc.
Long compound noun phrases (noun + noun sequences):	▫ <i>uniform resource locator protocol problem</i>	Stacked / Packed Noun Phrases
Multiple heads:	▫ <i>Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde</i> ▫ <i>Laurel and Hardy</i> ▫ <i>night and day</i> ▫ <i>the fox and the raven</i>	Coordinated Noun Phrases "Noun phrases conjoined with a coordinating conjunction such as <i>and</i> or <i>or</i> are considered coordinated noun phrases ." (O'Malley, 2013: 20)
Nouns in apposition:	▫ <i>the journal Nature</i> ▫ <i>night, the opposite of day</i>	Appositive Noun Phrases "A noun phrase that directly follows

	▫ <i>the first man on the moon, the astronaut John Glenn / John Glenn, the astronaut, was at the reception.</i> ▫ <i>My favorite teacher, a fine chess player in her own right, has won several state-level tournaments.</i>	another noun phrase and renames that noun is called an appositive noun phrase." (O'Malley, 2013: 20)
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Discontinuous Noun Phrases. To the examples in the table above we might add another, the Discontinuous NPs. The constituents of complex noun phrases, usually contiguous with one another, are sometimes separated by an intervening phrase or clause to form **discontinuous noun phrases**. Opinions differ as to the most likely noun phrase constituent to be separated from the headword. Quirk *et al.* (1985), for example, claim that postmodifiers in general have a penchant for separation, whereas Keizer (2007)'s votes are in favour of prepositional phrases. Keizer believes that the use of a particular word order is inspired by the speaker's estimation of its effect versus the cost of production / processing and that in choosing the most optimal word order available, a speaker is often involved in some kind of balancing act. (Keizer, 2007: 280, 306)

*In **a recent article** in the British journal *Design Week* **on essential studio equipment**, Glen Tutssel, creative director of London practice Michael Peters, said he would never flee from a flame-engulfed studio without his battered 15-year-old Faber-Castell clutch pencil.* (Keizer, 2007: 304)

***A report** was issued **on recent events**.*

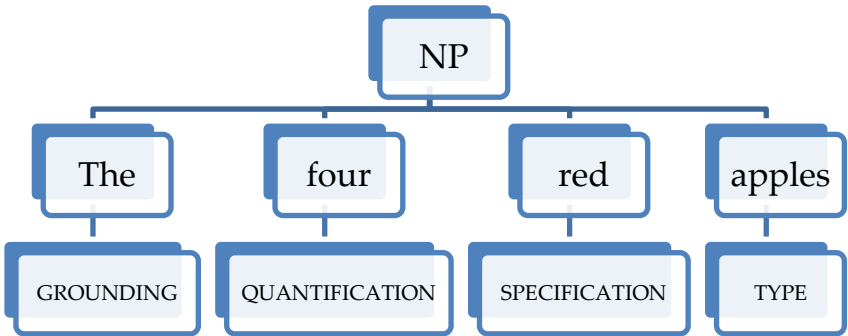
***A man** came in **who had a goatee**.*

Conceptual Organisation of Noun Phrases

We have seen that noun phrases may exhibit considerable internal complexity from a structural point of view. From a conceptual point of view, it is generally considered that NPs have four main components:

- (i) **Specification.** A given noun is a type that may be specified by using an adjective modifying it (*e.g. red apple* still designates an apple but it is more specific).
- (ii) **Instantiation.** The relation between the type and its instances (*i.e.*, those which are candidates to be selected by the noun phrase). While the noun designates a type, a noun phrase designates an instance of the type.
- (iii) **Quantification.** Refers to the quantity of the designated instances.
- (iv) **Grounding.** The speaker locates the designated instance from the perspective of the speech event (*e.g.* whether it is definite or indefinite).

These aspects are, as pointed out by Iria Pastor Gómez, deeply interconnected. Thus, specification is internal to instantiation, and quantification is internal to grounding. Dependents define specification, determiners specify grounding, while quantifiers specify quantification. The following figure will serve as an illustration. (Pastor Gómez, 2009: 10)



A Question of Terminology: Noun Phrase vs. Nominal Group

Although **noun phrase (NP)** and **nominal group (NG)** are perceived by many linguists as virtually synonymous, M. A. K. Halliday, who advocates a functionalist approach to grammar, differentiates between them:

A **phrase** is different from a **group** in that, whereas a **group is an expansion of a word, a phrase is a contraction of a clause**. Starting from opposite ends, the two achieve roughly the same status on the rank scale, as units that lie somewhere between the rank of a clause and that of a word. (Halliday, 2004: 311)

Halliday therefore prefers the label *nominal groups* for what we have been defining and illustrating as *noun phrases*. Here is the structure of a nominal group, which he calls “experiential”, the way he sees it:

<i>those</i>	<i>two</i>	<i>splendid</i>	<i>old</i>	<i>electric</i>	<i>trains</i>
Deictic	Numerative	Epithet ₁	Epithet ₂	Classifier	Thing
determiner	numeral	adjective	adjective	adjective	noun

Experiential structure of part of a **nominal group** (Halliday, 2004: 312)

Matthiessen *et al.* (2010) also point out that:

A group is in many respects a group of words or a word complex: words enter into logical structure to form a group. This aspect of the group explains its difference from the phrase; a phrase does not have a logical (univariate) structure but rather an experiential (multivariate) structure: the structure of the prepositional phrase is like a miniature or the transitivity structure of the clause. [...] Outside systemic linguistics, the distinction between group and phrase is not usually made; phrase is the usual term for both (*cf.* noun phrase, verb phrase and prepositional phrase). While the nominal group of systemic linguistics is comparable to the noun phrase in formal grammar (although they are interpreted in terms of different types of structure), the verbal group is not equivalent to the verb phrase; the verbal group is a purely verbal construct while the verb phrase is roughly the predicate of traditional grammar and logic. (Matthiessen *et al.*, 2010: 112)

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For the purposes of such a study as this, *noun phrase* and *nominal group* could be used interchangeably; nevertheless, for the sake of terminological homogeneity, we choose the former term over the latter all along.

PRACTICE. Jumbled Noun Phrases.** Arrange the following lists of words so as to make up noun phrases. Compare your answers with your classmates’ —the NPs should all be the same (with one exception, where there are two possibilities)³⁵:

1. table, the, small, wooden
2. books, those, moldy, in the basement
3. new, recipe, this, lasagna
4. gentle, a, on the head, tap
5. my, sneakers, roommate’s, new

³⁵ Adapted from Kolln & Funk (2012: 26).

THE VERB PHRASE

A verb phrase consists of a noun and all the words and word groups that belong with the verb and cluster around it. The verb itself is called the “headword” or “head”, and the other words and word groups are the auxiliaries, modifiers and complements of the verb. (Stageberg & Goodman, 1977: 187)

Depending on the nature of the verbal form (**finite / lexical / full** verb or **non-finite**³⁶), verb phrases / clauses are also classified into **finite / non-finite**.

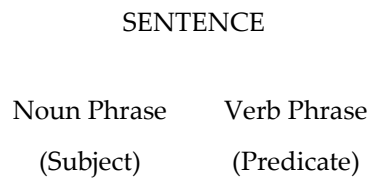
Examples of (finite) verb phrases include *has been practising*, *will conquer*, and *does believe*. Common helping verbs include words like: *am, are, be, been, being, can, could, did, do, does, doing, had, has, have, having, is, may, might, must, shall should, was, were, will, would*.

A verb phrase often includes **adverb(ial)s** (*John speaks **fluently***.) as well as other components, depending on whether the verb is **transitive** (*Jane loves cats*.) or **intransitive** (*Cats fight*.)

Just as there are **single-word noun phrases**, so there are **single-word verb phrases**.

The NP and the VP are the main constituents of a sentence (NP + VP = S).

The following diagram presents the sentence with its basic constituents in both form (NP, VP) and function (Subject, Predicate) (after Kolln & Funk, 2012: 20):



There are three main types of non-finite verbal forms: participles, gerunds and infinitives.

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THE PARTICIPLE PHRASE

Present participles, verbals ending in *-ing*, and **past participles**, verbals that end in *-ed* (for regular verbs) or other forms (for irregular verbs: *-en* as in *broken*, *-d* as in *said*, *-t* as in *lent*, and *-n* as in *woven*), are combined with objects / complements and modifiers and become part of phrasal structures. Participial phrases always act as **adjectives**. When they begin a sentence, they are followed by a comma; otherwise, they are set off by commas, as if between parentheses.

Here are some examples:

*The stone steps, **having been worn down** by generations of students, needed to be replaced.* [modifies “steps”]

***Working around the clock**, the firefighters finally put out the last of the California brush fires.* [modifies “firefighters”]

*The pond, **frozen over since early December**, is now safe for ice-skating.*³⁷ [modifies “pond”]

THE GERUND PHRASE

Gerunds, the second type of verbal, ends in *-ing* and functions as **nouns** (e.g. *Learning is fun*. *Clara loves swimming*. *Jane has a love for travelling*.). **Gerund phrases** usually include a **gerund + modifiers + complements** (other words that complete the idea begun by the gerund). Although they contain a non-finite verbal form as their head, they can be considered **NP substitutes**:

³⁶ A **finite verb** is a form of verb that has a subject (either explicit or implicit) and can function as the head of an independent / main clause which, in its turn, can stand alone as a complete sentence. A finite verbal form permits formal contrast in tense and mood. **Non-finite verbal forms**, on the other hand, occur on their own only in dependent clauses and do not have markers indicating tense or mood.

³⁷ Retrieved from grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/phrases.htm.

Clara enjoyed swimming in the lake.
Passing the soccer ball was really difficult.

THE INFINITIVE PHRASE

The third type of verbal form, in addition to the participle and the gerund, is the **infinitive**. An infinitive phrase is basically a noun phrase with an infinitive as its head. An infinitive is composed of the word *to* plus a verb (e.g. *to make, to create, to fight, to purr*). **Infinitive phrases** most commonly function as:

- **nouns** (e.g. *To make other people happy* is Lorelei’s major goal in life. *To know her* is **to love her**.), but sometimes also as
- **adjectives** (e.g. *the musical to see; the worst thing to happen during a storm*), or
- **adverbs** (e.g. *The stranger swam out to save the struggling swimmer. He went to college to study Law*.).

THE ADJECTIVE PHRASE

An adjective phrase is a phrase whose headword is an adjective (e.g. *very difficult, quite upset about it*). Adverbs (*very difficult, quite upset, highly discriminating, smartly dressed*) and clauses (*faster than you do, glad that she came*) are typical elements found in an AdjP.

Adjective phrases can be either **attributive** (usually modifying a noun) or **predicative** (usually following a linking verb like BE):

Dad ordered a very spicy pizza. [attributive adjective phrase]
The pizza is very spicy. [predicative adjective phrase]

The difference between them lies in the fact that **attributive adjective phrases** appear inside the noun phrase they modify, whereas **predicative adjective phrases** usually appear outside the noun phrase they modify, after a linking verb like BE (*The man is proud. The pizza is spicy*.).

The term *adjectival phrase* is sometimes used instead of *adjective phrase*. Also, *adjectival phrase* is sometimes used as an umbrella term for any kind of attributive phrase (i.e. used in attributive position), irrespective of the fact that structurally and technically that might be a noun phrase or a prepositional phrase, and not necessarily an adjective phrase.

In the present book, however, *adjectival phrase* and *adjective phrase* are not used interchangeably, as perfect synonyms. We employ *adjectival phrase* whenever a phrase is functioning like an adjective phrase would, without actually containing an adjective (*of wealth* in *a man of wealth* actually means “wealthy”; *of interest* in *a topic of interest* means more or less “interesting” etc.).

The following table shows the structure of the AdjP.

The weather was	Premodification	Head	Postmodification	
				Complementation
		pleasant.		
	too	hot		to be enjoyable.
	incredibly	cold.		
		pleasant	enough.	

Adjective Phrase (Quirk *et al.*, 1985: 63)

THE ADVERB PHRASE

An adverb phrase is a phrase whose headword is an adverb. The table below shows its structure:

I spoke to him	Premodification	Head	Postmodification	
				Complementation
		yesterday.		
	quite	often.		
	very	severely	indeed.	
	as	clearly		as I could.

Adverb Phrase (Quirk *et al.*, 1985: 63)

THE PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

We have seen so far that in noun phrases, adjective phrases or adverb phrases, the head is the main element to which the other elements, if present, are subordinate. A prepositional phrase, too, is a phrase that begins with a preposition headword, but unlike NPs, AdjPs and AdvPs, it is not head-centered. In a prepositional phrase (PP), the relation between the preposition and the nominal unit that follows it (e.g. *in* chancery, *on* the moon) does not centre on a head; rather, the elements of this two-part structure are co- or inter-dependent: a preposition cannot normally occur without a nominal unit, and a nominal unit cannot be part of a PP if there is no preposition. So, in a PP, both elements are equally necessary and equally important.

The **PP** is usually **a phrase embedded as a modifier in another phrase, typically a noun phrase**. In the following examples, we have a series of NPs containing PPs which, in their turn, comprise NPs. The headwords of the encompassing NPs are shown in bold, whereas the PPs are underlined; we can see that the PPs follow the headword of the encompassing NP and are meant to clarify or detail it:

- *my **aunt** from Canada*
- *a **collection** of old books*
- *the **pilgrimage** to Jerusalem*
- *the **house** near the corner*
- *a **ticket** for the concert.*

[(*my aunt*) (*from Canada*)]

[NP]

my aunt from Canada

(NP)

(PP)

my aunt from Canada

Det. Head Head NP

The **prepositions** used in PPs can be either **simple** (*in, on, of, for, from, to, near, about, with* etc.) or **compound** (*according to, because of, except for, instead of, on account of, with regard to, in spite of* etc.)

The “nominal unit” mentioned before, which normally accompanies the preposition, is often called **(prepositional) object / complement**. The object (in bold) can be:

- a noun (e.g. *the day before **Christmas***)
- a pronoun (e.g. *a conversation with **him***)
- certain adjectives (e.g. *lady in **red**, words in **bold***)
- a noun phrase (e.g. *a collection of **old books***)
- a nominal *-ing* clause [non-finite clause containing a present participle] (e.g. *the rush of **leaving on vacation***)
- a nominal *wh*-clause [clause beginning with *who, which, how* etc.] (e.g. *the days on **which they fly***)

Internal Structure of the Prepositional Phrase. The basic structure of PPs consists of a **preposition** and its **complement**, both of which are obligatory. It can be represented as follows:

	Preposition	Prepositional Complement
I met her	for	lunch.
	at	the corner of the street.
	on	Saturday morning.
	by	a strange coincidence.

Prepositional Phrase (Quirk *et al.*, 1985: 63)

Sometimes, prepositional phrases also contain **modifiers** (which are optional). Modifiers typically intensify the preposition by adding specific information related to exactness, immediacy, completion (*right into the ocean*) or exclusiveness (*only by studying*).

Prepositional Phrase		
Modifier	Preposition	Object / Complement
right	into	the ocean
completely	out of	control
just	at	that time
only	by	studying

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Adjectival vs. Adverbial PPs. Like adjective phrases, prepositional phrases are of two types: **adjectival** and **adverbial**³⁸. In the following examples, the same PP, *from abroad*, is used first adjectivally, and then adverbially:

*My aunt **from abroad** is extremely fond of cats.* [adjectival prepositional phrase]

*My aunt just came back **from abroad**.* [adverbial prepositional phrase]

*My aunt is **from abroad**.* [adverbial prepositional phrase]

In the first, *from abroad* tells **which** aunt I am referring to; it modifies a noun (phrase), it functions like an adjective would, therefore it is **adjectival**. In the second and third sentences, *from abroad* tells **where** she came or **where** she is from; it refers back to the verb, therefore it is **adverbial**.

An adjectival prepositional phrase modifies:

- a noun (e.g. *men in black*)

³⁸ Remember that the nouns *adjective* and *adverb* name word classes: They name forms. When we add that *-al* or *-ial* suffix—*adjectival* and *adverbial*—they become the names of functions—functions that adjectives and adverbs normally perform. In other words, the terms *adjectival* and *adverbial* can apply to structures other than adjectives and adverbs—such as prepositional phrases, as we have just seen:

*Modifiers of nouns are called **adjectivals**, no matter what their form.*

*Modifiers of verbs are called **adverbials**, no matter what their form.* (Kolln & Funk, 2012: 25)

In spite of this, some grammarians use **adverbial phrase** to cover both a group of adverbs (e.g. *very quickly*) and a prepositional (or even participle) phrase acting as an adjective, and **adjectival phrase** to cover either a group of adjectives (e.g. *full of toys*) or a prepositional phrase acting as an adjective. In the present course, we will be using **adverb phrase** for any phrase containing at least one adverb (*very quickly*) and **adverbial (prepositional) phrase** for any prepositional phrase functioning adverbially (e.g. *I clarified this in two minutes.*); also, **adjective phrase** will be used for any phrase with an adjective for a headword, whereas **adjectival phrase** is reserved for prepositional phrases having the function of an adjective.

- a noun phrase (e.g. *my aunt* from abroad; *a lady* in red; *the black cats* in the corner; *the apples* in the box; *the pictures* from *the estate* of Henry Hill)
- a noun substitute (e.g. *anyone* in class).

It is identical in form to the adverbial prepositional phrase and helps identify the noun headword in relation to time, place, direction, purpose, origin, and the like.

An adverbial prepositional phrase, on the other hand, modifies:

- a verb / verb phrase (e.g. *We walked* by the river / across the ranch lands / for two hours / for pleasure).
- an adjective³⁹ (e.g. *The day was warm* from the sunshine. *She was all aglow* with pleasure. *When you have picked yourself up, helpless* with laughter, from the lino...)
- an adverb (e.g. *The party began early* in the evening.)

Another difference between the two types of PPs is that **adjectival PPs always come after the noun they modify**, whereas **some adverbial PPs are movable**.

In spring, the days are getting longer.

The days are getting longer in spring.

Sometimes, PPs can be interpreted as **either adjectival or adverbial**, such as the one in the following sentence:

We watched the dance in the great hall.

Is the dance taking place in the great hall? If so, then we are dealing with an **adjectival** prepositional phrase [Which dance? The one in the great hall].

Did we watch the dance in the great hall (possibly on TV)? If so, then the prepositional phrase was used **adverbially**.

REMEMBER!

- As an **adjective**, the prepositional phrase will answer the question *WHICH ONE? / WHAT KIND OF?* (e.g. *the food on the table; the librarian at the check-out desk*)
- As an **adverb**, a prepositional phrase will usually answer questions such as
 - *HOW?* (e.g. *He opened the can with a spoon.*)
 - *WHEN?* (e.g. *He always jogs before breakfast.*)
 - *WHERE?* (e.g. *She found the umbrella under the passenger's front seat.*)

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When a prepositional phrase is part of a noun phrase, it is, by definition, **adjectival**.

If placed at the beginning of a sentence, prepositional phrases are introductory modifiers, which usually means they are **adverbial** and should be followed by a comma.

Sentences often have more than one adverbial prepositional phrase:

We walked through the woods¹ for several hours² on Sunday³.

The following sentence implements **a string of prepositional phrases** to modify the verb *stood*.

*The old farmhouse stood for years, after the revolution, by the fork in the road, beyond the orange grove, over the wooden bridge, at the farthest edge of the family's land, toward the great basin, down in the valley, under the old mining town, outside the city's limits, and past the end of the county maintained road.*⁴⁰

PPs can also be **embedded** (an adjectival prepositional phrase to identify or describe the object of another preposition, either adjectival or adverbial):

He got advice from all the people in the neighbourhood.

³⁹ For Quirk *et al.*, the PP which modifies an adjective, as in *I'm sorry for his parents*, is the complement of the adjective. (Quirk, 1985: 657)

⁴⁰ Retrieved from <http://grammar.yourdictionary.com/parts-of-speech/prepositions/Prepositional-Phrases.html> (August 2016).

Sometimes PPs are not (only) embedded, but **aligned**. Take the examples:

*He went **to the store** on the corner.* [embedded PPs; *on the corner* refers back to *store*]

*He went **to**⁴¹ **the store** **on Friday**.* [aligned PPs; *to the store* and *on Friday* both refer back to the verb, one of them indicating place, the other indicating time]

PRACTICE. PPs: Adjectival vs. Adverbial.** In the following sentences, identify the function of each of the underlined prepositional phrases as either adjectival (ADJ) or adverbial (ADV):

1. A huge crowd of graduate students lined the streets for the big parade.
2. Orlando's brother studies in the library on the weekends.
3. The show on television tonight presents the most dangerous animals in Asia.
4. In August they usually go to Germany.
5. On sunny days we go in the park between classes.

Discontinuous PPs. Under certain grammatical circumstances, PPs are left incomplete. This usually happens with prepositions whose object occurs earlier in the sentence or is absent altogether. Such prepositions, called *dangling / hanging / stranded / deferred prepositions*, appear in four main types of constructions:

- *wh*-questions (e.g. *What is she talking **about**?*)
- relative clauses (e.g. *the book I was looking **for***)
- passive voice constructions (e.g. *The car has already been paid **for**.*)
- infinitive phrases (e.g. *There is nothing to be scared **of**. They need something to talk **about**.*)

THE APPOSITIVE PHRASE

An **appositive** is a noun or pronoun (often with modifiers) placed beside another noun or pronoun in order to explain, clarify or identify it. Essentially, an appositive is therefore a re-naming or amplification of a word that immediately precedes it. No verb appears in an appositive phrase.

In *John Smith, the butcher, came in*, for example, there are two noun phrases; they have identity of reference; and they have the same syntactic function (as indicated by the omissibility of either, without this affecting the sentence's acceptability, e.g. *John Smith came in* / *The butcher came in*). They are therefore said to be **in apposition** or in an **appositive** or **appositional** relationship. (Crystal, 2008: 31)

Noun phrases, Gerund phrases and Infinitive phrases can be used appositively (apposition underlined):

Appositive Noun Phrase	<i>My uncle, <u>a famous doctor from Harley Street</u>, did not anticipate the seizure. On school mornings my father would prepare breakfast – <u>re-heated porridge with golden syrup, bacon, toast</u>...</i> ⁴²
Appositive Gerund Phrase	<i>His favourite exercise, <u>walking briskly</u>, was no longer possible.</i>
Appositive Infinitive Phrase	<i>Lorelei's major goal in life, <u>to become a doctor</u>, is finally within her grasp.</i>

We can think of appositives and appositive phrases as if they were in parentheses.

⁴¹ Prepositional phrases can be confused with infinitive phrases. *To* followed by a verb is an infinitive, but *to* followed by a noun or pronoun is a prepositional phrase.

to + verb = infinitive

to + noun / pronoun = PP

⁴² Julian Barnes, *The Pedant in the Kitchen. A Late-Onset Cook*.

PRACTICE. Appositives.** Insert an appositive phrase into each of the following sentences. Remember that verbs are not included in appositives or appositive phrases.

1. I just finished reading my favorite book,
2. Our class members recently visited Poland's capital city,
3. Barack Obama, , attended Harvard College.
4. December, , seems to go by very quickly each year.
5. Derek's most cherished wish, , will be broken to pieces.⁴³

THE ABSOLUTE PHRASE

In Kolln & Funk's words, the *absolute phrase* (also known as the *nominative absolute*) is "a structure independent from the main sentence; in **form** the **absolute phrase** is a **noun phrase that includes a postnoun modifier**. The modifier is commonly an **–en or –ing participle or participial phrase**, but it can also be a **prepositional phrase**, an **adjective phrase**, or a **noun phrase**." (2012: 199)

Absolute phrases do not directly modify any specific word in the rest of the sentence; rather, **they modify the entire sentence**, adding information. They are always set off from the rest of the sentence with a comma or a pair of commas (sometimes by a dash or pair of dashes).

Absolute phrases contain a subject, but no finite verbal form.

The season nearly finished, they went back home.

She went back home, her face beaming with joy.

When the participle of an absolute phrase is a form of *to be*, such as *being* or *having been*, the participle is often left out but understood.

The season [being] over, they were mobbed by fans in Times Square.

*[Having been] Stars all their adult lives, they seemed used to the attention.*⁴⁴

Another kind of absolute phrase is found after a modified noun; it adds a focusing detail or point of focus to the idea of the main clause. This kind of absolute phrase can take the form of a prepositional phrase, an adjective phrase, or a noun phrase.

*The old firefighter stood over the smoking ruins, his senses alert to any sign of another flare-up.*⁴⁵

A noun phrase can also exist as an absolute phrase:

Your best friends, where are they now, when you need them?

*And then there was my best friend Sally — the dear girl — who has certainly fallen on hard times.*⁴⁶

⁴³ Adapted from Umstatter (2010: 46).

⁴⁴ Examples retrieved from grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/phrases.htm.

⁴⁵ Examples retrieved from grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/phrases.htm.

⁴⁶ Examples retrieved from grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/phrases.htm.

SEMINAR on (NOUN) PHRASES

COURSE # 2 IN A NUTSHELL

▪ Phrase: a word or group of words that functions as a unit within the sentence. ▪ Phrases are named after the class of word upon which they are based (<i>i.e.</i> upon their headword): a Noun Phrase is a phrase whose head is a noun; a Prepositional Phrase is headed by a preposition a.s.o.		
TYPE OF PHRASE	STRUCTURE / TYPE	EXAMPLES
Noun Phrase	[optional] determiners + [optional] premodifiers + head + [optional] postmodifiers	<i>my best friend in town</i>
Gerund Phrase	gerund + NP	<i>I like climbing mountains.</i>
Infinitive Phrase	infinitive + NP	<i>I would like to climb mountains.</i>
Appositive Phrase	Appositive Noun Phrase	<i>Jane, my best friend, lives here.</i>
	Appositive Gerund Phrase	<i>Her only physical exercise, walking rapidly, proved beneficial in the end.</i>
	Appositive Infinitive Phrase	<i>My great-aunt's goal in life, to become a certified flight instructor, was never achieved.</i>
Verb Phrase	auxiliary verb(s) + main verb + verb ending [when necessary]	<i>He was watching his favourite TV series yesterday at 5.</i> <i>should have been writing</i> [should, have = auxiliaries; write = main verb; -ing = verb ending]
Adjective Phrase	[optional] qualifier + adjective	<i>very eager</i>
Adverb Phrase	[optional] qualifier + adverb	<i>very quickly</i>
Prepositional Phrase	adjectival	<i>The food on the table looks scrumptious.</i>
	adverbial	<i>Jane put the food on the table and left.</i>
Participle Phrase	present / past participle	<i>I think the guy sitting over there likes you.</i> <i>Crushed to pieces by a sledgehammer, the computer no longer worked.</i> ⁴⁷
Absolute Phrase	noun + participle + optional modifier(s) / object(s)	<i>My cake finally baking in the oven, I was free to rest for thirty minutes.</i> ⁴⁸

⁴⁷ Examples retrieved from learningnerd.com/2006/09/06/english-grammar-types-of-phrases/.⁴⁸ Examples retrieved from learningnerd.com/2006/09/06/english-grammar-types-of-phrases/.

COURSE # 2 FURTHER PRACTICE

PRACTICE Noun Phrases*.** Underline the noun phrases in the following sentences. For each of them use (H) to indicate the headword, (D) for determiners and (M) for modifiers. Mind the embedded phrases or determiners.

1. His family's old clothes were donated to some poor families.
2. He did not watch this year's Oscars.
3. The aroma of his mother's freshly baked cookies is filling the air.
4. The elderly lady went to the doctor's office today.
5. *Cat on a Hot Tin Roof* is a play by Tennessee Williams.
6. Samantha's weedy overgrown patio turned into a magnificent flower garden.
7. The athletes with the best chance to win are never late.
8. The first creatures to fly in a man-made craft were a duck, a cockerel, and a sheep.
9. The yo-yo and the doll are the world's oldest toys.
10. The industrially advanced countries do most of the world's trading.

PRACTICE NP & PP Ambiguity*.** Comment on the ambiguity of the following NPs and PPs. Paraphrase them so as to make each of their meanings clearer.

1. the house in the forest by the lake
2. a toy factory
3. an old French student
4. a woman's heart
5. the guard bringing a man with a scar on his face

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PRACTICE Prepositional Phrases.** Underline the prepositional phrases in the following text:

The hills across the valley of the Ebro were long and white. On this side there was no shade and no trees and the station was between two lines of rails in the sun. Close against the side of the station there was the warm shadow of the building and a curtain, made of strings of bamboo beads, hung across the open door into the bar, to keep out flies. The American and the girl with him sat at a table in the shade, outside the building. It was very hot and the express from Barcelona would come in forty minutes. It stopped at this junction for two minutes and went on to Madrid.⁴⁹

PRACTICE Prepositional Phrases.** Underline the prepositional phrases in the following sentences and identify them as adjectival (ADJ) or adverbial (ADV). (Note: Prepositional phrases modifying nouns are adjectival. Prepositional phrases modifying verbs are adverbial.)

1. The trees along the river have been pruned.
2. Some of the boats were moving along the river.
3. The magician with the rabbit greatly entertained the children.
4. With the rabbit, the magician greatly entertained the children.
5. During the storm the cats were really frightened.
6. The noise during the storm really frightened the cats.
7. *The Sky Above Us* is a 2015 film.
8. The planes directly above us make a lot of noise.
9. Their conversation at the airport does not bode well.
10. At the airport, they had a heated conversation on the report.

⁴⁹ Ernest Hemingway, *Hills like White Elephants*.

11. The flight is at 9.15; let's have dinner in the meantime.
12. As word spread throughout the neighborhood, his home had been twice targeted by burglars.
13. Arsenal are today expected to announce annual figures that will leave many rival Premier League clubs green with envy.⁵⁰
14. Though he lost, Kenneth was actually quite happy with the outcome.
15. It is common for certain routes not to be run late at night.
16. No student is on duty today.
17. He grabbed the opportunity with both hands.
18. Many paths lead to the top of the mountain.
19. On a cold November afternoon, the missing parent came back.
20. The students from my study group always go out on sunny days.
21. According to Freud, personality develops during childhood.
22. In spite of his aversion to public speaking, Nathaniel Hawthorne made an excellent after-dinner speech.
23. If you leave the smallest corner of your mind vacant for a moment, other people's opinions will rush in from all quarters.⁵¹
24. The murder in the meadows outside the city daunted us all.
25. The Flintstones stayed at a ski lodge for a whole week during the winter break.
26. Regular consumption of dark chocolate is a good preventive strategy for cardiovascular disease in people with metabolic syndrome.
27. The students with the highest marks will receive a prize.
28. My aunt from Canada works for a family with five children.
29. Matt cancelled his contract with the firm because of financial difficulties.
30. Lavender and thyme grow wild on those steep slopes.

PRACTICE Review of Phrases***. Make up sentences using the word *funny* / *pretty*:

1. as a pre-noun modifier
2. in a prepositional phrase
3. as part of a gerund phrase
4. as part of an appositive phrase.

PRACTICE Review of Phrases***. Are the following statements true or false?

1. A noun phrase is either a pronoun or any group of words that can be replaced by a pronoun.
2. A noun phrase cannot include an adverb.
3. Determiners can be placed either before or after the NP headword.
4. Determiners cannot be embedded.
5. A gerund phrase can function as a noun substitute.
6. Prepositional phrases are not head-centered.
7. A pronoun can be the object of the preposition.
8. An adjectival prepositional phrase is a prepositional phrase modifying an adjective.
9. *He qualified for the race with flying colours* includes an adjectival prepositional phrase.
10. *A voyage to the past, a voyage to Liliput* and *a voyage to make* all contain prepositional phrases.

⁵⁰ Retrieved from <https://www.thefreelibrary.com/Finances+could+prompt+envy%3B+FOOTBALL+SHORTS%3A+ARSENAL-a0237780296> (May 2017).

⁵¹ George Bernard Shaw, *The Intelligent Woman's Guide to Socialism, Capitalism, Sovietism and Fascism*.

Course # 3 Noun Phrases: A Glimpse from Syntax

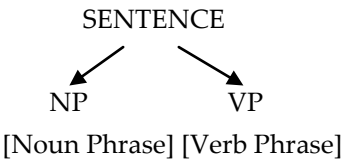
Syntactic functions are like the relationships among staff members in the organizational structure of a company. (Payne Th., 2011: 19)

- **Sentence Patterns: Subjects, Predicates and Other Slots** (The Optional Slots)
 - **Compound Structures**
 - **Syntactic Functions of the Noun Phrase**
 - **Nominals**
 - **Noun Phrase Substitutes** (Gerunds. Infinitives. Nominal Clauses)

In the previous chapters we had a look at noun phrases in terms of form. Now we are going to cast a cursory glance at the functions noun phrases can perform. To that end, we will present, following Kolln & Funk (2012), the **ten sentence patterns** accounting for the underlying skeletal structure of almost all the possible grammatical sentences. The examples will be declarative sentences exclusively, as the other types of sentences (interrogative, imperative, exclamative) may have a different word-order and a different regime.

SENTENCE PATTERNS: SUBJECTS, PREDICATES AND OTHER SLOTS

When we introduced verb phrases, we mentioned the terms *subject* and *predicate* (as sentence functions, or roles) as basic constituents of the sentence.



The predicate slot is always filled by a verb phrase; the subject slot is more often than not filled by a noun phrase, but it is possible for other structures to fill this slot too.

In the following list of patterns, the subjects are identical (*The students* – a NP we will call NP_I) but the predicates / predicated verbs are of different kinds, illustrating the various sentence patterns. The ten patterns are thus grouped according to their verb types into four categories:

- the **BE patterns** (I-III; the VP contains the verb BE, either as a main verb or as a linking verb)
- the **linking verb** patterns (IV, V; the VP contains all linking verbs other than BE)
- the **intransitive verb** pattern (VI)
- the **transitive verb** patterns (VII-X; the VP contains a main verb + objects / complements⁵²).

	SENTENCE
	NP [Subject]VP [Predicate]
I.	The students are upstairs.
II.	The students are diligent.
III.	The students are scholars.

⁵² The word *complement* refers to a “completer” of the verb.

IV.	The students	seem diligent.
V.	The students	became scholars.
VI.	The students	rested.
VII.	The students	organised a dance marathon.
VIII.	The students	gave the professor their homework.
IX.	The students	consider inventors intelligent.
X.	The students	consider the course a challenge.

(adapted from Kolln & Funk, 2012: 29)

The same examples are presented in fuller detail in yet another table. Here, there is a label in parentheses which names the **function** the slot performs in the sentence. There are also subscript numbers showing the relationship between noun phrases. Identical numbers— such as those in Patterns III and V, where both numbers are 1— show that the two noun phrases have the same referent (*i.e.* they refer to one and the same thing / person / event / concept etc.). Different numbers point to different referents.

<i>The BE Patterns</i>			
I	NP	be	ADV / TP
	[Subject]	[Predicating Verb]	[Adverbial of Time or Place]
	<i>The students</i>	<i>are</i>	<i>upstairs</i>
II	NP	be	ADJ
	[Subject]	[Predicating Verb]	[Subject Complement ⁵³]
	<i>The students</i>	<i>are</i>	<i>diligent</i>
III	NP₁	be	NP₁
	[Subject]	[Predicating Verb]	[Subject Complement]
	<i>The students</i>	<i>are</i>	<i>scholars</i>
<i>The Linking Verb Patterns</i>			
IV	NP	Linking Verb	ADJ
	[Subject]	[Predicating Verb]	[Subject Complement]

⁵³ “In the three sample sentences the subject complements are adjectives in form, as they usually are, but sometimes a prepositional phrase will fill the slot. These are set phrases, or idiomatic expressions, that name an attribute of the subject:

*Henry is **under the weather**.*

*Kim is **in a bad mood**.*

Although these sentences may look like those you saw in Partem I, you can figure out that they belong in Pattern II because you can usually think of an adjective, a single descriptive word, that could substitute for the phrase:

*Henry is **ill**.*

*Kim is **cranky**.*

You can also rule out Pattern I because *under the weather* and *in a bad mood* do not supply information of time or place.” (Kolln & Funk, 2012: 31)

An adjectival prepositional phrase can sometimes also fill the subject complement slot in Pattern IV:

*The piano sounds **out of tune**.*

*The fighter seems **out of shape**.*

	<i>The students</i>	<i>seem</i>	<i>diligent</i>	
V	NP₁	Linking Verb	NP₁	
	[Subject]	[Predicating Verb]	[Subject Complement]	
	<i>The students</i>	<i>became</i>	<i>scholars</i>	
<i>The Intransitive Verb Pattern</i>				
VI	NP	Intransitive Verb		
	[Subject]	[Predicating Verb]		
	<i>The students</i>	<i>rested</i>		
<i>The Transitive Verb Patterns</i>				
VII	NP₁	Transitive Verb	NP₂	
	[Subject]	[Predicating Verb]	[Direct Object]	
	<i>The students</i>	<i>organized</i>	<i>a dance marathon</i>	
VIII	NP₁	Transitive Verb	NP₂	NP₃
	[Subject]	[Predicating Verb]	[Indirect Object]	[Direct Object]
	<i>The students</i>	<i>gave</i>	<i>the professor</i>	<i>their homework</i>
IX	NP₁	Transitive Verb	NP₂	ADJ
	[Subject]	[Predicating Verb]	[Direct Object]	[Object Complement]
	<i>The students</i>	<i>consider</i>	<i>inventors</i>	<i>intelligent</i>
X	NP₁	Transitive Verb	NP₂	NP₂
	[Subject]	[Predicating Verb]	[Direct Object]	[Object Complement]
	<i>The students</i>	<i>consider</i>	<i>the course</i>	<i>a challenge</i>

(after Kolln & Funk, 2012: 31)

Because BE can be both a main verb and a linking verb, it was separated from the linking verb category as it represents a category by itself (Patterns I, II, III).

Out of the Linking Verb Patterns, Pattern IV is a common category for **verbs of the senses**⁵⁴ (*taste, smell, feel, sound, look*) which often link an adjective to the subject:

The soup smells good.

You look sick.

For most of these patterns, **transitivity** is essential. The 6th, Intransitive Verb Pattern, for instance, is sometimes called **the running pattern** (Verspoor & Sauter, 2000: 27), *run* being a good example of an intransitive verb. Sentences with the *running* pattern consist of a subject and predicator (optionally, by an adverbial).

John is running (fast).
 S P (A)

The <i>running</i> Pattern [INTRANSITIVE VERBS]			
John	is running.		
S	P		
The <i>being</i> Pattern			
John	is fast.		
S	P		

⁵⁴ For further information on **types of copulas / linking verbs**, see **Appendix # 5**.

John	is a student.		
S	P		
The <i>doing</i> Pattern [MONOTRANSITIVE VERBS]			
John	bought	a car.	
S	P	Od	
The <i>giving</i> Pattern [DITRANSITIVE VERBS]			
John	gave	me	his book.
S	P	Oi	Od
The <i>making/considering</i> Pattern [COMPLEX-TRANSITIVE VERBS]			
This	made	John	mad.
S	P	Od	Co
They	made	John	captain.
S	P	Od	Co
John	considered	the matter	closed.
S	P	Od	Co

Sometimes there is a thin line between transitivity and intransitivity. The so-called “**midverbs**” (Kolln & Funk, 2012: 51) display characteristics of both transitive and intransitive verbs. On the one hand, they require a complement, as transitive verbs do. On the other hand, this complement differs from mainstream direct objects (which usually indicate “what” or “whom”). Its sense is quasi-adverbial in that it provides information of amount or measure:

It weighs five pounds.

It costs twenty dollars.

Patterns IX and X illustrate those verbs that take an **object complement** following the direct object. There are two categories, depending on the form of the object complement: either an **adjective** or a **noun phrase**. As Kolln and Funk rightly point out, the function of the object complement is twofold:

- (1) it completes the meaning of the verb
- (2) it describes the direct object. (Kolln & Funk, 2012: 47)

Sometimes the object complement is signaled by *as*, which we call an **expletive**:

*We elected Tom **as** our secretary.*

*Meredith refers to Dr. Shepherd **as** “McDreamy”.*

*Dr. Sloan, on the other hand, is referred to **as** “McSteamy”.*

*I know him **as** a diligent student.*

*The witness identified the defendant **as** the burglar.*

THE OPTIONAL SLOTS

Apart from the slots already presented above (**subject**, **predicate**, **object**: either direct or indirect, **complement**: either subject or object), there is also another one, the **adverbial slot**, which but can appear in any of the ten sentence patterns. The adverbial slot is seen as **optional** because most sentences are grammatical with or without it. The only exception in Kolln & Funk’s table above is Pattern 1, where adverbials of time or place are obligatory (although there, too, we can include optional adverbials). To this, we must add another exception, related to Pattern VII: some subject-verb-direct object patterns might require an adverbial, too:

Sylvia placed the kitten on a blanket. [Sylvia = Subject; placed = Predicating Verb; the kitten – Direct Object; on a blanket = Adverbial of Place]

**Sylvia placed the kitten.*

A neighbour put a note on my door.

**A neighbour put a note.*

Adverbials usually provide information about time (*when?*, *how long?*), place (*where?*), manner (*how?*), reason (*why?*) etc. and come at the beginning, at the end or in the middle of the sentence. The **most common adverbials** are **simple adverbs** (*surprisingly, suddenly, reluctantly, rarely, sometimes*) and **prepositional phrases** (*for an hour; in a few years; in the end; for a while; on the porch floor; in the evenings*).

*The students have been upstairs **for an hour** (how long?). (Pattern I)*

*The students in this group are **surprisingly** (how?) diligent. (Pattern II)*

***In a few years** (when?), these students she will be scholars. (Pattern III)*

***Suddenly** (how?), the students seemed diligent. (Pattern IV)*

***In the end** (when?), all students will become scholars. (Pattern V)*

*The students rested **for a while** (how long?) **on the porch floor** (where?). (Pattern VI)*

***In the evenings** (when?), the students organise dance marathons. (Pattern VII)*

*The students **reluctantly** (how?) gave the professor their homework. (Pattern VIII)*

*The students **rarely** (when?) consider the teacher intelligent. (Pattern IX)*

*The students **sometimes** (when?) consider the course a challenge. (Pattern X)*

Apart from adverbs and prepositional phrases, there is also another category of words which can designate time, place, manner or quantity, namely **nouns / noun phrases which function adverbially**.

*We walked **home**.*

*They're leaving **Monday morning**.*

*She studies **four hours every day**.*

*Jane travels **a great deal**.*

*I sent the package **airmail**.*

These noun (phrases) may resemble direct objects or subject complements but they actually work like **prepositional phrases with missing prepositions**: (*on*) *Monday morning*; (*for*) *four hours*; (*by*) *airmail* etc. The traditional grammarian labels them **adverbial objectives** (Kolln & Funk, 2012: 115).

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Seen from another standpoint, the main clause types are as follows:

	S(ubject)	V(erb)	O(bject(s))		C(omplement)	A(dverbial)	≈
Type SV	Someone	was laughing.					Type VI (in Kolln & Funk, 2012)
Type SVO	My mother	enjoys	parties.				Type VII
Type SVC	The country	became			totally independent.		Type V
Type SVA	I	have been				in the garden.	Type I
Type SVOO	Mary	gave	the visitor	a glass of milk.			Type VIII
Type SVOC	Most people	consider	these books		rather expensive.		Type X
Type SVOA	You	must put	all the toys			upstairs.	-

The seven fall naturally into three main types. There are:

- a two-element pattern: *SV*
- three three-element patterns: *SV + O/C/A*
- three four-element patterns: *SVO + O/C/A* (after Quirk *et al.*, 1985: 53)

COMPOUND STRUCTURES

We rely again on Kolln & Funk (2012: 49)'s examples to illustrate the fact that every slot in the sentence patterns can be expanded, especially by coordination. Turning a single structure into a compound structure is most easily accomplished by means of coordinating conjunctions *and*, *or*, and *but*, as well as by means of correlative conjunctions *both — and*, *not only — but also*, *either — or*, and *neither — nor*.

<i>Cats and dogs fight.</i>	[Compound Subject]
<i>They either drove or took the bus.</i>	[Compound Predicate]
<i>The teacher was tough but fair.</i>	[Compound Subject Complement]
<i>I drove over the river and through the woods.</i>	[Compound Adverbial Prepositional Phrase]
<i>I finished both my biology project and my history paper.</i>	[Compound Direct Object]

PRACTICE. Sentence Patterns*.** Analyse the following sentences by identifying the slots (form & function) and sentence pattern (according to Kolln & Funk (2012)'s classification).

Example:

David's problem	was	serious.	
<i>NP</i>	<i>be</i>	<i>ADJ</i>	(Pattern II)
<i>subject</i>	<i>predicating verb</i>	<i>subject complement</i>	

1. Santa and the reins are on the roof.
2. My French teacher was exceptionally kind.
3. John is a gifted athlete.
4. Brevity is the soul of wit.⁵⁵
5. It's me.
6. That lasagna smells wonderful.
7. Going home seems sensible now.
8. On Monday the weather suddenly turned cold.
9. He became a famous writer.
10. I arrived at the party around 8 o'clock.
11. Mrs Barnaby prepared a terrific Italian dinner.
12. On Sundays Jeremy walks his dog very early.
13. Sometimes Mariah gives me her notebook.
14. My boss just promised me a raise and a fully paid trip to Hawaii.
15. Those children drive their mother crazy.
16. In the end, I proved him wrong.

⁵⁵ William Shakespeare, *Hamlet*.

17. The judge found the accused guilty.
18. Some people consider our winters excessively cold.
19. The French elected Emmanuel their President.
20. At last, the king named his youngest son his successor.

SYNTACTIC FUNCTIONS OF THE NOUN PHRASE⁵⁶

We have seen that NPs are basically made up of a head, determiners and modifiers. In their turn, they can be a part of either a **phrase** or a **clause**. It has also become self-evident by now that the most common type of phrase in which a NP can appear is simply another NP (e.g. *a first class degree*) or a PP⁵⁷ (e.g. *in other ways*).

Within a complex NP, other (embedded) NPs can function as modifiers (e.g. *a best friend contract*) or determiners (e.g. *my best friend's house*), in which case their function is basically **attributive**.⁵⁸ NPs can also function as premodifiers in adjective phrases [AdjPs] (e.g. *My best friend is 6 feet tall and 32 years old.*) or adverb phrases [AdvPs] (e.g. *My best friend left the country two weeks earlier than planned.*) Additionally, they are often used in **apposition** (e.g. *Ariel Dubois, my best friend, is a passionate cook.*)

Within a PP, NPs are **prepositional objects** (e.g. *It's a gift for my best friend.*)

Within a sentence, a NP can perform a variety of functions, among which:⁵⁹

<i>My best friend lives in Bethlehem, Pennsylvania.</i>	[Subject]
<i>I visited my best friend on Christmas.</i>	[Direct Object]
<i>I told my best friend the whole truth.</i>	[Indirect Object]
<i>Jess Esplin is my best friend.</i>	[Subject Complement]
<i>I consider Peyton my best friend.</i>	[Object Complement]
<i>My best friend arrived the day before.</i>	[Adverbial]

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NOMINALS

Up to this point, almost all the examples used to illustrate the required slots in the sentence patterns have been, for simplicity, NPs (and sometimes pronouns, which stand in for NPs); however, there are also other forms that can fill these required slots, which are not nouns / noun phrases, but behave like them. A “cover-all”, hypernymic term for such words is **nominal**, although not all linguists agree upon its meaning.

As an adjective, *nominal* is used in some grammatical descriptions in reference to or substitute for noun (e.g. nominal group = noun phrase). In a more restricted sense, and used as nouns, nominals refer to words which have some of the attributes of nouns but not all, e.g. *the rich, the poor*, where the head word of this phrase does not pluralise (**the poors*). In linguistics, the term *nominal* also covers a class of words grouping together nouns and adjectives based on shared (morphological and syntactic) properties. You remember Jespersen's

⁵⁶ Since syntax is not our primary scope here, we leave aside those aspects which are not in keeping with the simplified sentence patterns presented beforehand.

⁵⁷ For **syntactic functions of PPs**, please check **Appendix # 6**.

⁵⁸ Attributes are modifiers of a noun. They can be part of the subject, direct or indirect object, or an adverbial. Remember the definition of the attribute given in chapter 1 (*Some Definitions of Grammar*): “In terms of general logic, including that of English grammar, the attribute may be defined as the secondary part of a sentence which determines or modifies the subject of the sentence or any other noun or noun equivalent, irrespective of the syntactical role it discharges.” (Bantaş, 1996 : 165).]

view that “[a]djectives and substantives have much in common, and there are cases in which it is difficult to tell whether a word belongs to one or the other class; therefore it is convenient to have a name that comprises both...” (Jespersen, 1958: 72)

The term is also used in the classification of relative clauses (the so-called **nominal relative clause**: e.g. *What I like best is literature.*). Some linguistic theories use the term in a more general sense, as in cognitive grammar, “where ‘nominals’ (‘things’, chiefly noun phrases) are distinguished from relational expressions.” (Crystal, 2008: 328)

For Biber et al. (1999: 230), *nominals* include not only phrases headed by a noun or pronoun, but all constituents which appear in positions characteristic of noun-headed structures including, for example, phrases with adjectives as noun phrase heads (i.e. personal / abstract adjectival heads like *the poor*, *the young*, *the English*, *the unlikely* etc.).

Finally, the category *nominal* can also be understood as “an intermediate category between noun and noun phrase, and can be head of a noun phrase but also a pre-head dependent (e.g. *these commission chairman proposals*).” (Pastor Gómez, 2009: 196)

In the present book, *nominals* designate nouns, noun phrases and noun (phrase) substitutes, seen especially from the point of view of the functions they perform.

For *adjectivals* and *adverbials*, see footnote 38.

NOUN PHRASE SUBSTITUTES

The principle of substitution (see chapter 2) clearly shows that any NP can be replaced by a **personal pronoun**. Other types of **pronouns** (e.g. possessive / reciprocal pronoun / demonstrative / relative / interrogative / indefinite / *–self* pronouns) can also function as noun substitutes, as can some of the **numerals** (e.g. cardinal / ordinal / fractional numerals).⁶⁰ Concerning other types of phrases, there are three main structures that can perform the grammatical functions that noun phrases generally perform:

- 1) the gerund phrase
- 2) the infinitive phrase
- 3) the nominal clause.

GERUNDS

Whenever an *–ing* verb (present participle) is used as a nominal to fill a NP slot, it is considered a **gerund**. Gerunds generally name **actions**, **behaviors**, **states of mind** or **states of being**.

Following are examples of NP slots occupied by gerund phrases:

<i>Solving cryptic crosswords</i> is his favourite activity.	[Subject]
My parents greatly enjoy <i>solving cryptic crosswords</i> .	[Direct Object]
They work off a lot of tension by <i>solving cryptic crosswords</i> .	[Prepositional Object]
Their favourite pastime is <i>solving cryptic crosswords</i> .	[Subject Complement]
My parents' favourite pastime, <i>solving cryptic crosswords</i> , is an incredibly cheap thing to do.	[Apposition]

⁶⁰ For examples of **pronouns** and **numerals** as NP substitutes, see Appendix # 7.

A special (because controversial) case of gerund is represented by the structure **go + ing-verbs**. First of all, the verb *go* does not collocate with just any verbs. As observed by Kolln & Funk (2012: 172-173) those verbs are limited to recreational activities of various kinds:

Let's go hunting / fishing / bowling / swimming / shopping / jogging etc.), but not

**Let's go gardening / cooking / doing homework.*

Go, being nearly always intransitive, requires an adverbial; on the other hand, as the *-ing* verb names an activity, it deserves to be termed a gerund, too.

INFINITIVES

Infinitive phrases are sometimes an alternative to gerund phrases:

Leaving the scene of the accident is outrageous. [gerund]

To leave the scene of the accident is outrageous. [nominal infinitive]

Like the gerund, the nominal infinitive names an action or behavior or state of being and can fulfill four functions, as shown in the table below:

<i>To be a good translator</i> requires a great deal of work.	[Subject]
Stella wants <i>to be a UNESCO translator</i> .	[Direct Object]
Her dream is <i>to be a good translator</i> .	[Subject Complement]
Stella's ambition, <i>to be a UNESCO translator</i> , is practically unattainable.	[Apposition]

NOMINAL CLAUSES

Not only gerund and infinitive phrases can fill the NP slots, but **nominal / noun clauses** also. A nominal clause is a subordinate clause that functions as / like a NP. It is usually signalled by the following types of introductory words:

- *that* (called **expletive *that***⁶¹)
- *interrogative words* such as *what*, *where* etc.
- *if* or *whether*

*I know **that** he is here.*

*I understand **that** they launched a protest.*

*I wonder **what** took you so long.*

*I wonder **whether** the homework is necessary.*

Nominal *that* clauses can also function as subject complements and appositives, as the following examples illustrate:

<i>That the library cancelled the event</i> disappoints me.	[Subject]
My belief is <i>that personal freedom cannot grow beyond personal responsibility</i> . ⁶²	[Subject Complement]
The reviewer's opinion, <i>that the essay lacks coherence</i> , is ludicrous.	[Apposition]

⁶¹ The interrogative *what* fills a grammatical role in the clause it introduces — in this case, that of subject; the expletive does not.

⁶² Ross Parmenter, anthropologist.

SEMINAR on NOUN PHRASES: A GLIMPSE FROM SYNTAX

COURSE # 3 IN A NUTSHELL

<i>Syntactic Function</i>	Noun Phrases	NP Substitute: Gerund Phrase	NP Substitute: Infinitive Phrase	NP Substitute: Nominal Clause
Subject	X	X	X	X
Direct Object	X	X	X	
Indirect Object	X			
Prepositional Object	X	X		
Subject Complement	X	X	X	X
Object Complement	X			
Adverbial	X			
Apposition	X	X	X	X

COURSE # 3 FURTHER PRACTICE

PRACTICE. Nominal Verb Phrases Functions.** Identify the gerund phrases and infinitive phrases in the following sentences and indicate the function (subject, direct object, prepositional object, subject complement, appositive) that each one performs in its sentence.

1. Flying a plane is not as easy as it seems.
2. Your only hope is to borrow money from him.
3. My deskmate used to enjoy playing practical jokes on me.
4. The cost of living in USA is 1.43 % higher than in UK.
5. I plan to give my father a watch for Christmas.
6. My biggest fear was falling asleep during my eight o'clock class.
7. To know her is to love her.
8. Leaving the scene of the accident carries serious penalties.
9. My best friend offered to give me the money.
10. The two most important requirements for major success are being in the right place at the right time and doing something about it.⁶³

⁶³ A quote from Ray Kroc.

Chapter # 4 Determiners (I)

- **Determination & The Function of Determiner**
- **Types of Determiners** (Criteria: Structure, Class, Meaning, Formality, Order. Articles. Demonstratives & Deixis. Quantifiers: Exact vs. Non-exact. Possessive Determiners: The Double Genitive. *Wh*-Determiners. Semi-Determiners)
- **Order of Determiners, Revisited**

DETERMINATION & THE FUNCTION OF DETERMINER

Determination is a term that may be used for “the function of words and (sometimes) phrases which, in general, determine what *kind of reference* a noun phrase has: for example, whether it is definite (like *the*) or indefinite (like *a / an*), partitive (like *some*) or universal (like *all*). **Semantically, all noun phrases are determined in some way or other**; e.g. all noun phrases are either definite or indefinite in meaning. But some heads are by their very nature self-determining: proper nouns and personal pronouns, for example, are inherently definite, and in this sense incorporate their own determiner.” (Quirk *et al.*, 1985: 64)

Apart from the “inherently definite” proper nouns and personal pronouns, other typical examples of determinerless nouns are those of uncountable nouns (*Coal is cheap. Honey is tasty. Happiness is not having to set the alarm for the next day.*) or of plural nouns (*Cats chase mice. Raindrops are falling on my head.*). In most grammatical approaches, **bare plural** is the term used to refer to a plural noun phrase with no (visible) determiner. According to some linguists, all these categories of nouns can stand on their own in a sentence; they do not need determiners or other “props”. Others, on the other hand, include the so-called “zero” article among determiners.

Nevertheless, generally speaking, nouns are most of the time preceded by one or more determiners. A sentence like *News is good*, for instance, sounds grammatically incomplete. *The / this / my news is good*, on the other hand, or *No news is good news*, are more precise and this is due to the added determiners.

In his definition of **determiner**, David Crystal incorporates a little bit of its history, too.

A term used in some models of grammatical description, referring to a class of items whose main role is to co-occur with nouns to express a wide range of semantic contrasts, such as quantity or number. The articles, when they occur in a language, are the main subset of determiners (e.g. *the / a* in English); other words which can have a determiner function in English include *each / every, this / that, some / any*, all of which have a distribution which includes the article position, e.g. *the / this / some . . . cake*. Some linguists extend the application of this term to include other types of word within the noun phrase (e.g. adjectives, predeterminers), and sometimes even to include modifiers in other parts of the sentence. In some generative grammar theories, determiner is regarded as the head in combination with a noun, to produce a **determiner phrase (DP)**. The **DP hypothesis**⁶⁴ is the proposal that noun phrases are projections of the determiner. (Crystal, 2008: 140)

⁶⁴ Cf. “The assumption that **what used to be called NP should be reinterpreted in terms of DP**, that is a projection of D with a nominal complement, means that **the determiner has a central role in the nominal system.**” (Alexiadou *et al.*, 2007: xviii, emphasis added)

In the present book, however, we employ the “traditional” view on **determiners** (sometimes called **determinatives**) as a **set of closed-system⁶⁵ items** (i.e. that cannot be enriched by the creation of new words) which occur **before** the headword. The main classes of words that are termed determiners are:

- **the articles** (definite, indefinite, zero)
- **(some of) the pronouns** (demonstrative, possessive, interrogative, indefinite)
- **the numerals** (cardinal, ordinal, fractional, multiplicative, adverbial).

Secondarily, possessive nouns (e.g. *the teacher's book*, *Serena's bracelet*) and some adjectives with a restrictive or ordinal meaning (e.g. *the only problem*) can also function as determiners.

According to Kolln & Funk, the determiner class is “one of the structure classes that straddle the line between a word class and a function.” (2012: 265) Quirk *et al.* (see the definition above), Downing & Locke, as well as Payne Th., also define it on the basis of the function it performs:

As used in many linguistic theories, the term **determiner** describes a syntactic function, rather than a word class. Syntactic elements that accomplish the Determining function specify, identify, or quantify the following noun phrase, and can belong to any number of syntactic categories. (Payne Th., 2011: 167)

The determiner is an element in the syntactic or “logical” structure of the NG. The various classes of determinatives contribute to the “**experiential structure**” of the NG; that is, **their functions are semantic**, and express the different features the speaker chooses in order to select and particularise the noun referent within the context of discourse. (Downing & Locke, 2006: 424)

Determiners identify a nominal group referent by telling us WHICH or WHAT (e.g. *the only problem*) or WHOSE (e.g. *his own problems*) it is, HOW MUCH, HOW MANY (e.g. *none of the problems*; *millions of problems*), WHAT PART or DEGREE of it we are referring to, HOW BIG or FREQUENT it is, HOW IT IS DISTRIBUTED IN SPACE or TIME.

Determiners are thus instrumental in:

- defining the relationship of the noun to the speaker / listener / reader
- identifying the noun as *specific or general*
- quantifying it specifically or referring to quantity in general.

Certain determiners are restricted in their use. Numerals and uncountable nouns, for instance, cannot co-occur. When there is more than one determiner before a noun, the order in which they appear is not random. Articles and demonstratives cannot co-occur either (i.e. they are mutually exclusive) a.s.o.

Other “**built-in restrictions**” (Kolln & Funk, 2012: 267):

- some determiners signal only plural nouns (e.g. *these, those, many, few, several*)
- some only singular nouns (e.g. *a, one, each, every*)
- some only noncountables (e.g. *much, less*)
- some only countables (e.g. *few, many, a, one*)
- others both countables and uncountables (e.g. *this, some, most, all*).

⁶⁵ Nevertheless, as emphasized by Hortensia Pârlog, “some of the determiners (*much, many*) may be replaced by phrases consisting of **open-class quantifier heads** (e.g. *lot, deal, number, plenty, quantity*); they take only an *of*-phrase as postmodification. Such words, however, are only superficially heads of the noun phrase, because they do not always determine grammatical agreement: e.g. *A large number / Plenty (singular heads) of people have applied for the job.* (plural verb agreement). *The majority of the students are good.*” (Pârlog, 1995: 40, emphasis added)

Determiners that modify singular nouns		Determiners that modify plural nouns	
a	house	some	houses
the	potato	the	potatoes
this	child	these	children
that	plate	those	plates
his / her / its / their	son	his / her / its / their	sons
my / our	cap	my / our	caps
your	doctor	your	doctors
some	kid		

(Berk, 1999: 58)

	Determiners used with countable nouns	Determiners used with uncountable nouns
<i>this</i>	<i>This chair is comfortable.</i>	<i>This furniture is lovely.</i>
<i>some</i>	<i>Some chairs are expensive.</i>	<i>Some furniture is expensive.</i>
<i>most</i>	<i>Most scientific papers have references.</i>	<i>Most scientific research is expensive.</i>
<i>all</i>	<i>Not all cats hunt birds.</i>	<i>All work is useful.</i>

Some determiners, like the definite article *the* or the possessives, are extremely versatile: they can be used with all classes of nouns. The indefinite article *a*, on the other hand, displays a tendency to change meaning depending on the context; see, for instance, the sentences with *few* and *little*:

<i>He has few friends.</i> [not many; almost none; not as many as may be expected or wished for; negative meaning]	<i>He has a few friends.</i> [several] <i>He has quite a few friends.</i> [many]
<i>He's had little trouble with his car.</i> [not much; almost nothing; positive orientation] <i>No, I can't come. I have little time to myself.</i> [too little; negative orientation]	<i>He's had a little trouble with my car.</i> [some] <i>Yes, I have a little time.</i> [positive orientation]

REMEMBER! Words like *this*, *some*, *many*, and *little*, which we consider here as determiners, can also be **pronouns**. They are determiners only when they precede a noun, for example:

I would like some cake. [determiner]

I would like some. [pronoun]

PRACTICE. Determiners*. Identify the determiners in the following sentences.

1. The Law of Demand states that, if the price of a good increases while all other factors remain equal, less people will demand that good.

2. There could hardly be a happier creature than Mrs John Knightley, in this short visit to Hartfield, going about every morning among her old acquaintance with her five children, and talking over what she had done every evening with her father and sister.⁶⁶
3. There was a sharp turn at every twenty or thirty yards, and at each turn a novel effect.⁶⁷
4. In many palaces, such suites have folding doors which slide back to the walls on either hand.
5. *This Week's Music* is an American syndicated half-hour television show.
6. *Simon's Cat* is an animated series featuring the mischievous and often hilarious antics of a fat white cat and his owner Simon.
7. Each individual cat has a personality that is quite distinct from that of any of its breed or, for that matter, of its litter.⁶⁸
8. The politician's several dozen supporters continue to stand by his radical anti-government views.

TYPES OF DETERMINERS

Determiners can be classified based on several criteria, such as class, structure, position, meaning or formality scale.

DETERMINERS CLASSIFIED		
Structure	simple	<i>any letter</i>
	phrasal	<i>a few letters</i>
Word-class	articles	<i>a letter; the letter</i>
	pronouns	<i>that letter; some letters</i>
	numerals	<i>five letters</i>
	possessive nouns	<i>granny's letter; Janet's letter</i>
Meaning	identifiers	<i>your letter</i>
	quantifiers	<i>many letters</i>
Formality	formal	<i>few letters</i>
	informal	<i>heaps of letters; a passel of letters</i>
Order	pre-determiners	<i>both my letters</i>
	central determiners	<i>all those last letters</i>
	post-determiners	<i>none of those several letters</i>

Structure. Structurally, determiners can be either simple or phrasal. **Phrasal Determiners** contain a group of words, possibly a phrase (*a few people; a little time; a great deal of work; three times the sum; Steve's aunt's wig; the girl on the train's scarf*).

⁶⁶ Jane Austen, *Emma*.

⁶⁷ Edgar Allan Poe, *The Masque of the Red Death*.

⁶⁸ George S. Fichter, *Cats*.

Word-Class. Based on the **word-classes** they belong to, the most common types of determiners are:

- articles
- pronouns (demonstrative, possessive, indefinite; marginally, personal⁶⁹)
- numerals
- possessive nouns

A more detailed view is presented in the following table:

ARTICLES ⁷⁰	DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS	POSSESSIVE NOUNS	POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS ⁷¹	INDEFINITE PRONOUNS	NUMBERS
the a(n)	this / these that / those	John's my son's etc.	my / your / his / her / its / our / their / whose	several / few / each / all / little / fewer / every / both / many / more / either / some / much / most / neither / any / no / enough / less	one two first etc.

Meaning. Grammarians dwelling in the realm of noun phrase semantics, among others, may refer to two main classes of determiners: **identifiers** and **quantifiers** (Pârlog, 1995: 70-75).

Identifiers are either **definite** or **indefinite** and answer the question **which one(s)?**.

The **definite identifiers** include:

- the definite article
- the demonstratives
- the possessives
- the ordinal numerals
- *whose* and *which*⁷².

The **indefinite identifiers** are:

- the indefinite article
- the zero article
- *one, other, another, and what*⁷³.

Quantifiers answer the questions **how many / much?** and can also be **definite** and **indefinite**. The **definite quantifiers** are the cardinal, fractional, and multiplicative numerals. The **indefinite quantifiers** are *(a) few, fewer, fewest, (a) little, less, least, many, much, more, (the) most, enough, several, lot(s), a bit of, plenty of, number of, a great deal / amount of*. Some determiners can be either **identifiers** or **quantifiers**: *all, both, some, any, no, every, each, either, neither*.

In X-bar theory in linguistics, the term *specifier* is used for most categories of determiners (articles, demonstratives, quantifiers, possessive nouns and pronouns) (see **footnote 29**).

For Downing & Locke (2006), **indefinite pronouns** are **quantifiers** which can be classified as **exact** and **non-exact**, the latter category – **non-exact quantifiers** – being in its turn sub-classified as **indefinite** and

⁶⁹ *We, you* and *us* can function as **personal determiners** (e.g. *We teachers / you guys / us girls must stick together.*)

⁷⁰ The zero article is also included among determiners by many a linguist.

⁷¹ Remember that **possessive nouns as determiners may have their own determiners**: *my daughter's dress; this week's news; our cat's cradle*.

⁷² *Which* is considered to have definite reference, because it implies that the choice is made from a limited number of known items and persons. (Manoliu, 2014: 6)

⁷³ *What* has indefinite reference, because it implies a choice from an indefinite number of items or persons, not previously specified. Moreover, the answer to a *what*-question would probably be less specific than the answer to a *which*-question. (Manoliu, 2014, *ibidem*)

distributive). **Numerals** are, in this case, subsumed under **exact quantifiers**. Furthermore, Downing & Locke's 2006 book also mentions two marginal categories: **wh-determinatives** (*which, what, whose, whichever*) and **semi-determinatives** (*such, same, certain, another, other, former, latter, last, next*).

In the present book, we will follow Downing & Locke's classification (not to a tee though, because they leave articles out). Therefore, an even more detailed view of determiners, seen from the viewpoint of both the word-classes they cover and the meaning they convey, is presented as follows:

DETERMINERS						
ARTICLES	DEMONSTRATIVES	POSSESSIVES		QUANTIFIERS		
the a(n)	this, that, these, those	Pronouns	Nouns	Exact	Non-exact	
		my, your, his, her, our, their	Simon's, my cat's	cardinal and ordinal numerals	Indefinite	Distributive
					some, any, no, much, many, little, few, several	all, both, each, every, either, neither
WH- DETERMINERS				SEMI-DETERMINERS		
which, what, whose, whichever				such, same, certain, another, other, former, latter, last, next		

Formality. Determiners also differ in terms of style and formality: some of them being more often used in formal contexts (e.g. *I have **little** choice. **Few** people travelled for pleasure at the time.*) than others (e.g. *He's got **lots of** friends. He's got **loads of** / **masses of** / **heaps of** books. A housewife faces **a passel**⁷⁴ of domestic issues.*)

66

Order. All determiners are placed **before the noun** they determine, but they need to be placed in a **given order**. Most grammarians (see Greenbaum, 1991: 41) taking this yardstick into account consider three classes of **determiners**, i.e.

- **pre-determiners** (e.g. *all, both, half*)
- **central determiners** (e.g. *a(n), the, those*)
- **post-determiners** (e.g. *other, two, first*).

A NP may include determiners from each class (e.g. ***all the other** tasks; **both their** dogs*).

If articles and demonstratives are considered "classic" determiners, **predeterminers** are those items which occur before a determiner in the noun phrase (e.g. ***all / both / half** the students*). Predeterminers are **mutually exclusive** (**all both the students; *both half the students; *all half the students*). Sometimes, determiners can become predeterminers (especially when followed by *of* constructions): *some of the students; any of these problems; all of my worries; each of your friends; neither of his brothers; several of her projects; enough of their time; two or three of the rooms; few of the papers; plenty of my time; much of this olive oil* etc.

According to Th. Payne, the special quantifiers *all, both* and *half* are the core members of the class of predeterminers. Other fractions and multiples (*twice, thrice, three times* etc.) are marginal members. (Payne Th., 2011: 229)

Central determiners or determiners proper, too, are **mutually exclusive** with each other. They are:

- the articles (*a, an, the*)
- the possessives (*my, your, his, her, its, our, their; Susan's; the girl's*)
- the demonstrative pronouns (*this, these, that, those*)
- the indefinite pronouns (*some, any, no, either, neither, each, enough, much, a few, a little*)
- the interrogative pronouns (*which, what, whose, sometimes combined with ever*)

⁷⁴ A mid-19th century Americanism, corrupted form of *parcel*.

- the indefinite relative pronouns (*whatever, whichever*) and their emphatic forms (*whatsoever, whichever*).

A **postdeterminer** is a type of word which occurs after the determiner and before an adjective in a noun phrase. It is usually a quantifying word, like numerals (*one, two; first, second*), *several* or *other* (e.g. *the **three** big trees; the **other** leading men*).

Postdeterminers are not always mutually exclusive, that is why they, too, must comply with a given order (e.g. both cardinal and ordinal numerals are postdeterminers, but ordinal numerals come before cardinal numerals, as in *the **first three** times*).

From the point of view of the **place** they occupy in front of the head noun they determine, determiners can be organised as follows:

predeterminer	central determiner	post-determiner		modifier	head
	a, the, zero				
			one, two		
	this, that, these, those				
		first, second			
half, one fifth, last, double, five times					
	his, her, their Sue's, Mr. Brown's the blonde girl's				
such, what (<i>exclamative</i>) which, what (<i>interrogative/relative</i>) all, both					
	another		other		
		a dozen	dozen		
	some, any, no		several		
	either, neither				
	each	every			
	enough				
	much	many			
	a few, a little	few, little			
	how much/many?				
	we, us, you				

(after Falinski, 2011: 18)

For other classifications of determiners, check **Appendix # 2**.

ARTICLES

Although articles are traditionally treated separately, as a sub-system of the system of determination (see, for instance, Downing & Locke's 2006 quadripartite model of selection determiners, **Appendix # 2**), we feel they should be included among determiners from the very start and glanced at first because they are not "optional" elements of the noun phrase. On the contrary, due to its versatility, the article somehow "stands out as **the determiner par excellence of the noun phrase**" (Alexiadou *et al.*, 2007: 55).

Type of Article	Form	Examples	Typical Meaning
indefinite	a/an	<i>a sparrow; an owl; a theory</i> <i>A wolf is a wild animal.</i> <i>An old woman came to her door.</i>	member of a class; new information
definite	the	<i>the sparrow; the owl; the news; the theory</i> <i>The woman offered her an apple.</i>	identifiable / specific; given information
zero	Ø	<i>sparrows; life; Earth; John; Norway</i> <i>Wolves are wild animals.</i>	generic / unique

(after <http://folk.uio.no/hhasselg/grammar/Gr1-ch5.html>)

DEMONSTRATIVES AND DEIXIS

Demonstratives represent another type of determiner. The fact that they are presented right after articles is not in the least arbitrary, but motivated by the fact that the **demonstrative determiners** and the **article the** all derive from the same Old English part of speech. The original function of the definite article is likely to have been demonstrative, too. The function of demonstratives is to point items out – *this book, that child, these boots, those trees*. This function is called **deixis**, from a Greek word meaning "display / demonstration / reference", while the forms deixis is realized by (including demonstratives) are, accordingly, called **deictics**. The most common categories of contextual information referred to by **deixis** are those of **person, place, and time** – what Fillmore (1971) calls the "major grammaticalized types" of deixis.

Person deixis is concerned with the grammatical persons involved in an utterance (the speaker, the addressee, the overhearer, the person talked about). These distinctions are usually signalled by personal pronouns (*I, you, them* etc.).

Place or space deixis is concerned with the spatial locations relevant to an utterance. *Here, there, this, that* are examples of space deictics.

Time or temporal deixis is concerned with the various times involved in or referred to in an utterance (*now, then, soon, yesterday, tomorrow*, but also verbal tenses).

Demonstratives typically reflect **spatial deixis**: when pointing to someone or something close to us, we use *this*; when referring to someone or something that is not close, we use *that*.

	proximal	distal
singular	THIS	THAT
plural	THESE	THOSE

THIS	singular proximal demonstrative determiner
THAT	singular distal demonstrative determiner

THESE	plural proximal demonstrative determiner
THOSE	plural distal demonstrative determiner

Demonstratives can also be used to express **temporal deixis** (*this / these* for recent events or ideas; *that / those* for events more remote in time).

Another type of deixis that may not be among the “major grammaticalised types” but is equally pervasive is called **discourse** or **text deixis**. **Discourse deixis** is concerned with the use of expressions within an utterance to refer to parts of the discourse that contains the utterance. Take the following example:

*Listen to me. **This** story is amazing.*

*Let me say **this** (story):...*

This here refers forward, to an upcoming portion of discourse (**cataphoric** use). On the contrary, in the next example, it refers back, to a prior portion of the discourse (**anaphoric** use):

*I can't believe my ears. **This / that** was an amazing story!*

Some linguists also speak of **empathetic deixis**, in direct relation to spatial, but also cataphoric deictics: the metaphorical use of deictic forms to indicate emotional or psychological “distance” or “proximity” between a speaker and a referent (e.g. the use of *this* to indicate the speaker's empathy; the use of *that* to indicate the speaker's emotional distance):

*I like **this** new schedule; don't you?*

***That** husband of mine will never be on time.*

Yet a further subcategory is suggested by Fillmore (1982): **symbolic deixis** (e.g. the exclamation ***This** weather!* made by a speaker gesturing towards the pouring rain outside his window.)

Oftentimes, as Lynn Berk justly observes, demonstrative determiners are more anaphoric than deictic (e.g. *I've signed up for an advanced linguistics course next term. **This** class is going to keep me very busy*). An anaphoric demonstrative will sometimes refer back, not to an individual NP, but to a series of actions and events.

I made some coffee, putting a small bit of eggshell in with the grinds as was the habit of my old pal Tom Baker.

***This** little ritual... enriched the flavor of the coffee.⁷⁵*

Other times, *this* and *these* can be used in a non-deictic, non-anaphoric way to **introduce a new topic entity into the discourse**. This use is particularly common in **anecdotes, stories and jokes**:

*I'm walking along the street when **this man** comes up to me and says . . .* (Downing & Locke, 2006: 424)

***This guy** walked up to me and slugged me. (Berk, 1999: 62)*

*There was **this guy** at the party last night...*

This kind of *this* is called **indefinite this**, a rather inappropriate name given the fact that it always has specific reference.

Uses of <i>this</i>	
<i>I would like this dish, this dish and this dish, please. [a customer in a cafeteria] I like this one better than that one.</i>	SPATIAL
<i>What are you doing this week-end?</i>	TEMPORAL
<i>Lord Cronshaw, who was almost fanatically opposed to drug-taking, discovered that she was addicted to cocaine, and suspected that Davidson supplied her with it. Davidson doubtless denied this.⁷⁶</i>	ANAPHORIC
<i>I bet you haven't heard this story.</i>	CATAPHORIC
<i>I shall call this little affair the Adventure of the King of Clubs.⁷⁷</i>	EMPATHETIC

⁷⁵ Kinky Friedman, *God Bless John Wayne*, p. 114 (q. in Berk, 1999: 62).

⁷⁶ Agatha Christie, *Poirot's Early Cases. The Affair at the Victory Ball*.

<i>This weather!</i>	SYMBOLIC
<i>Three men sat in a pub. They sat there having a quiet drink and in walks this really drunken old man...</i>	"INDEFINITE"

QUANTIFIERS

Most determiners suggest or encode quantity, irrespective of their other functions in the discourse (e.g. indefinite article *a / an* clearly mean "one"; indefinite pronoun *some* points to "more than one" etc.). But there are some determiners whose sole function is to express quantity, this is why they are generally called **quantifiers**.

Quantifying determiners can be either **exact** (numerals / numeratives) or **non-exact**.

Exact Quantifiers⁷⁸. These include the **cardinal numerals** and **ordinal numerals**. **Cardinal numerals** (*one, two, ten, two hundred* etc.) are usually postdeterminers, although occasionally they may behave like nouns:

The cardinal numerals are primarily determinatives but they have a secondary use in which they inflect for number and hence belong to the noun category: *They set off in **threes** / enrolled in their **hundreds***. In practice, only low or round numerals are used in this way. (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002: 385).

I think cardinals are nouns – e.g. we get *my two*, not *mine two*, so *two* must be a noun. And of course cardinals can all be plural (*hundreds, twos*) and can follow ordinals (*the first two*) etc.⁷⁹

Ordinal numbers (*first, second, third, fourth, fifth, twenty-first* etc.), on the other hand, specify the noun referent in terms of order. They more often than not follow another determiner (usually the article: *the first time, a second attempt*, but also a distributive determiner like *every: every fifth step*), and in this respect are similar to semi-determiners like *the next, the last*. Ordinals, too, are as controversial as cardinals, in terms of word-class appurtenance. If cardinals are suspect of noun-like behaviour, ordinals are likened to adjectives (on account, among other things, of their collocating with a qualifier such as *very: The very first time I saw this film was when I was ten.*, in Huddleston & Pullum, 2002: 452).

Non-exact Quantifiers. Following Downing & Locke's typology (2006: 427), non-exact quantifiers select referents by referring to their:

- **indefiniteness**: *some, any, no, much, many, little, few*
- **distribution**: *all, both, either, neither, each, every, another, other*.

Indefinite [Non-exact] Quantifiers

Some, Any, No, (None)

⁷⁷ Agatha Christie, *Poirot's Early Cases. The King of Clubs*.

⁷⁸ In Halliday's *Functional Grammar* (2004: 318), the preferred terminology is (somehow Downing & Locke's in reverse) as follows: **numeratives** is used for quantifiers, and they can be either **quantifying** or **ordering**, either **definite** or **indefinite**, as shown in the table below:

	Definite	Indefinite
Quantitative	one, two, three etc. [a couple of] etc., [a quarter of] etc.	few, little [a bit of] etc., several [a number of] etc., many, much [a lot of] etc. fewer, less, more [the same amount of] etc.
Ordinative	first, second, third etc., next, last	preceding, subsequent etc.

⁷⁹ Dick Hudson, <https://grammariansm.wordpress.com/tag/central-determiner/>.

Some can be used with both count nouns (indicating a number above two: *some friends*, *some details*) and non-count nouns (indicating a – usually small – quantity: *some money*, *some time*). The word *some* can have two main functions and will be pronounced in two different ways accordingly. It has a **weak form** when used **non-selectively as an indefinite determiner**, and a **strong or stressed⁸⁰ form** when used as a **selective quantifier**, as in:

<i>We're spending some days by the sea.</i>	☐ non-selective indefinite determiner ☐ pronunciation: /səʊm/
<i>Some days it's hot, other days it's cold.</i>	☐ selective quantifying determiner ☐ pronunciation: /sʌm/

Any also has two meanings, as illustrated in the following examples (after Downing & Locke, 2006: 428):

<i>Have you any money / any coins? I haven't any money / any coins.</i>	☐ indeterminate amount or number of something ☐ negative and interrogative clauses ☐ unstressed pronunciation
<i>Any information would be useful.</i>	☐ non-specific reference ["no matter which or what"] ☐ affirmative clauses ☐ stressed pronunciation

Some / Any. The relationship between *some* and *any* is best captured in the following rule: if *some* needs to be used inside a **question** or a **negative** statement, it should be replaced by *any*.

*Anne has **some** apples.* [affirmative]

*Anne doesn't have **any** apples.* [negative]

*Does Anne have **any** apples?* [interrogative]

*Doesn't Anne have **any** apples?* [negativ-interrogative]

This rule, however, is not infallible. Sometimes, *some* is used in questions, too, which basically means that the positive-*some*, interro-negative *any* is nothing but a "grammar myth".

According to Falinski (2011: 55), "*any* is used for **neutral, real requests for information** (yes or no?)":

*Is there **any** oil? Is there **any**? (I don't know.)*

*Is there **anything** in there?*

By way of consequence, all interrogative forms that are not really information questions at all, but rather rhetorical questions, semi-questions with certain inbuilt expectations, offers or simply requests to act should contain *some* (or *no*).

*Would you like **some** more biscuits?*

*Can I have **some** travel brochures?*

No can be used with both count nouns (singular or plural references: *no change*, *no changes*) and non-count nouns (*no time*).

Some and *any* – but not *no* – can function as **elliptical heads of the NG**. Instead of *no*, the **pronoun none** is used, as in the previous example, and also for the partitive ("none of the men").

*Have you **any** change? Yes, I have **some**. No, I haven't **any**. I have **none**.*

⁸⁰ Stressed *some* can also be used with various types of evaluative force:

- ☐ **quantifying:** I haven't seen you for *some* time. (= a long time)
- ☐ **appreciative:** That really was *some* meal! (= a wonderful meal) (Downing & Locke, 2006: 427)

Did you have **any** problem in parking? No, **none**. [= no problem]

Did you have **any** difficulties with your papers? No, **none**. [= no difficulties] (*idem*)

PRACTICE **Some vs. Any**^{**}. Choose between *some* and *any*.

1. Mom's soup was fine without [**some** / **any**] extra salt.
2. I rarely have [**some** / **any**] time to myself since the baby has come.
3. Could we get [**some** / **any**] audiobooks on Google Play?
4. Have you been playing [**some** / **any**] tennis lately?
5. Can you pass me [**some** / **any**] of those cookies?

Much, Many; Little, A Little; Few, A Few

Non-exact quantifiers are either **central determiners** or **postdeterminers**. It is interesting to note that determiners that are usually perceived in opposing pairs (such as *much* / *many*; *a little* / *little*; *few* / *a few*) belong to different sub-categories, in terms of determiner position:

Central Determiner	Post-determiner
much	many
a little	little ⁸¹
a few	few

These quantifiers can be used with both indefinite and definite NPs. As shown in the table below (Downing & Locke, 2006: 428), with **definite reference** they are followed by *of* and have **partitive reference**: they represent a sub-set of an already selected class.

Indefinite Reference [non-partitive]	Type of Noun [count / non-count]	Definite Reference [partitive]
much time, much food	[+mass noun]	much of the time, much of the food
little time, little food	[+mass noun]	little of the time, little of the food
many pubs, many people	[+count noun]	many of the pubs, many of the people
few seats, few people	[+count noun]	few of the seats, few of the people
a few seats, a few people	[+count noun]	a few of the seats, a few of the people

Quantifiers like *much* or *a little* can be used not only as determiners, but also as pronouns and adverbs:

	Determiner	Pronoun	Adverb
much	<i>They deserve as much help as possible.</i>	<i>They don't need much.</i>	<i>He lives in a much smaller flat now.</i>

⁸¹ "Be sure to distinguish between postdeterminer *little*, which is clearly a quantifying term, and adjective *little* which refers to size – *a little butter* versus *a little girl*. Postdeterminers *little* and *few* express rather different meanings, depending on whether or not they are preceded by a determiner. *Joe has **little** faith in the system* reduces the amount of faith to almost zero, while *Joe has **a little** faith in the system* projects a more optimistic outlook. *Few* behaves in exactly the same way. *Oscar has **few** friends* suggests a sadder state of affairs than *Oscar has **a few** friends*." (Berk, 1999: 66)

a little	<i>I only have a little time for this.</i>	<i>Would you like some water? Just a little, thank you.</i>	<i>It is a little hard for me to understand this decision.</i>
----------	---	--	---

A Lot of, Lots of, Plenty of, A Great Deal of, A Number of, A Lot of / Lots of

These quantifiers are determiners with noun heads followed by a PP complement. Some of them can be used with both count and non-count nouns, while others cannot:

Singular mass + plural count:	a lot of, lots of, plenty of	<i>a lot / a lot of / plenty of money</i> <i>a lot / a lot of / plenty of friends</i>
Singular mass only:	a great deal of	<i>a great deal of money</i>
Plural mass only:	a number of	<i>a number of policemen</i>

They range from the **informal** (*a lot / lots of*) to the **formal** (*a great deal / number of*). More **informal** combinations of this type which function like *a lot / lots of* include *loads of, heaps of, masses of, a passel of*.

These **phrasal quantifiers** are **not partitives** even though they contain the preposition *of*. (As seen above, partitives have **definite reference** and represent **subsets from already selected sets**.)

Here is a selection of examples of non-partitive quantifiers, as well as cardinal and ordinal numbers, together with their **partitive counterparts**:

Non-partitive Quantifiers	Partitive Quantifiers
<i>A lot of money was wasted.</i>	<i>A lot of the money was wasted.</i>
<i>No money was wasted.</i>	<i>None of the money was wasted.</i>
<i>They spent a great deal of time in pubs.</i>	<i>They spent a great deal of the time in pubs.</i>
<i>Some books were damaged in the fire.</i>	<i>Some of the books were damaged in the fire.</i>
<i>Few seats were vacant.</i>	<i>A few of the seats were vacant.</i>
<i>Three people were injured.</i>	<i>Three of the people were injured.</i>
<i>Their first child was born in Wales.</i>	<i>The first of their children was born in Wales.</i>

(Downing & Locke, 2006: 429)

Distributive [Non-exact] Quantifiers

Distributive quantifiers / distributors range across all three determiner positions:

Predeterminer	Central Determiner	Post-determiner	Modifier	Head
all	neither	either		
both	each	every		

(adapted from Falinski, 2011: 67)

Of the distributive determiners, **all** usually points to a totality, to completeness⁸². It can be used with:

- mass / non-count nouns (e.g. *All power corrupts. All luggage must be stored before take-off.*)

⁸² Besides entirety, *all* can also express superlatives or the meanings covered by *every* or *any*. See, for example: *with all due respect / with all speed; all kinds / all sorts; beyond all doubt; All hope is gone. The fabric is all cotton. They were all ears.*

- plural nouns (e.g. **All** men are mortal.)
- nouns of time or place (e.g. **all** day; **all** night; **all** year; **all** America).

The use of *all* also depends on whether it refers to something generically or specifically. When the reference is generic, *all* usually follows the noun it determines directly (e.g. *All children should learn a foreign language at school. All birds have wings.* – it refers to individuals taken collectively). When the reference is specific, *all* can be followed by:

- the definite article *the* (e.g. **all** the students)
- *of* + noun⁸³ (e.g. **all** of the cake; **all** of the plates)
- *of* + pronoun (e.g. **all** of it, or, more creatively, as in John Legend's song, *All of You*).

Generic Reference	
<i>All boys do that.</i>	<i>No girls do that.</i>
<i>All alcohol is bad.</i>	<i>No alcohol is good.</i>
Specific Reference	
<i>All the boys in my class.</i>	<i>No girls in my class.</i>
<i>All of the boys in my class.</i>	<i>None of the girls in my class.</i>
<i>All of them.</i>	<i>None of them.</i>
<i>All (of) the water was dirty.</i>	<i>None of the water was clean.</i>
<i>All of it.</i>	<i>None of it.</i>
With Names	
<i>All (of) Europe / Italy / London.</i>	<i>None / No part of Europe / Italy / London.</i>
<i>All of it.</i>	<i>None / No part of it.</i>

Predeterminer *all* and central determiner *no* (+ pronouns *all* and *none*) (Falinski, 2011: 69)

A predeterminer like *all* (or *both*) is able to move into the verb phrase. Compare:

All the kids have had measles. and *The kids have all had measles.*

Both my nephews are attending MIT. and *My nephews are both attending MIT.*

This phenomenon is sometimes called **quantifier float**, since the predeterminer, which normally occurs before the subject noun head, can “float” to the right of the subject or to the right of an auxiliary verb (if there is one).

[All] his employees [all] quit.

[Both] my sisters have [both] been to Paris. (Berk, 1999: 65-66)

Distributors like *all* can be used not only as determiners, but also as pronouns and adverbs:

	Determiner	Pronoun	Adverb
all	<i>All the girls in the group were invited.</i>	<i>It is all I've got.</i>	<i>I am all alone.</i> <i>He spent his income all on a car.</i> <i>She got all upset. [informal]</i>

⁸³ “Technically, *all*, *half*, and *both* are predeterminers only if they directly precede the determiner or the noun. Constructions containing the preposition *of* as in *all of the players* or *both of my daughters* don't contain predeterminers; in these cases *all* and *both* are considered pronouns, which are then modified by prepositional phrases. However, despite the difference in structure, it is clear that the phrases *all the players* and *all of the players* are virtually synonymous. This is one of the few instances in English when different grammatical forms seem to yield the same meaning.” (Berk, 1999: 65)

Both refers to two entities together. **Either** and the negative form **neither** also refer to two entities, but as alternatives. Where **both** is inclusive, **either** and **neither** indicate their referents separately. **Either**, in cooperation with the conjunction **or**, often refers to one out of two, while **neither** in cooperation with **nor** refers to none out of two:

You can have **either** tea **or** coffee for breakfast.

Neither Brick **nor** Maggie the cat was there.

Either (of two)	Any (of more than two)	Neither (of two)	No / (None) (of more than two)
<i>Either</i> place will do.	<i>Any</i> place will do.	<i>neither</i> speech	<i>no</i> speech

Either and **neither** can both act as:

- **determiners** (e.g. There were shops on **either** sides of the street. He can write with **either** hand.)
- **pronouns** (e.g. Which colour do you like: yellow or purple? I don't like **either**.)
- **adverbs** (e.g. She doesn't eat meat and her husband doesn't **either**.)
- **conjunctions**, especially when combined with **or** / **nor** (e.g. **Either** we go by train **or** we rent a car.)

Each and **every** are very similar, in that they both refer to **one of a group / series** and they both have **specific reference**. However, they also differ in several aspects:

Grammatically, each is a central determiner : <i>each</i> step	Grammatically, every is a postdeterminer : <i>every</i> step, but also <i>his every</i> step
Each emphasises the separateness of the entity, the individuality : <i>Each</i> student was called in one at a time during the oral exam.	Every highlights the individual within the group or even the group as a whole : <i>His every</i> move was being watched. <i>Every</i> parent knows [all parents know] how difficult it is to cope with a sick child.
Each can refer to two entities separately : <i>each</i> hand, <i>each</i> foot	Every is applicable only to groups of three or more : <i>*every</i> hand <i>every</i> finger
Each can have a pronominal function: <i>Each</i> had a different take on society.	Every must combine with the pronoun one (as two words) in order to express the same thing as in the example on the left, thus remaining a determiner . <i>Every one</i> of us had a different take on things.
Each can have an adverbial function: <i>They</i> cost 50 cents <i>each</i> .	—
Each (as well as both , either and neither) accepts of before the noun (partitive use): <i>Each</i> player / <i>each of</i> the players / <i>each of</i> us got a prize.	Every does not accept of before the noun (partitive use). <i>*Every of</i> the players / <i>*every of</i> us got a prize.
Each can express “completeness”: <i>I have every</i> confidence in you.	Every can express regularly spaced times or distances: <i>He stopped every</i> few feet / <i>every</i> two hours.
—	Every expresses recurrency, intermittence, serial nature, statistics: <i>He goes to the gym every</i> third day. <i>Every</i> now and then / <i>every</i> so often she pays them a visit.

	Two out of every five people catch more than one cold a year.
<i>Each</i> and <i>every</i> can be used together for a more forceful way of saying <i>each</i> : I want to thank each and every colleague who has contributed to this project.	

PRACTICE **Each vs. Every****. Choose between *each* and *every*.

1. They gave [**each / every**] soldier a medal.
2. [**Each / every**] linguist sees things differently.
3. Ben was carrying a bag in [**each / every**] hand.
4. [**Each / every**] house in this neighbourhood is painted off-white.
5. [**Each / every**] step you take, I'll be watching you.

POSSESSIVE DETERMINERS

Possessive determiners can be **nouns** (proper: *Sam's friend*; common: *the girl's complaint*) or **pronouns** (*my / your / his / her / its / our / their eating habits*), sometimes even **indefinite pronouns** (*nobody's business, everybody's problem*).

The pronominal forms constitute a class of determiners some grammarians (Berk, 1999: 63) call **genitives** (as they consider the label "possessive" misleading). Among these forms, *his* is the only one that can be both a determiner (*his car*) and a pronoun (*The car is his.*). In the other cases the determiner is turned into a genitive subject complement by means of {-s} (*your* becomes *yours*; *her* becomes *hers*; *our* – *ours*; *their* – *theirs*), except for *my*, which has *mine* as a counterpart, and for *its* and *one*, which cannot be used by themselves, but together with *own*. (e.g. Virginia Woolf's *A Room of One's Own* has a special charm **of its own**.)

Possessive nominal determiners are made up of a NP + an **inflected genitive morpheme** (more often than not 's, sometimes only the apostrophe). The main function of the 's phrase is to **specify** the nominal group referent, as in *that student's name*. Like the possessive pronouns, **the specifying 's genitive** is a **central determiner**. It has a specifying function and indicates possession as well as agentivity.

Like other phrasal determiners (*a few; how many; a lot of*), the 's genitive can consist of either a single word (*John's*) or a phrase (*the English teacher's*). The **specifying phrasal 's genitive** may have internal coordination with *and* or *but*, prepositional phrases, or multiple genitive forms, multiple embedded genitive structures, reaching levels of some complexity.

Possessive Determiners	Head
John's	books
Simon and Andrew's	tomcat
those students'	grades
the history teacher's	lessons
the Council of Europe's	decision
the man on the corner's	dog
❑ Our hearts' charity's hearth's fire, our thoughts' chivalry's throng's Lord.⁸⁴ ❑ Here, then, said Dupin to me, you have precisely what you demand to make the ascendancy complete -- the robber's knowledge of the loser's knowledge of the robber.⁸⁵	

The **specifying 's genitive** and the **postmodifying of-phrase** are very close in meaning, and in many cases are in free variation:

⁸⁴ G. M. Hopkins, *The Wreck of the Deutschland*.

⁸⁵ E. A. Poe, *The Purloined Letter*.

the children's holiday	the holiday of the children
Europe's future	the future of Europe

The choice of one or the other form depends, as shown by Jozef Falinski (2011: 123), on a **complex interplay of factors**, such as:

- 1) the position of the referent of the head noun on the so-called "**scale of animacy**"⁸⁶
- 2) textual emphasis (information focus)
- 3) stylistic choice and register.

Apart from the specifying function, some 's NPs may also a **classifying function**. When the classifier contains a plural noun, as in *girls's names*, *children's clothing*, *a men's club* etc. the meaning of class is obvious, and with this meaning, the 's NPs are more similar to modifiers than they are to determiners (see the sub-chapter on *Genitives as Premodifiers*). However, when the NP contains a singular noun preceded by the indefinite article *a(n)*, the NP may be ambiguous. *A lady's hat*, for instance, may refer to the hat of a given lady, or to the type of hat especially designed for women. Two interpretations are also in order for *a lion's mane*, *a bird's nest*, *a child's toothbrush*, *a specialist's opinion*, but the context of discourse usually clarifies the intended meaning.

The Double Genitive. The double genitive is the direct result of one particular restriction in the English determiner system: *two central determiners are mutually exclusive* (a specifying 's genitive or a possessive can never be used in a syntagmatic relation, side by side).

that friend of Peter's
a book of mine

A special feature of the double genitive is its **indefinite head noun** and the fact that this head (first) noun can be used with all central and numeral determiners with the exception of the definite article:

a friend of mine
three novels of Jane's
every argument of his
this life of ours

The definite article may be used only in special anaphoric contexts with specific reference (usually with postmodification):

The friend of his sister's that I was telling you about... (Falinski, 2011: 132-133)

WH-DETERMINERS

Wh-determiners are either interrogative or relative pronouns.

Which and **what** have slightly different uses.

Which is used when the options are limited and clear.

What, on the other hand, is appropriate when the options are not limited, not clear, not constrained.

What kind of shoes should I buy?	[of all the possible kinds]
What sort of person would do that?	
What projects have you started lately?	
Which pair of shoes should I wear?	[of the three I lay before you]

⁸⁶ The scale of animacy is a theoretical scale that goes from a high point of [+animate, +human] reference to a low point of [+non-animate, +thing].

<i>Which child is yours?</i>	[of those five playing in the front yard]
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While *which* and *whose* express **specific selection** among a known number, *whatever* and *whichever* express **non-specific selection**, meaning “it doesn’t matter what”, “it doesn’t matter which”:

*They’ll provide you with **whatever** assistance you may need.* [positive meaning]

*You’ll have to settle for **whatever** assistance you can get.* [negative meaning]

Whichever [no matter which] can function as a determiner as well as a pronoun:

*It’s a long trip **whichever** road you take.* [determiner]

*Take **whichever** seat you want.* [determiner]

*Take **whichever** you want.* [pronoun]

What can sometimes be used as an equivalent to *whatever*:

***What** hopes I had for my son’s recovering have now vanished.*

Whose functions as a **possessive** and an **interrogative determiner** simultaneously.

SEMI-DETERMINERS

Words like *such*, **exclamatory what**, *certain*, *same*, *(an)other*, *former*, *latter* are sometimes (except *such*) classed as **adjectives**, but, unlike adjectives, they do not actually describe the referent; rather, they seem to have a **specifying function**.

Such and **exclamatory what** are among the few elements of this kind which precede the indefinite article (e.g. *Such a fool!* *What a day!*). They require *a(n)* before a singular count noun, and zero before noncount and plural nouns.

***What a** wilderness of people! **what a** jumble of all ranks and ages! **what a** multiplicity of sects and nations! **what a** variety of costumes! **what a** Babel of languages! **what a** screaming of beasts! **what a** tinkling of instruments! **what a** parcel of philosophers!*⁸⁷

“*Such* classifies an entity by kind or intensifies it by degree. It usually relates to something already mentioned in the discourse.

- ❑ **Classifying:** (= of that kind)

*I’ve never heard of **such an animal**.*

***Such cruelty** is incomprehensible.*

***Such people** are dangerous.*

- ❑ **Intensifying:**

*Don’t be **such a fool**! They are **such idiots**! (= of that degree)” (Downing & Locke, 2006: 431)*

Certain usually follows the indefinite article:

*They gave each child **a certain** sum each week.*

***A certain** Mr. Barnaby is here to see you.*

***A certain** harmless vanity was a characteristic of Poirot’s and fell into line with his general love of order and method.*⁸⁸

Same indicates identity if reference and is usually preceded by the definite article:

*He was with an older man whose likeness to him proclaimed him to be of **the same** family.*⁸⁹

*He has a rich wife. It is not **the same** thing as being rich himself.*⁹⁰

Another, used with singular count nouns, can be interpreted either as pointing to a different entity from the one previously mentioned (just like **other + plural count noun**) or to a subsequent entity of the same kind as the one already mentioned in the discourse.

⁸⁷ E. A. Poe, *Four Beasts in One. The Homo-Cameleopard*.

⁸⁸ Agatha Christie, *Poirot’s Early Cases. The Affair at the Victory Ball*.

⁸⁹ Agatha Christie, *Poirot’s Early Cases. The Lemesurier Inheritance*.

⁹⁰ Agatha Christie, *Poirot’s Early Cases. The Adventure of Johnny Waverly*.

August 16th is taken. Please choose **another** date.
 Can I fetch you **another** beer?
 I have **other** things on my mind.

Former and **latter** refer back to the first and the second respectively of two entities already mentioned. They are usually preceded by the definite article.

*That evening they interviewed two of the eye-witnesses. The **former** observer was a melancholy square-jawed man of forty-something. The **latter** deponent wore a bright red coat.*

Former can also used adjectivally with the meaning of “previous” when referring to jobs, positions or roles.

*Mr. Benedict, a **former** ambassador, clearly knows his way around the international landscape.
 While at the conference, I ran into a **former** colleague I hadn’t seen in several years.*

ORDER OF DETERMINERS, REVISITED

The governing principle of placement of multiple determiners is the same as that of a whole NP, that is, “a gradual process of dependency selection from right to left” (Downing & Locke, 2006: 434).

PREDETERMINERS	CENTRAL DETERMINERS	POSTDETERMINERS
1. <i>all, both, half</i> 2. <i>double, twice</i> etc. 3. <i>one-third</i> etc. 4. <i>what, such</i> etc.	1. Articles: <i>the, a(n), zero</i> 2. Demonstratives: <i>this, that, these, those</i> 3. Possessives: <i>my, your</i> etc. and genitives 4. Quantifiers: <i>some, any, no, every, each, either, neither, enough, much</i> 5. Wh-determiners: <i>what(ever), which(ever), who(ever), whose</i>	1. Cardinal numerals: <i>one, two, three</i> etc. 2. Ordinal numerals: <i>first, second</i> etc. 3. General ordinals: <i>next, last, other</i> etc. 4. Quantifiers: <i>many, few, little, several, more, less</i> etc.

The Category of Determination (adapted from Leech & Svartik, 1975)

SEMINAR on DETERMINERS

CHAPTER # 8 IN A NUTSHELL

SUMMARY OF DETERMINERS		
Quantifiers [distributives, fractional, multiplying]	<i>All animals are equal but some animals are more equal than others.</i>	PREDETERMINERS
	<i>By the time he came back, both the uncle and the aunt had caught the flu.</i>	
	<i>River hippos live half their lives in water.</i>	
	<i>His hamburger is twice the size of mine.</i>	
	<i>She uses three-fourths her monthly salary for rent and bills.</i>	
Semi-determiners	<i>What a wonderful world!</i>	
	<i>He had such an imagination.</i>	
Articles [definite, indefinite, zero]	<i>I just got a new book on WW2.</i>	CENTRAL DETERMINERS
	<i>The book is the best history of the period I've ever read.</i>	
	<i>Some pages were torn.</i>	
Demonstratives	<i>This table summarises the key aspects of determination.</i>	
	<i>Hand me that monkey wrench, will you?</i>	
	<i>These cookies are delicious.</i>	
	<i>I can't stand those quirky people.</i>	
Quantifiers [non-exact: indefinite & distributives]	<i>No pets are allowed.</i>	
	<i>Are you having any fun?</i>	
	<i>His parents don't satisfy his every whim.</i>	
	<i>I gave each student a grade.</i>	
Possessives / Genitives	<i>Whose coat are you wearing?</i>	
	<i>His loss is your gain.</i>	
Wh-determiners [interrogatives, relatives]	<i>Which car do you want?</i>	
	<i>Whose phone did you borrow?</i>	
	<i>What colour do you prefer?</i>	
	<i>I suspect none of them – or all of them, whichever way you like to put it.⁹¹</i>	
Quantifiers [exact numeratives: ordinal & cardinals; semi-determiners; indefinite non-exact quantifiers]	<i>He always asks the same three questions.</i>	POSTDETERMINERS
	<i>The Davidsons lived on the third floor of a block of flats.</i>	
	<i>He was the very last person Amanda wanted to speak with.</i>	
	<i>A good many cars pass through.</i>	
	<i>There are very few men in the world whom I fear.</i>	
	<i>Joe has little faith in the system.</i>	

⁹¹ Agatha Christie, *Poirot's Early Cases. The Double Clue.*

CHAPTER # 8 FURTHER PRACTICE

PRACTICE. Meanings of Determiners*.** Place the following determiners into the adequate row, according to what they express. Some determiners might fit into more than one category:

all; a(n); any; each; either; every; her; his; little; much; no; one; other; same; some; the first; their; the last; the next; the second; these; this; twenty-seven; whose; your

Addition / Difference	
Distribution	
Identity	
Negation	
Number	
Order	
Place / Position	
Possession / Appurtenance	
Quantity	
Randomness	
Recurrency	
Totality / Completeness	

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PRACTICE. Order of Determiners.** Complete the table by ordering the following determiners:

1. *his, fifty, half* [head: dollars]
2. *other, my, a few of* [head: friends]
3. *former, the, some of, teacher's* [head: students]
4. *a(n), such* [head: experience]
5. *own, her, some of* [head: books]
6. *the, same* [head: year]

No.	Pre-determiners and partitives	Central determiners	Post-determiners	HEAD
1.	half	his	fifty	dollars
2.				
3.				
4.				
5.				
6.				

PRACTICE. Quantifiers*. Fill in with *much*, *many*, *a lot of* or *plenty of*.

1. I have stayed in Berlin a time.
2. There is time within an hour session to warm up.
3. There is salt in the saltcellar.
4. There was not snow at this location.
5. a tree have been cut down recently.

PRACTICE. Some vs. Any.** Choose between *some* and *any*, following the clues on the right.

1. Would you like [some / any] more coffee?	[positive expectations]
2. Is there [some / any] coffee left?	[negative expectations]
3. Have you got [some / any] brothers or sisters?	[negative expectations]
4. Did you have [some / any] problems with your paper?	[negative expectations]
5. Could you lend me [some / any] money?	[positive expectations]

PRACTICE. Few vs. A Few.** Choose between *few* and *a few*.

1. Do you need [**few** / **a few**] minutes for yourself?
2. There are very [**few** / **a few**] men in the world whom I fear.
3. The doctor, who was a man of [**few** / **a few**] words, contented himself with jerking his head affirmatively.⁹²
4. There are only [**few** / **a few**] places in town where you can have fun.
5. It was some [**few** / **a few**] minutes before the odds were collected.
6. Those [**few** / **a few**] oyster shells were the best she had.
7. He asked [**few** / **a few**] more questions, then declared himself satisfied.
8. I should like to have [**few** / **a few**] words with you.
9. [**Few** / **A few**] criminal cases actually go to court.
10. [**Few** / **A few**] houses today are made of mud and straw.

PRACTICE. Little vs. A Little.** Choose between *little* and *a little*, following the clues on the right.

1. [Little / A little] space is what I need more than anything else.	[some, but not much]
2. The children showed [little / a little] enthusiasm for this game.	[hardly any at all]
3. Sheet-metal covering applied directly over old plaster ceilings offers [little / a little] resistance to fire.	[hardly any at all]
4. Sometimes there is [little / a little] resistance to my decisions from my next of kin.	[some, but not much]
5. Time wore on, but it seemed to have [little / a little] effect on Mr. Baggins. At ninety he was much the same as at fifty. ⁹³	[hardly any at all]

PRACTICE. Which vs. What*. Choose between *which* and *what*:

1. [**Which** / **what**] books have you read lately?

⁹² Agatha Christie, *Poirot's Early Cases. The Third-Floor Flat*.

⁹³ J. R. R. Tolkien, *The Lord of the Rings. The Fellowship of the Ring*.

2. [**Which** / **what**] books are yours?
3. [**Which** / **what**] shoes should I wear with this dress: the black ones or the red ones?
4. [**Which** / **what**] leg did you break?
5. [**Which** / **what**] country is he from?

DETERMINERS		NOUN / NP SUBSTITUTES	
Possessive Pronouns:	<i>My car is silver. His pen is blue.</i>	Possessive Pronouns:	<i>Mine is silver. His is silver.</i>
Demonstrative Pronouns:	<i>This problem will go away. Those trees are evergreen.</i>	Demonstrative Pronouns:	<i>This is the question. Those will be better.</i>
Interrogative Pronouns:	<i>Which way to the station?</i>	Interrogative Pronouns:	<i>Who's there? Who wants to live for ever?</i>
Indefinite Pronouns:	<i>I have some letters to write. There are many problems that need solving.</i>	Indefinite Pronouns:	<i>Some are wise, some are otherwise. Would you like some? Nobody knows the truth.</i>

PRACTICE Turning Determiners into Pronouns*. Turn the determiners in bold into pronouns, making the necessary deletions or changes.

1. **This** problem has worried him for a very long time.
2. **Each** battery is in a separate compartment.
3. It's complicated when **both** parents are out of work.
4. **Whichever** pill you take, the effect will be the same.
5. I'm afraid we have **little** time to spare.

PRACTICE Review of Determiners***. Are the following statements true or false?

1. The definite article can be used with all classes of nouns.
2. Determiners and pronouns can overlap in form.
3. Postdeterminers occur after the noun head.
4. *This* is the singular proximal demonstrative determiner.
5. Demonstratives occupy a central position in a series of determiners.
6. *Any* is always used instead of *some* in questions.
7. *Few*, *a few*, *quite a few* all express the idea of small number.
8. Determiner *whose* has a double function: possessive and interrogative.
9. Possessive determiners can be either nouns or pronouns.
10. Semi-determiners *former* and *latter* can only be used when there are two entities involved.

Chapter # 5 Modifiers (I)

- **Modifiers & Modification** (What, If Anything, Is Modification?)
- **Modifiers of Nouns & Verbs**
- **Modifiers of the Verb**
- **Measure Phrases as Modifiers of Adjectives**
- **Sentence Modifiers** (Adverbs. Vocatives. Interjections. Subordinate Clauses. Relative Clauses. The Absolute Phrase. Appositives)
- **Modifiers of the Noun (Phrase)** (Premodifiers: Adjectives; Participles; Nouns; Classifying 's Genitives; Adverbs; Phrases & Clauses. Multiple Premodification. Internal Grammatical Order of Premodifiers. Postmodifiers: Prepositional Phrases; Relative Clauses; Non-Finite Clauses; Other Postmodifiers. Restrictive & Non-Restrictive Modification. Temporary & Permanent Modification. Premodifiers vs. Postmodifiers. Noun Phrases, Lexical Density & Style (Markers))
- **Other Types of Modifiers**

MODIFIERS AND MODIFICATION

WHAT, IF ANYTHING, IS MODIFICATION?

What precisely is modification? Does it constitute a single grammatical phenomenon? The easiest answer to give—and, after some reflection, simultaneously the more obvious and more surprising one—is no. We think of the grammar largely in terms of **predicates** and their **arguments**. **“Modifier” is simply a term for linguistic expressions that don’t fit neatly into either conceptual box. [...]** The internal sense of **“modifier”**, then, to a very crude first approximation, may amount to just this: **you’re a modifier if you’re an adjective or an adverb. That probably makes you pretty good at gradability. The external sense of “modifier”** has to do with crosscategorical parallels in the role an expression plays. **You’re a modifier if you’re adjoined to something that you’re not a semantic argument⁹⁴ to.** You very well might have a semantics that can be expressed with *and*: a *red dinosaur* is red and a dinosaur. (Morzycki, 2016: 8-9, emphasis added)

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Anyone skimming the text above may easily be misled into believing that modifiers are nothing but some adjectives and adverbs, inherently prone to comparison. This is not necessarily wrong, but it represents an oversimplified facet of modifiers.

Modification may differ in Systematic Functional Linguistics from Formal Semantics, for instance, but grammarians from both sides of the linguistic border seem to agree on a number of facts such as:

The grammar of modification is highly complex and raises numerous questions about the relation between meaning and form. (Teodorescu, 2009: ix, emphasis added)

⁹⁴ In linguistics, a **complement** is a word / phrase / clause which is necessary to complete the meaning of a given expression. An **argument** is an expression that helps complete the meaning of a predicate (e.g. the main verb and its auxiliaries), which means (within the X-bar framework at least) that it is a kind of complement. Arguments are classified into **syntactic** (e.g. the constituents that appear in the subject, direct object and indirect object positions) and **semantic** (e.g. *agent* – usually the subject; *theme* – expressed by the direct object, and *goal* – the indirect objects).

The term **modifier**⁹⁵ (and **modification**, the function a modifier carries out) is difficult to define in intuitive terms. A first informal approximation might be, for example, to say that a modifier adds additional, non-essential descriptive content to that contributed by the expression that it combines with;... (McNally, 2010: 1)

We need first to distinguish between various meanings *modification* and *modifier* have acquired in time, as used in various linguistic trends, approaches or levels. David Crystal's 2008 *Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics* lists at least four uses of the term **modification**, which relate to three different levels of grammar: syntax, morphology and phonetics, but also to historical linguistics:

modification (n.) (1) A term used in **syntax** to refer to the structural dependence of one grammatical unit upon another – but with different restrictions in the scope of the term being introduced by different approaches. Some reserve the term for structural dependence within any endocentric phrase; e.g. in *the big man in the garden*, both *the big* and *in the garden* **modify** *man* – **premodification** and **post-modification** respectively. Some linguists reserve the term for the **premodifying structures only**: in Hallidayan grammar, for example, the above phrase would have the structure M–H–Q, standing for modification–head–qualification. traditional grammar reserved the term for adverbial units which were dependent on the verb, and this tradition is sometimes encountered.

(2) **Modification** is also used in **morphology** to refer to a process of change within the root or stem of a form, as in the vowel changes between the singular and plural of some nouns in English (*man* ~ *men*), or in cases of suppletion. In this, and related senses, the term is also found in **historical linguistics**.

(3) In **phonetics**, factors which influence the airflow in the vocal tract are often referred to as **modifications**, e.g. the movement of the soft palate, the degree of closure of the glottis. The term is also sometimes used to refer to any factors which alter the typical actions of the vocal organs in producing the phonemes of a language, as in prosodic features, secondary articulations, and transitions between sounds.

(4) Also in **phonetics**, the range of diacritic marks which indicate variations in vowel and consonant quality are referred to as **modifiers**, in the international phonetic alphabet. (Crystal, 2008: 309-310, emphasis added)

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Of the four possible meanings, only the first is obviously at issue here.

We also need to discriminate between two partially overlapping terms, i.e. **modification** and **complementation**, and will do so based on Quirk *et al.*'s commentaries:

Modification [...] is a largely optional function performed, for instance, by adjectives in the noun phrase, and by intensifying adverbs in the adverb phrase. Premodifiers precede the head, and postmodifiers follow it; in noun phrases, premodifiers follow determinatives. **Semantically, modifiers add "descriptive" information to the head**, often restricting the reference of the head. Thus *a green table* has a more specific meaning than *a table*, and *very tall* has a more specific meaning than *tall* [...].

We reserve the term **COMPLEMENTATION** (as distinct from complement) for the function of a part of a phrase or clause which **follows** a word, and completes the specification of a meaning relationship which that word implies. As such, complementation may be either obligatory or optional on the syntactic level.

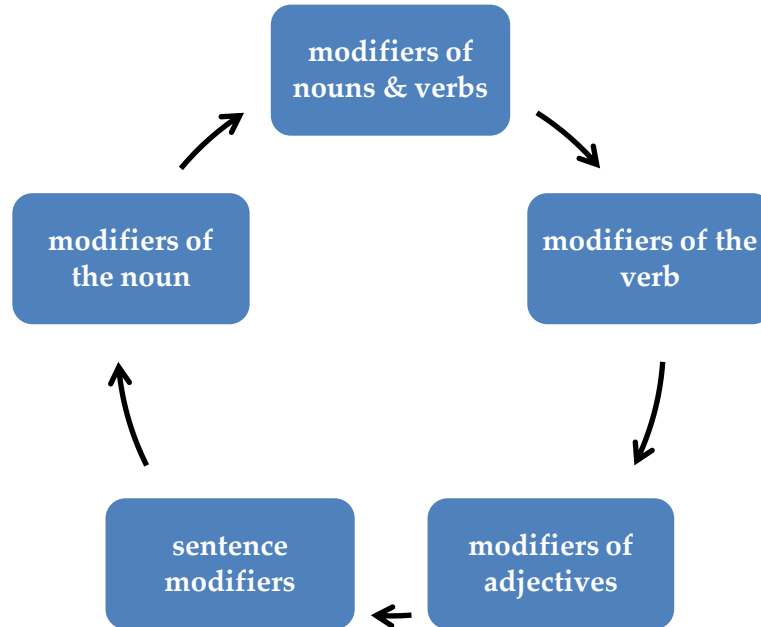
Complementation also overlaps with other functions, such as adverbials and modifiers. (Quirk *et al.*, 1985: 65, emphases added)

More simply put, complementation is one form of postmodification.

⁹⁵ For formal semanticists, a modifier is "an expression that combines with an unsaturated expression to form another unsaturated expression of the same type." / "an expression which combines with another expression to produce a result with the same semantic type." (McNally, 2010: 2, 20)

As follows, we will present modifiers gradually, our analysis – consistent with Kolln & Funk (2012)'s structure – culminating with one of the “core concerns” of the present book, namely modifiers of the noun / noun phrase (with the two branches: premodifiers and postmodifiers).

Modifiers of both Nouns & Verbs → Modifiers of the Verb only → Measure Phrases as Modifiers of Adjectives → Sentence Modifiers → Modifiers of the Noun / NP (Premodifiers; Postmodifiers)



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MODIFIERS OF NOUNS AND VERBS

The **prepositional phrase** is by far the **most common structure of modification**, which regularly appears as a **modifier of both nouns and verbs**. We already know from the subchapter on the internal structure of the PP that, if the PP modifies a noun, it is considered **adjectival**, and if it modifies a verb, it is called **adverbial prepositional phrase**.

*My aunt **from abroad** is extremely fond of cats.* [adjectival prepositional phrase]

*My aunt just came back **from abroad**.* [adverbial prepositional phrase]

Noun / Verb	Prepositional Phrase	
	Preposition	Object
to walk / a walk	across	the rather large bedroom
	along	the beach
	on	your tiptoes
	in	the woods
	through	the city

Because prepositional phrases can modify both verbs and nouns, **ambiguity**⁹⁶ arises between two or more plausible readings:

⁹⁶ PP ambiguity in a sentence such as *Merida was supposed to mend the bond torn **by pride*** does not concern the adjectival / adverbial dichotomy, but two possible adverbial readings: either *mend **by pride*** or *torn **by pride***.

We watched the dance *in the great hall*. [Did the dance take place in the great hall? Did we watch it in the great hall?]

Sam murdered the man *with a gun*. [Did Sam use a gun? Did the man have a gun on him?]

One morning I shot an elephant *in my pajamas* [says Groucho Marx, and then he goes on]. *How he got into my pajamas I'll never know.*

PRACTICE PP Ambiguity.** Rewrite each of the following sentences in two ways to show the two possible meanings (adjectival / adverbial) of the PPs they contain:

1. I read an article on infant mortality in France.
2. Jack annoyed the man with the cigar.
4. Jackson saw the man with binoculars.
3. Jacob is going to polish the car in the garage.
5. Jasper attacked his teammate with the bat.
6. I saw a man hidden behind the curtains.
7. I saw a man with a pair of binoculars.
8. Janet wrote an article on a plane.

MODIFIERS OF THE VERB: ADVERBIALS

Apart from PPs, there are at least two other ways a verb can be modified by: adverbs or clauses. The following example (borrowed from Kolln & Funk, 2012: 109) is illustrative of all three categories of verb modifiers as well as of their movability:

*The audience gasped **nervously**¹ **throughout the theater**² **when the magician thrust his sword into the box**.*³

*The audience gasped (How?) **nervously**.* [adverb]

*The audience gasped (Where?) **throughout the theater**.* [prepositional phrase]

*The audience gasped (When?) **when the magician thrust his sword into the box**.* [time clause]

All three types of modifier are movable, as we can see below:

When the magician thrust his sword into the box, the audience nervously gasped throughout the theater.

Throughout the theater the audience gasped nervously when the magician thrust his sword into the box.

However, among these modifiers, by far the most movable and versatile are the so-called **adverbs of manner**, the **-ly words**: *nervously, quickly, quietly, suddenly, beautifully, normally, technically* etc. (behind which usually lies a hidden adjective):

*They gasped **nervously**.* [in a nervous manner]

These manner adverbs can be marked by qualifiers, in their own turn (*quite suddenly; very softly; rather carelessly*) and can also be made comparative and superlative with *more* and *most* (*more quickly; most eloquently*).

MEASURE PHRASES AS MODIFIERS OF ADJECTIVES

There is a widely accepted account of expressions like *five feet tall* among generative syntactic researchers (from Chomsky, 1965, 1970, through Jackendoff, 1977, to today), according to which the adjective *tall* denotes a

relation between individuals and degrees of height and the measure phrase *five feet* serves as an argument of the adjective (...). Here are some more examples:

six feet tall

four inches wide

ten years old

We can see from the examples that a **measure phrase** is nothing but a **special kind of noun phrase**. Whether this NP functions indeed as a modifier of adjectives, it is still a matter of controversy:

Nouns and verbs tend to follow the same pattern, at least with respect to arguments. If the measure phrase is indeed an argument of the adjective, we need an explanation for why we have *five feet tall* and not **tall (of) five feet*. We also need an explanation for why the main stress is on *tall* in *five feet táll*, when the general rule in English is that in neutral contexts a predicate is less stressed than its argument. (Schwarzchild, 2005: 208)

SENTENCE MODIFIERS

Sometimes, words, phrases or clauses are used so as to modify the sentence as a whole, not only some parts of it. Following closely Koln & Funk (2012: 189-203)'s structure, we will present the most common sentence modifiers:

- adverbs
- vocatives
- interjections
- subordinate clauses
- the absolute phrase
- appositives
- relative clauses.

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Adverbs. Most of the single-word modifiers are adverbs in form; however, they are not to be mistaken for adverbials. In the following pair, sentence (1) illustrates the use of adverb *clearly* as an **adverbial**, whereas sentence (2) illustrates *clearly* as **sentence modifier**:

(1) *Mark did not explain the situation clearly.* [adverb indicating the manner of explaining]

(2) *Clearly, Mark did not explain the situation.* [modifier indicating the attitude / opinion of the speaker / writer toward the message stated in the main clause]

Here are some more examples of adverbs used with this modifying function:

Luckily, the police came right away when I called.

It rains badly. Fortunately, I have my greatcoat with me.

Unfortunately, the book you want is out of print.

I inquired a few particulars and returned to the hotel full of enthusiasm. Unfortunately, I found it hard to make Poirot share my feelings.⁹⁷

Invariably, the dirty dishes from last night's dinner sat in the sink.

We can see from these examples that adverbs as sentence modifiers are separated by commas, but this is not always the case:

Perhaps we can persuade her to come too.

We can persuade her, perhaps, to come too.

Vocatives. Another structure set off by a comma is the noun or noun phrase of direct address, known as a **vocative**:

⁹⁷ Agatha Christie, *Poirot's Early Cases. Double Sin.*

Ladies and gentlemen, please be seated.

Jennifer, your date is here.

The vocative might not be a modifier in the same sense that other structures are, in that it does not modify the meaning of the sentence, but it does relate to the sentence as a whole.

*But yes, **my friend**, all crimes are not committed in crowds, you know?*⁹⁸

*I promise you won't see me here in court again, **your honor**.*

Interjections. The interjection—usually a single word or short phrase used exclamatorily—can also be considered as a modifier of the sentence as a whole:

***Oh**, how can I ever thank you!*

***Wow!** What an outfit you got there!*

*(**Good**) **Heavens!** I cannot believe my ears.*

***Upon my word!** Is that John upon the roof? [old-fashioned]*

***Gosh**, how time flies!*

*(**My**) **goodness (gracious)**, what a terrible thought!*

Subordinate Clauses. Some subordinate clauses also seem to modify the idea of the whole sentence:

Clauses introduced by such subordinators as <i>if</i> , <i>since</i> , <i>as</i> , and <i>although</i> :	<i>I'll go with you, although I would rather stay home.</i>
The phrasal subordinators, too, may relate one complete clause to another:	<i>All the members of the council, as far as I know, voted in favor of the new form of computer-graded examination.</i>
Some of the interrogatives and indefinite relative pronouns introduce conditional clauses that are clearly sentence modifiers:	<i>Whatever decision you make, I'll support you. No matter how much time I spend working on it, it is never enough.</i>
The subjunctive if clauses :	<i>If I were you, I'd let it go.</i>
Many subordinate elliptical clauses:	<i>While [we were] waiting for the guests to arrive, our daughters ate half the cake. When [I am] in doubt about what to wear, I always dress casual.</i>

Relative Clauses. Most relative clauses are modifiers of nouns, and most are introduced by a relative pronoun that refers to that noun:

*Joe's car, **which he bought just last week**, looks like a smoothing iron to me.*

In this sentence the relative clause modifies the noun *car*, which precedes it. But in some sentences *which* refers not to a particular noun but to a whole idea, as in the following sentence:

*Joe bought me flowers, **which surprised me a great deal**.*

All such broad-reference clauses are compulsorily introduced by *which* (never by *who* or *that*), and because they are nonrestrictive, they are set off by commas:

*Tom cleaned up the garage without being asked, **which made him a suspect in his wife's eyes**.*

*Joe brought me flowers twice this week, **which probably means he's done something wrong**.*

⁹⁸ Agatha Christie, *Poirot's Early Cases*. *Wasps' Nest*.

The Absolute Phrase. This, being by definition a structure (a noun phrase that includes a postnoun modifier – usually a participle) independent from the main sentence, introduces an idea related to the sentence as a whole:

The weather being fine, we decided to go on a boat trip.

Our car having broken down, we had to make an unplanned stop at an inn.

His hands jammed in his pockets, Julian strolled pensively along the beach.

PRACTICE Absolute Phrases*. Identify the absolute phrases in the following sentences:

1. Harry froze, *his cut finger slipping on the jagged edge of the mirror again*.⁹⁹
2. The superintendent, *his head on his chest*, was slowly poking the ground with his stick.¹⁰⁰
3. *His bare legs cooled by sprinklers, his bare feet on the feathery and succulent grass, and his mobile phone in his hand* (he was awaiting Lionel's summons), Des took a turn round the grounds.¹⁰¹
4. Muffins baking in the oven, Giovanna waited for her friends to arrive.
5. The snow having persisted for over a week, 600 people were now snowed in.

Appositives. More often than not, the appositive comes in the shape of a noun phrase, as in:

Our visitor, a grey-haired lady of indeterminate age, surprised us all with a photo of our late great-grandfather.

Penicillin, the first antibiotic, was discovered by Alexander Fleming.

As it happens, in this particular example, the appositive renames and details upon the subject of the sentence. But sometimes “**we use a noun phrase to rename or, more accurately, to encapsulate the idea in the sentence as a whole**” (Kolln & Funk, 2012: 202). We call these structures *sentence appositives*, quite commonly set off by dashes:

He waved his pink right hand in circles, his favorite gesture.¹⁰²

The musical opened to rave reviews and standing-room-only crowds — a smashing success.

A pair of cardinals has set up housekeeping in our pine tree — an unexpected but welcome event.

PRACTICE Sentence Modifiers*. Add punctuation (commas) to the following sentences, if necessary.

1. My husband likes Chinese food; I on the other hand like Mediterranean dishes.
2. As you may know our website was unavailable for a period of time earlier today.
3. A week later much to everyone's surprise he won the race.
4. There was a terrific thunderstorm the night we came back from the Grand Canyon.
5. The Himalayas for instance are simply stunning this time of year.
6. By the way have you heard of the robbery?
7. Luckily it did not cause much damage.

MODIFIERS OF THE NOUN (PHRASE)

Noun modifiers, sometimes called *adnominals*¹⁰³, are organised as either pre-head or post-head information. Premodifiers will be looked at first.

⁹⁹ J. K. Rowling, *Harry Potter and the Deathly Hallows*.

¹⁰⁰ George Orwell, *A Hanging*.

¹⁰¹ Martin Amis, *Lionel Asbo: State of England*.

¹⁰² John Fowles, *The Magus*.

¹⁰³ **Adnominal** (*adj.* / *n.*) A term used by some grammarians to refer to the elements in a noun phrase which modify a noun (an analogy with adverbial), such as adjectives, prepositional phrases and “possessive” nouns, *e.g. the big hat, the hat in the box, the vicar's hat*. A description in terms of “adnominal” elements may also be used in the classification of relative clauses (*e.g. the car which she bought . . .*). (Crystal, 2008: 13)

PREMODIFIERS

Many noun phrases are simple two-word phrases: **determiner + headword** (*the students, a book, their homework, today's exam*). However, in everyday speech and in every piece of writing we produce, noun phrases are frequently expanded with modifiers. Sometimes, modification may apply to more than one head as in *The friendly boys and girls*. (Pârlog, 1995: 95)

According to Jim Feist (2012), the further from the head a premodifier is, the more types of modification it has. To appreciate the rich possibilities of premodifiers, let us have another look at how much a premodifier can be expanded in a noun phrase:

a **table**
 a kitchen **table**
 a wooden kitchen **table**
 a Chinese wooden kitchen **table**
 a brown Chinese wooden kitchen **table**
 a dark brown Chinese wooden kitchen **table**
 an old dark brown Chinese wooden kitchen **table**
 an expensive old dark brown Chinese wooden kitchen **table**
 those two expensive old dark brown Chinese wooden kitchen **tables** etc.

(Ruiz de Mendoza Ibáñez, 2015: 152)

the **book**
 the history **book**
 the American history **book**
 the illustrated American history **book**
 the recent illustrated American history **book**
 the recent controversial illustrated American history **book**
 the recent controversial illustrated leather bound American history **book**¹⁰⁴

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The two tables above show that premodification often supposes (determiners aside) the presence of nouns and / or adjectives. Indeed, **adjectives** and **nouns** are amongst the **most common noun (pre-)modifiers**. However, since **premodification** or **left-branching** “does not come easily or naturally, especially to the student coming from a Romance language, and has to be studied carefully before it can be used properly” (Falinski, 2011: 168), we will deal with it systematically.

There are six main word classes / structures that can sustain **premodification**:

1. adjectives
2. participles (*-ing* or *-ed*)
3. nouns
4. genitives
5. adverbs
6. phrases or clauses.

Adjectives as Premodifiers

¹⁰⁴ Retrieved from http://www.criticalreading.com/noun_phrase.htm#linkc.

The adjective is the premodifier by excellence. The traditional definition of *adjective* is “a word that modifies a noun”; etymologically, it means “added (to the noun)”. The simplest way of building up a noun phrase is just to string a number of adjectives together before a noun (with the adjective appearing between the determiner, if any, and the head noun):

DETERMINER	MODIFIERS	HEADWORD
<i>a</i>	<i>large brown</i>	<i>house</i>
<i>a</i>	<i>fast and powerful</i>	<i>car</i>
<i>a</i>	<i>dull, heavy, monotonous</i>	<i>clang</i> ¹⁰⁵
<i>the</i>	<i>big bad</i>	<i>wolf</i>
<i>the</i>	<i>poor little rich</i>	<i>girl</i>
<i>his</i>	<i>beautiful new</i>	<i>clothes</i>

This does not mean that adjectives can be used randomly; they usually limit the reference and are in turn limited in a wide variety of ways. One of the things that have a bearing upon them is the **order** in which they are to be used. The simplified general rule which applies to prenominal adjectives is as follows:

- When 2 or more adjectives are used together, **subjective adjectives**, that express an opinion (*nice, lovely, ugly*), are used before **objective, concrete adjectives** (*old, red, square*). In the example above, *his beautiful new clothes*, we see subjective adjective *beautiful* placed before the more objective one, *new*.
- Objective premodifiers are usually arranged as follows:

SIZE → AGE → SHAPE → COLOUR → ORIGIN → MATERIAL → PURPOSE

a big black dog

my old brown leather wallet

that square French wooden coffee table

Unlike the determiner category, the adjective category is an **open class**.

Participles as Premodifiers

Many of the words that modify nouns are not prototypical adjectives, but verb participles which function as adjectives. Both present and past participles are commonly used as premodifiers. With **present participles**, it is implied that the state being described is ongoing (*a laughing clown; a galloping horse*).

A barking dog never bites.

About 100 flights were cancelled at Heathrow on Monday due to freezing fog.

Those ringing bells awaken us every morning.

*You're a scolding, unjust, abusive, aggravating, bad old creature!*¹⁰⁶

*Scrooge! a squeezing, wrenching, grasping, scraping, clutching, covetous, old sinner!*¹⁰⁷

Some {-ing} adjectives are very idiosyncratic. The following present participle forms rarely occur with nouns other than the ones indicated here (Fillmore and Kay, 1995: 4-4, q. in Berk, 1999: 166).

Jane's cousins are blithering idiots.

They were consenting adults.

¹⁰⁵ ...a gigantic clock of ebony. Its pendulum swung to and fro with a **dull, heavy, monotonous** clang. (E. A. Poe, *The Masque of the Red Death*)

¹⁰⁶ Charles Dickens, *Our Mutual Friend*.

¹⁰⁷ Charles Dickens, *A Christmas Carol*.

*He was excused due to **mitigating** circumstances.*

Participial –ing form is not to be confused with the nominal / gerundial –ing form:

*a **swimming**-pool, **climbing** boots* [gerundial]

*a **swimming** turtle, a **waiting** taxi* [participial]

The difference is reflected in intonation (nominal / gerundial use – stress on the first element; the participial – stress on both elements). (Falinski, 2011: 167)

Past participles used as adjectives generally have a passive meaning and express a result; the noun described is / was acted upon.

*After some time, I threw the **wilted** roses out.*

*The **frightened** cat ran away.*

*A **broken** heart is not universally recognised as a medical condition.*

*The **Stolen** Necklace is a 1933 British crime film.*

*Grandma needs to rest her **swollen** foot.*

*The military hospital was overwhelmed with **wounded** soldiers.*

*Does **melted** snow need boiling?*

*A black, heavy, and **curiously-pannelled** door, opening inwardly, was closed, after the fashion of the day, with a chased brazen bar; while a single, huge, **bowed**, and **trelliced** window glared out upon the waters of the Adriatic.*¹⁰⁸

*...- the **wrinkled**, bejewelled, and **paint-begrimed** beldame, making a last effort at youth -...*¹⁰⁹

*As the emperor marched his **pale**, **bloated**, patriarchal **carcass** down the street, everyone loudly oohed and aahed at his beautiful new clothes.*¹¹⁰

A number past participles can function as adjectives only when they contain a prefix (e.g. *an unsung hero*; **a sung hero*). Certain participles that are not normally used as adjectives can be used as such if modified (e.g. *a seldom read manuscript*; *an easily sold product*; *a very ashamed student*; *a well-written article*; *a well-defined feature*).

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Present Participles [active meaning]	Past participles [passive meaning]
alarming	alarmed
amusing	amused
boring	bored
exciting	excited
falling	fallen
frightening	frightened
interesting	interested
pleasing	pleased
surprising	surprised
tiring	tired
worrying	worried

¹⁰⁸ E. A. Poe, *The Bargain Lost*.

¹⁰⁹ E. A. Poe, *The Man of the Crowd*.

¹¹⁰ James Finn Garner, *The Emperor's New Clothes*.

Nouns as Premodifiers. The Noun + Noun Sequence

Oftentimes, words that are usually noun heads are used to modify other nouns (*a paper airplane; an office chair; the county jail; a stone wall; a mountain bike; a brick house; the weather forecast*).

As pointed out by Pârlog (1995: 88), some of the nouns frequently used as premodifiers often become so closely associated with the head as to be regarded as part of a **compound noun** (with the two nouns being joined by a hyphen or not: *e.g. head master / head-master / headmaster*). In many cases, noun premodifiers correspond to **prepositional phrase postmodifiers**:

arm-chair = a chair with arms

tea-spoon = a spoon for tea

war story = a story about war

flower garden = a garden for flowers

football game = a game of football

Nouns that Denote Materials¹¹¹ are regularly used as modifiers: *silk stockings, a stone wall, a gold watch, lead pipes, a cotton dress*. The adjective derived from these nouns are, in some, but not all cases, used as modifiers to denote the material of which objects are made: *a wooden chair; a woollen dress; a leaden coffin*. "Often, however, such derivatives, mostly in *-en* and *-y*, are used with different meanings, usually figurative: *the Golden Age; a golden opportunity; leaden clouds; a leaden sleep* etc." (*idem*)

Premodifying Plural Nouns. Premodifiers are not usually marked for the plural unless they are nouns like *arms, arts, clothes, customs, sales, savings*, which have no singular form. So: *a language school; a woman-hater; a ten-minute interval, BUT clothes hanger; savings bank; a blue-skies philosophy*. (Falinski, 2011: 166) Pârlog (*op. cit.*, p. 89) also draws attention to the fact that **nouns that occur in their plural number in postmodifying prepositional phrases usually become singular when used in premodification**:

a cloth for dishes = a dish cloth

a brush for the teeth = a tooth brush

a sharpener for scissors = a scissor sharpener

a sonata for a solo piano = a piano sonata

However the rule does not always apply: *the committee on promotions* = the promotions committee.

Nouns as premodifiers function in a way very similar to adjectives. Nevertheless, unlike adjectives, they only rarely take inflected or periphrastic comparative and superlative forms (**a more mountain bike; *a stoner wall*). These are sometimes called **denominal**¹¹² **adjectives**.

In spite of the fact that some grammarians' view is that nouns as modifiers "can be considered adjectives because they express some attribute or quality held by the following noun" (Berk, 1999: 167), we need to emphasise the fact that their underlying semantic relationships are different because, after all, nouns and adjectives are two different categories, so one cannot be "function" for the other.

The Noun + Noun Sequence as a Style Marker. The following excerpt taken from a movie script¹¹³ (*The Invention of Lying*, 2009), a dialogue which contains an example of an entire series of

¹¹¹ As a matter of fact, materials are only an example of how productive these structures are. English grammarians have presented charts that categorise and explain this ongoing grammatical feature of modern English. Drawing on *Longman's Grammar of Spoken and Written Grammar* (Biber et al., 1999: 589-591) and on Bagge & Manning (2007: 557-558), we will present the most common meanings in a table (see **Appendix # 3**).

¹¹² **Denominal** (*adj.*) A term used in grammar to describe an element which originates as a noun but is used in some other way in sentence structure. For example, in *the garden fence*, *garden* could be described as a **denominal adjective**; in *I'm going to carpet the room*, *carpet* is a **denominal verb**. (Crystal, 2008: 135-136).

nouns heaped up as premodifiers of the headword *incident* (written in bold), demonstrates that the noun + noun sequence can fulfill two roles at once: information packaging and style.

THE BURNING BUILDING, BABY, BEAR, FACTORY, JAM INCIDENT

[*The Invention of Lying*, 2009]

MARK: Did I ever tell you about the time I saved a baby from a burning building and there was a bear and...

ANNA: Wait, there was a burning building and a bear?

MARK: Yea, well, I heard a baby crying and so I ran in there through the flames, not caring about my own safety, got the baby, jumped out.... it was the second storey.... jumped out. I landed, baby safe, but then this bear....

ANNA: Wait, how did you survive?

MARK: Well, let me tell you.

ANNA: No, how did you survive the jump? I've seen you twist your ankle crossing the street.

MARK: Because on this occasion I landed in something soft.

ANNA: Oh, so what did you land in?

MARK: Jam. It was a barrel of jam. It was a jam factory on fire. Probably what attracted the bear in the first place.

ANNA: Right.

MARK: You haven't heard of that? **The burning building, baby, bear, factory, jam incident?**

ANNA: Shoot, no.

MARK: Yea, classic. So I land. The bear is coming toward, big, lumbering, eating machine, like that happy chap over there.

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This heavily packed noun phrase contains the essence of an entire story / anecdote (whether it is real or not is not relevant here).

the	burning building	baby	bear	factory	jam	incident
determiner	modifying NP	modifier	modifier	modifier	modifier	head
	modifier	head				

According to Falinski, the noun + noun sequence is a kind of “**linguistic shorthand**” (Falinski, 2011: 169) and, indeed, the example above functions as a simplified, cataphoric instrument pointing backwards to something very wordy or very detailed in the (over-all) discourse. Much like citation conventions (*idem*, *ibidem*, *op. cit.* etc.), they are used for the sake of economy (to avoid either redundancy or wordiness).

In Biber's words:

Noun + noun sequences represent two opposite extremes of communicative priorities. On the one hand, they bring about an extremely dense packaging of referential information; on the other hand, they result in an extreme reliance on implicit meaning, requiring addressees to infer the intended logical relationship between the modifying noun and the head noun. In fact, noun + noun sequences are used to express a bewildering array of logical relation. (q. in Falinski, 2011: 169)

¹¹³ Retrieved from <http://www.imsdb.com/scripts/Invention-of-Lying,-The.html> (February 2016).

This reliance on implicit meaning sometimes leads to opacity or to ambiguity (e.g. *uniform resource locator protocol problem*), but then again premodification is proven far less explicit than postmodification. In spite of this, statistical language corpora surveys have always shown that premodification is very much exploited, especially in the written register (accounting for around 40% of all modification in news, and 30% of all that in academic prose, *apud* Falinski, 2011: 181). The noun phrase is, therefore, “an important and precise indicator of the stylistic appurtenance of a text” (*idem*).

PRACTICE. Adjectives, Participles & Nouns as Premodifiers.** Label the headword (H) and the determiners (D) of each of the noun phrases in the following sentences. Identify the form (adjective, noun, participle) of any modifiers that fill the slots between the determiner and headword.

1. The Porters’ old-fashioned respectable middle-class hard-working American ancestry was traced back to slavery.
2. A crooked little man came running over and told us the news.
3. The character’s dogged determination is the film’s central premise.
4. A powerful king asked a learned man to visit his magnificent palace.
5. *The Grinning Man* is a feature-length episode of a famous BBC crime drama series.
6. Their charming country house looked like the perfect place for a garden party.

Classifying ’s Genitives as Premodifiers

Possessive nominal expressions made up of a NP + an **inflected genitive morpheme** can act either as **determiners** (specifying genitives: *the woman’s hat*) or **modifiers** (classifying genitives: *a woman’s heart*). When used as modifiers, they are usually descriptive, signalling the purpose of the referent of the head noun:

There are several good women’s universities in Tokyo. [several universities for women]

There were ten farmer’s / farmers’ wives¹¹⁴ at the meeting.

We can see in the examples above that modifier *good* and determiners *several* and *ten* belong to the head noun, and not to the genitive noun.

Prompted by Falinski (2011: 172)’s example, we also emphasize the fact that NP *that lady’s umbrella*, which can be interpreted either as a specifying ’s genitive or as a classifying ’s genitive, may have one and the same surface structure but they differ as far as their deep structure is concerned.

Determiner	Premodifier	Head	Meaning of the Phrase
<i>that lady’s</i>		<i>umbrella</i>	the umbrella which belongs to that lady
<i>that</i>	<i>lady’s</i>	<i>umbrella</i>	that umbrella which was specially designed for women
<i>those children’s</i>		<i>books</i>	the books belonging to those children
<i>those</i>	<i>children’s</i>	<i>books</i>	those books written for children

This difference is even more evident if we use premodifying adjectives:

¹¹⁴ The example is taken from Quirk *et al.* (1985: 327) who think it necessary to specify that “the expression *farmer’s wives* does not imply polygamy: if this is a descriptive genitive, it is simply the plural of *farmer’s wife*.”

Determiner	Premodifier	Head	Meaning of the Phrase
<i>that lady's</i>	<i>old</i>	<i>umbrella</i>	the old umbrella which belongs to that lady [specifying genitive]
<i>that</i>	<i>old, lady's</i>	<i>umbrella</i>	that umbrella which was specially designed for women and which happens to be old [classifying genitive]

There is of course a third interpretation, with a **specifying phrasal 's genitive**:

Determiner	Premodifier	Head	Meaning of the Phrase
<i>that old lady's</i>		<i>umbrella</i>	the umbrella which belongs to that old lady

The two types of genitive also differ in terms of intonation: **the specifying 's genitive** has **two level stresses**, even a **slightly rising intonation**, while **the classifying 's genitive** – a **falling intonation** on the head noun. (*ibidem*, 173)

PRACTICE. Genitives as Determiners / Premodifiers.** Analyse the following noun phrases, using the noun phrase table (adapted from Falinski, 2011: 173). If genitives can be interpreted as both **specifying** (used as determiners) and **classifying** (used as premodifiers). The first two are done for you.

- a boy's jacket
- an exclusive men's club
- a monthly women's magazine
- a doctor's degree
- a neighbour's complaint
- that elderly lady's handbag
- that used child's bike
- that poor child's bike
- a fossilized dinosaur's egg
- an old sailor's uniform

Determiner	Modifier		Head
	Adjective	Noun	
a		boy's	jacket
a boy's			jacket
an	exclusive	men's	club

Adverbs as Premodifiers

Exceptionally, adverbs can premodify NPs: *the **then** President, the **above** example, an **away** match*. Adverbial phrases are perhaps more often used as modifiers: *his **far-away** cottage, a **down-to-earth** sort of fellow, a **before and after** picture of myself* (after Pârlog, 1995: 92).

Phrases or Clauses as Premodifiers

Premodifiers usually consist of single words, but they can also be longer idiomatic or unconventional, *ad hoc* phrases and clauses. Various types of phrases or entire clauses can be used in premodification, especially in casual register. In the following examples, the premodifying phrases and clauses are written in bold and the encompassing NPs are underlined:

*My daughter is in her **I-can't-stand-adults** phase.* (Berk, 1999: 170)

*Every day is a **once-in-a-lifetime** opportunity.*¹¹⁵

*The **hit-and-run** driver is still hunted by the police.*

*Farming can be very much a **hit-or-miss** affair.*

*The child had got lost in the **cash-and-carry** shop.*

*A **coming-of-age** story is a kind of bildungsroman.*

*The assistant manager made a silly, **off-the-cuff** comment.*

*He's walking around with **an anything you can do I can do better** attitude.*

*His **take-it-or-leave-it** attitude got on her nerves.*

*His **tongue-in-cheek** remark instantly put Diana off.*

*This weird **under-the-weather** feeling has not left me.*

*Sean's **up-to-date** methods are extremely useful.*

*Martha's **below-the-knee** skirt had a small tear from that nail.*

*A **happy-go-lucky** person like Timothy never plans ahead.*

*Colin was definitely a bossy **know-it-all** teenager.*

*These really are tasty, **easy-to-follow** recipes.*

*This **easy-to-use** computer programme literally changed my life.*

*Nascondino World Championship is the only international **hide-and-seek** competition for adults.*

*Her **I-wish-it-was-still-weekend** mood does not help.*

*Julianna's **have-it-all-her-own-way** daughter is quite a handful.*

*This **battle-of-the-sexes** comedy is hilarious.*

*My hair type: fine, straight, **sticks-to-your-head-if-you-don't-wash-it-every-day-type** hair*¹¹⁶.

*Those **born-to-rule** kids often got arrested.*

*My father-in-law is an **early-to-bed** guy.*

*As a **take-charge** executive, Pat displayed all the necessary assertiveness and self-confidence.*

*He suddenly got up with a **move-if-you-dare** expression.*

*There is a sort of **Oh-what-a-wicked-world-this-is-and-how-I-wish-I-could-make-it-better-and-nobler** expression about Montmorency.*¹¹⁷

*There's a **cat-licking-the-cream** expression on your face.*¹¹⁸

¹¹⁵ A quote by George Moss.

¹¹⁶ Example retrieved from <http://beautyeditor.ca/2014/03/13/clarifying-shampoo> (February 2017).

¹¹⁷ Jerome K. Jerome, *Three Men in a Boat*.

¹¹⁸ Erle Stanley Gardner, *The Case of the Caretaker's Cat*.

Frankfurt Airport's round-the-clock free wi-fi service is available for all tourists.

Your swallowed-up-by-the-earth theory will never stand up in court.

An all-you-can-eat buffet was just around the corner.

Georgia, a stay-at-home suburban mother of five, testified to that, too.

I have a lot of excellent do-it-yourself handbooks.

Multiple Premodification

Premodification can be rather lengthy, especially in technical writing. The long compound noun phrase, sometimes called the "**stacked noun phrase**" or "**packed noun phrase**" contains a long string of attributive nouns or modifiers:

*People who author web-pages have become aware of what is now known as the uniform resource locator protocol problem.*¹¹⁹

In the example above, nouns are prevalent, but generally speaking, adjectives and nouns are most commonly found as complex premodifiers. The difficulty is knowing what is modifying what. According to Falinski (2011: 170), the best strategy (as always with the noun phrase) is **to find the head** and then **work backwards through the premodifying elements**. He gives two examples to illustrate this:

1) information packaging strategy

2) "Right leg amputation, right?" said the orderly.

"No," I exclaimed sitting up in alarm. "Just a minor knee operation!"

"He's just pulling your leg!" said the nurse.¹²⁰

In the quote above we have both adjectives and nouns as premodifiers, some of which are embedded:

right leg amputation

[(adjective + noun) noun]

minor knee operation

[adjective (noun + noun)]

When in doubt about hierarchy in multiple premodification, just follow Falinski's golden rule of going backwards. But generally speaking,

...in practice, multiple premodification with more than one or two nouns is not very common, and is found mainly in the severe register of technical English, such as the language of science, technology and medicine, or the intense poetic world of literature and advertising. Statistical surveys of the language find relatively few examples in the spoken language; and even in the higher registers, for instance, academic prose, Biber reports 70-80% of noun + noun sequences containing only one single-word premodifier, about 20% with two-word premodification, and three- or four-word premodifiers accounting for a meagre 2%. (Falinski, 2011: 171)

Internal Grammatical Order of Premodifiers

As we have seen so far, adjectives and nouns are the two word classes most commonly found **between the determiner and the headword**.

DETERMINER + ADJECTIVE + NOUN + HEADWORD

It should be therefore emphasized that whenever a noun phrase contains **an adjective and a noun as premodifiers**, they must appear exactly in this order:

¹¹⁹ Example retrieved from <http://grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/Grammar/phrases.htm> (March 2017).

¹²⁰ David Lodge, *Therapy*.

DETERMINER	ADJECTIVE [<i>epithet</i> , in Halliday's terminology]	NOUN [<i>classifier</i> , in Halliday's terminology]	HEADWORD
the	beautiful	brick	house
that	pretty	silk	dress
a	successful	oyster	farmer
that	famous	jam	incident
Anna's	new	coffee	table

Other possible structures (inspired by Biber *et al.*, 1999: 599-600):

- determiner + participle + noun + head (*e.g. an increased / increasing disease incidence*)
- determiner + adjective + participle + head (*e.g. rare shopping trips; a well-preserved stuffed animal*)
- determiner + participle + adjective + head (*e.g. the estimated average score; breathtaking natural landscape*)
- determiner + noun + participle + head (*e.g. information processing course*)
- determiner + adverb + adjective + head (*e.g. a really difficult question; a rather blunt reply*)
- determiner + adverb + participle + head (*e.g. these fully grown men; an exceedingly pleasing event*)
- determiner + adjective + colour adjective + head (*e.g. her clear blue eyes; his shabby black clothes*).

POSTMODIFIERS

Many of the noun phrases given as example so far in this book contain post-head information as well as pre-head information (*e.g. that **girl** with red hair; the green-eyed black **cats** meowing in the corner; a **street** leading to the flower market in Covent Garden; the smallest of the three shiny redback **spiders** spinning their webs in the corner*). If determiners can only be placed before the headword, modifiers can be placed (depending on their type) either before or after the head. Right-branching is, therefore, the modifiers' prerogative.

[DETERMINERS + PREMODIFIERS] + HEAD + POSTMODIFIERS

pre-head head post-head

The **postheadword position in the noun phrase** may contain **modifiers** of many forms but largely speaking, the **three most common types of postmodification** in the noun phrase are represented by:

- **prepositional phrases** (*e.g. the house **on the corner**; the plane **from Oslo***)
- **non-finite clauses** (*e.g. a girl **resembling Jane**; a note **written by Jo**; the time **to start***)
- **relative clauses** (*e.g. a man **whom I knew in the army**; the colour **that I like***)

Whenever there is more than one postmodifier, they need to appear more or less in this order:

Determiner	HEADWORD	Prep. Phrase	Non-finite Clause	Relative Clause
the	patient	in the hallway	waiting to be seen	whose insurance policy was cancelled
the	property	on Silver Lane	awaiting buyers	which offers good-sized accommodation

Prepositional Phrases

By far **the most common class of (circumstantial) post-modifiers used in English NPs, PPs** are also the most economical.

*the girl **with red hair***

*the patient **on the hallway***

*the plane **from Oslo***

*a ticket **to Paris***

*those lovely homes **along the street***

a woman of¹²¹ many parts / talents

the collapse of the economy¹²²

Typically, of the two known types of PPs, the **adjectival prepositional phrase** will function¹²³ as a postmodifier.

E m b e d d i n g. Very often PPs, which already contain a NP, happen to be part of an embedded structure.

Because **the prepositional phrase itself includes a noun phrase**, the adjectival prepositional phrase demonstrates **the recursiveness of the language**—the embedding of one structure in another of the same kind. Such recursiveness occurs in many parts of the sentence: a clause within a clause, a noun phrase within a noun phrase, a verb phrase within a verb phrase. **In the case of the adjectival prepositional phrase, we nearly always have a noun phrase within a noun phrase.** (Kolln & Funk, 2012: 136)

Noun Phrase			
{[students] [at (this university)]}			
Noun		Prepositional Phrase	
students		at this university	
	Preposition	Noun Phrase	
	at	this university	
		Determiner	Noun
		this	university

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According to Quirk *et al.* (1985: 43), “by **repeated embedding**, both a noun phrase and a prepositional phrase can be indefinitely extended.” It is the very structure of noun phrases and their postmodifying prepositional phrases that allows them to work together to create **multiple levels of embedding** (Biber *et al.*, 1999; Halliday, 1989). This **nesting** occurs, according to Halliday, because of the “**recursive principle** at work in the clause (...) **nominal groups can function inside prepositional phrases and prepositional phrases can function inside nominal groups**” (Halliday, 1989: 70, q. in O'Malley, 2013: 37-38).

¹²¹ Statistically, the most common preposition used in postmodifying PPs is OF, followed by IN, FOR, ON, TO and WITH. Preposition OF can serve an extremely wide range of functions; it can be used:

- in partitive expressions (e.g. *one of my friends*)
- in genitive-like structures (e.g. *the owner of the car*)
- in double genitive constructions (e.g. *a friend of my sister's*)
- with quantifying determiners (e.g. *a lot of friends*)
- with piece words (e.g. *a piece of information / advice / cake*)
- after *pair* and *couple* (e.g. *a pair of gloves / trousers, a couple of hours*)
- with group words (e.g. *a pile of books, a flock of sheep, a bunch of flowers*)
- after container nouns (e.g. *a bottle of champagne*)
- after nouns in *-ful* (e.g. *a mouthful of food, a plateful of soup, a handful of people, an armful of flowers*)
- in constructions echoing adjective premodification (e.g. *an issue of great interest = a very interesting issue*) etc.

¹²² From Thomas Payne (2010)'s functionalist perspective, prepositional phrases introduced by OF (e.g. *a jar of jelly, a spoonful of sugar, a plethora of advice, a ton of bricks, a book of poetry, a student of chemistry, a feeling of dread, the smell of success, the departure of the flight*) and sometimes by IN (e.g. *a change in plans*) count as noun complements rather than post-nominal modifiers. On the contrary, in a NP like *a pianist of the highest caliber*, the PP *of the highest caliber* is considered a postmodifier (Payne J. & Huddleston, 2002). Furthermore, certain OF + *ing* structures (e.g. *the risk of losing your way; the possibility of being rescued*) are also considered noun complements rather than postmodifiers.

¹²³ For other functions fulfilled by PPs, see **Appendix # 6**.

PRACTICE. Embedded PPs.** Underline the prepositional phrases in the following sentences. Use one line for enclosing prepositional phrases, two lines for first-level embedded prepositional phrases and three lines for second-level embedded phrases, if any.

1. She was liked by all the people in the neighbourhood.
2. The computer world is constantly threatened by an enemy from within.
3. The reception after the conference at Majesty Hall was a huge success.
4. Anna left with a present for her brother.
5. His attachment for that old house on a dusty plain in the desert puzzled everyone.

Relative Clauses

The **relative clause** (also called **adjectival clause**) is a dependent clause. When used adjectivally, it identifies the noun or pronoun it modifies. Like adjectival prepositional phrases, relative clauses answer the questions WHICH ONE? or WHAT KIND OF?:

*The arrow **that has left the bow** never returns.*¹²⁴ [which arrow?]

*People **who live in glass houses** should not throw stones.*¹²⁵ [what kind of people?]

Relative clauses are often introduced by *that* (e.g. *the arrow **that has left the bow***) or *which* (e.g. *the property **which** offers good-sized accommodation*). However, when referring to people, we generally use *who* rather than *that* (sometimes *whom*, if relative *who* functions as an object, or *whose*, if it indicates possession):

*A man **whom my father knew in the army** called on us today.*

*The colleague **whose notes I borrowed** was absent today.*

The objective case relative, *whom*, like the relative *that*, can often be deleted:

*A man [**whom**] **my father knew in the army** called on us today.*

*We can choose **a book [that] you like**.*

Occasionally, relative clauses are introduced not by relative pronouns but by the relative adverbs *where*, *when*, and *why*, which can sometimes be omitted, too:

*It was nice to see again the town **where I was born**.*

*I will not rest until the day [**when**] **the results are posted**.*

*I understand the reason [**why**] **Maggie left the system**.*

Non-Finite Postmodifying Clauses

There are three major types of **non-finite postmodifying clauses**:

- *ing*-clauses (*the patient **waiting to be seen**; those dogs **running down the road***)
- *ed*-clauses (*a house **designed by a famous architect**; a tree **split down the middle***)
- *to*-clauses / infinitive phrases¹²⁶ (*the first group **to come**; the last exercise **to be done**; the best place **to eat seafood***)

¹²⁴ Relative clauses introduced by *that* should be distinguished from noun *that*-complement clauses:

The news (that) we received was not very good. [relative clause]

The news that he left the country caught us by surprise. [that complement clause]

¹²⁵ Relative clauses introduced by *wh*-words should be distinguished from noun *wh*-complement clauses:

A teenager who acts like a celebrity is no surprise. [relative clause]

There is no question who is the celebrity here. [wh-complement clause]

¹²⁶ Postmodifying *to*-clauses should be distinguished from *to*-infinitive complement clauses:

Their plans to elope were doomed from the start. [to-infinitive complement clause]

Serena's attempt to clarify things bothered her colleagues. [to-infinitive complement clause]

They were granted permission to leave the premises. [to-infinitive complement clause]

They ignored my decision / failure / (in)ability / right / desire / effort to make other plans. [to-infinitive complement clause]

Your duty to do something about it should come first. [to-infinitive complement clause]

The first two types are called **participial clauses** (the *present participle clause* ending in *-ing*, the *past / passive participle clause* ending in *-ed*), and the third is called **(to-)infinitive clause**. They all function as relative substitutes. As a matter of fact, participial clauses are nothing but reduced relative clauses:

the girl who is resembling Jane [relative clause]

the girl resembling Jane [participial clause]

Other Postmodifiers

Occasionally and secondarily, **adjectives**, **adverbs**, **noun phrases**, **appositive noun phrases** and **reflexive pronouns** also occupy the headword position. The following table (adapted from Downing & Locke, 2006: 446, and completed) presents these secondary postmodifiers, while also being a review of all postmodifiers:

Type of Postmodifier	Examples
PPs	<i>the house on the corner; a new album by a top musician</i>
finite relative clauses	<i>the man who is standing in the corridor</i>
non-finite clauses	▪ <i>the man standing in the corridor</i> [-ing clause] ▪ <i>the man to consult</i> [to-inf. clause] ▪ <i>the fax sent this morning</i> [-en clause]
adjectives	▪ <i>something different; someone new; nothing important</i>¹²⁷ ▪ <i>the president elect; the best hotel available</i> ▪ <i>the children, usually quiet; a writer both witty and wise; a face pale and thin;</i> ▪ <i>Stephen the Great; Vlad the Impaler; William the Silent</i> ▪ <i>...a combustion irresistible, all-devouring, omni-prevalent, immediate...</i>¹²⁸ ▪ <i>Having determined upon your subject, you must next consider the tone, or manner, of your narration. There is the tone didactic, the tone enthusiastic, the tone natural – all commonplace enough. (...) Then there is the tone elevated, diffusive, and interjectional.</i>¹²⁹
adverbs	<i>the flat upstairs; the way out; the road back; nothing wrong; my thought(s) exactly; the people here; the conditions there</i>
NPs	<i>the party last night; the ride home</i>
appositive NPs	<i>my friend the doctor; Mr. Statini, the tiger trainer</i>
reflexive pronouns	<i>the doctor himself</i>

PRACTICE. Postmodifiers.** Identify all the postmodifiers in the following sentences and label them by form (PPs, finite clauses, non-finite clauses, adjectives, adverbs, NPs, reflexive pronouns).

Head nouns which take *to*-infinitive complement clauses represent human goals / opportunities / actions and are often related to a verb (*attempt, decision, desire, failure, plan, tendency, permission*) or an adjective (*(in)ability, right, capacity*). Postmodifying *to*-clauses can be expanded into a relative clause (e.g. *the last exercise to be done* = *the last exercise we / you must do*), while *to*-infinitive complement clauses usually answer WHICH or WHAT (e.g. *their plans to elope; which plans?*).

¹²⁷ Whenever they modify **compound indefinite pronouns** (e.g. *something, someone, somewhere, anything, anyone, anywhere, nothing etc.*), adjectives appear in **postposition**.

¹²⁸ E. A. Poe, *The Conversation of Eiros and Charmion*.

¹²⁹ E. A. Poe, *How to Write A Blackwood Article*.

1. He evidently regarded his tall shipmate with a feeling half-wondrous, half-quizzical.¹³⁰
2. The best place to meditate is in the meadows outside the city.¹³¹
3. The sailor was a big man, broad-shouldered and tall.
4. His trip abroad had to be postponed because of the the incident which had occurred the night before.
5. John Smith, the famous business tycoon, honoured us with his presence.
6. His determination to please matched her reluctance to join him.
7. The letter announcing his arrival came rather late.
8. The authors themselves left the theatre long before their play was over.

Restrictive & Non-restrictive Modification¹³²

The examples in the table above contain a wide variety of units, all of which are used **restrictively**. Modification can be **restrictive** / **defining** or **non-restrictive** / **non-defining**. We speak of **restrictive** modification when the reference of the head is a member of a class which can be identified exclusively through the modification that has been supplied. In other words, the information presented by the modifier is essential when it comes to identifying the head or to the meaning of the sentence as a whole. Restrictiveness usually imposes a limitation on the possible reference of the head.

*The tall student **standing in the corner** wants to be excused.* [participle –ing phrase]

When the modification is not essential but rather additional information, we speak of **non-restrictiveness**. Non-restrictive modification entails the use of distinctive punctuation, usually being set off by **commas** from the rest of the sentence.

*John Smith, **who is in the corner**, wants to be excused.* [relative clause]

Most postmodifying structures are restrictive but occasionally can be used with non-restrictive functions as well. Relative clauses, for example, are a very common type of postmodifiers can be used restrictively (in which case they answer the question WHICH?) or non-restrictively (in which case they are usually separated by commas):

*Women **who can cook** are highly treasured when found.* [defining / restrictive]

*My mother, **who is an excellent cook**, is thinking of opening a restaurant.* [non-defining / non-restrictive]

With some modifiers (e.g. appositive noun phrases), punctuation may depend on the extralinguistic situation.

*My sister **Mary** is a primary school teacher.* [unlike my other, sister, Joan, who is a judge]

*My sister, **Mary**, is a primary school teacher.* [Mary is my only sister]

Temporary & Permanent Modification

According to Quirk *et al.* (1985: 1242), there is a second dichotomy that has some affinities with the distinction between restrictive and non-restrictive but rather more with the contrast of permanent and temporary in agential nouns. Modification in noun phrase structure may also be seen as permanent or temporary (*i.e.* items placed in premodification position are typically given the status of **permanent** or, at any rate, characteristic features). This does not necessarily entail that postmodification position is committed to temporariness. Nevertheless, those adjectives which have to be predicative have a notably **temporary** reference. Thus *the courteous man* can be understood as “the man who is normally (permanently) courteous”, whereas *The man is ready* (vs. **the ready man*) has reference only to a specific time, therefore it is to be interpreted as temporary. Quirk *et al.* also speak about a dynamics of the process “from temporary to permanent”, and his example is of *the waitress in the corner* (a noun phrase containing postmodification if the

¹³⁰ E. A. Poe, *King Pest*.

¹³¹ A quote from Nachman of Bratslav.

¹³² For further details on **postmodifier (non)restrictiveness**, see **Appendix # 4**.

waitress is unknown or her position unfamiliar) which can become *the corner waitress* provided her position in the corner has become familiar to the speaker.

It is only when the connection between the head and modification has become familiar that they can be “telescoped”, reduced to premodification, semantically opaque, less explicit, more telegraphic. (Falinski, 2011: 169)

premodification	≅ permanence, familiarity
postmodification	≅ temporariness, unfamiliarity

Premodification vs. Postmodification

Temporary vs. permanent is not the only dichotomy applicable to pre- and postmodification. They also differ in terms of the quantity and quality of the information they carry. For instance, even though natural English supports the idea of lavish premodification, the number of premodifiers is commonsensically limited, otherwise the message becomes utterly unclear. Postmodification, on the other hand, is potentially limitless (remember, for example, the long series of PPs given on page in chapter 2, the sub-chapter on PPs):

*The old farmhouse stood for years, after the revolution, by the fork in the road, beyond the orange grove, over the wooden bridge, at the farthest edge of the family's land, toward the great basin, down in the valley, under the old mining town, outside the city's limits, and past the end of the county maintained road.*¹³³

The amount of information provided by the series of PPs could not have been used, it is clear, in pre-head position. As some linguists explain, postmodification or right-branching is linked with the very direction of thought and speech:

Right-branching is a **common and natural means of extending the noun phrase**, and is capable of almost **endless extension**, coming as naturally as **the direction of thought and speech itself, “from left to right”**. (Falinski, 2011: 16)

Left-branching or premodification, on the other hand, while it may be seen as optional, it does have its bearing on the over-all message:

Premodifiers are **optional elements** in the noun phrase, given that **their presence or absence does not affect the grammaticality of its structure**. However, premodifiers provide the noun phrase with important features, since they **identify, classify and define** the head noun. (Pastor Gómez, 2009: 22)

Another difference between right-branching and left-branching has to do not with the ability to package information but with the type of information conveyed: **“new” information** is thus usually contained in **postmodification**, and **“given” information**, in **premodification**.

Also, **postmodification** may be **more dynamic and variable** as compared to premodification, but it is at the same time **more transparent, more semantically explicit**. “The later elements of a sentence are most communicative, that is, they bear the greatest message load”, says Pastor Gómez (2009: 210-211). This does not mean that premodifiers, being more opaque, are not necessary or rarely used. On the contrary, they are widely used, especially in the written register (e.g. news language, academic prose, scientific writing etc.).

¹³³ Retrieved from <http://grammar.yourdictionary.com/parts-of-speech/prepositions/Prepositional-Phrases.html> (August 2016).

Orality and informality generally suppose relatively simple noun phrases and mainly postmodification, while

[T]he further we go along the scale towards written / formal, the more complex the noun phrase becomes, and the greater amount of premodification and post-modification it may contain. (...) All statistical language corpora surveys show that premodification is three to four times more common in the expository written register than in conversation, accounting for around 40% of all modification in news, and 30% of all that in academic prose. (Falinski, 2011: 20, 181)

To summarise the contrasting features of pre- and postmodification, we use the following table:

Premodification	Postmodification
permanence	temporariness
familiarity / given information	unfamiliarity / new information
opacity / implicitness	transparency / explicitness
lexical density	broad lexical compass
literacy / written discourse	orality
formality	informality

Noun Phrases, Lexical Density and Style (Markers)

The noun phrase is “an important and precise indicator of the stylistic appurtenance of a text.” (Falinski, 2011: 181) In an experiment they carried out to see how packaging of information works, Biber *et al.* (1999) also note that information is being carried out differently according to the various kinds of text. Biber suggests four levels of style: Conversation, Fiction, News and Academic prose, to which Falinski (*op. cit.*) adds a fifth, Scientific writing. The use of premodification naturally increases from the first to the last level of style proposed.

In a noun + noun sequence no function words are available to show the logical and semantic links between the nouns: there is almost total reliance on implicit meaning, which has to be “filled in” from previous knowledge, either “of the world” or from the text. (Falinski, 2011: 169)

Biber *et al.*¹³⁴ find the number of premodifiers in the academic prose corpus lower than anticipated, but still consider it among the most plausible registers to make use of extensive premodification. Other linguists clearly indicate that the density of noun phrases is not the same across all academic levels, while at the same time acknowledging the densely packed information in NPs as a hallmark of written academic language (Swierzbin, 2016). For Falinski (*op. cit.*, p. 25), too, the language of academic prose is characterised above all by variety, but a variety that is “highly balanced, developed and sophisticated, with a great deal of modification of

¹³⁴ Biber & Clark (2002) have also made use of the ARCHER corpus (cf. Biber *et al.* 1994) to compare the patterns of use of modification in four different registers: drama, fiction, newspaper reportage and medical prose. They studied the frequency of pre and post modifiers in noun phrases for the four registers and their distribution in Present Day English noun phrases. The four registers show almost the same occurrence of NPs. However, the use of modification reveals differences: despite the fact that there has been an increase in the use of both attributive adjectives and nouns as premodifiers over the past three centuries, the greatest change has been the increasing use of nouns premodifying common nouns. Also, for postmodification, prepositional phrases are the most common type, as would be expected; this is specially the case of *of*-phrases. (Pastor Gómez, 2009: 31)

the noun phrase, both to the left and to the right.” Heavily pre- and postmodified, lexically dense, highly abstract, the written academic register definitely stands out among the formal registers. Scientific writing (the language of science and technology, medical writing) also displays an even distribution between left-branching and right-branching.

The function of noun phrases as a means for style is also perceived in journalistic language. Complex noun phrases are used more often than not in newspaper headlines, as clear examples of an exploitable compressed style. Not surprisingly, five out of five grammatical devices that have been identified as especially important in the development of this compressed discourse style: nominalizations, attributive adjectives, nouns as nominal premodifiers, prepositional phrases as nominal postmodifiers, appositive noun phrases (Biber & Gray, 2011: 229) – have to do with the NP structure. As the vital, attention-grabbing information in a news story comes at the very beginning of a text (headlines, the lead paragraph), the “all-important” title, straightforward or not, is the one to ultimately sell the newspaper. A bow-heavy title like *The lying, hating hi-tech webs of Zuck and Trump are the new superpowers*¹³⁵ (among twenty others taken from the online edition of *The Times*, in January 2017) testifies to the fact that “complex NPs replace potential, more explicit and longer utterances like those with postmodifying relative clauses. Furthermore, the nominal style allows for an impersonal tone that can be used to establish distance between the writer and the news itself, creating the impression that the information presented is objective.” (Pastor Gómez, 2009: 21).

To conclude, no matter the register in which it is employed, the NP is of paramount importance in any text:

The noun phrase [is] “a key resource for constructing texts” (Fang *et al.*, 2006, p. 252) (...) With its head noun and meaning-laden modifiers, the noun phrase expands the information load of a clause, repackages information as nominalizations, maintains cohesion and organization of a text, and keeps track of referents (Fang & Schleppegrell, 2008; Fang *et al.*, 2006; Francis, 1994). (O’Malley, 2013: 32-33)

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OTHER TYPES OF MODIFIERS

We have seen that modifiers are usually classified according to the place they occupy in relation to the headword: they are either **premodifiers** or **postmodifiers**. Other criteria lead to other types of modifiers, such as **dangling modifiers**, **misplaced modifiers**, **squinting modifiers**, **degree modifiers**, **submodifiers**, **summative modifiers**, **resumptive modifiers**.

Type of Modifier ¹³⁶	Definition	Examples
Dangling Modifier (aka <i>dangling participle</i> / <i>hanging modifier</i> / <i>floater</i> / <i>floating modifier</i> / <i>misrelated participle</i>)	A word or phrase (often a participle or a participle phrase) that does not actually modify the word it is intended to modify. Some grammarians regard them as grammatical errors.	<i>If elected, Obama’s main opposition will not come from Republicans.</i> ¹³⁷
Misplaced Modifier	A word, phrase or clause that does not clearly relate to the word or phrase it is intended to modify. In prescriptive grammar, they are usually regarded as	<i>An hour later a chubby man in a wrinkled suit with pasty skin walked in.</i> ¹³⁸

¹³⁵ <https://www.thetimes.co.uk/article/the-lying-hating-hi-tech-webs-of-zuck-and-trump-are-the-new-superpowers-jgzbp3xt> (January 18th 2017).

¹³⁶ Based on <http://grammar.about.com/od/mo/g/modterm.htm>.

¹³⁷ David Brooks, *Talking Versus Doing*, in *The New York Times*, May 20, 2008.

¹³⁸ David Baldacci, *The Innocent*.

	errors.	
Squinting Modifier (aka <i>two-way modifier / squinting construction</i>)	An ambiguous modifier (typically an adverb such as <i>only</i>) that appears to qualify the words both before and after it.	<i>I am only buying organic apples these days.</i> <i>The children only know how to imitate vampires and zombies.</i>
Degree Modifier (aka <i>qualifier / degree adverb(ial) / degree word</i>)	A word (such as <i>very, rather, fairly, quite, somewhat, pretty, sort of, kind of</i>) that precedes adjectives and adverbs to indicate the degree to which they apply. It can be an amplifier / downtoner / intensifier .	<i>His uniform was a little too big, his black shoes a little too shiny, the crease in his trooper's hat a little too perfect.</i> ¹³⁹
Submodifier (aka <i>intensifier</i>)	An adverb (such as <i>really, very, pretty, entirely</i>) used in front of an adjective to heighten its meaning. The term <i>submodifier</i> was introduced by linguist M.A.K. Halliday (2004 [1985]).	<i>an unusually large house</i>
Summative Modifier	A modifier (usually a noun phrase) that appears at the end of a sentence and serves to summarise the idea of the main clause. The term <i>summative modifier</i> was introduced by Joseph M. Williams in his article <i>Defining Complexity</i> (<i>College English</i> , Feb. 1979).	<i>Over time, communities of practice produce a common history. They establish a shared repertoire of stories, languages, artifacts, routines, rituals, processes--put simply, a culture.</i> ¹⁴⁰
Resumptive Modifier	A modifier that repeats a key word (usually at or near the end of a main clause) and then adds informative or descriptive details related to that word. As Jean Fahnestock notes in <i>Rhetorical Style</i> (2011), "The resumptive modifier reaches into a string of terms and pulls out one for the emphasis of repetition."	<i>Edith looked out on the morning, the soft bright morning that struck her dazzled dazzling eyes.</i> ¹⁴¹ <i>My grandmother is a woman who used to crack Brazil nuts open with her teeth, a woman who once lifted a car off the ground, when there was an accident and it had to be moved.</i> ¹⁴² <i>Everything about a cheetah is designed for speed--pure, raw, explosive speed.</i> ¹⁴³

SEMINAR on MODIFIERS

CHAPTER # 10 IN A NUTSHELL

¹³⁹ Scott Smith, *A Simple Plan*.

¹⁴⁰ Stewart R. Clegg et al., *Managing and Organizations*.

¹⁴¹ Henry Green, *Loving*.

¹⁴² Joyce Maynard, *Four Generations*, in *The New York Times*, April 12, 1979.

¹⁴³ Roff Smith, *Cheetahs on the Edge*, in *National Geographic*, November 2012.

- **Modification:** A term used in syntax to refer to the structural dependence of one grammatical unit upon another. It is a largely optional function performed, for instance, by adjectives in the noun phrase.
- **The prepositional phrase** is by far **the most common structure of modification**, which regularly appears as a **modifier of both nouns and verbs**.
- Sometimes, words (*i.e.* adverbs, vocatives, interjections), phrases (*i.e.* the absolute phrase) or clauses (*i.e.* relative clauses) are used so as to modify the sentence as a whole, not only some parts of it.
- **Noun modifiers**, sometimes called *adnominals*, are organised as either pre-head or post-head information.
- **Premodification** can be realised by:
 - adjectives (*e.g.* a **big black** dog)
 - present and past participles (*e.g.* a **barking** dog; a **wounded** dog)
 - nouns (*e.g.* a **paper** airplane, a **stone** wall, a **tour** guide; an **office** chair)
 - classifying genitives (*e.g.* a **men's** club)
 - adverbs (*e.g.* the **then** President)
 - phrases or clauses (*e.g.* an **all-you-can-eat** buffet).
- **Postmodification** can be realised by:
 - prepositional phrases (*e.g.* the books **on the table**)
 - non-finite clause (*e.g.* any man **owning a car**)
 - relative clauses (*e.g.* the students **who hate grammar**)
 - adjectives (*e.g.* The wolf is carnivore **incarnate**.¹⁴⁴)
 - adverbs (*e.g.* the room **upstairs**)
 - (appositive) NPs (*e.g.* the ride **home**; my friend **the doctor**)
 - reflexive pronouns (*e.g.* the doctor **himself**)
- Modification can be **restrictive** (*e.g.* The tall student **standing in the corner** wants to be excused.) or **nonrestrictive** (*e.g.* John Smith, **who is in the corner**, wants to be excused.)
- **Premodification:** permanence, familiarity, opacity, density, formality.
- **Postmodification:** temporariness, unfamiliarity, transparency, orality, informality.
- **Summative modifier:** a noun phrase that appears at the end of a sentence and serves to summarise the idea of the main clause.
- **Resumptive modifier:** a modifier that repeats a key word (usually near the end of a main clause), then adds informative or descriptive details related to it.

CHAPTER # 10 FURTHER PRACTICE

PRACTICE. Modifiers.** Underline the noun phrases in the following sentences. Identify the headword and determiner, then indicate the type of modifiers.

1. The new Sunday brunch menu at the cafeteria made an impression on the guests.
2. Celina's granddddaughter found a heart-shaped flowery jewelry box in the attic.
3. The Kafkas lived in a vast glass and iron building with a concrete façade.
4. The good you do isn't always good for you.

¹⁴⁴ Angela Carter, *The Bloody Chamber and Other Stories. The Company of Wolves*.

5. The Khalifas lived in the downstairs part of a small concrete house with pink walls, lime-green windows and blue-painted balconies with squiggly metal railings, all of which made it look (in Haroun's view) more like a cake than a building.¹⁴⁵
6. Margaret made a good listener to all her mother's little plans for adding some small comforts to the lot of the poorer parishioners.¹⁴⁶
7. Her lovely skin tone reminded him of butterscotch candy.¹⁴⁷
8. He was a sad dog, it is true, and a dog's death it was that he died.¹⁴⁸
9. The man who never alters his opinion is like standing water, and breeds reptiles of the mind.¹⁴⁹
10. He has all the virtues I dislike and none of the vices I admire.¹⁵⁰

PRACTICE. Restrictive vs. Non-restrictive Postmodifiers.** Identify the postmodifiers in the following sentences as restrictive or nonrestrictive by adding commas if needed.

1. In the 1730s Carlo Goldoni who had initially trained for the legal profession, changed his career and devoted himself to writing plays.
2. Ford introduced the mass production of cars which made them cheaper.
3. Text messaging which is called SMS (for short message service) is an efficient and cheap form of communication.
4. The young lady who came to see my wife yesterday is her second cousin twice removed.
5. The suspect in the line-up who has whiskers is believed to have committed the crime.
6. A suspect in the line-up, who happened to be my neighbour's youngest son, looked very nervous.
7. William Blake whose visual artistry is world famous died in 1827.
8. A book is designed on a computer and then printed on a large sheet of paper which is later cut up into pages.

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PRACTICE. Building NPs*.** Build your own NPs following the patterns:

- a) determiner + premodifier (adj) + premodifier (adj) + head [in arranging the adjectives, mind the subjective / objective and SASCOMP order]
- b) determiner + premodifier (adj) + premodifier (noun) + head
- c) premodifier (adj) + head + postmodifier (PPs)
- d) determiner 1 + determiner 2 + premodifier (noun) + head + postmodifier (relative clause)

PRACTICE. Review of Modifiers*.** Are the following statements true or false?

1. Adjectives can be either pre- or postmodifiers.
2. Prepositional phrases can modify both nouns and verbs.
3. Plural nouns cannot be used as premodifiers.
4. A noun used in premodification behaves like an adjective.
5. Genitives can be both determiners and modifiers.
6. Relative clauses can be reduced to participles clauses.

¹⁴⁵ Salman Rushdie, *Haroun and the Sea of Stories*.

¹⁴⁶ Elizabeth Gaskell, *North and South*.

¹⁴⁷ Bernard L. Satterwhite Jr., *Playaz and Wolves*.

¹⁴⁸ E. A. Poe, *Never Bet the Devil Your Head*.

¹⁴⁹ William Blake, *The Marriage of Heaven and Hell*.

¹⁵⁰ Winston Churchill (about Stafford Cripps, British politician).

7. Premodification is more explicit than postmodification.
8. In a noun phrase, new information is usually introduced after the headword.
9. Resumptive modifiers involve the repetition of a key-word.
10. Summative modifiers summarise by renaming.

Course # 6 Headword (I). Noun Number

▪ Variable / Invariable
▪ Prolific Plurals
▪ Regular / Irregular
▪ Plurality & Countability
▪ The Guillaumean Theory
▪ Number from a Functionalist Point of View
▪ Grammatical Features of Countability
▪ Non-Count Nouns
▪ The Number System in English (Singularia Tantum; Pluralia Tantum; Summation Plurals; Zero Plural; Personal Adjective Heads; Nouns with Equivocal Number; Partitives)

INVARIABLE	singular invariable		non-count nouns: concrete	<i>gold, furniture</i>	
			non-count nouns: abstract	<i>music, homework</i>	
			singular proper nouns	<i>Henry, the Thames</i>	
			some nouns ending in -s	<i>news</i>	
			abstract adjectival heads	<i>the beautiful, the true</i>	
	plural invariable		summation plurals	<i>scissors</i>	
			other pluralia tantum in -s	<i>thanks</i>	
			some plural proper nouns	<i>the Netherlands</i>	
			unmarked plural nouns	<i>cattle, people</i>	
			personal adjectival heads	<i>the rich</i>	
VARIABLE	regular plurals			<i>boy</i>	<i>boys</i>
	irregular plurals	VOICING + -s		<i>calf</i>	<i>calves</i>
		MUTATION		<i>foot</i>	<i>feet</i>
		-EN PLURAL		<i>ox</i>	<i>oxen</i>
		ZERO		<i>sheep</i>	<i>sheep</i>
		<i>foreign plurals</i>	<i>-us</i> → <i>-i</i>	<i>radius</i>	<i>radii</i>
			<i>-a</i> → <i>-ae</i>	<i>larva</i>	<i>larvae</i>
			<i>-um</i> → <i>-a</i>	<i>stratum</i>	<i>strata</i>
			<i>-ex, -ix</i> → <i>-ices</i>	<i>matrix</i>	<i>matrices</i>
			<i>-is</i> → <i>-es</i>	<i>thesis</i>	<i>theses</i>
			<i>-on</i> → <i>-a</i>	<i>criterion</i>	<i>criteria</i>
			<i>-eau</i> → <i>-eaux</i>	<i>tableau</i>	<i>tableaux</i>
			ZERO (spelling only)	<i>chassis</i>	<i>chassis</i>
			<i>-o</i> → <i>-i</i>	<i>tempo</i>	<i>tempi</i>
			base + <i>-im</i>	<i>cherub</i>	<i>cherubim</i>

(SM, apud Quirk et al., A Grammar of Contemporary English, Longman, 1978: 166)

PROLIFIC PLURALS – The Recipe

To form the plural—that is, the **expression of more than one**—we have **old formulas** in the case of *men, feet, oxen* and a few other words, which are used so often in the plural that they are committed to memory at a very early age by each English-speaking child. But they are so irregular that they could not serve as patterns for new words. On the other hand, we have an **s-ending** in innumerable old words (*kings, princes, bishops, days, hours* etc.), and this type is now so universal that it can be freely applied to all words except the few old irregular words. As soon as a new word comes into existence, no one hesitates about forming a plural in this way: *automobiles, kodaks, aeroplanes, hooligans, ions, stunts* etc. [Jespersen, *Essentials*, 2006: 3]

REGULAR / IRREGULAR FROM A PHILOLOGICAL POINT OF VIEW

The First Vowel Shift. We can say one thing with certainty about the accent of the Anglo-Saxon invaders after they arrived in Britain: it changed. We know this because the words which emerged in Old English out of the Germanic spoken on the continent looked (and therefore sounded) very different from their later counterparts in the early days of German. What happened to cause such a difference?

A related observation arises out of the way some Latin words were borrowed into Old English without a change in their vowel, whereas others did change. Latin *caseus* became *cyse* ‘cheese’ in Old English, but *castellum* became *castel* ‘village’. In the first case, the *a* vowel changed; in the second case, it did not. There are many similar examples. What happened to cause such a difference?

i-mutation. The explanation is now a well-established part of Germanic philology. It asserts that the Old English vowels changed in quality between the time the Anglo-Saxons left the continent and the time Old English was first written down. By examining hundreds of cases, it is possible to establish a pattern in the way this change took place.

In Germanic there were many words where a vowel in a stressed syllable was immediately followed by a high front vowel ([i]) or vowel-like sound ([j]) in the next syllable. The plural of **fōt* is thought to have been **fōtiz*, with the stress on *fō*. For some reason [...], the quality of this high front sound caused the preceding vowel to change (mutate). In the case of **fōt*, the *ō* became *ē*, which ultimately came to be pronounced [i:], as in modern *feet*. The *-iz* ending dropped away, for once the plural was being shown by the *e* vowel, it was unnecessary to have an ending as well. *Fēt* therefore emerged as **an irregular noun in English** – though the **process which gave rise to it was perfectly regular**, affecting hundreds of cases. [Crystal, 1995: 19]

Substantival number has traditionally been considered a **grammatical category** along with **gender and case**. Perhaps the first linguist to break rank with the traditionalists is E.V. Nabatova (1959a, 1959b), who suggests that **number in nouns is "a lexical-grammatical category"** (Scheurweghs 1968: 63).

In the lexicon, **mass nouns** have the lexical features **[-singular, -plural]**, **pluralis tantum** **[+plural, -singular]**, **collectives** **[+singular, +plural]**, and **count nouns** **[+singular, -plural]**. [Wickens, 1992: 5]

mass nouns	[-singular, -plural]
pluralis tantum	[+plural, -singular]
collectives	[+singular, +plural]
count nouns	[+singular, -plural]

PLURALITY AND COUNTABILITY. THEORIES

NOUNS, COUNTABILITY, AND NOUN PHRASES

The customary disjunctive marking of lexical entries for English nouns as [$\pm$ countable] does not match the fact that the majority can be used both countably and uncountably in different NP environments: this **binary opposition** is **characteristic not of the nouns, but of the NP's which they head**. Nevertheless, **nouns do have countability preferences**; some enter countable environments more readily than others. And not all nouns occur in all kinds of countability environments. A noun's countability preference can be computed by checking its potential for occurrence in a definitive set of countability environments. [Keith, 1980: 541]

Tradition has it that a noun like *car* is countable, whereas *lightning* is uncountable: we talk about *one car* or *many cars*, but not normally about *one lightning* or **many lightnings*. More generally, the following rule is observed in English:

(I) If the head constituent of an NP falls within the scope of a denominator, it is countable. [Keith, 1980: 541]

(1) one / a / each / every / either / three/ many / several / both / a few / one / no / two / some / all car (s)

(2) *one / a / each / every / other / three/ many / several / both / a few / one / no / two / some / all lightning(s) [Keith, 1980: 542]

[A] noun like *cake* can regularly be used both **uncountably** and **countably**, occurring both in undetermined singular NP's and in the scope of denominators:

(16) Hetty likes to gorge herself on cake.

(17) Whenever Hetty gobbles down a cake, her diet 'starts tomorrow'.

There are many parallel examples involving nouns less frequently seen in both environments:

(18) Oak is deciduous.

An oak is deciduous.

(19) Small farmers in Kenya grow corn rather than wheat.

Triticum aestivum ssp. vulgare is a wheat suitable for high altitudes.

(20) Nick Frenzy plays guitar with Noise.

Carol has just bought a guitar.

(21) The scrapyard is full of smashed car awaiting recycling.

The driveway was blocked by a car with its front end stove in.

(22) We went to school by car.

Is there a school around here?

(23) In bed they were blissfully happy.

You could buy a bed cheaply down on the lane.

(24) There's not enough table for everyone to sit at.

We need a bigger table.

(25) Emmy finds squashed spider more nauseous than the thing alive.

We were worried that even a squashed spider would upset Graham enough to make him suicidally depressive. [Keith, 1980: 546-547]

Even though **countability is characteristic of NP's and not nouns**, it is still true that **some nouns are generally located in countable NP's, while others are located in uncountable NP's**. The former set includes *car*, *boat*, *beetle*, *carpet*, *closet*, and *table*; the latter *lightning*, *mankind*, *equipment*, *evidence*, *furniture*, and *physics*. Between these polar countables and uncountables are words like *cake*, *coffee*, and *lamb*-which are common in both countable and uncountable NP's in everyday language. These particular characteristics of nouns I call their COUNTABILITY PREFERENCES. The countability preferences of nouns can be computed by comparing the relative frequencies of their occurrence in countable and uncountable NP's, respectively. [Keith, 1980: 548]

Some nouns (like *car*) are countable with all denominators; others (like *admiration*) are countable only with unit denominators *a(n)* and *one*; and pluralia tantum nouns (together with one or two others like *cattle*) are countable only with **fuzzy denominators**. Fuzzy denominators are those like *(a) few*, *several*, *many*, *a dozen or so*, *about fifty*, and high round numbers as in *five hundred cattle*, *70,000 cattle* denominators which do not state a precise number, unlike (say) *two*, *fourteen*, or *twenty-one*. [Keith, 1980: 548-549]

Figure 1

TYPE OF DENUMERATOR	HEAD NOUN IN THE DOMAIN OF THE DENUMERATOR		
	car	admiration	cattle
A. unit, <i>a(n), one</i>	+	+	-
F. fuzzy (plural) e.g. <i>several, about fifty</i>	+	-	+
O. all others	+	-	-

However, all English nouns (except pluralia tantum nouns) can head uncountable NP's; and on those occasions, they occur in their unmarked base form. Even the pluralia tantum cease to be plural when used adjectivally, cf. *scissor movement, pant(y)-hose, suspender belt, Nutcracker Suite*;... [Keith, 1980: 554]

THE GUILLAUMEAN THEORY, REVISITED BY HIRTLE (1982)

- ❑ ...what characterizes Psychomechanics is the view that everything in language is movement or possibility of movement. In applying this principle we have been led further to assume that the mind is able to intercept its own processes at the opportune moment to obtain the particular sense called for in the sentence being constructed (cf. Guillaume, 1973, 225 f.) [Hirtle, 1982: 19]
- ❑ ...zero plural is obtained by holding up a movement toward the singular [Hirtle, 1982: 20]
- ❑ Hirtle (1982) does not view the “singular” zero morpheme as statistically meaning “one” but rather as a movement going from the notion of plurality to that of singularity. Conversely and symmetrically, he also views the meaning of the “plural” –s ending not merely as statistically meaning “more than one”, but rather as a movement going from the notion of singularity to that of plurality.
- ❑ Hirtle (1982: 76) sets up a distinction between internal versus external plural. The **internal plural** (emphasis mine) presents a number of individuals as basically one. The **external plural** presents them as being separate or discrete, with only a lexical link between them. This is related to Guillaume’s (1971: 211-212) presentation of the system of number as basically contrasting entities in the field of the *continue* – occupying a single stretch of space – versus the field of the *discontinue* – several entities seen as occupying discrete places in space. The internal plural evokes a plurality within unity, i.e., within some wider continue, because it results from the interception of a movement towards the singular. The external plural, on the other hand, evokes plurality *per se*, i.e. separate, discrete discontinue entities in space, which arise as part of a movement away from the singular.
- ❑ According to Hirtle, Guillaume considered the **dual number** (at least in its traces in the Indo-European languages) to be the result of intercepting a movement of thought from plural to singular at its penultimate position (“instant”, if one prefers to consider the operation from its temporal point-of-view). That is, it marks a near final point in a movement through the field of the continue, tending to define the minimal in this field, i.e, the singular. Because this movement is in the field of the continue, any plural obtained here is the result of division – dividing whatever quality into its parts – hence this is called the internal plural. The dual is the smallest version of the internal plural, obtained by dividing a continue into two. Any further quantitative reduction would result in a singular, which being a minimum, cannot be divided. Thus, in the abstract mental movement from plurality to singularity of continue space, the dual is the meaning produced immediately preceding the singular – a minimal internal plurality. [New Vistas in Grammar, 77-78]

COUNTABILITY FROM A FUNCTIONALIST POINT OF VIEW

C o u n t a b i l i t y. Things are represented in English as **either**

(a) **discrete**, and therefore **countable**, or

(b) **continuous**, and therefore **uncountable**;

the grammar thus makes a categorical distinction into '**count nouns**' and '**mass nouns**', so that count nouns select for NUMBER: singular/plural, while mass nouns do not.

[M]ass nouns are treated as **singular** where the **deixis** is **specific**, for example *Do you like this poetry/this poem?*, and as **plural** where the **deixis** is **non-specific**, e.g. *I've written some poetry/some poems*.

The distinction is not quite as clear-cut as this suggests. **Mass nouns** are often **itemized**, and hence also **pluralized**; the meaning is either 'a kind of', as in *I've found a new polish*, or 'an amount of', as in *three coffees please*. There will then be an agnate expression having a **measure/type** word as Head [...]: *a new type of polish, three cups of coffee*.

Mass nouns representing abstract things, and also things which are concrete but general, often move into the count category: *experiences, fruits, furnitures* are all relatively recent plural forms. We could think in terms of a **cline of countability**, ranging from those nouns (and pronouns) which construe things as **fully itemized**, at one end, to those which treat them as **totally unbounded** at the other. Typically, **living beings and concrete objects are itemized, abstract entities (and nominalized processes and qualities) are unbounded, with institutions and collectives falling in between**. But the distinction is made by the grammar, so **the same entity may be construed in more than one way**; for example, *hat(s) ~ headgear, fish(es) ~ fish, novel(s) ~ fiction*. [Halliday, *An Intro to Functional Grammar*, 2004: 326]

GRAMMATICAL FEATURES OF COUNTABILITY

Although individuation by cardinal numerals is a useful guide to countability, to get a more accurate description we have to consider the range of determiners that a noun admits.

Grammatical features of count nouns

- the cardinal numerals *one, two, three*, etc. (*four miles*)
- other quantifiers which imply numerals: *both, a dozen*, etc. (*both hands, a dozen eggs*)
- the article *a(n)* taking a singular form:

I'm looking for a new job.

- the determiners *each, every, either, neither*, which precede singular heads.

Each day is different. We go there every year.

- the plural (including 'zero') form of the noun preceded by a plural determiner: *many, several, few, these, those*.

many choices, few opportunities; these aircraft, those sheep, several series.

- the plural with number contrast marked on the noun: *lion/lions; child/children; mouse/mice; stimulus/stimuli*.
- plural number concord with verb or pronoun: *People want to be happy, don't they?*

Grammatical features of non-count (mass) nouns

The following grammatical forms and structures mark a NG typically as 'mass':

- the singular form of the noun with zero determiner:

Water is necessary for animal and plant life.

- the singular form of the noun preceded by *all*:

I say this in all sincerity. All equipment must be regularly inspected.

the singular form of the noun, quantified by *much, little, a little*:

There isn't much room in our apartment so we have little furniture. [Downing & Locke, 2006: 406-407]

Nominal Groups that are not marked for countability

The determiners *the, this, that, my, your, his, her, its, our, their* are neutral to the mass-count distinction and can be used with both types of reference: *this house, this bread; our friend, our friendship*. [Downing & Locke, 2006: 407]

Nouns with count and non-count uses – (some) coffee; two coffees

Many mass nouns can be interpreted as count when they refer to instances of the mass referent, conceptualised as conventional quantities of food or drink. Compare:

Mass: *Coffee and tea help to keep you awake.*

Count: *Two coffees, please, and three teas.*

In the context of restaurants or in-flight meals, even nouns such as *beef* and *chicken* may be interpreted as portions or choices, and countabilised: *One beef and two chickens, please.*

In other cases the shape matters. Eatable entities visualised as having a definite shape are count (a cheese, a ham, a cake, a potato, an egg, a chicken, a fish) while the substance or flesh is conceptualised as mass: (some) cheese, (some) ham, (some) cake, (some) tomato, (some) mashed potato, (some) egg, (some) chicken, (some) fish.

You've got egg on your tie.

Susie prefers chicken to veal.

The same happens with edible fishes. The animal itself is count, the flesh mass: *He caught a salmon. We had salmon for dinner. Shellfish, however, is always non-count.* The non-count is lexicalised differently in pairs such as *cow (count) versus beef (mass), pig – pork, sheep – mutton, calf – veal, deer – venison.* [Downing & Locke, 2006: 409]

Abstract nouns – health, wealth and love

Many, but not all, abstract nouns can be re-conceptualised as concrete instances of the mass meaning. Some, but by no means all, can be pluralised [Downing & Locke, 2006: 407]:

Everyone needs sleep.	She fell into a deep sleep.
Silence in court!	His remark was followed by a long silence.
They're making a lot of noise.	I hear many strange noises at night.
Time is on your side.	How many times have you seen that film?
Business is improving.	His several businesses are doing well.
One can never be sure of success.	As an actor, he had more successes than failures.
Health is more important than wealth.	*Healths are more important than *wealths.

NON-COUNT NOUNS AND THE ARBITRARILY DIVISIBLE

- ❑ Anna Wierzbicka (1988b) has noted that in English some non-count nouns can be divided into certain fairly coherent semantic categories. She notes that many non-count nouns are “**arbitrarily divisible**”. If you physically divide water into any number of parts, each of those parts is the same and each is still water. On the other hand, if you divide a chair into parts, the parts are different in form and soon the entity is no longer a chair. If you divide the chair often enough, even the parts will become unrecognizable. **Many non-count nouns are arbitrarily divisible, including liquids, gases, and substances composed of very small particles like salt and sand.** These are the kinds of non-count nouns that might reasonably be called “**mass nouns**”.
- ❑ **Foodstuffs** represent an interesting subset of the “arbitrarily divisible” category. There are many cases in which food on the hoof [alive – of livestock] or on the vine is a count noun while the same food on the plate is expressed by an identical non-count noun. I have *five pumpkins* and *two watermelons* in my garden but I am eating *some pumpkin* and *some watermelon*. Mary owns two lambs but she had *lamb* for dinner. Pumpkins, watermelons, and lambs are discreet identifiable entities in nature. However, when they are cooked, they lose their discrete boundaries. Furthermore, most of would never eat a whole pumpkin or a whole watermelon at one sitting, but we regularly consume entire peas, olives, and strawberries, all of which are count nouns, even when they appear on a plate. You may eat *four radishes* [ridiche] which are small and discrete, but you consume *some horse-radish* [hreen], because the root from which it is made loses its boundaries when it is grown up.
- ❑ Wierzbicka has noted a second major non-count category that includes words like *furniture, crockery, linens, silverware, jewelry*. [...] the inclusive category is non-count, the subcategories are count nouns:

- **jewelry** – one ring, six bracelets, two necklaces
- **silverware** – one fork, two spoons, six knives
- **linens** – two sheets, one table cloth, four towels
- **crockery** – twelve bowls, three plates, five cups

With the exception of *linens*, all of the non-count nouns we have looked at so far have been invariably singular in form and have occurred with singular verbs. There are, however, a number of non-count nouns that appear to be invariably plural in that they always end in {-s}. In some cases the nature of the object explains its plural form, but in others the marking of a non-count as plural instead of singular seems very arbitrary.

- non-count nouns never occur with the indefinite article *a*. They occur with demonstrative determiners, genitive determiners, and the definite article *the* and they often occur without any determiners whatsoever. [Berk, 1999: 78-82]

Summary of Non-Count Nouns [Berk, 1999: 81-82]		
Non-count nouns with singular verbs	Non-count nouns ending in {-s} with singular verbs	Non-count nouns ending in {-s} with plural verbs
The milk is sour. Beer makes me sick. Gasoline is cheap. Oil rises to the top. The sand was hot. Salt gets hard. Paper costs a lot. Iron is a strong metal. Chocolate is fattening. This dirt is heavy. Their jewelry is ugly. Badminton is strenuous.	Checkers bores my dad. Billiards requires skill. Darts is my favourite game. Mumps makes your glands swell. Rickets [rahitism] is caused by a lack of vitamin D. Shingles is hard to cure. [Some speakers use plural verbs with some or all of these nouns.]	Your glasses have orange lenses. The binoculars are over here. His pants are plaid [tartan]. My jeans are on the bed. The pliers are on the bench. The tweezers look broken. These linens are dirty. The dregs taste disgusting.

PRACTICE. Are the NGs in the following examples interpreted as mass or count? [Downing & Locke, 2006: 464]

- (1) I haven't time¹ to go to the gym² these days. But I'm really keen on gym.³
- (2) The only things my sister likes are fashion⁴ and shopping.⁵
- (3) I'll see you in class⁶ on Tuesday – unless, of course, I'm moved to a different class.⁷
- (4) My agent will be handling my appearance⁸ in the show next week.
- (5) Cynthia and I are going over to Jean's this evening to do our homework⁹ together.
- (6) My sister's boy-friend is really good at football.¹⁰

Manoliu, Silvia, *Number of Nouns in English*, in Gina Măciucă (ed.), *Lexico-Morphological Idiosyncrasies of Romanian as Compared with European Romance and Germanic Languages. Similarities and Contrasts (II): The Noun / Identitatea lexicală și morfologică a limbii române în contextul multilingvistic european. Consonanțe și disonanțe (II): Substantivul*, Ștefan cel Mare University Press, Suceava, 2012, pp. 157-252

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I. NUMBER OF NOUNS IN ENGLISH

Traditionally, morphology has been identified with “the study of the grammatical categories as sets of forms that the various parts of speech can take”¹⁵¹. From a structuralist point of view, a grammatical category is a set of oppositions which must correlate at least two terms, such as the singular-plural morphological opposition, that is, the minimal number contrast between the **unmarked** singular form, which denotes ‘one’ and the inflected, morphologically **marked** plural form of nouns, which denotes ‘more than one’. This

¹⁵¹ Taina Duțescu-Coliban, *Grammatical Categories of English*, Universitatea din București, București, 1986, p. 155.

notional distinction gets reflected in the morphological structure of many languages, which may differ in the amount of grammatical markers, while resembling in that it is the noun class to which they primarily apply.

I.1. The number system of English

By no means so highly inflected as Greek, Latin, or Gothic, Old English was an inflected language which “stood a little more than half way along that linguistic road leading from Indo-European synthesis to Modern English analysis”¹⁵².

For quite a large part of the English nouns, due to the presence of the ‘more-than-one-ness’ plural marker, number distinction can be described as **overt**. On the other hand, by contrast with the overt character of the inflectional systems of synthetic languages like French, German, Romanian etc., since the noun is the only member of the English noun phrase that can be overtly marked for number and, in most cases, the number of a noun phrase derives from that of the noun head, the number system of English may be regarded as **covert**. As far as Romanian is concerned, the rich gender-related system of number inflections makes the noun, the pre-head, post-head dependents and the verb alike be overtly marked for the category of number. Compare: The *boy/girl/tree* is *tall* : The *boys/girls/ trees* are *tall* vs (m) *Băiatul este înalt* : *Băieții sînt înalți*; (f) *Fata este înaltă* : *Fetele sînt înalte*; (n) *Podul este înalt* : *Podurile sînt înalte*.

I.1.1. Number classes

Inherent to English nouns, pronouns and verbs, the category of number finds its most common manifestation in nouns. The scantiness of morphological means in marking this category is often compensated by concord and by determiner and noun co-occurrence patterns. More often than not, the absence versus the presence of the plural morpheme in the opposition between the singular and plural of nouns determine an opposition between singular and plural in the verb.

In modern linguistics, the category of number is also associated with the essentially semantic notion of **countability**, the distinction between **countable** and **uncountable/mass** nouns playing a crucial role in classifications according to the idea of number. While the feature [+Count] characterizes **countable** nouns, “such as evince a distinction between ‘one’ and ‘more than one’”, and hence quantified as ‘an/one x, many x-s’, the feature [-Count] characterizes **uncountable** nouns, “such as do not evince a distinction between ‘one’ and ‘more than one’” (Dutescu-Coliban 1986: 190), and hence quantified as ‘some/a little/much x’. This distinction seems to acknowledge the fact that “the class of nouns in a language is divided into two types, one for which the opposition of plurality is important, the other for which it is somehow neutralized”¹⁵³. As an expression of “the way in which reality is viewed and encoded in language”, there is, however, in between these two clear-cut categories of count and noncount nouns, “a large category of nouns which partake of the characteristics of both classes” (Ștefănescu 1978: 78).

Since nouns presuppose the possibility of enumerating perceptually discrete objects, an issue closely interrelated with countability is the conceptual distinction between **discrete** and **continuous** sets, which marks both concrete and abstract nouns in many languages. Since objects with divided reference in discrete sets can be counted, whereas objects with undivided reference in continuous sets cannot be counted, it follows that **count** nouns label **discrete items**, or objects/entities with **divided reference**, by far more numerous than **noncount/mass** nouns, which label **continuous items**, or objects with **undivided reference** (Dutescu-Coliban 1986: 179). The former are conceptualized as bounded, cohesive and distinct from each other, having contour in space if they are concrete. Their parts are inalienable, that is, a part does not preserve the properties of the whole, for example *a tree* vs *the top of a tree*, which is no longer *a tree*. They can

¹⁵² Simeon Potter, *Our Language*, Penguin Books, 1976, p. 23.

¹⁵³ Ioana Ștefănescu, *Lectures in English Morphology*, Universitatea din București, Facultatea de Limbi Străine, Catedra de limbă și literatură engleză, București, 1978, p. 78.

be counted by using **plural marking** and **numerical quantifiers/cardinal numbers** to indicate quantity (*two/many/(a) few glasses*). The latter have no plural marking and are identifiable as unbounded, non-cohesive items, with no contour of their own, each part preserving the properties of the whole. They are used with **continuous quantifiers** (*much/(a) little glass/milk/water*) and cannot be counted unless they are reclassified. Their **reclassification** as count nouns implies that portions of their whole are isolated as countable, discrete reference entities. This can be achieved either through **pluralization** (*butters, wines*) or by **partition**, i.e. the combination with **partitives/quantifying nouns** in expressions denoting a limited or large amount, whether definite or indefinite (*a sheet /a splinter of [glass]; a mug / pint of [milk]*).

The contrast between definite and indefinite forms of count nouns allows for both generic and specific reference: *A / The parrot is a mammal. Parrots are mammals* vs *The/Some parrots were in a golden cage*. Although they refer to stuff that cannot be individualized, and therefore do not pattern with the indefinite article, uncount nouns allow the contrast between an indefinite and a definite form: *Water* is an essential element of life... Give me *some water*, please. vs *The water* is tepid... Take *the water* off the stove.

Classifications of English nouns on grammatical and semantic principles have established several categories and subclasses within the main notional number classes of **common** nouns and **proper** nouns [+/-Common]. Both **concrete** and **abstract** items belong to the classes of **common countable** nouns (*book, school; idea*) and **common uncountable** or **mass** nouns (*tea; advice, beauty, kindness, work*).

In point of form, there are two main number classes of common nouns in English: **variable nouns** and **invariable nouns**.

I.1.1.1. Variable nouns

A survey of the number markers shows that, in their vast majority, English **common nouns** are **countable**, and therefore **variable**. The form of their plural morpheme makes them divisible into **regular plurals** and **irregular plurals**, which will further be approached in terms of some morphographemic, morphophonemic and semantic aspects.

I.1.1.1.1. Regular plurals

Nouns with regular plurals are (proto)typical or **central count** nouns which have all the features characteristic of nouns. They enter into inflectional contrasts of number, with plural morphological forms fully predictable from the singular stem, by the same rules as for the -s inflection of verbs in the third person singular of the Simple Present Tense. The three phonologically conditioned allomorphs of the plural morpheme, /s/, /z/ and /ɪz/, have the spelling -s when nouns end in a vowel sound, a consonant or a silent -e, and -es after nouns ending in sibilants.

The plural morpheme of regular nouns is phonologically rendered as /s/, when attached to bases ending in a **voiceless non-sibilant**: *taps, hats, racks, puffs, walks, breaths, baths, months*; as /z/ when attached to bases ending either in a **voiced non-sibilant**: *tabs, heads, rags, loves, tolls, hems, hens, mouths, youths*, etc. or in a **vowel sound** (monophthongs and diphthongs): *cars, coffees, teas, ideas, measures, rows, tears* etc; and as /ɪz/ when attached to bases ending in **voiced** or **voiceless sibilants** (+/- silent e), e.g. *dances, camouflages, watches*¹⁵⁴, *buses, horses, leashes, ages, hedges, boxes, hoaxes, waltzes, topazes, buzzes*.

The plural of nouns ending in -y is -ys when -y is preceded by a vowel phoneme, e.g. *boys, prayers, days* (except *colloquy-colloquies, soliloquy - soliloquies*), and -ies, when -y is preceded by a consonant: *biopsy-biopsies, city-cities, cry-cries, fly-flies, sky-skies, tie- ties, French fries* ('chips'). Nouns ending in -i also make the plural in -s: *alibis, rabbis, skis, taxis*.

¹⁵⁴ Noun bases ending in -ch have two phonological realizations: (a) the voiceless plosive morpheme /k/, as in *Checks* /tʃeɪks/, *epochs, lochs, patriarchs, stomachs* and (b) the voiceless affricate morpheme /tʃ/, as in *churches* /tʃɜːtʃɪz/, *matches, peaches*.

The plural inflection of nouns ending in *-o* is either *-es* or *-s*. The plural form *-oes* mainly occurs with common nouns and old loans in which *-o* is preceded by a consonant: *echoes, heroes, mosquitoes, negroes, potatoes, tomatoes, tornadoes, volcanoes*. More recent Italian loans ending in *-o* preceded by a consonant take a regular *-s* plural: *cantos, casinos, commandos, concertos, contraltos, discos, pianos* and, quite naturally, in the plural forms of nouns ending in *-o* preceded by a vowel, usually *-o*, in proper names, and in abbreviations: *casinos, commandos, concertos, contraltos, discos, bamboos, cuckoos, embryos, kilos, memos, photos, pianos, portfolios, radios, scenarios, shampoos, solos, studios, taboos, tattoos, tuxedos, videos, zoos; Eskimos, UFOs* etc. Many nouns have variable *-oes* / *-os* plural forms: *archipelagoes* / *archipelagos*, *bravoos* / *bravos*, *buffaloos* / *buffalos*, *cargoos* / *cargos* (esp.AmE), *dominoos* / *dominos*, *frescoes* / *frescos*, *grottoes* / *grottos*, *haloes* / *halos*, *manifestoes* / *manifestos*, *mottoos* / *mottos*, *tornadoes* / *tornados*, *volcanoos* / *volcanos*, *zeroos* / *zeros* ¹⁵⁵.

Rather uncommon, some nouns ending in *-z* double the final consonant in the plural: *fez- fezzes, quiz-quizzes*. English derivative nouns behave like any single noun. They may be **agent** nouns (*dealers, getters, greeters, hackers, kidnappers, players, rockers, rollers*); **-ing** deverbal nouns (*cleanings, clippings, dressings, kidnappings, knittings*); **diminutive** and **augmentative** nouns (*grannies, puppies, princelets, princelings, princekins, leaflets, streamlets, ducklings, kitchenettes, drunkards, profiteers, simpletons, youngsters*); **deadjectival** nouns (*blondes, brunettes*); **prototypal derivatives** (*hamburgers, cheeseburgers, veggieburgers; beatniks, peaceniks, talkathons, telethons*) etc.

1.1.1.1.1. The plural of compound nouns

Compound noun combinations are graphically represented as one unbroken orthographic word, two orthographic words, or hyphenated words, and may include several word-classes which are looked upon as simple nouns. As far as pluralization is concerned, their behaviour “largely depends on the degree of fusion of the constituting elements” (Duțescu-Coliban 1986: 184).

Most compounds are made of **two juxtaposed stems**. Irrespective of the part of speech the constituents belong to, whenever their fusion is (almost) complete, the compound behaves like a single noun and normally attaches the plural morpheme at the end of the combination, in the last element. Both endocentric and exocentric compounds pluralise regularly: *snack-bars, showrooms, talk-shows; skinheads, box offices, boxrooms, turncoats*.

Reduplicative compounds are also regularly pluralized in the last element: (**ablaut**) *chitchats, knick-knacks*; (**rime**) *boogie-woogies, fuddy-duddies, walkie-talkies*.

Compounds made up of more than two stems and a **linking element** (preposition, conjunction or determiner) get pluralized either in the first or last element. Compare: *afterthoughts, blackbirds, pickpockets, sunsets; booksellers; brandy-and-sodas, good-for-nothings; men-in-the-street* (‘an ordinary person; average citizen’), *stick-in-the-muds* (a ‘fuddy-duddy’).

There are several surface structures of compounds that take the plural in the last element: Noun + Noun: *databases, girl friends, lovebirds, assistant-directors*; Noun + Verb: *toothpicks*; Noun + Noun/Verb-**er**: *babysitters, lawmakers, pacemakers, rain-makers, house-keepers, screwdrivers, theatre-goers*; Noun + Verb-**ing**: *window shoppings, jet-skiing*; Adj + Noun: *blackberries, hothouses, sweethearts, deaf-mutes, ill-lucks, still-lives; stepchild-stepchildren, sickmen*; Particle + Noun: *forehands, inmates*; Particle + Noun + (**-er**): *outsiders*; Particle + Noun + Verb + (**-er**) *onlookers, bystanders*; Verb + Noun: *scarecrows, swim suits*; Verb-**ing** + Noun: *rocking chairs, swimming pools / suits, writing desks*; Verb + Adjective: *diehards*; Verb + Particle: *handouts, breakdowns, flashbacks, drive-ins, grown-ups, stand-bys, take-offs, forget-me-nots*; Particle + Verb: *incomes, outputs*.

¹⁵⁵ Romanian counterparts of English nouns ending in *-o* are **neuter** (*ecou –uri, cazinou – uri, comando –uri, domino – uri, moto –uri, veto –uri, video – uri, zero – uri; arhipelag – uri*), **masculine** (*erou – eroi, negru – negri, vulcan – i; Eschimos – oși*) and **feminine** (*frescă – fresce, grotă – grote, tornadă- tornade*).

Plural in the first element is very common with some Latinate compounds and other combinations which include a postmodifier or a final particle: noun + noun: *notaries public*; noun + prep + noun: *attornies-at-law*, *commanders-in-chief*, *editors-in-chief*, *grants-in-aid*, *man-of-war* - *men-of-war*; verb + *-er* + particle / agent nouns: *lookers-on* (alternatively used with *onlookers*) *passers-by*; verb + *-ing* + particle / verbal nouns: *comings-in*, *goings-out*.

There is considerable fluctuation in the Noun + Adjective subclass of compounds. Similar combinations are pluralized differently, i.e. in the first element: *postmasters-general*, or in the first element in British English and in the last element in American English: *attorney(s)-general*, *court(s) martial* (BrE); *attorney-general(s)*, *court martial(s)* (AmE); *mother superiors* / *mothers superior*, *poet laureates* / *poets laureate*, *sergeant-majors* / *sergeants major*¹⁵⁶. A few of them add the plural morpheme to both elements: *lords-justices*. The pluralization of *in-law* terms in the last element has also become the standard tendency in informal American English: *mother(s)-in-law* (BrE) / *mother-in-law(s)* (AmE).

Appositional compounds with *man* / *woman*, which are predicative in deep structure and serve as gender markers, are pluralized in both the first and the last element: *gentleman farmer* - *gentlemen farmers*¹⁵⁷, *man-eater(s)* - *men-eater(s)*, *manservant* - *menservants*, *manstudent* - *menstudents*, *woman doctor* / *driver* / *writer* - *women doctors/drivers/writers*; *man singer* - *men singers*.

The plural morpheme goes to the second element when they are otherwise used. Compare, for instance, the plural form and meaning of *woman doctor* - *woman doctors* ('a doctor for women') vs *women doctors* ('the doctor is a woman'). Similarly, *women candidates* / *drivers* / *ministers* / *voters*. Note also: *lady-killer(s)*, i.e. 'womanizer, philanderer', 'women lover(s)', 'an attractive man who enjoys flirting with or seducing women', 'a man who takes advantage of women', 'ladies' man, seducer'; *female killer* - *female killers* or *women* / *ladies killers*, i.e. 'murderess(es)'; *woman hater* - *woman haters* ('misogynist(s)') vs *women haters* (who 'do not hate women per se, having a love/hate relationship with them').

Whenever *-man* combines with numbers to indicate that something is designed for a number of people, it does not get pluralized: *a four-man expedition* to the North Pole. ...We spotted *a two-man canoe* down the Amazon. Also *yes-man* - *yes-men*, but *manhunt*-*manhunts*.

In **syntactic compounds**, the plural is assumed by the head noun: *a cat-and-mouse game* - *cat-and-mouse games*, *a lady-in-waiting* - *ladies-in-waiting*, *a lily-of-the-valley* - *lilies-of-the-valley*, *will-o'-the-wisp* - *will-o'-the-wisps*. Similarly, in **syntactic constructions** made up of compound adjectives or compound nouns and verbs functioning attributively, the plural morpheme is assumed by the noun: *a life-long friendship* - *life-long friendships*, *an absent-minded professor* - *absent-minded professors*, *an after-shave lotion* - *after-shave lotions*, *a half-hour's drive* - *half-hour's drives*, *a grown-up job* - *grown-up jobs* (Hulban 2001: 55-56).

Note the countable English equivalents of the following Romanian compound invariable common gender nouns: *coate-goale*: *ragamuffin*; *gură-cască* : *gaper*, *loafer*, *dupe*, *gull*; *mațe-fripte/goale* : *starvelling*, (pejorative) *needy-wretch*; *papă-lapte* : *milksoft*, *softy*, *mollycoddle*; *pierde-vară*: *idler*, *dawdler*, (informal) *lazy-bones*, but *paparudă* - *paparude* ('aducător, aducători, aducătoare de ploaie/cel, cea care aduce/ cei, cele care aduc ploaia): *rain-maker* ('someone who induces rain by rituals', or (slang, figurative), 'an executive/lawyer with exceptional ability to attract clients, use political connections, or increase profits'.

1.1.1.1.1.2. The plural of abbreviations, substantivized numerals, letters and words are usually marked regularly and, less commonly, by 's:

¹⁵⁶ Horia Hulban, *Syntheses in English Morphology*. Perspectives of the English Language Series 2, Editura SPANDA, Iasi, 2001, p. 55.

¹⁵⁷ Compounds with unstressed *-man*, such as *Englishman*: *Englishmen*, *fireman*:*firemen*, *policeman*:*policemen*, *postman*:*postmen* are pronounced /mən/ both in the singular and the plural.

In **abbreviations** the regular plural pattern is on the increase. Compare: *MPs/MP's*, *PhDs/Ph.D.s/PhD's*, *CO - COs* or *C.O. - C.O.s* (Commanding Officer(s)). Beside regularly pluralized abbreviations such as *hr ~ hrs* ('hours'), consonant reduplication, as a purely written convention, is quite common with many single letter abbreviations: *c ~ cc* ('copies'), *f ~ ff* ('the following lines or pages'), *l ~ ll* ('lines'), *MS/ms ~ MSS/ms* ('manuscripts'), *n ~ nn* ('nouns'), *p ~ pp* ('pages'), *v ~ vv* ('volumes'). *St* is the written abbreviation for 'Street' or 'Saint', *SS* stands for 'Saints' (e.g. *SS Peter and Paul*), *st* for 'stone' (She weighs *over 8st*) and for *-st* [fə:st], which is added to numbers that end in 1: *May 21st*.

Substantivized numerals: They all experienced the roaring *20s/20's*. He founded the company *in the thirties (30's)*... People were standing *in twos/two's* and *threes/three's*.

Letters and words. Compare: Dot your *i's* or cross your *t's* (figurative use: 'to deal with all the details when you are finishing something') ... Don't roll your *r's*... Your *y's* are not intelligible... There are too many *and's* in this sentence... All his *yes's* and *no's* are no answer ... The *Pro's and Con's* of Pursuing a MBA Degree... We'd better weigh the *pros and cons* before we decide... Some of their *whys* are hard to answer... I'm tired of your *ifs and buts*... The *ups and downs* of life... They talked about *likes and dislikes*... You should mind the *dos and don'ts* in a relationship.

1.1.1.1.1.3. The plural of proper nouns

Proper nouns are typically singular invariables. They are seldom plural or compound forms. Nationality nouns and other types of proper nouns may vary in form under given pragmatic circumstances and pattern with plural verbs.

1.1.1.1.1.3.1. Individual proper nouns denoting **first and last names**, or a **dynasty** are regularly pluralized and proper compound nouns have the plural in the last element: *The Smith family / the (Larry) Smiths* have asked *the Temples* to a picnic on Sunday. (ro. *Familia (Mihai) Ionescu / Ionești*); *the Tudor dynasty / the Tudors*.

Definiteness and possessive determiners are not uncommon with proper nouns. When they are used with the definite article, proper names partake of the characteristics of common count nouns and undergo semantic changes: *the two Lizzies/Alexes* ... "Happy anniversary to all (our) *Marys* / all *the Marys* present!" (ro. "La mulți ani!/Felicitări (tuturor) *Mariilor* (noastre)!").

The use of the indefinite article with proper names may convey a slightly derogatory nuance to the message: *A Mr. Todd* is asking for you.

Abstract temporal proper names can also get pluralized: They are having concerts on both *Saturdays* and *Sundays*... Oh, *all these Mondays* that I hate! (ro. Mult mai urăsc *ziua de luni*!).

As may be noted, with a few exceptions (*The Rocky Mountains* → *the Rockies*), proper nouns ending in *consonant + -y* do not conform to the rule of vowel shifting: the *Kennedys*, the two former *Germanys*... Get the *Hornbys* from the shelf!

Some foreign proper names, family names included, end in the *-s* allomorph: *the Borgias*, whereas others have a zero plural: *the Medici* (family), *the (two) Gracchi*.

Most proper names which are recategorized into common nouns are no longer capitalized: *china*: (articole de) *porțelan*, *porțelanuri*, *jersey*: *jachetă tricotată*, *flanelă*, *jerse*, *watt*, *Brussels sprouts*: *varză de Bruxelles*, *Paris green/Green*: *verde de Paris*, *Paris red*: *oxid de fier*, *roșu englezesc*.

The recategorization of proper names into common count nouns through **antonomasia** (i.e. 'call by a new name'), a particular form of **metonymy**, also calls for some attention. This process may either (1) involve 'the identification of a person by an epithet or appellative that is not the person's name', i.e. the substitution of a personal name for a common noun to designate by ellipsis a member of a group or class, meaning 'person like X', 'product of', 'work by X' or 'action like X's', or (2) the reverse of it, i.e. the use of a proper name to

express a general idea. Consider the variation in definiteness and in- definiteness in the following examples: Here comes *the Bard* ('Shakespeare')/*our Barbie*/ *Cassanova*/*Don Juan*! ... They were lost in admiration of *the Venuses* and *the Apollos* on the runway... *The Iron Lady* of politics ('Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher') ... *the Caesars* of our time... Don't be *a Scrooge*! ('a miser') (Charles Dickens, *A Christmas Carol*) ... He is *a Machiavelli*... He's good as a dramatist... yet not *a Shakespeare*. *Shakespeares* are seldom born (Stefănescu 1978: 131)¹⁵⁸ ... There should be *a Shakespeare* ('a work by Shakespeare') somewhere there... The Central Library bought *the two Miltons*... He sold *a Modigliani* and *two Picassos*... *The Modigliani* sold cheaper than he had expected... Find out all about *the famous Scott Hamilton back-flip* (in figure skating)... The new amplifier has **100 watts** of output (Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia) It may also involve the use of a proper name for an idea: *He is a Daniel come to judgment* (www.dictionary.com).

When they are used with the definite article, it is on a cultural basis that some common nouns may acquire [-Common] unique reference by reclassification and hence capitalized: *The Book* /'the Bible', *The Father* /'God', *The Flood* /'Noah's flood', *The Virgin* /'Mary'; *The City* (of London), *The Tower* (of London).

There are also two major pragmatic occurrences of proper nouns, place names included, with the definite article: (a) when two or more persons/places/things are called the same and the speaker/writer wants to refer uniquely to only one of them: There are *two Bostons* in the United States. We live in *the Boston* on the West Coast; and (b) when reference is made to the same person or place that are looked at different times: *The Mary* he met ten years later was gorgeous... Going back to *the London* of his boyhood was a long-cherished dream... *Our Romanias* are totally different ('the Romania we are talking about').

I.1.1.1.1.3.2. Forms of address or titles of courtesy are prefixed to names as **premodifier/title** and **name** combinations which take the plural either in the first (a) or the last element (b). The application of this title to two or more persons of the same name varies in usage. Note especially *Messrs*, the plural of *Mr*, which is often used with the names of two or several men in the name of firms:

Mr. Short → (a) *Messrs Short and Firth Ltd.* (b) *the two Mr. Shorts* (informal, usual); *Master* → *Masters Short/the three Master Shorts*; *Miss Short* → (a) *the Misses Short* (formal, old-fashioned), *the Miss Shorts* / (b) *Mrs. /misiz/* → *the two Mrs./Ms. Short(s)*

When the plural concept is attached to the title, only form (a) is used: *the Misses Mary and Jane White*; *the Messrs Todd and Firth*; *Doctors/Drs. Richardson and Stuart*; *Professors Jones and Wilson*, but *Manfred Jones and Seth Wilson*, *the lawyers/ the jewellers*.

Other forms of address worth mentioning are: *Lord Nelson*, *Your Highness(es)*; *His lordship* / *Their lordships* / *Her ladyship* / *Their ladyships* will see you on the terrace, sir.

Consider also the two most common **strict restrictive appositions of noun phrases** in BrE: (i) *the* + (premodifier) + NP + *appositive*: *The (highly) celebrated gymnast, Nadia Comăneci*, which is more general than its reverse, (ii) *Nadia Comăneci, the celebrated gymnast*. AmE usage especially encourages a third type, namely, (iii) *gymnast Nadia Comăneci*.

Unlike them, the type '*friend* + Proper Noun' conveys criticism: "*Our friend Anna* here doesn't think so, however"¹⁵⁹.

I.1.1.1.1.3.3. Names of cities and inhabitants

Regardless of their form, the plural of nouns denoting the inhabitants of cities / towns observe two main patterns, by derivation with suffix *-ers*: (*the*) *Bucharesters* / *Londoners* / *New Yorkers* and *-ians*: (*the*) *Athenians* /

¹⁵⁸ Note the variation in definiteness/indefiniteness in the translation of the plural *Shakespeares* into Romanian: Este un bun dramaturg, dar nu este *Shakespeare*. Nu se naște *un Shakespeare* în fiecare zi./Rar se naște *un Shakespeare*.

¹⁵⁹ Randolph Quirk, S. Greenbaum, G. Leech and J. Svartvik, *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*, Longman, London, 1985, p. 1316.

Bostonians / Parisians / Edingburghians ('the inhabitants of Bucharest / London / New Yorker...'). Note also *the Muscovits* (people of Moscow) etc. Romanian, on the other hand, follows a unique plural pattern: *bucureșteni(i)*, *londonezi(i)*, *newyorkezi(i)*, *atenieni(i)*, *bostonieni(i)*, *parizieni(i)*, *edinburghezi(i)*, *moscoviți(i)* ('locuitorii Bucureștiului / cei din București/Londra/ New York, Atena etc.).

The invariable **-s toponyms** *Athens, Brussels, Marseilles, Naples, Wales, the Thames* etc. take singular concord.

I.1.1.1.2. Irregular plurals

Nouns with irregular plurals have by definition unpredictable plural forms. They are either derived through **voicing**, **mutation** and **zero plural**, or are **foreign plurals**.

I.1.1.1.2.1. Voicing or consonant change / shift

Nouns ending in the voiceless fricative /f/, spelt **-f**, **-fe** or **-ff** will, in their great majority, take regular plural endings: *beliefs, proofs, roofs, safes, cliffs, sheriffs*. The rest of them either undergo consonant change and have a voiced plural spelled **-ves** and pronounced with the voiced fricatives /vz/: *half-halves, knife-knives, leaf-leaves; life-lives*,¹⁶⁰ *wife-wives*, or take both plural forms: *dwarf-dwarfs/dwarves, hoof-hoofs/hoooves, wharfs-wharfs/wharves*.¹⁶¹

Similar morphophonemic problems may occur with nouns ending in **-th**. Pronounced with the voiceless fricatives /θs/ in the singular, they have a regular **-ths** plural spelling pronounced with the voiced fricatives /ðz/. The non-voicing and voicing of the regular **-ths** ending is rather indeterminate. The regular pronunciation /θs/ occurs with nouns in which the ending **-th** is preceded either by a consonant or a vowel sound: *births* /bɜːθs/, *lengths; cloths, deaths, faiths, moths*. The plural of some nouns ending in **-th** is pronounced with both the regular voiceless /θs/ plural or the voiced interdental consonant /ðz/: *oaths* /əuθs/ or /əuðz/, *truths* /truːθs/ or /truːðz/, *wreaths; baths*,¹⁶² etc. Voicing also occurs in the plural of *house* /haus/ → *houses* /hauziz/.

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I.1.1.1.2.2. Mutation or vowel change / shift plurals are basically survivals of 'old' plural forms, or old neuter nouns, which are derived by the zero allomorph and a **vowel change**: *foot-feet, tooth-teeth; man-men, woman-women*. Old English "retained a fairly elaborate system of declensions" according to gender distinctions: "[T]hree quarters of the substantives followed three main strong paradigms for masculines, feminines, and neuters" (Potter 1976: 23). Except for masculine nouns, which got the **-s** morpheme as a marker for the plural, nouns formed their plural by vowel change. The neuter declension was characterized by the fact that no change occurred in the form of the noun in the plural: OE (sg) *deor* – (pl) *deor* → Mod.E (sg) *deer* – (pl) *deer* (Ștefănescu 1978: 80). The seven mutated plurals of Modern English – *feet, geese, teeth, men, women, lice and mice* – had twenty-five counterparts in Old English (Potter 1976: 23). Regular plurals of mutational nouns may, however, occur in names, such as *Mother Gooses*, and, with derived meanings, in informal use, in name calling: You, silly *gooses*! ... You're *louses*!

Compound nouns whose final element is a **mutational noun** usually pluralize accordingly. Compare: *gooseberry, -ies, footman-footmen, footmark(s), footnote(s), footpath(s), footprint(s), footstool(s), footstep(s), goose-step(s)* and *goosefoot(s)*¹⁶³ vs *dormouse - dormice, forefoot – forefeet*. Some English phrases with a plural mutation element included have similar Romanian counterparts: *fall at sb's feet* (ro. *a cădea la picioarele cuiva*), *aversion to mice* (ro. *frică/groză/teamnă de șoareci*), *armed to the teeth* (înarmat până'n dinți) etc.

¹⁶⁰The compound noun *still-life* - *still-lives* undergoes no consonant shift in the plural.

¹⁶¹ The bold type forms mark the more common variant.

¹⁶² In BrE the meaning of *baths* varies with pronunciation: while the regular plural pronunciation /baːθs/ means 'bathtubs', the regular /baːθ / and the voiced plural /baːðz/ alike read 'swimming pool'.

¹⁶³ Any of various weeds of the genus *Chenopodium*, having small greenish flowers. Also called *pigweed* (ro. *talpa găștei*).

A very small number of these plurals are marked by the suffix *-(e)n*, accompanied or not by vowel and consonant changes: *child – children; brother – brethren*¹⁶⁴.

I.1.1.1.2.3. Zero plurals

Beside mutation plurals, the zero plural allomorph can be identified in some **nationality nouns** and **animal names**, some **quantifying nouns** and **nouns with equivocal number**, etc. (Quirk et al 1985: 307-310). Zero plural nouns have plural meaning and concord but no overt plural ending.

I.1.1.1.2.4. Nationality nouns usually have a regular singular-plural number contrast: *Asian(s), Austrian(s), Australian(s), Belgian(s), Dane(s), Finn(s), German(s), Pole(s), Romanian(s), Indian(s), Spaniard(s), Swede(s), Turk(s), Israeli(s), Pakistani(s)*. Only few of them, ending in *-ese* /i:z/, *-ch* and *-(i)sh*, have zero plurals, whether they are used generically or as countables: *the Swiss / Chinese, one / two Swiss / Chinese / Japanese / Lebanese / Maltese / Portuguese / Sudanese / Vietnamese*.

There is variation in the use of the adjective denoting nationality and the nouns used with specific and generic reference in the case of some nationality names. Compare: *a Dane – (two) Danes; the Danes / Danish; a Pole – (two) Poles; the Poles / Polish; a Spaniard – (two) Spaniards; the Spaniards / Spanish; an Englishman – (two) Englishmen; the English*: A: “You must be *English / Polish / Romanian*”. B: “Yes, I am *English / Polish / Romanian / Chinese / Swiss*”. ... “Yes, I’m from *Poland / England / Romania / Switzerland*” ... *Two Englishmen, some Poles and a Romanian live next door... (the) Danish /English (language) ... Danish pastry, English muffins, an English breakfast... the British Isles / government / people*.

The distinction between the **generic** nouns with invariable plural ending in *-ish, -sh*, or *-ch* and the **nongeneric/specific** compounds ending in *-man* in the singular and *-men* in the plural, or *woman* /wumən/ and *women* /wimin/ arises with some nationality nouns. Compare: *A Dutchman / Frenchman/ Welshman/ An Englishman/Irishman travels much; The Dutch /English /French /Irish /Welsh travel much; (The) Dutchmen /Englishmen /Frenchmen /Irishmen /Welshmen travel much. A Finn travels much vs (The) Finns travel much*.

The regular and zero plural can alternate in a context: There were *ten French(men)* on the plane.

Certain nationality and ethnic names are used with either a regular or a zero plural: *Apache(s), Bedouin(s), Eskimo(s), Navaho(s)*. As homographs, the singular and plural forms of the noun **Sioux** follow the French pattern of pronunciation for *corp(s) d’armée / de ballet*, i.e. (sg) /ko:/ - (pl) /ko:z/. Its singular form is pronounced /su:/ whereas the plural form is either pronounced with the zero plural /su:/ or the regular plural /su:z/.

I.1.1.1.2.5. Animal names

The use of plural varies with animal names. A large number of animal names take the regular plural to denote “different individuals or species” (Quirk et al 1978: 178): (*eagles, foxes, hens, horses, pigs, rabbits*). Some have irregular plurals derived by voicing (*calf, -ves; wolf, -ves*) and a few of them have mutation plurals (*goose – geese, louse-lice, mouse – mice, ox – oxen*). While the regular *-s* plural “typically draws attention to the individual specimens”, the zero plural refers to “the animals as a group”¹⁶⁵ and may be taken for a collective plural.

¹⁶⁴ The meaning ‘fellow members of a trade, order, profession’ of the irregular plural form *brethren* is archaic nowadays, except when it refers especially to fellow members of a religious group, of an organization or an association.

¹⁶⁵ Douglas Biber, S. Johansson, G. Leech, S. Conrad and E. Finegan, Foreword by Randolph Quirk, 1999, *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*, Longman, 1999, p. 288. (LGSWE)

Some animal names consistently take zero plurals: *bison, quail, pike*; a few of them are only zero: *carp, cod, deer, grouse, moose, plaice, reindeer, salmon, sheep*¹⁶⁶; others are used with both the zero and the regular *-s* plural: *antelope(s), buffalo(es), chicken(s), crab(s), eel(s), elk(s), fish, flounder(s), a fox(es), giraffe(s), hare(s), herring(s), lobster(s), partridge(s), quail(s), rabbit(s), sardine(s), shrimp(s), squirrel(s), stag(s), trout(s), turtle(s), woodcock(s)*.

The zero allomorph with animal nouns is usually selected by people who are especially concerned with animals, in the shooting and fishing jargons, or when the animals are referred to as 'flesh', that is, as possible 'food' or 'game', as 'skin' and 'fur', rather than as living animals. The zero morpheme nouns in collocations such as *a fox / hare / rabbit coat* stand for the **mass uses of count nouns** denoting these animals: We *sell hare / rabbit*... They often shoot *stag / hare*... They shot *two bison / deer*... These *buck* are dangerous... They saw *herds* of [*elk / reindeer*]; a large *flock* of [*quails*].

Sometimes it is only the context which helps disambiguate an inherently [+Count] noun like *chicken* in (a), ambiguous between a [+/- Count] reading in (b) and [-Count] in (c):

- (a) There were *ten/some/no/lots of a brood of chickens* in the backyard.
- (b) There was *no chicken* in the backyard.
- (c) We'll have *chicken* for dinner.

The zero plural of *duck, goose, lamb, rabbit*, etc. refer to both **game** and **food**, whereas the regular *-s* plural is used for the **living birds**, i.e. farmers *raise / keep ducks / rabbits* but hunters *shoot and eat duck / rabbit*: Do you *keep / raise ducks / geese / lambs*? ... We only *eat duck, goose and lamb*... We have shot (*ten*) *wild duck*. Similarly, fishermen *catch and eat fish/herring*, etc.

When the animal name does not also denote its flesh, English uses different [+Count] and [-Count] lexical shapes to discriminate between the game, the flesh of the animal and the living animal itself, e.g. *cow : beef, ox/ calf : veal, pig : pork, sheep : mutton, hen/cock : chicken*; we *shoot deer* but *eat venison*, *raise / keep sheep* but *eat mutton / lamb*, *raise / keep cows* but *eat beef*, *raise / keep pigs* but *eat pork*. In Romanian, the same item denotes both the living animal and its flesh, which is also referred to as *carne de*: *Nu au prins (nici un) pește*... *Au prins câțiva/mulți pești*... *Au vînat (două) căprioare/rațe*... *Cresc rațe / oi / porci / vaci / vite*... *Mîncăm de regulă vînat / rață / pește*, (carne de) *oaie/porc/vită*... *Am împușcat/vînat (zece) rațe sălbătice*... *Cînd începe vînat_ătoarea la fazan/lurs*? ... *Au dat la crap, la păstrăv și la știucă* (apud Dutescu-Coliban 1986: 191).

The count noun *swine, -s* ('pig, -s') is usually used as a word of abuse, with a zero plural and, only occasionally, with the regular plural *swines*: She realized what *a swine* he had been... He is *a cynical swine*... You *swine(s)!* ... She called him *swine*/them *swines*... *Those swine* won't stop bothering us. Phrases: *to cast pearls before swine*... I don't know why I bother to talk to you, I'm just *casting pearls before swine*. (ro. *a strica orzul pe găște*).

Some countable nouns which denote species of trees and their wood are commonly used with a zero plural morpheme: *ash (tree), beech, birch, elm, fir, larch, oak, pine*. Compare: *Forests of pine, birch, larch, ash, elm* (ro. *Păduri de pin(i), mesteacăn/mesteceni*)... They have cut *all the pine* up the street. (ro. *Au tăiat toți pinii de pe stradă*) ... Mountain lakes and *pin*es lay below them.

¹⁶⁶ Some linguists seem to identify an instance of the typological phenomenon called **markedness reversal** in "the unmarked English plurals for some wild creatures" such as *deer, fish, moose, salmon, sheep, trout*: *This deer/sheep* is from Greece: *These deer / sheep* are from Greece. This implies that certain noun classes "tend to have unmarked collective-marked singulative forms". William Croft, *Typology and Universals*, CUP, 1993, pp. 144 -5.

The nouns (*air*)craft, *hovercraft* and *spacecraft* behave similarly: *The **craft** was sunk ... All the **craft** were sunk... There were around twenty **craft** in the port...* Have you flied *many **aircraft***? By contrast: *Are **Arts and Crafts** in the curriculum?*

The invariable noun *offspring* also takes notional concord: Her ***offspring** is* well-off (one child) vs Her ***offspring** are* well-off (two or more children).

I.1.1.1.2.6. The plural of Latin, Greek, French, Italian and Hebrew nouns

The main types of foreign plurals in present-day English have originated in Latin and Greek, as well as in Arabic, French, Hebrew and Italian. Some Latin and Greek loans keep their foreign plural, sometimes in alternation with regular plural endings. A survey of nouns that take both a foreign and a regular -s plural has shown that while the former is more common in technical usage, the latter occurs in everyday usage.

Latin nouns end in the following morphemes and plural allomorphs:

(1) **-a** /ə/ → **-ae** /i:/ When the zero morpheme is **-a** /ə/, the plural allomorph is **-ae** /i:/, as in *alga - algae*, *alumna - alumnae*, *larva - larvae*. Regular plurals are preferred in everyday speech with some nouns that take both plurals: *antenna - antennae* / *antennas*, *formula*, *nebula*, *vertebra*, whereas nouns such as *agenda - agendas*, *arena*, *dilemma*, *diploma*, *drama*, *era*, etc. are only used with a regular plural.

(2) **-us** /əs/ → **-i** /ai/ When the zero morpheme is **-us** /əs/, the plural allomorph is in many cases **-i** /ai/: *alumnus - alumni*,¹⁶⁷ *bacillus*, *locus*, *stimulus*, etc. Other nouns take both the regular **-es** [i:z] and **-i** /ai/ plurals: *focus - focuses* /fəʊkəsi:z/ or *foci* /fəʊkai/fəʊsai/, *fungus - funguses* /fʌŋgəsi:z/ or *fungi* /fʌŋdʒai, fʌŋgai, fʌŋdʒi: fʌŋgi:/, *syllabus - syllabi - syllabuses*, *terminus - termini - terminuses*, *cactus*, *nucleus*, etc. The noun *apparatus* can be used with either a zero or a regular plural form: *apparatus* / *apparatuses* /æpə'reitəsi:z/¹⁶⁸.

Other nouns ending in **-us** /əs/ make the plural in the allomorphs **-era** or **-ora** /əɾə/, like in *genus* dʒi:nəs/ → *genera* /dʒenərə/, and, sometimes, also in **-es** [i:z], as in *corpus - corpora* / *corpuses*. The following nouns take only the regular plural: *bonus-es*, (e.g. a five pound *bonus*, an *added bonus*) *chorus*, *circus*, *status*, *virus*.

(3) **-um** /əm/ → **-a** /ə/ or /ɑ:/ When the zero morpheme is **-um** /əm/, the plural allomorph is **-a** /ə/ or /ɑ:/ (in careful pronunciation). Some nouns ending in **-um** have only the **-a** plural: *datum - data*, *addendum - addenda*, *bacterium*, *desideratum*, *erratum*. Other nouns take only the regular plural: *album*, *chrysanthemum*, *museum*, *premium*. The nouns *forum* and *stadium* are usually regular. Many nouns have both plurals: *aquarium*, *curriculum*, *medium*, *memorandum*, *millenium*, *referendum*, *spectrum*, *stratum*¹⁶⁹, *symposium*, *ultimatum*.

(4) **-ex** /eks/ or **-ix** /iks/ + **-es** → **-exes** /iksi:z/ or **-ices** /isi:z/. The plural of the nouns ending in **-ex** /eks/ or **-ix** /iks/ is either regular **-exes** /iksi:z/ or foreign **-ices** /isi:z/, as in *appendix - appendix-es* / *-ices*, *apex - apexes*, *index - indexes - indices*,¹⁷⁰ *matrix - matrices*. The noun *codex* takes only the foreign plural *codices*.

¹⁶⁷ Gender contrast is marked by variation in form in the masculine *alumnus*, **-i** (formal, especially AmE, 'a former student of a school, college, or university') and the feminine *alumna*, **-ae** (formal, especially AmE, 'a woman who is a former student of a school, college, or university').

¹⁶⁸ Note the polysemous nature of *apparatus-apparatuses* in the following collocations: The town has excellent *fire-fighting apparatus*... the *espionage / government apparatus*... the *digestive apparatus*.

¹⁶⁹ In *Geology* /stra:təm/ strætəm/streitəm/ is 'a bed or layer of sedimentary rock having approximately the same composition throughout, e.g. 'The rock *strata* were investigated... (*Sociology*) 'a level of society composed of people with similar social, cultural, or economic status', e.g. Every *stratum* of society was affected ... (*Biology*) 'a layer of tissue', e.g. the *epithelial stratum*. One of a number of layers, levels, or divisions in an organized system: ...an allegory/a complex poem with many *strata* of meaning (www.thefreedictionary.com/stratum).

¹⁷⁰ Sometimes a singular item may have two different plural allomorphs attached, which in most cases point to different meanings. For instance, *appendixes*, the regular plural form of *appendix*, is used to denote 'parts of the body', whereas *appendices* refers to 'parts of a book'. There is also variation with the plural of *index*, usually correlating with a difference in meaning. *Indexes*, the regular plural form of *index*, is used with a "bibliographical meaning", for reference to 'parts of a book, publication', while *indices* has a "mathematical meaning" (Biber et al. 1999: 287) and is used in a

Greek nouns usually end in a foreign plural:

(1) **-is** /is/ → **-es** /i:z/: *analysis* – *analyses*, *axis*, *basis*,¹⁷¹ *crisis*, *diagnosis*, *ellipsis*, *hypothesis*, *oasis*, *parenthesis*, *synthesis*, *thesis*;

(2) **-on** /ən/ → **-a** /ə/: When the zero morpheme of the nouns is **-on** /ən/, it is generally dropped and replaced by the plural allomorph **-a** /ə/, as in *criterion* – *criteria*, *phenomenon* – *phenomena*. Some international words take mainly a regular plural: *electron(s)*, *neutron(s)*, *proton(s)*. Other nouns take both plurals: *automaton* – *automata* – *automatons*, *etymon* – *etyma* – *etymons*, *ganglion* – *ganglia* – *ganglions*.

French nouns ending in **-eau** /əu/ take either a regular plural ending in **-s**: **-eaus** or a foreign/French plural in **-eaux**, both pronounced /əuz/: *bureau-bureaus-bureaux*, *tableau-(tableaus)-tableaux*; *adieu-adieus-adieux*.

Some French nouns in **-s** and **-x** have invariable zero plurals which are pronounced /z/ in speech: *chamois*, *chassis* /ʃæsi-/ʃæsiz/, *faux pas* /pɑː-/ /pɑːz/.

Italian nouns ending in **-o** /əu/ take the plural form **-i** /i/, as in *tempo* – *tempi*, or only a regular plural, as in *solo-s*, *soprano-s*. Some of them may take both: *libretto* – *librettos* – *libretti*, *tempo*, *virtuoso*.

Italian plurals such as *confetti*, *graffiti*,¹⁷² *macaroni*, *ravioli* and *spaghetti* are non-count in English and take singular verb concord.

The **Hebrew** noun *kibbutz* either takes the regular plural **-es** or the foreign plural form **-im** /im/: *kibbutzes* / *kibbutzim*, whereas *cherub* and *seraph* are usually regular.

I.1.1.2. Invariable nouns

Invariable nouns are typically **uncountable**, **peripheral** /**marginal** items of the noun class. They are similar in that they have no singular-plural contrast, but vary morphologically in that most of them are singular or plural invariable **nouns in -s**, a few of them end in **-ics** and others are **zero-plural** nouns. There is also a good deal of vacillation in their behaviour in terms of countability and concord, implicitly, since they can pattern with a singular or a plural verb, or both. It is this variation in form, concord and meaning that may account for grouping them into the two major classes of **singular invariable nouns** and **plural invariable nouns** (Quirk et al. 1978: 166; Quirk et al. 1985: 297), also referred to as **singular invariables** / **uncountables**, also labelled ‘regular’ uncountables, since they are the more common, and **plural invariables/ uncountables** (Biber et al. 1999: 244; Dutescu-Coliban, 1986: 191f).

However, detailed morpho-semantic classifications of English nouns in terms of number show that this rough division rather looks arbitrary, as far as there are “a small number of classes which differ in meaning and grammatical behaviour” and may be shifted from one class to another (Biber et al. 1999: 241).

I.1.1.2.1. Singular invariable nouns, commonly referred to as **singularia tantum nouns** in traditional grammars, are **concrete** and **abstract mass** nouns, **proper** nouns and **abstract adjective heads**, which pattern with a singular verb in their **mass** uses. They usually resist pluralization, and hence cannot combine with the quantifiers *many* and *few* and the determiners *a*, *every*, *each*, which “presuppose a notion of countability” (Biber et al. 1999: 243).

I.1.1.2.1.1. Nouns with dual class membership

technical sense (*economic indices*), or in mathematics, where *indices* ‘show how many times a number is multiplied by itself’. In $2 \times 2 = 4$, for instance, 2 is an *index*.

¹⁷¹ Compare these plurals with the plural form of some regular nouns: *base* – *bases* /beisiz/ and *basis* – *bases* /beisi:z/, *axe-s*, *axis* – *axes*, *ellipse-s*, *ellipsis* – *ellipses*.

¹⁷² The singular Italian noun *graffitto*, is not, however, unlikely to be heard.

There are some basically **concrete** and **abstract noncount nouns** which can achieve countable reference by **reclassification/ pluralization** (*beers*) or by **partition** (*glass/pint of [beer]*) and which have been included in the category of **nouns with dual class membership** (Quirk et al. 1985: 247).

Both count and noncount nouns can enter partitive constructions, which may express both “quality partition”, e.g. *a kind/sort/type of [account/cherries/salt/wine]* and “quantity partition”, e.g. *a drop/bottle/glass of [wine]*. (*idem*: 249).

Partitives are count nouns that are used to refer to a limited or a large indefinite quantity of both “masses and entities” which are “specified in a following *of*-phrase by uncountable nouns and plural countables.” (Biber et al 1999: 252) Grammatically, they behave like ordinary countable nouns: (sg) *a piece of [advice]*, (pl) (*two*) *pieces of [advice]*. Partition in respect of quantity and of countability, implicitly, can be achieved by **general partitives**, **typical/specific partitives** (Quirk et al 1985: 249f) and **group/collective partitives**.

General partitives and **typical/specific partitives**, are **unit nouns** (Biber et al 1999: 250), which “make it possible to split up an undifferentiated mass and refer to separate instances of a phenomenon”. (*ibid*) What they differ in is their semantics and collocates. While the former (*a piece of, a bit of*) are “characteristically general in meaning” (*ibid*), the latter (*a blade of, a grain of, a speck of*) are more restricted and descriptive and collocate with specific concrete and abstract noncount nouns. On the other hand, **group/collective partitives**, or **quantifying collectives** (*idem*: 248), provide a collective reference for separate entities, or “groups of single entities” expressing a (very) large amount or large amounts of something in both their singular and plural forms: *a heap/heap(s) of [books / money / snow]*, *a flock/flock(s) of [birds / sheep / tourists]*, *load(s) of, lot(s) of, masse(s) of, oodles of*, etc. According to Biber et al (1999: 250), both types of noun “provide alternative ways of viewing and referring, collective nouns with respect to countables and unit nouns with respect to uncountables” (cf. also Quirk et al 1985: 249). They both tend to have “marked collocational patterns” (Biber et al 1999: 250) and fit in the singular and plural partitive phrase patterns, as follows: (1) **sg.** Det (a) + (C)N₁ + of + (U)N₂: *a + bit/piece + of + [chalk]* → **pl.** (quantifier +) (plC)N₁ + of + (U)N₂: *bits of [chalk]*; (2) **sg.** Det (a) + (C)N₁ + of + (plC)N₂: *a + litter + of + [puppies]* → **pl.** (quantifier +) (plC)N₁ + of + (plC)N₂: (four) *litters + of + [puppies]*.

1.1.1.2.1.1.1. Countable uses of mass nouns/ Countable uncountables

According to the type of change brought about by **reclassification / pluralization**, mass nouns may be divided into several groups:

(i) Some **concrete mass nouns**, such as *beer, cheese, coffee, ice, tea, wine; fish and fruit*, can undergo pluralization and correlative changes in their syntactic status. The plural nouns *beers, cheeses, coffees, ices, teas, wines; fishes, fruits* are elliptical “general terms”, which stand for the specific meaning ‘kind/type of’ or ‘pieces of the respective matter’, etc. (cf. Ștefănescu 1978: 85). The different ‘kinds of x’ get further lexicalized into proper nouns like *Cheddar, Danish Blue; Lipton; Bordeaux, Merlot, Murfatlar*, which may themselves recategorize as mass nouns, as in *They only drink Bourbon*. Compare: I like *tea*... *Tea* is good for health... Will you have *tea* or *coffee*? ... Can I have *a cup of [coffee/tea]*, please? ... *Two teas/cups of [tea]*, please... This is *a nice coffee/tea*. I love it (‘kind, sort, type of tea’)... She loves *Chinese teas*... I like *Brazilian coffees* and *Chinese teas* best... *Three ices/ice cones* (‘icecream cones’), please... I bought *a very good cheese*... I love *French cheeses*... *Five cream cheeses*, please... A: What *cheeses* do you serve? B: Well, we’ll have *Cheddar*... I like *Romanian wines*, but I love *Bordeaux* best)... I’ve never missed *Christine’s teas* (‘a small meal usually served in the afternoon with a cup of tea’).

The nouns *fish* and *fruit* evince a parallel behaviour to that of the mass nouns above.

Fish, meaning either ‘all fish in the world’ or ‘the flesh of fish’, as opposed to other kinds of meat, is “individuated” into *fish(es)*, i.e. ‘kinds of fish(es)’. Compare the count and mass uses of *fish* and *fishes* in the following examples: I like *fish*. I’d like some *fish*. I bought *three fish(es)*. ... They’ve only caught *a few*

fish/three huge *fish*... A shoal of young *fishes* were swimming by ... collections of minerals, insects, *fishes* and birds. (CCD)... They say *fish* is good for the brain... *Fish* only live in water... The pond is (well-) stocked with *fish*... many kinds of *fishes* ... the Danube *fishes* ... The Black Sea *fishes*... cold water *fish(es)*, deep sea / water *fish(es)*, freshwater *fish(es)*... Information about types of deep sea *fish* is given here... Coffin *fish* are flabby bottom-dwelling *fishes* that occur in deep waters around the world... as dumb/mute *a fish* ...to drink like *a fish*... *an odd/ a queer fish* ('a strange person')... *a cold fish* ('an unfriendly person who seems to have no strong feelings')... *a big fish* in a little pond... *All is fish* that comes to his net (ro. Nu refuză nimic, nu alege, trage folos din toate)... (*infml.*) to have *other/bigger fish to fry*, e.g. I can't deal with this now, I've got other *fish* to fry... To be food for *fishes*... to feed the *fishes* (ro. a se ineca; a da hrana la pești; a avea rău de mare)... Feel like *a fish out of water* (ro. a se simți ca peștele pe uscat, a nu fi in apele lui)...The *best fish* smell (*bad*) when they are three days old. ('Fish and company stink in three days'; 'L'hôte et le poisson puent passé trois jours.') "Withdraw thy foot from thy neighbour's house, lest he get weary of')... There are *plenty more fish in the sea*. (ro. Nu a secat balta)... *neither fish nor fowl* ('neither one thing nor another').

Fish gets further lexicalized into inherently countable varieties such as *carp*, *cod*, *herring*, *salmon*, *trout*, etc., which can function as both count nouns that fluctuate between the overtly marked -s allomorph plural and the zero plural form, or as mass nouns meaning 'the body/flesh of the respective fish'. Consider the variation in form and concord of *fish* and its lexicalizations: Have some more *carp* / *fish* / *trout*. *Salmon* is a superfood... the Danube *salmon* or *huchen* is a large freshwater salmonid ... others are *marine fishes*... To lay her roe, the *female salmon* uses her tail... *Salmon* are carnivorous... they are born in fresh water, migrate to the ocean, then return to fresh water to reproduce... *salmon* are keystone species, supporting wildlife such as birds, bears and otters... *salmon* migrate and *trout* are resident ... *Salmon* live along the coasts of... The *salmon* spend about one to five years (depending on the species) in the open ocean, where they gradually become sexually mature (*wikipedia*, the free encyclopedia)... Several dozen *salmon(s)* are said to live off the Norwegian shores... The *plover(s)* of North America look beautiful (Stefănescu 1978: 86)... *Herring(s)* are there in plenty.

The general term *fruit(s)* also gets different lexicalizations, such as *apple*, *cherry*, *grapes*, *pear*, *plum*, etc., which can be used as either count or mass nouns. Note for instance the [+/-Count] uses of *apple*, -s and *egg*, -s: How many *apples/eggs* have you eaten? ... There's too much *apple/egg* in this salad.

Beside denoting 'varieties of fruit', *fruits*, the regular plural form of *fruit*, can also be used metaphorically. Compare: *bush fruits* ('small fruits growing on woody bushes'), *citrus fruits* (ro. *citrice*), *dried fruits*, *first fruits*; *soft fruit(s)* (strawberries, currants, etc) and *the fruits of the earth/of nature*... *the fruits of Africa*... *The Fruits of Wrath*... They had reached a time of life when most people would be reaping *the fruits of their labour* ('the results of smth')... The government predicts that their measures will start to *bear fruit* soon and inflation rates will come down. ('to produce good results'). Note the [+/-Count] status of the Romanian equivalents of *fish* and *fruit*: [-Count] *fructe/pește*: Cumpără *fructe/pește* mîine; [+Count] *fruct-fructe/ pește-pești*, e.g. A luat *un pește/doi pești*; *un fruct* /două/ niște *fructe* de papaya; *Peștele/Peștii* Mării Nordului /din Marea Nordului /acvaniu; *Fructele* Africii și Asiei/din Africa și Asia vs *fructul/fructele* pămîntului/mîniei.

Note that most Romanian equivalents of the mass nouns in this class are **neuter collective nouns** ending in -*uri* and -*e*: *cheese-cheeses* : *brînză-brînzeturi*; *consumable* – *consumables* : (*materiale*) *consumabile*; *jam- jams* : *dulceață-dulcețuri*; *linen-linens* : *pînză-pînzeturi*; *meat-meats* : *carne-cărnuri*; *silk-silks* : *mătase-mătăsuri*; *sugar-sugars* : *zahăr-zaharuri*; *sweet-sweets/ sweet (things)/lollipops/dainties*: *dulce-dulciuri*; *woollen* – *woollens/ woollen goods* : *lînă-lîneturi*; *dairy-dairies* : *lapte* - (*produse*) *lactate*; *cosmetics* : *produs cosmetic* – (*produse*) *cosmetice*. Compare: We only buy *lean meats*... They sell processed *meats*. (ro. (*produse*) *carnate*) ... They say chicken and ground beef are the riskiest *meats*... "Curg *cărnile* de pe el". ('His *fleshes* hang loose on him'.)

Some concrete mass nouns form compounds with *-ware*, which has developed into two different compound-forming elements, one meaning 'goods', and the other meaning 'computer software' (*hardware* and *software*). They achieve a collective noun status, roughly meaning 'articles made of [first element in the compound]' or

'articles with [first element in the compound]': *brass-brassware/brass utensils, brasses* : *alamă-alămuri*; *china-chinaware* : *porțelan- porțelanuri*; *glass-glassware* : *sticlă-sticlărie*; *silver-silverware* : *argint-argintărie*. Compounds with *-ware* and *-wear* occur in syntagms such as *the glassware / footwear department* : *raionul de sticlărie / încălțăminte*, e.g. *Are you cosmetics?* (Quirk et al.: 248n) (ro. Alo, *cosmeticele/ raionul de cosmetice?/ salonul de cosmetică?... Treci pe la (raionul de) brînzeturi*), etc.¹⁷³

Other Romanian count and mass nouns have undergone pluralization by derivation with archaic sounding suffixes such as *-rie/-raie, -ime*, e.g. *apă: apărie / apăraie*, *colb: colbărie/ colbăraie*, *fum: fumărie/fumăraie*, *glod: glodărie/ glodăraie*; *rufă: rufărie*, *vorbă: vorbărie*; *ban,-i: bănet*, *broască, broaște: broștime*, *muscă: muscărimă*, *viespe: viespar*, *fin-uri*, *albitură: albituri*.

Some collective noun derivatives ending in suffix *-iș* and meaning 'a grove of', 'a clump of' or 'a group of' are usually rendered by partitives in English: *aluniș* : *hazel wood*, *stejăriș* : *oak grove/ a grove of oaks*, *frunziș* : *foliage / leafage*, *păienjeniș*: *cobweb/spider's web*.

(ii) Traditionally considered uncountable, the noun *money* also gets lexicalized as 'kinds of' money, that is, *moneys/monies*, a formal, technical term in law, finance, accounting situations, which reads 'multiple forms of money', 'pecuniary sums', 'sums of money owed by different people or for different transactions': *monies due, monies owed*. 'Kinds of money' also gets lexicalized into the count and mass nouns *dollar(s)*, *pound(s)* and *euro(s)*: *All three monies*, the *dollars, pounds* and *euros*, will be sent tomorrow by bank transfer. Moreover, *money* can also get reclassified by means of vague singular and plural partitive/quantifying phrases such as *a fistful / load / pile / mountain / stack of [money]*; *fistfuls / loads / piles / mountains / stacks of [money]*, etc.

(iii) Another category of **mass nouns** form under pluralization new mass nouns related in meaning to the singular mass term, that is, "the meaning of the singular mass nouns includes the plural mass noun, but not vice versa" (Ștefănescu 1978: 87). The newly formed mass nouns are "semantically singular, but grammatically plural", in both form and concord, (*ibid*). This type of relation is evinced by the mass term *salt*, which due to its semantic nature is uncountable. Its undivided reference only allows it to be used with partitives. Compare *salt₁* and *salt₂ (salts)*: Pass me *the salt*, please... Add *a pinch of salt* vs (mineral) *salts*, which are used as a medicine: *a dose of salts* ... *Epsom salts, liver salts, bath salts, smelling salts*. Romanian equivalents, *sare* and *săruri*, behave similarly.

(iv) Some non-count nouns that denote natural phenomena express 'intensity' when reclassified. Thus the feature [+Plural] in *snows* and *waters* turns into a marker of [+Intensification], metaphorically expressing 'a great quantity/extent of' *snow* or *water* or 'degree of intensity' (Cf. Dutescu-Coliban 1986: 194 and Quirk et al. 1985: 299). This reclassification is not possible when a small quantity is involved. Compare: *the waters* of the Earth... Still *waters* are deep... Beware of fishing in *muddy/troubled waters*... *The Snows* of Kilimanjaro... Oh where are gone *the snows* of yore? (ro. *zăpezile de altădată*), but *the snow* in the backyard and *the water* in these wells. Note the metaphorical uses of *zăpezi* and *ape* and the translation of the following Romanian phrases into English: *Nu mă simt (deloc/tocmai) în apele mele*: I feel/I'm feeling *rather unwell* (today); *Minte de îngheață apele*: She's lying in her throat / teeth /telling tall tales.

(v) In idiomatic usage, some basically noncount abstract nouns, such as *abuse, comfort, curiosity, difficulty, doubt, expectation, experience, evidence, failure, fear, goodness, growth, hope, income, infidelity, injustice, kindness, marriage, novelty, pleasure, regret, sorrow, success, strength, talent, trouble, weakness*, etc., "cease under pluralization to be mass nouns and turn into count nouns", that is they become grammatically and semantically plural. The intensified plural meaning of these count nouns reads 'an instance of a given abstract phenomenon': There is no freedom that is not open to *abuse* ... This book is about the uses and *abuses* of power ('instances of abuse') ... it's a world of *material comfort*... She longed for the

¹⁷³ It should be pointed out that while *shoe* and *a pair of shoes* divide their reference, compounds with *wear*, like *footwear: încălțăminte* and *underwear: lenjeri/enjuri*, do not.

comforts of home ('things which are not necessary but which make someone's life easier and more pleasant, especially at home')... I have *no doubt* that there will be plenty of teenagers attending the service... Her proposal raised serious doubts in my mind... She has *no experience* whatsoever... She's had *several sad experiences* so far... There's been no *economic growth* so far... *population growth* ... *intellectual growth*... *a growth* in research expenditure... *the growth* of discontent / nationalism... Some *secondary growths* were removed after the operation... A: I have *a trouble*. B: What kind of *trouble* are you in?... *Love* is an overruling passion... He prides himself on his past and present *loves*.

There is also a notable difference in meaning between the **count** and **mass** uses of some concrete mass nouns such as *paper* ~ *papers*, *wood* ~ *woods*, *sand* ~ *sands*. Compare: Get some *paper*... The jug was wrapped in *paper*... Here are my *papers*... She's lost all her *papers*... I only read the evening *paper(s)*... There was no *wood* by the fireplace... They wandered through the *woods*... The *sand* was hot... Some cheerful music was coming from the *sands*.

(vi) A fairly large number of both concrete and abstract "well-behaved" mass nouns (Ștefănescu 1978: 91) cannot undergo pluralization. This will be the case of the nouns *milk*, *mud*, *sugar*, *fun*, *luck*, *silence*, of verb and adjective derivatives denoting abstractions, such as *admiration*, *satisfaction*; *madness*, *honesty*, *modesty*, which can only be reclassified by partitives, as in: *a mug* of [*milk*], *a drop/heap* of [*mud*], *a sprinkle* of [*salt/sugar*], *a moment* of [*admiration/ fun/ honesty/ madness/ modesty/ satisfaction / silence*], *a stroke* of [*luck*], *a veil* of [*modesty*].

While the unique reference abstract nouns *south*, *south-east*, *north* or *hell* cannot be recategorized, the unique reference concrete nouns *The Sun* and *The Moon* can undergo pluralization, and achieve [+Count] status with a change of meaning: *The Sun* is the star at the center of our Solar System. (unique reference) vs There are countless *suns* in the Universe, they say ('any star, especially when seen as the centre of any single solar system'). *The Moon* is the Earth's largest satellite (unique reference). vs *Any natural satellite of a planet is its moon*.

(vii) Singular invariable abstract and concrete mass nouns, such as *baggage*, *luggage*, *furniture*, *information*, *knowledge*, *homework* and *news* pattern with a singular verb and can only achieve count status in combination with partitives: *a piece* / *an item* of [*information / luggage / furniture*]; *a piece* of good / bad [*news*] vs a good/bad *piece* of [*news*]; a sad surprising/ boring/ shocking/great/small *piece* of [*news*]... What's the *news*? ... No *news* is good *news*... *News* travels pretty fast... It was a fascinating *piece* of [*news*]... They were delighted by that *piece* of [*news*]. There are also several occurrences of *news* in premodification: a *newsagent / news agency / bulletin / conference / desk / magazine / vendor*, *news-sheet* (ro. *agenție/buletin de știri*).

Note the countable reference of the Romanian equivalents: *bagaj,-e*, *informație-informații*, *temă,-e*, *știre/vestel noutate – știri/vești/ noutăți*: *Știrea/Știrile zilei/serii...Știri de pretutindeni... Nu am primit nici o veste... Nu am primit vești*. Compare also: The *luggage* is on the train...There are only *two pieces* of [*luggage*] here... This *piece/article/ suite* of [*furniture*] is new... They bought *two pieces* of old [*furniture*]... All the furniture is new vs Toată mobila este nouă... Toate mobilele sînt noi.

Work also achieves countable status by partition with the partitive phrases *a piece* of and *a spell* of. Consider: (1) ('the place where somebody do their work'): You must not leave *work* till four p.m.; (2) ('tasks and duties which are sb's job and which they are paid for'): I like my *work*... When do they finish *work*?... A plumber's *work* is dull and tough; (3) ('time and effort which is spent doing things which are useful or necessary'): The job needs extra *work*. Hard *work* is not good for him; (4) ('time and effort which is spent trying to help a person/group of people') *Work* with children is challenging and fascinating; (5) ('something which is produced as a result of an activity or as result of doing your job'): That's an absolutely fascinating *piece* of *work* (CCD)... What an excellent *piece* of [*work*]! ... We've had *a spell* of hard *work* lately ('a short period of time of work').

I.1.1.2.1.2. Mass uses of count nouns/ Uncountable countables

As previously observed, mass uses of inherently countable nouns are less common and mainly occur with reference to food and to nouns of material. A classic example is provided by the countable noun *a cake*, which has “an ‘individuated’ or count interpretation”, applying to “an item from a larger set of discrete units that could be counted”. On the other hand, *cake*, its mass correlative, has “an ‘unbounded’ or mass interpretation,” which is conceived of as “a substance rather than as a unit.”¹⁷⁴ Compare: [+Count] I’d like *two/some cakes*, please... How *many cakes* would you like? ... I like *this/that cake/these/those cakes*... [-Count] I like *cake*/ I’d like *some cake*... How *much cake* would you like? Two *pieces/slices*, please¹⁷⁵... He picked up *a stone* and threw it at Ross... There were *stones* all over the place... They love *stone* and are just great at carving it... [-Count] *Tin* is scarcely mined in the area... a *tin* can/cup/kettle; [+Count] ‘can’, ‘container’. Compare: a *tin* of /*tins* of [cakes/paint/tomatoes] vs a *cake/paint/tomato tin*... *Iron* is essential for life... I’ve put both *irons* in the cupboard.

The noncount nouns *cotton*, *flannel* and *tweed*, name types of material and denote types of clothes when pluralized:

cottons (U) are clothes made of *cotton*: Use very hot water for white *cottons*. (CCD)

flannels (U) are man’s trousers made of flannel (i.e. a lightweight cloth woven from wool or a synthetic material

tweeds (U) *tweed* is a thick, woollen cloth, often woven from different coloured threads: She put on a *tweed* suit... a stout nosy man in *tweeds*... He wore *flannels* and a faded blue *tweed* jacket... I’d like to buy this pair of *tweeds* ... How much *is it?/ are they?*

I.1.1.2.1.2. Singular invariable nouns ending in –s (Quirk et al 1978, 1985), also referred to as **forms with singular concord**, or **plural form nouns** which “actually behave like uncountable singular nouns” (Biber et al. 1999: 290). Looked upon as singular entities, they usually take singular concord:

(i) Names of some **diseases** ending in –s, such as *measles*, *mumps*, *ricketts*, *shingles*, are usually used with a singular verb, though a plural verb concord is quite common with American English speakers: Have you had *measles*? Yes, I had *it/them* when I was four.

(ii) Names of some **games** ending in –s (*billiards*, *bowls* (AmE) / *ninepins/skittles*, *darts*, *dominoes*, *draughts* (BE)/ *drafts/checkers* (AmE), *marbles* , pattern with a singular verb in BrE, and a plural one in AmE. Compare: *Checkers* is the game of *draughts* in the USA ... *Draughts* is popular in Romania. (BrE) ... *Checkers* are more popular than *billiards*. (AmE) (ro. *biliard*, *popice*, *domino*, *table*, *joc de copii*, *cu bile*).

(iii) Nouns ending in –ics, such as *acoustics*, *athletics*, *cybernetics*, *dynamics*, *economics*, *electronics*, *ethics*, *geophysics*, *gymnastics*, *informatics*, *linguistics*, *mathematics*, *mechanics*, *metaphysics*, *optics*, *phonetics*, *physics*, *poetics*, *politics*, *statistics*, *tactics*, etc, take singular concord when they denote ‘sciences or branches of knowledge’ and plural concord when they denote ‘circumstances of the application of that science and results of the application of that science’. Compare: *Acoustics* deals with the scientific study of sounds vs The *acoustics* in the theatre are excellent; ... *Phonetics* studies sounds... (‘pronunciation’) His *phonetics* are awful. (‘pronunciation’) ... *Politics* is dirty vs He’s always been open about his *politics* (‘political views’)... Their *politics* are rather indeterminate; *Gymnastics/Athletics* is my favourite pastime vs *Gymnastics* are not given enough attention in school... This certificate excuses him from *gymnastics* at school... These *athletics* are held in the open. In Romanian, both the names of sciences and their applications

¹⁷⁴ Rodney Huddleston, *English Grammar: an outline*, CUP, 1995, pp. 88-89. Countables like *boy* and *girl* are reclassified as mass (‘food’) in Jonnathan Swift’s satirical essay *A Modest Proposal*: “What would you like, sir? *Boy* or *girl*?” “I’d like *some boy*, please.” (Duțescu-Coliban 1986: p. 192)

¹⁷⁵ Note also the diminisher meaning of *a piece of* in the phrase *it’s a piece of cake*, meaning ‘it is very easy’: How do you do that?... It’s *a piece of* [cake]! Watch! (LDCE).

take singular concord: *acustică, atletism, cibernetică, economie, informatică, gimnastică, matematică*, etc: *Acustica studiază sunetele... Acustica sălii este perfectă... Atletismul/Gimnastica este pasiunea mea... Gimnasticii/Atletismului nu i se acordă prea multă atenție în școală/școli*. To refer to the application of a certain science, Romanian uses syntagms such as *campionat / competiție de atletism/gimnastică: Campionatul de gimnastică s-a încheiat*.

I.1.1.2.1.3. Abstract adjective heads, such as *the grotesque, the mystical, the ordinary, the supernatural, the unreal, the unusual, the best, the worst* are substantivised adjectives which function as Noun Phrase heads with abstract, generic reference. They take singular concord and are commonly premodified by intensifying adverbs: *The unknown* you should never venture into! (ro. Să nu te aventurezi niciodată în *necunoscut!*) ... *The supernatural* is the topic of his next conference (ro. *Supranaturalul* este tema următoarei sale conferințe). Whenever the adjective head is a superlative, the meaning ‘thing’ is either overtly expressed or just inferred: *The very best (thing)* is yet to come... He went from *the extremely sublime* to *the extremely ridiculous* (Quirk et al. 1985: 424).

I.1.1.2.2. Plural invariable nouns are mainly **plural uncountable nouns ending in –s/ plural-only nouns** (Biber et al, 1999: 289) and **unmarked plural nouns** (Quirk et al., 1985: 303), which typically pattern with a plural verb and do not, in their great majority, combine with numerals. They broadly fall into three subclasses: **summation plurals** (*idem*, 300), **pluralia tantum nouns ending in –s** (*idem*, 301) and **collective nouns**.

I.1.1.2.2.1. Summation plurals denote **tools, instruments** and **articles of dress** consisting of two identical parts joined together. They take plural concord and can only achieve countable reference by combination with the partitive *a pair of*. Most of their Romanian equivalents are regular count nouns.

Tools and instruments

bellows (U) are (1) a device used for blowing air into a fire to make it burn more fiercely’(ro. *foale*): *a pair of bellows ... a bellows made out of a goat skin* (CCD); (2) a device that is part of a musical instrument (such as an accordion, organ): *organ bellows ... a new set of bellows for the organ* (CCD); (3) (sl.) *bojoci, plămîni*.

binoculars (or *a binocular glass*) are ‘a device consisting of two small telescopes joined together side by side, which one can look through in order to see things that are a long way away’: *He studied the surroundings through (a pair of) binoculars* (ro. *binoclu-binocluri*).

callipers are instruments or compasses with legs suitable for measuring the inside or outside diameter of bodies: *two inside callipers* (ro. *șubler-șublere*).

clippers are used to cut small pieces from something, especially from someone’s hair or nails: *(a pair of) nail clippers* (ro. *forfecuță-forfecuțe de unghii*).

forceps are used by a doctor to hold something firmly, sometimes in order to deliver a child (ro. *forceps-forcepsuri*).

pincers are a tool used for gripping things or for pulling things out “Pull them out with *a pair of pincers*” (ro. *clește-clești, pensetă-pensete*).

pliers are used for pulling out or holding small things or for bending wire (ro. *patent*).

scales (1) (U) (‘a balance’) are ‘a device or a machine for weighing things or people’: We have just bought *a new pair of scales*. ... *You want me to get the scales, Mabel, so you can weigh her?* (CCD) (ro. *cîntar – cîntare, balanta*); (2) (C) *scale-s*: (a) the *scales* of fish, snakes and other reptiles: *Wash the fish and take off the scales with a knife*”(CCD); (b) (music) a series of musical notes moving upwards or downwards in pitch with fixed distances between each note: *Having practiced the scale of C, she dutifully played her scales*. Phrases: *tip the scales / balance: Your support tipped the scales in our favour... tip the scales at: He tips the scales at 180*

pounds ('He weighs 180 pounds'); *The scales fell from my eyes* (literary, 'I suddenly realized what had been clear to other people').

scissors: *We need a new pair... How much is the new pair of scissors?* Romanian uses neuter, feminine and masculine forms to denote the regular count noun: *un foarfecă-două foarfece* (sn), *o foarfecă-două foarfece* (sf) and *un foarfec-doi foarfeci* (sm). Note the tendency, especially with AmE speakers, to use a singular verb with premodified nouns. Compare: *How much are the scissors?* vs *How much is/are the new scissors?* ... *Where is/are the old tweezers?*

shears are a large pair of scissors used for shearing sheep, or for cutting hedges: *He handled the shears with skill and speed.* (ro: *foarfecă/foarfece mare/ foarfeci mari*).

tongs are used to pick up objects that you do not want to touch: *sugar-tongs, coal-tongs* (ro. *clește*): *She was putting lumps of sugar into her tea with a pair of silver tongs* (ro. *clește-clești*).

tweezers are used for pulling out hairs and picking up small objects (ro. *penșetă-penșete*).

Articles of dress

Summation plural nouns denoting articles of clothing may semantically be grouped into: (a) **type of trousers**, (b) **type of underwear** and (c) **other clothes**:

(a) type of trousers

breeches (BrE)/ **britches** (AmE) (e.g. *riding ~*) are trousers which reach as far as your knees.

jeans are casual trousers that are usually made of (blue) strong denim: ... three men, all in **jeans**.

knickers (BrE) (**pants**)/**knickerbockers** (AmE) are loose trousers which reach as far as the knees, usually worn by children and women (breeches): *She bought herself a new pair of knickers.* (but: **knicker elastic**)

leggings are an outer covering of leather or other strong material, often in the form of trousers, that men wear over their normal trousers in order to protect them. (ro. *jambiere, carâmbi*): Farmers in leather breeches and **leggings**.

overalls (protective trousers, dungarees worn by workmen) (ro. *salopetă*).

pantaloons are long trousers with very wide legs, gathered at the ankles.

shorts are short trousers at or above the knees: a pair of tennis **shorts**; (especially AmE) men's underpants.

slacks (old fashioned) are trousers, esp. casual ones: She put on a pair of flannel/golfing **slacks**.

(b) type of underwear

bloomers are an old-fashioned kind of women's underware, wide, loose trousers gathered at the knees.

drawers (old-fashioned) are underclothing that you wear on the lower part of your body.

pants (BrE) are underwear; in AmE 'trousers': Waterproof **pants** under the nappies are a special help.(CCD)

Note also **pyjamas** (BrE)/ **pajamas** (AmE); (*swimming*) **trunks**

(c) other clothes

bracers (BrE) /**suspenders** (AmE) are a pair of straps used instead of a belt.

nylons (old-fashioned) are stockings or tights.

tights are worn by women and dancers: *silk tights*.

tails are a formal jacket which has two long pieces hanging down at the back and is worn on very formal occasions: "The duke wore white tie and **tails**."

When they are premodified, some of these nouns can be used with the indefinite article: *a garden shears*, *a curling tongs*, *a new clippers*, etc. It is also not unlikely for some of them to be used as count nouns: *several tweezers*.

Similar to nouns ending in *-s* or *-ics*, some summation plurals may have a singular form when they occur in premodification: *field/ opera/ sun glasses*; *glasses/spectacle case*, *a trouser leg*, *a suspender belt*, *a pyjama blouse / top*.

I.1.1.2.2.2. Pluralia tantum nouns ending in -s are invariable plural-form items. They are mainly used in set-phrases. Some of them can have corresponding singular forms of regular countable nouns with a different meaning:

airs (U) are 'exaggerated, unnatural manners which people adopt in order to impress other people': *You'll have to put up with her phoney airs*. Phrases: *to put on airs*: *She didn't want him to think she was just putting on airs when she came to visit*. ... *to give oneself airs* ('behave as if you were more important than you really are'): *Stop giving yourself airs*; when you refer to *someone's airs and graces* it means that you think that they behave as if they were more important than other people: *We had to put up with her airs and graces*. Similar phrases convey people's arrogance, vanity in Romanian: (U) *a-și da aere/ a avea fumuri*, *a face nazuri* ('be hard to please').

archives (C) An *archive* is 'an accumulation of historical records and the place where they are located'; (U) *archives* are a collection of documents, records, photographs, etc. that contain information about the history of a place, country, organization, art form. Phrase: *to consult the archives*. Compare: *She spent several hours in the film archives*. *It houses the national archives (of wills)*... *I've used a lot of archive material* (ro. (C) *arhivă-arhive*).

arms (U) (weapons, devices to kill people, esp. in war): *arms aid / control*; *the (nuclear) arms race*; *reduce arms*. Phrases: *to use arms*; *by force of arms*; *(people) under arms* ('people trained to use weapons and ready to fight a war'): *At this time Britain had more forces under arms than ever before...* *take up ~ against someone* ('prepare to attack/fight against them'): *They were sure to take up arms against him in the not too distant future...* *lay down arms* ('stop fighting and surrender') (old-fashioned); *be up in arms* about something, ('be very angry about it and protest strongly'): *Feminists are now up in arms over the new laws*. Also (C): *Put the arm(s) down!* (ro. (C) *armă - arme*)

ashes (U) is 'the ash that remains when a dead person's body is burned' (ro. *osemintă, rămașițe pamântești; lavă fină; ruine*). Compare: *He collected his father's ashes from the crematorium...* *We scattered his ashes across the lake...* *Ashes blew into Ralph's face from the dead fire* (CCD). Phrases: *burn to ashes* (ro. a preface în cenușă, a arde din temelii; *turn to dust and ashes* (ro. a se face praf și pubere); *rise from one's ashes* (ro. (U) a renaște din propria-i cenușă). Note also: *the ashes of the burnt document*; *ash* ('a tree/the wood of ash trees') *cigarette ash*; *ashtray*; *Ash Wednesday* ('Easter holiday')

annals of a nation, society, an activity, etc, when you refer to something that is recorded as part of its history; *chronicles in the annals of military history*; *the annals of serial killing* (CCD).

brains (U) ('intellect') Compare: (C) **brain** ('part of the body') as in *to have an X-ray of the brain*, to (U) **brains** ('ability to learn and understand things quickly'; 'a very intelligent person, especially one who spends a lot of time thinking and studying (informal use) *to have brains* / *a particular type of brain* / (C) *a good brain*: *She has a very capable business brain...* *How I envied his brain!* Phrases: (1) *to have brains*: *If you had any brains you would know what I mean*. (2) *to use one's brains*: *Why don't you use your brains?* ... *He's got good brains but wouldn't use them*. (3) *to be the brains of* ('to be the manager/to be behind something ('the person who thought of and developed a particular plan, system of organization, esp. a successful one')': *He was the brains of the an organization/business...* *Who's the brains behind the project?* ... *Not even the great brains can solve this problem*. (4) *to blow smb's brains* (informal) is 'to kill by shooting in the head'. (5) *to beat smb's brains out*

(informal) means 'to beat their head and kill'; 'to think about something very hard and for a very long time' (AmE): *I really had to beat / rack my **brains** out to remember his name.* (6) (informal) *to pick/suck smb's **brains*** ('ask smb. a lot of questions about a subject they know a lot about, in order to help you with a problem' (ro. 'a-și însuși ideile cuiva, a plagia'; 'a scoate cuiva gărgăunii din cap'): *I need to come to pick your **brains** about the matter.* (7) *to be above one's **brains***: *It's above my **brains*** (ro. 'nu înțeleg, nu pricep, mă depășește'). (8) *to turn smb's **brains*** (ro. 'a zăpăci, a suci capul cuiva').

contents /'kɒntents/ (U): (1) the **contents** of sth. (bottle/bag/room) are everything that is contained in it: *He swallowed half the **contents** of his glass in one gulp... She poured out the **content**... some of the **contents** spilled out... He allowed them to share his house and its superb **contents**.* (2) the **contents** of a book/letter, etc, are everything it says / shows, e.g. *He knew by heart the **contents** of the note... She opened the letter and read its **contents**... He rummaged through the **contents**;* (3) the list of **contents** in a book/magazine (ro. *cuprins*): *table of **contents**; **contents** page.* Note also: (U) **content** /'kɒntent/ (1) 'the part of sth. which consists of a particular substance, ingredient', etc: *No other food has so high an **iron content**; the copper **content** of the medal.* (2) **content** of a piece of writing/speech/TV program, that is, 'its subject matter': *These novels are all **form and no content**; They praised the **content** and the style of her new book.*

credentials (U): (1) 'previous achievements, training and general background that qualify you to do sth, to have a role': *He was a botanist with splendid **credentials**... His **credentials** as a journalist were beyond dispute.* (2) 'letter / certificate that proves your identity or qualifications': *Didn't they ask for your **credentials**?... The ambassador presented his **credentials**.* (ro. *scrisori de acreditare, recomandare*); *a **credentials** committee, evaluate the candidates' **credentials*** (ro. *comisie de validare*).

compasses: (1) (C) **compass, -es** 'an instrument that shows directions' (ro. *busolă*): *A magnetic **compass** and a map are invaluable assets to a sailor ... Sailors will never give up using **compasses** ... He had a map and **compass**.* (2) (C) **compass / compasses** or *a pair of **compasses*** is 'an instrument for drawing circles or measure distances on maps' (ro. *compas*): *You should have used the **compasses** ... Where are the **compasses**?... I have been looking for **them** everywhere... I think I'll have to buy a new pair.* (3) (U) **compass**, usually figurative, means 'boundaries, reach or scope (over which something can operate)': *This matter is not within the **compass** of our department... The clarinet has a **compass** of three-and-a-half octaves.*

customs (pl.): **customs** 'duties paid on goods': *go through the **customs**; pay **customs** duty; a **customs** officer; He was searched when he came through the **customs** at the airport; **custom, -s** 'customary behaviour', 'tradition': *the **customs** of the place.**

damage (U): (1) 'physical harm that is caused to sth., esp. harm that stops it working properly or makes it look less good': *The earthquake caused **damage** estimated at £ 300 million... They agreed to help pay for the **damage** to the floor and the ceiling... A post-mortem showed the **damage** done to the liver.* 2. 'harm' or 'a harmful effect that sth. has on somebody or something': *He could not repair the **damage** done to the party's standing and credibility... psychological **damage**.* Phrase: *the **damage** is done*, 'it's too late to prevent the harmful effects of sth. which has already been done'.

damages (U) 'compensation'. When a court of law awards **damages** to someone, it orders money to be paid to them by a person who has damaged their reputation/property, or who has injured them: *They finally got £ 4,000 in **damages**.* In informal speech, the singular can be used: *What's the **damage**?* (informal, 'How much do I/we/they have to pay?')

data (C) **datum - data** denotes 'information, usually in the form of facts or statistics that can be analysed, or used to do further calculations'. Originally used as the plural of **datum**, **data** is at present most commonly treated as a singular mass noun in standard English. Prestigious British universities and newspapers classify it as a collective noun that takes singular concord when treated as a unit and plural concord when referring to individual items. It is treated as a plural in scientific English and as a singular in computing and related disciplines. (apud <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Data>); **data** (1) 'any useful or

irrelevant, redundant information that needs to be processed to be relevant' (m.w-com); (2) 'a fact or proposition used to draw a conclusion or make a decision' (The Free Dictionary); (3) 'numerical information that can be transmitted or processed': **data** bank(s)/base(s)/sheet/structure; **data** acquisition/analysis/management/modelling ... No adequate **data** have been retrieved. ... The census **data** is still being processed. Note also **datums** which is 'a point, line, or surface used as reference/basis in measuring, surveying, mapping or geology' (<http://www.merriam.webster.com/dictionary/data>).

dice - **dice** (C, zero-plural noun): A **dice** is 'a small cube of ivory, plastic or wood that has a different number of spots on each of its six sides, used in games of chance to provide random numbers'. (U) 'any game of chance played with dice'. Phrases: *to roll/throw dice*, e.g. They *roll dice* each morning to see who will make the coffee (CCD); ... *the die is cast* is used to say that 'a decision has been taken and cannot now be changed' (ro. *Zarurile au fost aruncate*). Compare: *be as straight as a dice*, i.e. 'a fair, honourable person' (ro. *cinstit, de onoare, drept ca lumânarea*) vs *loaded dice* (ro. *zaruri măsluite*): *The dice are loaded against him* ('He has little chances of success'). / ro. *Sortii* sînt împotriva lui ('Are șanse minime /puține/slabе șanse de reușită'); *no dice* (especially AmE spoken) is used 'to refuse to do something or to say that something is not possible': "Can I borrow some cash?" "Sorry, *no dice*" (LDCE); *the dice of war* (ro. *sortii schimbători ai războiului*); (C) (*die,-s*)/'mould-s/mold-s/ matrix-ces': A **die** is 'a specially shaped or patterned block of metal which is used to press or cut something into a particular shape'.

dregs (U) (1) 'waste': *She had drunk her coffee down to the dregs*. (ro. *drojdie, zaț*); (2) (used to show disapproval) *the dregs of humanity/society/an institution* used to refer to 'the most useless and bad people' (ro. *scursură/drojdie a societății*).

earnings (U) refers to (1) 'income wages', i.e. the sums of money that a person earns by working: He has had to pay tax on his **earnings** since he started at the firm (LDCE)... The new legislation has failed to bring *women's earnings up to the same level*; *an earnings-related payment/benefit* provides higher/lower payments according to the amount a person was earning while working, as in: The government has introduced its *earnings-related pension scheme* (CCD); *make enormous earnings*: These people rarely have a lifestyle to match their *fabulous earnings* (ro. *cîștig,-uri enorm(e)/fabulos,-loase*). (2) 'the profit that a company makes': The *company's earnings* have dropped by 5% in the first quarter.

effects (pl.) 'possessions, belongings'; the things that persons have with them at a particular moment when arrested/admitted to hospital, or they owned when they died': His *personal effects* were returned to the bereaved family (ro. *bunuri de uz personal*); (C) **effect,-s**: Inflation is having a disastrous **effect** on the economy... He spoke about the harmful **effects** of smoking.

goods (U): (1) 'merchandise', 'things that are made to be sold': a wide range of *electrical goods*; *produce goods*; a low/great *demand of goods and services*, *consumer goods*, *leather goods*, *a goods train* (BE) vs *a freight train* (AmE); *goods and chattels (legally)*, i.e. 'all movable property': He left *all goods and chattels* to his wife... Get *all your goods and chattels* out of here! Phrases: (especially AmE) *to have/get the goods on somebody*, i.e. 'to have/find proof that smb is guilty of crime': They *got the goods on him* (ro. *marfă, mărfuri; bun, bunuri*); (2) 'requirements or what is expected/required in a particular situation': You can always rely on her *to come up with the goods*... John makes a lot of promises but rarely *comes up with the goods*.

heavens (U) 'the sky' (literary use): *The moon was high in the heavens*. *The man continued to gesticulate sadly towards the heavens*... *the creation of the heavens and the earth*. Phrases: *If the heavens open* means 'if it suddenly starts raining very heavily'. (Good) **heavens!** expresses surprise or emphasizes that you agree / disagree with someone: "**Heavens**, is that the time?" ... "Oh, good **heavens**, no", said Emma with a light laugh. Note also the singular form in *Heaven knows* (informal BrE); **Heaven forbid!**, used to say that 'you very much hope something will not happen'; *What in heaven's name you think you're doing?* (ro.(O.) *Doamne, Dumnezeu!*)

honours (U) *an honours degree* is 'a type of university degree which is of a higher standard than a pass or an ordinary degree'; *graduate with honours*: He left university with a *first class honours degree*. Phrases: *do the honours* (of the house) at a social occasion/a party is 'to act as the host(ess)'; (often humorously): *Shall I do the honours?* (C) **honour, -s**: An honour is 'a special award/distinction/job/tribute that is given to someone because they have done something good or because they are greatly admired by the public: It was a *richly deserved honour*... He received *great honours* from his country for his services. (ro. *onoruri*)

humanities (U) are subjects such as literature, philosophy, history: She has a *background in humanities* and modern languages.

letters (U) (formal) 'the study of literature of a particular country or language', *American / English / German / Italian letters*; *a man of letters*: Walt Witman is a major figure in *American letters*.

lodging (U) 'accommodation'/'a place to stay in for a period of time, which you usually pay for: They were offered *free lodging and food* in first-class hotels... They will definitely be able to find us a night's *lodging*. Note also *board and lodging*: The staff are paid £8 a month with *board and lodging*. (C) *to live in lodgings/in digs*: The student population tends to *live in lodgings/in digs*. (CCD)

looks (about somebody's beauty): *She has lost her looks* 'became less attractive' ... *She had good looks in her youth*. (ro: *era frumoasă*) ... *She got her good looks from her mother*... *She has (got) everything: looks, money and youth* ... *I don't think much of her looks*. (C, usually sg.) **look, -s**: May I have a *look* at your report?

lyrics (U) 'words': *New lyrics have been written for his song* ... a *team lyrics*; (C) **lyric, -s** 'a poem written in the lyric style': *a medieval love lyric* ~ *medieval love lyrics*

manners (U) are 'ways of behaving or speaking, particularly when they are considered as good or polite'/'conduct': *beautiful/charming/good/bad table manners* ... *She has manners* ... *His manners were splendid*... It's about time you learnt *some manners*... Little was required of him except *good manners*; (sg) 'fashion': They filed the report *in a routine manner*... Their *manner of rearing* their young children is extremely unusual (CCD); (sg) 'sort/type of' (old-fashioned or literary use): What *manner of man* is he?... He learnt all *manner of things* ('many different kinds'); in a *manner of speaking* 'true in a general way': If he hadn't been her boss, *in a manner of speaking*, she would have reported him to the police.

minutes are 'written reports of the things that are said or decided at a meeting': *You must learn how to take minutes*.

morals (U) are 'principles and values based on what a person or society believes are the right, proper or acceptable ways of behaving': Nobody would ever doubt *the excellence of his morals*... *public/business morals* ... *morals (and manners)* (ro. pl. *moravuri, obiceiuri*; sg. *etică, morală*)

oats (U) denotes 'the grains of a cereal (*ovăz*), esp. for making porridge and for feeding animals': *fields of oats* ... *The oats are ready for harvesting*... Horses *eat oats*. Phrases: *to sow one's wild oats* 'to behave in an uncontrolled way, esp. in their youth, before they settle down to a career and a family life; (ro. (1) 'a face nebunii/prostii de-ale tinereții; a-și face de cap; a se deda la ștrengării'; (2) 'a se cuminți, a-și băga mințile-n cap': *He has sown his oats; to be off one's oats* (ro: 'a fi indispus, a nu se simți bine, a fi bolnav, a-i lipsi pofta de mâncare'); **oat, -s** (C) (ro. 'pai de ovăz'); *oatmeal* ('a meal made of oats').

obsequy, obsequies (U) (usually plural) 'a funeral rite or ceremony': He was the only one to attend the *funeral/obsequies*. (ro. *funeralii*)

odds (+ the) 'chances' (in betting, gambling) 'degrees of probability': an assessment of *the military odds*; Nobody would put any money on the horse at those *odds*. Phrases: (1) *the odds are in favour / against somebody / something*: *The odds are stacked against you, not in your favour*. (ro. *avantajul nu este de partea voastră*) ... *The odds are heavily stacked in the party's favour*; (2) *the odds are that it will snow tomorrow*; *It's odds on* ('very likely') *that he will win*; (3) *against all the odds*: She managed to sustain her optimism *against all the odds*; (4) *be at odds with somebody* 'disagree with'; (5) *What's the odds?* ... They didn't win the cup but

what's the odds? (ro. Care e deosebirea?) ... *It makes no odds* 'it doesn't matter': We haven't got quite as much money as we wanted, but *this makes no odds*. A: "Tea or coffee?" B: "*It makes no odds.*" *The odds are that he'll do it.* / *It is odds that he'll do it.* (ro. Mai mult ca sigur că o va face); (6) *have short odds* (ro: a avea șanse aproape egale); (7) *to shout the odds* 'to boast'.

outskirts are 'the parts/the bordering areas of a city/town that are further away from its centre': The house was *on the outskirts of the town*. ... The march reached *the outskirts of Petroșani* on January 20th. (ro. *margine, suburbie*)

pains (U) is used in several phrases: *to take pains with something* / *to do something*; *to go to great pains to do something* 'to make a great effort to do it/to do it properly': She always *took great pains with his stage make-up*; *to be at pains to do something* 'to be very eager to do it carefully and thoroughly: Mr. Smart was at pains to emphasize that he was threatening nobody; *to get something for one's pains* is 'get a reward, especially disappointing': A cup off tea was *all he got for his pains*. (ro. *efort, trudă*) (C): If something / somebody is a *pain in one's neck*, 'it/he/she is annoying, irritating, a nuisance' (informal): *He's a right pain that man*; *He's such a pain in the neck*; The car isn't mended yet, *which is a pain*; (ro. *belea, problemă*) *to do something on/under pain of a particular punishment*: They were ordered not to cross the border, *on pain of death*. (ro. *sub amenințarea pedepsei cu moartea*)

premises (U) of a business/an institution are 'all the property, including the buildings and land': Some of the food was grown *on the premises*. In 1988 the firm *moved to new premises in London* (ro. *incintă, locație*).

regards (U) 'good wishes': *best regards*; *with warm regards* (informal); (ro. *gînduri, salutări, sentimente, urări*); *to hold somebody /something in high/low regards* is 'to have a great deal of respect for them' (ro. a avea o *deosebită considerație față de cineva*) vs 'have no respect' or 'look down on someone' (ro. a *disprețui*).

remains (U) (1) ('remnants') are 'the parts that are left after most of something (paper, food) has been taken away/destroyed': *The Remains of the Day* (movie)... She tore off *the remains of the paper label*... *the remains of the meat* (ro. *rămășițe, resturi*); (2) *the remains of a person / animal* are 'parts of their dead body': *the remains of a huge dinosaur*; She pleaded for *his remains to be returned*, so that he could be given a proper burial; (ro. *oseminte, rămășițe pămîntești*); (3) 'parts of buildings/pottery etc. from an earlier period: a tremendous Roman *remains*; the ancient *remains of Calatis / Theba* (ro. *vestigii*).

savings (U) 'money that you have saved, esp. in an account at a bank or similar institution': *a savings account*; He went to the bank and drew out all her *savings*. (ro. *economii*); (C) *saving-s* is 'a reduction in the amount of time/money that is used/needed': *a considerable saving in time and money*. (ro. *economie*)

spirits (U): (1) 'mood' or 'feelings of happiness or unhappiness': The children *lifted our spirits* with their laughter. (ro. a *înveseși, a ridica moralul*) ... He has a kindly *spirit*. (ro. Are o *fire blîndă*) (2) 'strong alcoholic drinks (liquor)': *Spirits cost/are 27 p.* (3) *spirit(s)* is 'an alcoholic liquid that is used as a fuel, for cleaning things, or for other purposes'. Compare: *surgical spirit*; *methyalted spirits*; *Two pints of white spirit, please*. (4) 'intention': *the spirit of a law/an agreement* refers to the way that it was intended to be interpreted or applied: I think *we would be breaking the spirit of the agreement* if we went ahead (ro. *conform legii / în spiritul legii*).

stairs (U) are 'a set of steps, usually inside a building': *to go up and down the stairs*; *to climb a flight of stairs*; *to stand at the foot of the stairs*; *the stair carpet*. (C) *stair,-s*: (1) 'one of the steps in set of stairs': *A stair creaked as she made her way downstairs*; (2) 'one of the floors of a block of flats or other building with rooms in which people live': He phoned an old lady *on the next stair*. (3) 'a staircase' (literary/old-fashioned): *He went carefully up the winding stair*.

steps (C) 'a stepladder (made up of two sloping parts hinged together at the top)'. Phrases: *to get down off the stepladder; to take steps* is 'to achieve a particular goal / do the things that are necessary to achieve it': *Have you taken steps* to protect your home?

Tropics (U) *the Tropics*: He first *went to the Tropics* in his youth.

valuables (U) ('possessions, especially jewelry'): They *were robbed of money and valuables* at gunpoint. (ro. *bunuri, valori*)

wages (U) 'the money that is paid each week especially for manual/unskilled work': *Their wages had not increased* for two full years. (C) **wage,-s** 'income': The problems of families bringing up children *on a low wage ... a minimum wage for each industry...* They pressed for *better wages* and conditions... Tomorrow union leaders *meet the company for wage talks...* He *earns a good wage*. (ro. *salariu, venit*)

whims (U) / **whim,-s** (C) 'fancy, caprice': (C) A whim is 'a wish to do or have something, which is not the result of any strong reason or purpose and often occurs suddenly': She might go, or might not, *as the whim took her...* What about her tendency to change plans *at whim?* ... They are completely subject to *the whims and moods* of a single superior. (CCD) (ro. *nazuri*)

wits (U) 'ability to think quickly and cleverly in a difficult situation': *Terror was depriving him of his wits*. (ro. *a-și pierde mințile, a nu avea mintea acasă/întreagă*) Phrases: *to have/keep (one's/your) wits about you* 'to be alert and ready to act in a difficult situation: In this part of the city *you have to keep your wits about you* all the time; *to sharpen one's wits* is 'to make yourself more able to think quickly and clearly in difficult situations': The intrigues of court *had sharpened her wits; to collect/gather your wits* 'to make an effort to control your thoughts and feelings after a shocking/frightening experience': *By the time he had collected his wits, she was dead; to scare/terrify smb. out of their wits* or *to frighten the wits out of somebody* is 'to make them so afraid that they can no longer think clearly': *They were frightened out of their wits* by a knock at the door; *to be at one's wit's end* 'to be so worried/exhausted by problems/difficulties that they do not know what to do next': *She is at her wit's end, not knowing what to do with her son*. (ro. *la capătul puterilor*); *to live by /on one's wits* is 'to manage to live by using clever but sometimes dishonest methods, rather than by having a regular job': *I knew a fellow who lived for years on his wits*. (ro. *datorită/pe baza inteligenței*) *a battle of wits* ('contest') is 'a situation in which people who disagree or have opposite aims compete with each other using their intelligence and their abilities to think quickly, rather than violent'; *to pit one's wits against someone* is 'to compete with them in a test of knowledge, intelligence, etc': *Here is your chance to pit your wits against the experts*.

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Parts of the body

Some nouns denoting **parts of the body** and **states (of mind)** are also included in the subclass of **pluralia tantum nouns ending in -s**:

Most of the nouns which refer to the viscera or the organs inside the body of a person or of an animal, such as **bowels**, **entrails**, **giblets**, **guts**, **innards**, **intestines** are mutually replaceable. They also refer to 'the internal eatable parts of a fowl' as in: **giblets/gizzard** soup (ro. *supă de potroace, măruntaie*).

Note the variation in form and use of the nouns **bowels**, **guts** and **intestines**: Compare: *move/empty your bowels, the bowels of the earth, disorders of the bowels*, but *bowel movements, bowel cancer, cancer of the bowel*: This food upsets a baby's **bowels**. The singular form **gut** is used disapprovingly as 'belly, stomach'. *The gut* stands for both 'the intestine' and 'the subconscious': How is food absorbed in *the gut?* ... He knew, deep down, in *the gut*, what it was like to be inferior (CCD). The 'insides' of both a living being and a machine, a building, etc, are its **guts**: It's in *the guts* of the department store... *the guts* of a vacuum cleaner. Phrases: (informal) *a (greedy) guts* 'a glutton', 'a very greedy person, who eats a lot': Come on, *greedy guts!* ... To *hate someone's guts* 'dislike them very intensely': OK, so you *hate my guts* (CCD). If you *run, work* or *scream your guts out*, you *run, work* or *scream* as hard as you can, to the point you are exhausted: *A man could scream his guts out* in here and never be heard ... *obstruction of the intestines* ... a sharp pain in the intestines. Mind

also: *loins*, (ro. *șale, spate*); *genitals*; *thews* 'attractive physical attributes or features; good bodily proportions; muscles' (ro. *tendoane, mușchi*; (fig.) *nervi*): *to have thews of steel*; *vitals* (ro. *organe vitale*); *sinews, sinew,-s* (C): *The sinews of his arm were tense; bags made from animal sinews.* (ro. *musculatură, forță fizică*; (C) *tendon, mușchi*): a man of *sinew* (ro. *bărbat mușchiulos*) ... (fig.) *the sinews of war* (ro. *resurse financiare, bani*).

States of mind

the blues: (U) (1) (informal) *to have (got) the blues* 'feel sad and depressed'/'feelings of sadness': Don't get surprised if you *get the blues* for a while after your baby is born (LDCE) (ro. *a-l apuca / cuprinde ipohondria/melancolia*); (2) a musical genre: *a blues singer*.

dumps: (U) (informal) *be down in the dumps* 'to feel very depressed and miserable': I've been feeling *a bit down in the dumps* lately. (ro. (stare de) *depresiune/deprimare/mîhnire*; *a fi abătut/amărît*)

doldrums: (U) (informal) *be in the doldrums* (1) 'to be feeling sad': The boss is definitely *in the doldrums* today (ro. *a nu-i fi toți boii acasă, a fi abătut; ipohondrie / deprimare / tristețe; idei negre*); (2) when an activity/situation is *in the doldrums* it is 'very quiet and nothing new is happening'/'to not be growing or improving': The American market is *as much in the doldrums as the British one*... By and large, *athletics were in the doldrums during the 60's*. (ro. *a stagna*)

fidgets: *to have the fidgets* or *to keep fidgeting* means 'being restless'(ro. *a fi neliniștit*); to give somebody the *fidgets* (ro. *a călca pe nervi*).

hysterics: *be/have a fit of hysterics* (medical) *be in* 'a state of uncontrolled excitement, anger or panic': *to be in hysterics*; *to have (a fit of) hysterics*; *to burst into hysterics*; *to go into sobbing hysterics*; *If she didn't get home early, there would probably be hysterics from her parents*... *The audience were in hysterics*. ('were laughing loudly in an uncontrolled way'); in *lolsterics* 'to be in complete hysterics, to laugh until your stomach hurts'(ro. *nervi, istericale*).

sulks: *have the sulks* ('be in a bad tempered mood, shown especially by a refusal to talk to other people'); *a brief fit of the sulks* (also countable); ... *She was in one of her sulks* (ro. *proastă dispoziție, toane*).

I.1.1.2.2.3. Collective nouns and nouns of multitude refer to groups of single entities and are marked by "special patterns with respect to subject-verb concord and co-referent pronouns." (Biber et al. 1999: 247) In terms of criteria of reference, they can be divided into three large groups:

(a) **Specific reference** collective nouns. This is achieved by variable collective nouns with no overt plural marker, which behave like ordinary countable nouns, in spite of their plural meaning and plural concord. Though semantically they indicate a plurality, formally they pass all the tests of countability, i.e. they have singular-plural contrast, take cardinal numbers, trigger the quantifier *many* and can be individualized by *a, every, each, several*. The specificity of the count collective nouns *assembly, audience, class, club, committee, constabulary, commission, community, council, crew, crowd, family, gang, group, government, jury, party, team*, etc. is that besides varying in both number and definiteness their singular "can be also construed as a plural" (Dutescu-Coliban 1986: 191). The choice of subject-verb concord with these regular collective nouns "reflects a difference in point of view", that is the way in which the speaker conceives the number of the subject (the idea of 'oneness' or plurality in the subject), irrespective of grammatical form. Though they typically take singular concord, which is preferred in AmE, in BrE "they allow singular pronominal reference (*it; which/that*) and agreement with the verb when reference is made to the whole body, as a unit, and plural agreement and reference (*they, them; who*) when the members of that body are viewed/perceived individually". In other words, "the singular stresses the nonpersonal collectivity of the group and the plural stresses the personal individuality within the group"(Quirk et al. 1985: 316). Some of these nouns may get pluralized:

The *audience* / *public* was / were quite enthusiastic ... Theatre *audiencies* /**publics* are becoming more and more sophisticated these days... They elected *a/the committee* yesterday... This *committee deliberate(s)* on possible solutions to the crisis... The *committee are* all graduates of schools in town... *the city/ the Wiltshire constabulary*... They addressed the *constabularies* all over the country¹⁷⁶ ... The *family is* having dinner... My *family are* early-risers / *have all* left... The two *families have* re-united... The present *government*, which hasn't been in power long, *is trying* to control inflation. *It isn't having* much success... The *government, who are looking* for a quick victory, *are calling* for a general election soon. *They expect* to be re-elected.¹⁷⁷

(b) **Unique reference** collective nouns denote official bodies and organizations, such as *the BBC, the Papacy, the Vatican, the NATO, the United Nations/UNO*, etc. They do not allow number contrast and definiteness and hence cannot be counted: *The Vatican is releasing* details of the Mass... *The UNO is* the most important world's organization.

(c) **Generic reference** collective nouns, such as *the army, the aristocracy/the gentry* (old-fashioned), *the bourgeoisie, the clergy, the cavalry, the church, the faculty, the laity, the infantry, the marines, the media, the military, the nobility, the press, the public* are plural in meaning, but singular in form unmarked plural nouns in a 'Det + Noun' surface structure.

Depending on their reference, they may take singular or plural concord, that is the noun agrees with a plural verb when the speaker has in mind a set/collection/plurality of objects, and with a singular verb when he has in mind the group as a unit. Note that *the cavalry* and *the infantry* have [+/-Count] uses. Consider: *The clergy are/is* to blame under the circumstances... *The gentry have* lost power... *The military have* taken over power... *The press* often *speaks* on one side only... Give the *public* what *they want* / *it wants*... The two *infantries* fought valiantly ... *a platoon of infantry, an infantry* regiment.

Names of countries pattern like the collective items under (a), that is, with singular concord when the country is seen as a unit and with plural concord when its inhabitants or the national sports team are referred to as collective nouns. Compare: *Tottenham have* a long and successful tradition in the league... Arsenal *is/are playing* away next Sunday... *The United States have* won the championship... *England have been practising* here for over a week... *The United States of America is* made up of over 50 states.

COLLECTIVE NOUNS

Collective nouns are often **confused with non-count nouns**, but they have very different characteristics. **Collective nouns are countable**. They are **unique among count nouns**, however, because they refer to a collective entity with individual members – *army, team, faculty, jury, band, clergy, class, gang*. Because collective nouns refer to **a collection of individual entities**, they **sometimes occur with a singular verb and sometimes with a plural verb**, depending on the intention of the speaker. When a speaker wishes to focus on the group itself, the collective noun is usually used with a singular verb – *My team is playing well this week; The band is playing off-key*. However, if a speaker wishes to focus on the individual members of the collectivity, s/he might choose a plural verb – *The faculty are angry about their raises; The jury are talking among themselves*.

Examples from Robert Schwarzschild (*Pluralities*, 1996): in each case the collective noun has been interpreted as plural and this fact affects the grammar elsewhere in the sentence.

The *choir* knelt and covered *their* faces. (p. 172)

The *committee* congratulated *themselves*. (p. 172)

Every debate *team*... gets disqualified because *they* attack each other instead of attacking their opponents. (p. 173) [Berk, 1999: 82]

Family

Being a collective noun, *family* is different from the other people nouns (...).

¹⁷⁶ A *constabulary* is 'the police force of a particular place / area in Britain'.

¹⁷⁷ L.G. Alexander, *Longman English Grammar*, Longman Group UK Limited, 1996, p. 45.

A collective noun refers to a group of people, and its uses can either focus on **the group as a whole** or stress the **individuality of the members of the group**. In British English, singular collective nouns can take **either a singular or a plural verb**. In the case of the **plural verb** the situation can be described as '**notional**' concord instead of '**grammatical**' concord (cf. Quirk et al. 1985: 757f.).

The choice between singular or plural verbs is typically characterised as being dependent "on whether the group is being considered as a single undivided body, or as a collection of individuals" (Quirk et al. 1985: 758) [Mahlberg, 2005: 123]

[Back to Silvia Manoliu, in Gina Măciucă, 2012]

I.1.1.2.2.3.1. The subclass of **unmarked plural nouns** (Quirk et al. 1978: 166)/ or **s-less plurals** (Biber et al. 1999: 189, 289) includes collective nouns such as *cattle, people, police, poultry, staff, vermin*, which have a plural meaning, plural concord (except *staff*) and select quantifiers with plural reference:

cattle (U) 'cows and bulls' can achieve countable reference by the use of partitives, of unit nouns (a *group/ head / herd* of [*cattle*], *herds* of [*cattle*], (*every head of cattle*), numerals (*one/two head of cattle/one/two hundred head* of [*cattle*]. ... We own a dairy *herd* of 210 [*cattle*]) and corresponding countable nouns (*a cow/bull/bullock*).

folk is rather restricted in use, e.g. 'country/island *folk*', as modifier in *folk* art/music; *my folks* (i.e. 'my family'): *That's all, folks.* (informal)

people (U) and (C): The invariable form *people* functions as "the normal plural of *person*" (Quirk et al. 1985: 303), whereas the regular count noun *people*,-s stands for 'nation'. Compare: *All the people have left...* the English-speaking *peoples*... *The French are a great people*; The Romanian *people has* / The Romanians *have* elected the new Parliament... The two *peoples* were at war.

persons stands for *people* especially in official, formal style, meaning 'a person or persons unknown' There is one *person* in the office only... Dear *Persons* (AmE)... They were murdered by *unknown persons/persons unknown*. (in notices) This elevator may only carry *four persons*. Note also the compound *spokesperson*,-s.

police: The *police have* caught the burglar... They called *the mounted police* and a police car. Note also the use of quantifiers: *Two police* were directing the traffic... *Several police* were injured when violence broke out.

poultry (U) (1) 'fowls': some large-scale *poultry farms* ... She is feeding the *poultry*... *The poultry have* been fed on grains and greens; (2) 'meat': *We prefer poultry* to veal.

staff is seldom used as a count noun: We've got *a staff* of over thirty people... *airline staffs*. The reference is collective when it is treated as a singular form: *the staff is* disrupted (Biber et al. 1999: 290). As an invariable noun it "appears to be on the borderline between collective nouns and plural-only nouns" (*idem*: 247), since "plural concord is by far (over 80%) the more frequent option" (*idem*: 188). It is exceptional in that it combines with numerals and quantifiers with plural reference (*all, most, some*) and in "being able to be used without determiners" (*idem*: 189): We've got *a staff* of over thirty people... She has already joined the *company/ Microsoft staff / the staff of the Microsoft*... There are three assistants to every *member of [staff]*... The *staff are* looking after the guests... When *staff are* absent, a class is split between other teachers. (NEWS) (*idem*: 189)

vermin 'pests': (1) 'small animals (rats and mice) which carry disease and damage crops/food'. (ro. *paraziți, dăunători*): In Scotland, wild cats are treated as *vermin*, and so poisoned. (2) 'people who are regarded as harmful to others or dangerous to society': He says that football hooligans *are vermin* ... She thinks all beggars *are vermin*. (CCD)

I.1.1.2.2.3.2. Personal adjective heads whose surface structure is Det + Adj are substantivised adjectives denoting a group of people: *the blind, the deaf and dumb, the deceased, the innocent, the rich, the poor, the needy/wretched, the wealthy, the wounded, the youth; the majority*. They typically agree with a plural verb and do

not usually vary for number: The government has provided massive subsidies to help *the rural and urban poor* alike... Compare: *the youth of today*, 'all young people', and the regular noun *a/the youth*, 'a/the young man': *The youth of today is/are* in their great majority church-goers... *The youths were* caught red-handed... The police are looking for *two youths* ('two young men')¹⁷⁸.

1.1.1.2.3.3. Nouns with equivocal number (Quirk et al. 1985: 309-310) are zero-plural nouns with invariable bases ending in -s, which are treated as either singular or plural in meaning and concord, patterning with both singular and plural verbs:

barracks: *This is a/the new barracks. /These are (the) new barracks.*

crossroads: Wait for us at the *crossroads*... There have been several *crossroads* in his life. ... *That/Those crossroads is/are* more and more busy these days.

headquarters applies to army, business company, etc: The bank had its *headquarters* in London... The soldiers reported to *headquarters*... Where *is/are* the new army *headquarters*? Note also: *quarters* 'rooms/houses provided for people to live in': *bachelor/servants/sleeping quarters*.

means: (C) (1) 'a method/system/way of achieving a result': *They devised a means for storing that type of energy... She could find no means of escape... We have the means to get rid of the people who oppose us... to sabotage by violent means*; (2) 'a tool': *means of transport*; *a means to an end*: *He had never enjoyed the college... It was just a means to an end*. Phrases: *do something by means of*; *by all means* vs *by no means/not by any means*; (U) 'income': *to live beyond one's means* 'to spend more money than you actually have'; *to live within one's means* 'to spend less money than you actually have': She *has the means* and she'll definitely do it.

series: *a series of armed-bank robberies*; *an unprecedented series of natural disasters*... Why are you selling *this/these series of stamps*?

species: There are more than two hundred and fifty *species of shark*... Many endangered *species* now *face* extinction... *This evergreen species* will keep *its* berries until March.

works: (1) (old-fashioned) 'factory'/'a building or group of buildings in which goods are produced in large quantities': *a/the brick/cement/steel works, a printing works*; (2) 'the activity involved in building something on a large scale', 'operations', 'installations': *irrigation/road works; civil engineering works*.

1.1.1.3. Nouns in -s as premodifiers

As **attributive nouns / noun adjuncts** some singular and plural invariable nouns ending in -s occur either as "plural first-elements" or in their singular form: the *domino* effect, a *billiard* table, a *card* table, a *checkerboard*, a *dartboard*, a *draughtboard* but a *draughtsman* (BrE)/*draftsman* (AmE), a *shingles* rash, a *mumps* infection, a *measles* outbreak/attack or *an attack / outbreak of measles, measles spots*; a *newsagent*, a *news* headline; Put on your *pyjama* blouse/top/trousers. ... The money is in my *jeans* pocket. ... a *pant* press ('a press for pants'), a *scissor* sharpener ('a sharpener for *scissors*') but a *clothes* basket/hanger; a *goods* train; *Brussels sprouts*. Compare: This certificate excuses him from *gymnastics* at school... We all wondered at his *gymnastic* ability at school... *Gymnastic* exercises have always been her favourite pastime... We attended the *athletics* meeting... I love *athletic* sports... attend an *economics* course.

Much more common in news than in other registers, many of the plural noun structures, also referred to as plural attributive constructions, or "exclusive plurals" (Quirk et al 1985: 1334), "are especially associated with complex first-elements" (Biber et al. 1999: 595), which are more productive in BrE than in AmE. Consider the semantic distinction between the 'exclusive plural' *careers* girl 'a girl who deals with careers' or 'a girl who had several careers' and *career* girl 'a girl who puts advancement in her profession before other things'. (Quirk et al 1985: 1334)

¹⁷⁸ Note also: The *majority* of students *have left* vs A *majority* of 75% voters *is* against it.

Some plural nouns, such as *affairs*, *relations*, *resources*, *rights*, *services*, *skills*, *standards*, *systems* or *arms*, *arts*, *drugs*, *jobs* *sales*, *savings*, *sports*, which “are almost always premodified themselves” (Biber et al. 1999: 595), retain their plural form in pre-modification: *affairs* dictionary / discussion forum / divorce (statistics); *resources* boom / conservation and recycling / economics / group / hacker / legacy fund / management / magazine; an/the *arms* race/scandal/treaty; an/the *arts* center / festival / society; *communications* jobs / management; a *communications* satellite; to develop a portable *communications* system/ *communications* networks; the marketing and *communications* department; *drugs* administration / ban / business / companies / problem / trade; *jobs* crisis / fair / losses / market: We attended a *jobs* fair; *parks* department; *sales* gain / increases / tax; *savings* account/banks/deposits; a / the *sports* car / magazine / page / shop.

While Quirk et al. are of the opinion that the main reason for maintaining the plural form is “the fact that an entity has been institutionalized in plural form” (Quirk et al 1985: 1334) Biber et al. mention “five specific factors which seem to influence the retention of the plural form” of these premodifying nouns: (a) The noun modifier only has a plural form or has a distinctive meaning associated with its plural; (b) The noun modifier is itself complex: ... fifty feet of *baked beans* shelves. ... *pubs and hotels* group Greenalls; ... chief foreign *affairs* spokesman ... the *customer relations* department; (c) The noun modifier or the whole noun phrase is a proper name: ... the *FBI Exhibits* Section; (d) The noun modifier is quoted speech: Toyota’s “*terms*” scheme sums up...” and (e) The noun phrase is part of a news headline: *Homes* plan... *Rules* change on pets ... Since they are suited “to convey a maximum of information as concisely as possible”, which is the main purpose of news reportage, many Noun + Noun occurrences of plural first-elements are only used in headlines (Biber et al. 1999: 595ff).

Certain head nouns that commonly occur with plural premodifying nouns denote either (a) a person’s job or occupation: corporate *affairs* director, *operations* director, public *relations* director, technical *services* director; or (b) a unit or organization connected with a particular type of activity: *boilers and radiators* division, building *properties* division, construction *materials* division, *inns and taverns* division. (ibid)

Biber et al. provide several other examples of “moderately productive” plural premodifying nouns in BrE, which “are rarely, if ever, used in AmE” (ibid): *animals* shelter, *antiques* dealer, *carpets* retailer; a *systems* analyst, *appointments/careers/customs* officer, *students* president; *careers* guidance, *pensions* schemes, *profits* growth, (a tiny) *profits* improvement, *talks* proposals, *residents* association, *examinations* board, a *courses / grants* committee, *trades* union, *wages* council; *chemicals* division, the *parks / resources* department, (Please put your contribution in) the *donations* box, *drinks* menu, *games* room, *roads* budget, *singles* title; *schools* athletics/programmes; *pampers* sale sensation.

There seems to be “a tendency for more generic terms to be plural and more specific terms to be singular” (Quirk et al. 1985: 1334). Compare: soft *drinks* manufacturer vs *car* manufacturer; *entertainments* guide vs *theatre* guide; surgical *appliances* manufacturer vs baby *carriage* manufacturer. Furthermore, “[H]ighly institutionalized plurals are always retained, in particular when the singular form may lead to ambiguity”: a *Classics* degree (‘a degree in Classics’), an *Arts* degree (‘a degree in the humanities’) vs an *art* degree (‘a degree in fine art’) (ibid).

These premodifying plurals, which tend to carry primary stress, usually collocate with collective nouns and names of institutions as heads: the local police *drugs* squad, Chesterfield *Hospitals* Management Committee, the British Museum *Prints and Drawings* Gallery (ibid).

In headlines, especially, the plural as premodifier may be “associated with a widely discussed public issue”, as in: the nuclear *arms* / personal *mines* issue, the *tapes* affair / compromise / issue / mystery (ibid).

I.1.2. Numerical and non-numerical quantification of nouns

As an essential means of expressing **quantity**, **number** is closely interrelated with this semantic notion.

I.1.2.1. Numerical quantifiers

Nounlike items such as *hundred*, *thousand*, *million* and *billion* may function as elements of **compound numerals**, with no plural morpheme attached (*two hundred and twenty books*, *ten thousand two hundred and twenty one people*) or as **quantifying nouns**. The latter include **plural numerals** in vague partitive expressions for approximate large numbers, filling in the plural pattern of open-class quantifiers, that is, 'pIN₁ + of + pIN₂': *bunches of [roses]*; *hundreds/thousands of [books/people/times]* and **standardized measure terms** (*acre*, *gallon*, *gram(me)*, (*kilo*)*gram*, *inch*, *metre*, *mile*, *ounce*, *pint*, *quart*, *pound*, *score*, *ton*, *tonne*, *yard*) (*idem*: 253): *three hundred students/people ... two thousand euros ... a few thousand pounds ... a thousand years lyrics ... their \$3.5 million gorgeous house. ... several million inhabitants, several/a few + dozens/ thousands / millions of [inhabitants / spectators]*; *hundreds / thousands of [times]*, *thousands / millions of [thanks / reasons]*, *tens of thousands of [people/children]*; *hundreds of millions of [books]*; *thousands (and thousands) of [times]* When they are vaguely quantified, numerals can be used with a zero plural: *a few hundred of them*.

Some synonyms of cardinal numbers are 'border cases' between nouns and numerals (Duțescu-Coliban 1986: 187), that is, *two*: *a couple of [days]*, *a pair of [shoes]*, *a brace of [partridges]*, *a span/team of [horses]*, *a yoke of [oxen]*; *twelve*: *a dozen of [socks]*; *twelve dozens*: *a gross of/ 144 things* (e.g. *five gross of pens / 144 x 5 pens*); *twenty*: *a score of*. Some of them take a plural morpheme optionally: *ten couple(s) / pair(s) / team(s) / score(s) of*. *Dozen(s)* and *score* can be used with or without a prepositional structure: *dozens of / scores of [books]*... *two dozen(s) of [eggs/socks]*... There were well over *a score of [policemen]* waiting outside the house... Even in my *two score years* the world has changed (CCD). *Brace*, *span*, *yoke* and *gross* never take a plural morpheme: There's *five brace of pheasants* on the table... *two yoke of oxen*. Occasionally measure terms like *ounce* and *ton* are used to express exaggeration, indicating a very small amount (ounce) or large amount (ton): *an ounce of [trouble / grown-up character]*; *tons of [money / songs]*.

In informal speech, *foot*, *pound*, the invariable noun *quid* (a synonym of *pound(s)* and *p* (*penny*, *pence*), occur with the zero plural after numerals: He'll get *twenty quid* for doing it. It is, however, not uncommon for units of measure, such as *fathom*, *foot*, *pound* or *mile* and *ton* to be used with a plural form. Compare: It was a *quid* a week... It cost us *twenty quid*...The river is *two fathom(s)* deep. ... He is *five foot two*. ... They are nearly *two foot*. ... I'm *five foot/feet* (tall). ... They weigh *three and a half pound*... It weighs about *three pound(s)*... *Two pound(s) of [cherries]*, please... This ring is *eighteen carat*.

Reference to age, time, size and weight can be expressed by a hyphenated structure or an extended noun phrase with an embedded attributive clause, as in: *a ten-year-old-girl*: *a girl who is ten years old*, *a twenty-five-year-old student*: *a student who is twenty-five years old*, *the 27-year-old royal* announced her pregnancy; *a two-week course*: *a course which lasts two weeks*, *a ten-country agreement*: *an agreement between ten countries*; *a 10-dollar bill*: *a bill that is worth 10 dollars*, *a ten billion-dollar ceiling for investments* (Hulban 2001: 57) These quantitative structures may vary: *a ten weeks wait*, *a ten weeks' wait*, *a ten week wait*, *a ten-week wait*. Compare also: They lent him one *million/two millions*; *ten hundred/thousand* but *ten hundred millions*.

Note some aspects of the use of *pound* as 'currency' in informal English: *pound(s)* (C): *a ten-pound note*, *two ten-pound notes*... A single costs *ten pound(s) fifty*. In both BrE and AmE, *penny*, *-ies* (C) is used to refer to the actual coins, whereas *pence* is used to denote the worth of things: It cost *50 p* /pi:z/ (informal) / *50 pence* (formal)... She paid *fourpence* ... I only have *two pennies*... I have *one two penny coin* ... *two one penny coins*. Phrases: It isn't worth *twopence* /'tʌpəns/ (ro.Nu face *două parale*); It's *twopennyworth*... They haven't got *two pennies* to rub together; *halfpenny* ['heipni] - (pl) *halfpence* or *half pennies*: *a halfpennyworth* of tobacco. Sayings: Take care of *the pence* and *the pounds* will take care of themselves... Save your *pennies* and watch your dollars grow... *A penny* on your thoughts... *A penny* saved is *a penny* gained.

1.1.2.2. Partitive nouns as vague quantifiers

To express non-numerical quantification, English has, beside **standardized measure terms** and **plural numerals**, "a great many ways of quantifying without using numbers of any kind" (Channell 1994: 95).

Speakers of English can rely on a wide variety of inherently vague, hence rather weak as quantifier items and phrases which say “nothing absolute about the quantities involved” (*idem*: 99). With a distribution similar to numbers, **closed-class quantifiers** fit in the pattern (**vague**) **quantifier** + (**un**)**countable noun**, filling in the determiner slot in noun phrase structures: *little / much time, many / several doubts, umpteen* (‘countless’) *rules*. **Open-class quantifiers**, on the other hand, enter **partitive constructions/structures** (Quirk et al 1985: 249; Channell 1994: 99)¹⁷⁹; as **partitives/partitive nouns**, also referred to as **quantifying nouns** (Biber et al 1999: 252) or **nominal quantifiers** in the class of **partitive determinatives**, which can either be **deictic** (*some (of those) occasions*) or **quantifying** (*one of these days; a lot of trouble*)¹⁸⁰.

1.1.2.2.1. Partitive paradigms. Literal and metaphorical uses of partitives

Drawing on the semantic division between **multal** and **paucal quantifiers** (*many, much* vs *a few, a little*) (Quirk et al, 1985: 384-6) as well as the classification of vague non-numerical quantifiers into ‘+ *for quantity*’ (meaning ‘much or many’: *bags of, loads of, lots of, masses of, oodles of; a great / good / vast deal of; umpteen*); ‘- *for quantity*’ (meaning ‘few or little’, which fit in the singular partitive pattern ‘a + singular quantifier + of + noncount noun’): *a bit of, a scrap of, a touch of*;) and ‘*neutral for quantity*’ (*some, several*) (Channell, 1994: 96), we approached partitives in terms of syntactic frames, meaning and collocate, as members of two notional paradigms: **the paucal partitive paradigm** and **the multal partitive paradigm**¹⁸¹. However, partitives, like intensifiers, can connote divergent values of their collocates. Just as the diminisher *a bit of* appears to indicate a large quantity, *loads of*, i.e. ‘a lot of something’, may mean ‘a (very) small amount of something’. Compare: She’s done (*a few*) *bits of* [shopping] (‘a small amount of shopping’ vs. ‘quite a lot of shopping’)... He’s done *loads of* [work] (‘has done a lot of work’ vs. ‘has hardly done anything’).

The semantic relation between the two nouns in a ‘Det + N₁ + of + N₂’ partitive phrase was reconsidered in terms of semantic marking. Literal partitive paradigms have generated paradigms of contextual, “affective” partitive structures with various degrees of metaphoricality¹⁸². We assumed that the members of the two paradigms denote intensification values within a range of ‘less than enough’ and of ‘(much) more than enough’, respectively, on a bidirectional intensification scale. *Enough* stands for the vague node where the multal and the paucal intervals overlap and from where they extend both ways. While the members of the paucal paradigm denote (very) low / little / infinitesimal values of the collocate (*a fleck / speck of [dust]*), the members of the multal paradigm denote values within a range from high to the highest of their collocate on the intensification cline. The literal / neutral, [-I] unmarked for intensification meaning of a partitive, in its both singular and plural patterns, contrasts with the metaphorically [+I] marked for intensification plural forms (apud Manoliu 2007b: 73) Compare: *a burst / volley of* and *bursts / volleys of* [automatic rifle fire / water], vs *a burst / roar of* and *bursts / roars of* [laughter], *a load of / loads of* [wood] vs *loads of* [charm / fun / ideas / money / time / work], *a bag / bags of* [cherries] vs *bags of* [language / people / time], *a ton / tons of* [fish] vs *tons of* [letters], *torrents of* [lava] vs *torrents of* [love]... We’ve bought *tons of* [beer] for the party tonight (CCD).

Some partitive phrases can be rephrased as **compounds**, sometimes with a change of meaning. Compare: *a jar of jam* (the contents) vs *a jam jar* (the container), *a pot of tea* / *a tea pot*, *a box of matches* / *a match box*, *a cube of ice* / *an ice cube*, *a lump of sugar* / *a sugar lump*, *a bar of chocolate* / *a chocolate bar*, *a ball / flake of* [snow] and *a snowball, snowflake, a ball of* [meat] and *a meatball* (ro. *perișoară*).

1.1.2.2.1.1. Paucal partitives

¹⁷⁹ See also Collins Cobuild English Grammar 1996, pp. 110-113.

¹⁸⁰ Angela Downing and Philip Locke, *A University Course in English Grammar*, Prentice Hall International, 1992:441ff.

¹⁸¹ Silvia Manoliu, *Intensification of Meaning in English*. Volume II, *Peripheral Markers*. Casa Editorială Demiurg, Iași, 2007: 55f.

¹⁸² Cf. Stephen Ullmann, *The Principles of Semantics*, Basil Blackwell, Oxford, Jackson, Son & Co., Glasgow, 1967, p. 148; Iorgu Iordan, *Stilistica limbii române*, Ed. Științifică, București 1975, p. 333 calls this process „semantic derivation”.

The set of paucal partitives includes ‘- for quantity’ **unit nouns**. They are either neutral with respect to quantity or refer to ‘a (very) small quantity / amount or (very) small quantities / amounts of something. Some of them have a precise meaning and a very narrow field of use (*a loaf of bread*, *a beam/ray of light*, *a pat of butter*, *a sliver of glass / soap*), while other unit nouns, notably *a bit* and *a piece*, are more general in meaning and, therefore, the most productive, each combining with “well over 100 different collocates” (Biber 1999: 250): *a bit* of [cloth / land / paper / wood / advice / consolation/ fun / luck/ nonsense / regret / satire/ work]; *a piece* of [land /advice / evidence/ folly/ gossip/ honesty /knowledge / neglect /nonsense / research / wisdom / work / writing] (ro. Mai auzim și noi (cîte) o *bîrfă*. Facem o cercetare în acest domeniu). The countable noun *act* acquires the meaning of a general partitive in collocations with several abstract mass nouns: *an act* of [aggression/brutality/cruelty/decency /injustice/ kindness / love / perfidy /Quixotry /selfishness /wisdom].

Specific paucal partitives are used to denote a (very) small quantity/ amount of the collocate: *a ball* of [wool / thread /meat / snow], *a blade* of [grass], *a blob* of [colour/glue/honey/ink/paint/wax]: He could see a *blob* of grey in the distance... He saw the white blob of Fred crossing the street... *a book* of [matches / (first class) stamps / tickets], *a chip* of [china], *a crumb* of [bread/cake/biscuits/ comfort/ hope/information/knowledge], *a dash* of [cocoa/sauce/soda/wry humour], *a dollop* of [jam/mashed potatoes], *a drop* of [rain/sauce], *a flake* of [paint/snow], *a flash* of [light/hope/memory/wit/anger/inspiration], *a fit/flash* of [anger], *a fleck* of [blood], *a glimmer* of [light/hope/wit], *a grain* of [corn / pepper/ rice /wheat / salt /sand/comfort/humour/logic/truth], *a head* of [cattle; cabbage/lettuce], *a lock* of [hair]/ *a hair lock*, *a lump* of [butter/coal/sugar], *a morsel* of [bread / food], *a pang* of [regret], *a pat* of [butter], *a peal* of [thunder], *a pinch* of [cinnamon/salt], *a puff* of [perfume], *a scrap* of [paper/work/evidence], *a sheet* of [glass/ice/paper/tin], *a shred* of [cloth/dignity/evidence], *a sliver* of [glass], *a snatch* of [conversation], *a speck* of [dirt / dust / information / truth], *a spell* of [music/(good or bad) weather/work], *a splinter* of [glass/wood], *a spot* of [trouble], *a sprinkle* of [cinnamon/salt/sugar], *a sprinkling* of [snow], *a squeeze* of [lemon], *a squirt* of [liquid], *a stick* of [chalk/candy/celery], *a strand* of [hair/yarn/wire/wool], *a strip* of [cloth/garden/land/paper/sand/wood], *a stroke* of [luck/policy/satire], *a touch* of [anxiety/ hope/irony/sarcasm/wry humour], *a thread* of [cotton], *a wisp* of [cloud /smoke /hair/hay/grass], *a word* of [abuse/wisdom]: You should take it with a *pinch* of [salt]! ... Should you leave? she asked Mike with a *touch* of [anxiety]... There is always a *sprinkling* of [sightseers] outside the palace... *a sprinkling* of [grey hairs] (CCD).

Combinations of different partitives with the same collocate, such as *an attack/a spell/stroke* of [doldrums/hystericks/ paralysis], are not uncommon.

Note the comparatively small number of Romanian paucal partitives and their less specific character in a semantic class where *bucată* and *strop* function as general items, largely collocating with abstract and concrete mass nouns: *acces de furie/mînie*, *bob* de [grîu/mei/orez], *boț* de [brînză/unt], *bucată* de [hîrtie / pămînt/ pîine / porțelan / prăjitură /sticlă / tablă], *bulgăre* de [pămînt/zăpadă]), *ciob* de [porțelan/sticlă], *coală* de [hîrtie], *crîmpei* de [amintire], *fărîmă* de [adevăr/speranță], *fir* de [iarbă/ață/lînă/ păr/praf/nisip], *fărîmă* de [demnitate], *fărîmiță* de [pîine], *firimitură* de [pîine / prăjitură], *foaie* de [hîrtie / tablă], *frîntură* de [conversație /memorie / informații / știri], *ghem* de [ață/lînă/sfoară], *ghemotoc* de [hîrtie], grăunte de [adevăr/vorbă], *licăr(ire)* de [speranță], *moment* de [inspirație], *picătură* de [apă/ apă de ploaie/cerneală/lapte /miere/lipici/sînge], *o rază* de [speranță], *o sclipire* de [inteligență], *strop* de [cacao/lapte/miere/noroi/sînge/sos/vopsea; adevăr / confort / culoare / demnitate / fericire / ironie / mintel mîngîiere / regret / speranță], *o undă / urmă* de [regret].

Pair is a special case, in that it is most often used for countable reference with summation plurals: *a pair* of [scissors/trousers].

Modifiers can be inserted either in premodification of the unit noun, as part of the following noun phrase, or in both positions: *a [valuable] piece* of [advice] : *a piece* of (valuable) [advice], *a(n astonishing) piece* of [news], *a (nice) piece* of [work], *a (huge) piece* of [paper]; *a piece* of (legal) [advice], *a bit* of (good) [news], *solid old pieces* of (English) [furniture], *a (thick) piece* of (broken) [glass].

A distinct feature of some partitives in this set (*atom, iota, glimmer, scrap, shred, speck, touch, trace*) is their (very) frequent or exclusive use in negative contexts, sometimes with premodification by downtoning adjectives, in their basic or comparative form (*not a single, not the slightest*). They either read ‘a tiny amount / the smallest piece / amount of something’, or connote ‘the absence of even the smallest amount of something’¹⁸³ and are rendered into by the intensifying negative structures *absolut nici un / o ...; nici (cea mai mică) urmă de*:

I don’t do a *scrap* of [work] ... he uses every available *scrap* of [space/paper] ... D’you think that’ll make a *scrap* of [difference]? (i.e. ‘D’you think that’ll make the smallest *bit* of difference?’) ... There was not a *speck* of [colour] in her face ... There is not a *scrap* / *speck* of [truth] in it. (CCD) ... There was not a *grain* of [truth] in the statement... There was not a *scrap* of [information] to be had. (‘not a *jot*, not a *shred*’) ... There was not a *scrap* of [(direct) evidence] against him... There was not a *shred* of [evidence] available... There wasn’t a (single) *scrap* of [evidence] to connect him with the murder. (‘not even one’) (LDCE)... Nothing I said made a *scrap* of [difference]... It’s no use talking to him – it won’t make an *iota* of [difference]. (LDCE)... I don’t feel *one iota* of [guilt] (CCD) ... There was not a *glimmer* of [hope / light] (‘it was pitch dark’)... There was not a *wink* of [sleep] for anyone that night... There’s not an *atom* of [romance] in her (‘not a *bit* / *hint* of’) (CCD)... I anticipated a *trace* of [jealousy] in her... There wasn’t (the *slightest*) *trace* of [fear] in my father. (‘a very small amount’) (CCD)... The hero ... got that *touch* of [Irish] behind standard English... I got a *touch* of [Latin] and a *touch* of [German] at one time... Usually fix them with (just) a *touch* of [Evostick]; a *touch* of [anxiety / irony / sarcasm]; ‘And if he has a *touch* of [pride] about him, as I think he has ... (ChD / NN: 115) ... The night had brought a *touch* of [frost]. (HJ / TS: 77) ... ‘He took to drinking, and had a *touch* of [paralysis] ...’ (ChD / NN: 28)

1.1.2.2.1.2. Multal partitives

The members of the multal paradigm basically mean the same, that is, ‘a lot of, plenty (of)’, ‘a large quantity of’, ‘a great deal of’, ‘a mass of’ something; ‘to a high, or the highest degree’. The sense relation of synonymy that obtains between non-numerical quantifiers points to their use for neutral descriptions, accounting for ‘a great amount of money’ being referred to as a *lot* / *bag* / *bulk* / *heap* / *pot* of [money], or as *lots* / *bags* / *bulks* / *heaps* / *pots* of [money].

Mainly inspired by Biber et al’s “collocation types” (1999: 252-254), we have grouped **quantifying collective nouns** into several semantic classes. Nouns denoting a **multitude** of persons or things, which make the bulk of this paradigm, may refer strictly to a [-Human] **large amount** or **amounts** of things, to a **large number of things**, to [+Human] **participants**, a **group** or **groups**: *army, band, batch, bevy, board, brood, bulk, bunch, bundle, cluster, collection, colony, constellation, convoy, covey, crowd, crew, drove, fleet, flock, gaggle, gang, heap, herd, hive, hoard, horde, host, litter, load, mass, nest, pack, pad, pile, pride, rout, school, shoal, skein, stack, stock, string, stud, swarm, troop, troupe*. Some partitives indicate shape or / and amount, or shape and movement. They refer to **elements of nature** and **geographical features**, which often connote the idea of hyperbolic, ‘remarkably or supernaturally large’: *mountain, ocean, sea*, or to **natural phenomena**, more often than not characterized by force and by ‘a sudden and violent release of energy’: *burst, explosion, fit, invasion, plague; avalanche, cloud, deluge, flood, rain, shower, storm, stream, surge, torrent*, etc. Consider: a *mountain* of / *mountains* of [debts / hardships / evidence/whipped cream]; a *lump* of [flesh/meat] vs a *mountain* of [flesh]; a *sea* of [words]¹⁸⁴ (an *ocean* of / *oceans* of / a *sea* of / *seas* of [doubts / flowers / hopes / time / troubles]). Others denote **containers** (*bag, barrel, crate, deck, keg, pack, packet, pad, sack*) and **shape** (*column, curtain, flame, jet, stick, wad, wall, wedge*), etc: There were *columns* of smoke coming out of the building. ... a *wall* of [stone] ... a *curtain* of [mist]. ... *Flames* of [suspicion] leapt up in the breast of each man (F / PI: 117)... a *jet* of [water / petrol] ... a *barrel* of [fun].

¹⁸³ Geoffrey Broughton, *The Penguin English Grammar. An A-Z for Advanced Students*, Penguin Books, 1990, p. 183.

¹⁸⁴ Hortensia Pârlog, *The Sound of Sounds*, Hestia Publishing House, Timișoara, 1995, p.115.

Our survey of the class of quantifying collectives that refer to a group or a large number of things [-Human] or participants [+Human] in the multal partitive paradigm has revealed a high frequency of overlap between literal and metaphorical uses. The wide range of partitive and [+/-Animate] or [+/-Human] countable/uncountable noun combinations include neutral in meaning partitives, like *bags, loads, lots, masses, oodles, scores* and *tons*: *bags* of [people / language / room / time], *loads* of [charm / extra calories / fun / ideas / jobs / money / room / things / time], *lots* of [intelligence / money / snow / space / things / time], *masses* of [coal / grass / molecules / nerves / people], *oodles* of [butter / milk / money / receipts / presents / injections], *scores* of [people], *tons* of [letters]. They are by far outnumbered by a set of specific group partitives which refer to more or less organized amounts of things, abstractions and, occasionally, people (*batch*), gathered together in *batches* of [papers / letters / trainees], (ro. *lot, rînd, serie, set*), *bundles* of [branches/sticks / things / compromises / emotion / energy / joy / knights/money/muscle / nerves / rights] (ro. *grămadă, mănunchi, pachet, teanc*), *heaps* of [coal/money/snow/time/wood/common sense] (ro. *morman, grămadă*), *piles* of [books/earth/money/wood] (ro. *stivă, vraf*), *stacks* of [journals / magazines/ money / plates /wood; job offers] ('a neat pile of'). Note also *stacks* of [work]: I have got a whole *stack* of [work] to do. (ro. o *groază de [treabă]*, a *spell* of [(good/bad) weather /work], i.e. 'a short period of time during which a type of activity or of weather occurs' and a *spate* of, which is 'a series of', 'a large number of things happening in a short period of time': The accident caused another *spate* of [protests]. ... the day's *spate* of [bans and detentions]. ... We had a *spate* of [bad luck]. (CCD) ... Poor Andrew was a *mass* of nerves.

Some group partitives, which also share [+Human] collocates, may refer to the domicile of animals, birds, or insects, but most commonly they may be treated as synonyms of *flock* and *crowd*, sometimes denoting a group of animals in movement (*drift, drove, herd, rout*), birds on the ground or in flight (*bevy, covey, flight, flock*) and offspring (*brood, litter, nide*)¹⁸⁵. Several partitives may share the same collocate, as for example a group of *sheep*, which is referred to as a *flock/herd/trip/drove/mob* of [sheep]. A company of people is identified as a *crowd*, that is, 'an uncomfortable, jostling, sometimes disorderly mass of people'¹⁸⁶, a *throng*, which is 'a large group of people that presses together or forward, often with an aim', whereas *swarm* is used contemptuously of 'a moving, restless and often noisy crowd'. When premodified by intensifying adjectives, as in a (*vast*) *crowd* of [employees], or when used with the plural partitive pattern, that is, *armies, congregations, droves, hordes, mobs, packs, plagues, swarms* of, these partitives often get intensified, hyperbolic connotations. Most partitives in this semantic class have positive connotations, except for *bunch, gang, mob, pack*, which have a negative tinge: an *ambush* of [llamas], an *army* of [soldiers → ants/ caterpillars/frogs]; a *band* of [soldiers/musicians → enthusiasts /protesters /outlaws → coyotes]; a *bevy* of [larks / quails/ roe deer → girls/young ladies (ro. ?cuconet-uri)]; a *brood* of [chicks / chickens / pheasants → children]; a *bunch* of [bananas / flowers / grapes / parsley / keys / letters / crows eagles / elephants / kangaroos / moles / monkeys / owls / puppies / ravens / seals / unicorns→ cobyos /guys /heroes /idiots /jerks → insults/jokes], e.g. What a *bunch* of [Scrooges!]; a *caravan* of [antelopes]; a *cast* of [hawks/falcons]; a *cete* of [badgers]; a *cloud* of [bats /birds/flyes; dust / mosquitoes]; a *clump* of [trees / thistles]; a *company* of [badgers]; a *congregation* of [crocodiles]; a *congregation / convocation* of [eagles]; a *covey* of [grouse / partridge(s) → children / women]; a *colony* of [ants/ bats/ beavers/frogs/penguins]; a *drift* of [sheep], a *drift /drove / herd* of [hogs]; a *drove* of [asses/cattle/geese/oxen → people]; a *family* of [apes/ beavers /gorillas]; a *flight* of [birds]; a *flock* of [antelopes/ birds/crows/ bats/ camels/cranes/ducks (flying in a line) /geese (on the ground) / elephants / goats / parrots / peacocks/seals/sheep → acquaintances /advisors /friends /interpreters/ prophets/ sightseers /pamphlets]; a *gaggle* of [geese]; a *gam* of [whales] a *gang* of [apes /buffalo / chimps /crows/ elks / monkeys / penguins → gamers / heroes / muggers / robbers / thieves]; a *herd* of [asses/ bison/ buffalo/ cattle/ deer / donkeys / elephants /giraffes/goats → tourists]; a *hive* of [bees/activity

¹⁸⁵ Semantic transfer is signaled by an arrow (→).

¹⁸⁶ A group of friends, usually known to one another, is also referred to as a crowd: His friends are a nice *crowd*. (ro. *gașcă*).

/beauty /dreams /evil /knowledge /scum and villainy → rogues/thieves]; a **horde** of [children/ people]; a **host** of [daffodils]; a **kennel** of [dogs/hounds]; a **kindle/brood/litter** of [kittens]; a **litter** of [puppies / cubs]; a **mob** of [crows/kangaroos/hooligans/people]; a **murder** of [crows]; a **muster** of [peacocks]; a **nest** of [crocodiles /hornets/ field mice / rabbits / wasps → ('a set of objects that fit into or inside each other') → [tables / missles]; a **nide/brood** of [pheasants]; a **pack** of [cards / cigarettes; coyotes / (wild) dogs / dolphins / elephants / foxes / gorillas / hounds / hyenas / wolves → robbers → lies]; a **parade** of [elephants]; a **peep** of [chicken] a **plague** of [locusts]; a **pod/** (small) **herd** of [seals/whales], a **pride/company** of [lions]; a **rookery** of [rooks/penguins/seals]; a **rout** of [wolves → knights]; a **school / shoal** of [fish / whales]; a **shrewdness** of [apes]; a **skein** of [(flying wild) geese]; a **skulk** of [foxes → thieves]; a **sloth** of [bears]; a **string** of [pearls / beads / islands]; a **stable** of [horses]; a **stud** of [horses]; a **swarm** of [ants/bees/butterflies/flies/insects]; a **team** of [oxen players]; a **train** of [coyotes]; a **tribe** of [crows/frogs/goats/zebras]; a **troop** of [animals/ buffalo/giraffes/ monkeys / children / people]; a **warren** of [rabbits]; a **watch/flock** of [nightingales]. The Romanian equivalents of these partitives are by far less specific and, in their great majority, share [+/-Human] collocates: *adunare, adunătură, banc, bandă, ceată, cireadă, cîrd, clică, colonie, congregație, cuib, cuibar, culcuș, droaie, grup, haită, herghelie, hoardă, invazie, liotă, familie, grămadă, întrunire, nor, roi, stol, stup, șleahtă, turmă, trupă, vizuină*. Some of them function as umbrella terms for several specific English partitives: *bandă, ceată, cîrd, grămadă, grup, haită, stol, șleahtă, turmă, cuib, culcuș, vizuină*. Also note that most [+Human] collocations in this class involve some derogatory meaning.

The repetitive use of partitive phrases, by accumulation or by repetition, may have strong intensifying values in both colloquial speech and in the fictional discourse: Again they would come to whole towns of palaces ... *troops* of idle [soldiers] leaning out of ... like *hosts* of [rats] who were (happily) eating ... smashed on the heads of the other *swarms* of [soldiers], and the *swarms* of [priests], and the *swarms* of [spies], who were all the ill-looking population left to be ruined, in the streets below (CD / LD: 465-6).

The meaning that multal partitives and their iterative patterns share makes Joanna Channell draw the conclusion that *flocks and flocks* of [sheep], *masses and masses* (of) [data / food], *pints and pints* of [milk], for instance, “fall neatly into an analysis as metaphorical extensions from original literal meanings of each word”. While “the literal use is a true measure or partitive, as in *a load of hay, a bag of sand, a lot of goods* (at an auction), the extended, vague uses maintain the sense of quantifying, but lose the specific physical characteristics – no actual *loads* or *bags* are involved in the vague uses”. (Channell:104) Moreover, except for *oodles of*, as in *oodles (and oodles) of [butter / cream / presents]*, and *scores of*, which have positive connotations, the collocation of members of this quantifier paradigm can have both positive and negative implications. According to Patrick Hanks, the metaphorical uses of partitives are among the “prototypical syntagmatic patterns” that each word is associated with in our mind¹⁸⁷. He identifies four types of “storms of emotion”, that is “four prototypical classes” of the metaphorical partitive structure ‘*storm*’ + *partitive* ‘*of*’: (1) “storms of negative reactions”, such as *a storm of anger / controversy / criticism / discontent / objections / protest / strikes / unrest*, etc, which outnumber (2) “storms of positive reactions”, such as *a storm of applause / cheers* addressed to a successful performance, (3) “storms of emotion”, as expressed by someone’s bursting into *a storm of weeping* or *a storm of tears*, etc, and (4) “storms of other things” (idem: 11) If *storm* is used partitively, there is a high probability that the meaning be metaphorical (ibid).

We have chosen the class of English and Romanian nouns of multitude that express a favourable or unfavourable ‘sudden release of energy’ to illustrate the propensity for metaphorization in the multal partitive paradigm.(Manoliu 2007b: 73) While literally they refer to “bodies of water,” (Hanks: 18) of snow, or of lava, for instance, metaphorically they denote ‘a very large amount of or a large number of things or of people that occur or arrive at the same time’. Partitives like *avalanche, deluge, flood, stream* and *torrent* share semes like [+MOVEMENT], [+SPEED], [+FORCE], [+SUDDEN RELEASE], [+/-SOUND]. The idea of

¹⁸⁷ Patrick Hanks, *The Syntagmatics of Metaphor and Idiom*,
<http://www.dcs.shef.ac.uk/research/ilash/Seminars/Hanks.doc.p.1>)

[+MOVEMENT] contained in a *stream* of, i.e. 'a long or continuous line of people, animals, vehicles, etc, travelling in the same direction; a long, continuous series of things; flood', is further amplified in the meaning of a *torrent* of, which additionally suggests [+SPEED] and [+FORCE], i.e. 'a rushing, violent, or abundant and unceasing stream of anything; a violent, tumultuous, or overwhelming flow': a *stream* of [abuse / insults / lies / losses / memories / people / questions / visitors / traffic] and a *torrent* of [abuse / criticism / protest / hair]... There was a constant *stream* of [people] going both ways ... her golden *torrent* of [hair] (LDCE).

The partitives *cascade*, *cloud*, *rain* and *shower* involve different types of [+MOVEMENT], that is, 'a floating, flowing, or a falling mass of something'. A *cascade* of is 'an amount of something that falls or hangs down in large quantities', as in Her hair fell over her shoulders in a *cascade* of [curls], whereas a *shower* of suggests 'a falling movement of lots of light things': [(falling) leaves / sparks]. Things may 'fall from above at the same time and with great force' in a *rain* of [arrows/blows/bullets], but there is no falling involved in a *cloud* of, which may either be 'a mass of dust, smoke, gas, etc, moving or floating in the air', or 'a very large number of birds or insects flying together': a *cloud* of [dust / smoke / birds / mosquitoes] (ro. *nor* de praf; *roi* de țințari, *cîrd/stol* de păsări).

There is considerable overlap between the collocational ranges of these partitives, which may take positively, negatively or neutrally loaded [+/-Animate] and/or [+/-Human] collocates: an *avalanche* / a *deluge* of [politicians / tourists / volunteers; applications / data / (mis)information / opportunity]; an *avalanche* / *torrents* of [debris / trash]; an *avalanche* / waves of [attacks/drugs]; an *avalanche* / a *stream* / *torrent* of [electrons]; an *avalanche* / a *burst* of [errors]; an *avalanche* / a *burst* / *stream* of [(un)truths]; an *avalanche* / a *cascade* / *storm* / *torrent* / *wave* of [(strong) protest]; a *flood* / *floods* of [people / refugees]; a *deluge* / *floods* of [complaints/letters / petitions]; a *deluge* / *droves* of [trouble]; a *burst* / *gush* / *whirlwind* of [activity].

Premodification by degree adjectives containing the semes [+QUANTITY], [+DURATION] and [+SOUND] further amplifies the intensifying force of the partitive phrases *roars* / *rounds* / *storms* / *whirlwinds* of [applause]: (deafening / endless / huge / loud / massive / total / tremendous, thunderous) *roar* of [applause] ... (big / great / huge / polite / respectful / wild) *round* of [applause] ... (ceaseless / long / never-ending / thunderous / wild) *storm* of [applause] ... (wild) *round* of [applause] ... *storm* of (wild) [applause].

In informal use, partitives can also be premodified by intensifiers: This turn of events opened a (whole) (new) *vista* of [troubles] for me. (CCD).

There is no less overlapping between the collocational ranges of these partitives in Romanian either: *avalanșă* / *explozie* de [canale TV / cancere / case / prospețime]; *explozie* / *torent* de [informații / bucurie / lumină]; *potop* / *puhoi* / *groază* / *puzderie* / *val* de [bani / lume / oameni]; *potop* de [amenințări / critici / invective / înjurături / reproșuri]; *groază* / *noian* / *puhoi* / *puzderie* / *sumedenie* de [contestații / credincioși / dușmani / filme / inamici / informații / microbiști / nenorociri / nereguli], etc.

Note also a high frequency of overlapping between the collocational ranges of English and Romanian partitives in this class: the specific partitives *avalanche*, *flood*, *deluge*, *wave*, *stream* and *torrent* of, and the general partitives a *lot* of, *lots* of, *masses* of, *oodles* of and *tons* of, have as Romanian equivalents *avalanșă*, *șuvoi*, *torent*, *val* de and some rather archaic partitives, *potop*, *puhoi*, *puzderie*, *groază* ('o mulțime de', 'un număr mare de', should not be associated with the literal meaning of the noun *groază*). Consider: *avalanche* / *deluge* of [applications / notifications / jobs] : ro. *avalanșă* / *puhoi* / *torent* / *val* de [cereri / contestații]; *avalanche* of [costs / events / sales] : ro. *avalanșă* de [costuri / cumpărături / evenimente / scumpiri / vânzări]; *avalanche* / *wave* of [accidents / suicide / tourists] : ro. *avalanșă* / *val* de [accidente / evenimente rutiere / cumpărături / scumpiri / vânzări / sinucideri / candidați / turiști]; *explosion* of [colour / rage] : ro. *explozie* de [sunet, lumină și culoare / talent și culoare / mânie / prețuri]; *flood* / *torrents* / *volley* of [words / oaths]¹⁸⁸ : ro. *cascadă* / *potop* / *șuvoi* /

¹⁸⁸ A *volley* of [words / questions / figures] is 'a lot of words, questions, etc, which someone says very quickly and in an aggressive way, without giving anyone else a chance to reply'. Remember also a *sea* of [words]. (Părlög 1995, p. 115)

torrent de [cuvinte / înjurături / vorbe]; **flood** / **gush** of [tears] : ro. **puhoi** / **șuvoi** de [lacrimi]; **flood** of [compassion/ news] vs. **potop** de [știri]; **wave(s)** of [despair/fun /love/ violence] : ro. **val** de [disperare/bună dispoziție / afecțiune / dragoste / (acte de) violență]; **avalanche** / **stream** / **torrent** / **wave** of [protest] : ro. **avalanșă** / **val** de [proteste]; a **stream** of [cars / people] : ro. **puhoi** / **șuvoi** de [mașini / oameni]; **rain** of [bullets] - ro. **ploaie** de [gloanțe], etc. The Romanian counterparts of these partitives vary between use and abuse: ?**rafale** de [aplauze /cuvinte / moțiuni / oferte / ritmuri / sentimente], ?**ropot** de [fluierături / râs], ?**potop** de [oțet] acru, ?**șuvoi** de [picături / victime], ?**cascadă** de [apartamente], etc. (apud Manoliu 2007b: 79)

I.1.2.2.1.3. Intensifying phrasal structures

The seme [+MOVEMENT] is also shared by the elliptical prepositional phrases *in clouds*, *in droves*, *in spate*, *in waves*: The mosquitoes were coming up *in clouds*... They would come *in droves* to see Australia's natural wonder... The brook was coming down *in* roaring *spate*. (CCD)

Pretty similar in form to partitive phrases and intensifying in meaning is Hebraism, a phrasal structure which follows a Hebrew superlative pattern common in the Bible¹⁸⁹. It consists in the repetition of the noun head in its plural form in the prepositional genitive: 'Det (a/the) + (sgC)N₁ + of + (plC)N₂': *the King of kings ... the Lord of lords ... a prince of princes ... the song of songs ... the evil of evils ... a horror of horrors ... the mystery of mysteries ... the pearl of pearls ... the place of all places ... in my heart of hearts*. Some Romanian counterparts follow the pattern through juxtaposition of genitive structures, that is, *cântarea cântărilor, regele regilor*, while other combinations do not follow this pattern in translation, that is, *in my heart of hearts* : *în adâncul/străfundul inimii (mele)*, *the pearl of pearls* : *cea mai de preț perlă*, etc. Collocations like *floarea florilor* and *surpriza surprizelor* have absolute superlative equivalents: 'a very beautiful flower', 'the greatest surprise'. On the other hand, "no examples were found in English where the repeated noun should derive from an adjective", as in *frumoasa frumoaselor*, translated as 'the most beautiful girl'¹⁹⁰ or *the Beauty Queen*.

Binominal NPs¹⁹¹ are 'anomalous' pre-article phrasal structures, of the type 'N₁- of - N₂ / 'Det (a/the/ ...) + (evaluative / emotive) N₁ + of + a + (Head) N₂', which can take various forms. Intrinsically absolute superlatives, frequently with a pejorative meaning, they can take the form of an emphatic, often exclamatory, partitive structure, with or without premodification of the noun, or a comparative structure. In Austin's opinion¹⁹², there is "a simile or metaphor," underlying many such structures. The demonstrative adjective *that*, and the intensifying particles *what*, *such*, *so* and *too* may help vary the underlying basic pattern:

[What] a **fool** / an **idiot** of [a man] you are!... You're [such] a **darling** of [a boy]!...Who's [that] **mountain** of a [man]? ... [That] **monster** of [a man] hit her... It was *such a hell* of [a time] ('It was such a hellish time')... a **hell** of [an athlete]... an **angel/ peach** of [a girl]... a **dot** of [a child] a **devil** of a [child / sea]... a **fool** of a [doctor]... a **mountain** of [a wave]... a **monster** of [a dog]... a **rascal** of [a fellow]... a **hovel** of [a cottage]... *this fraud* of [an American watch]... a little mothy **rat** of [a man]... the long brown **stalk** of [a wife]... the miserablest **weed** of [a candle] (Austin1980: 363). Note also the following examples from our corpus:

Josie: "I remember when I was [a] **slip** of [a girl]." (ON / MM: 16)

Josie: "You know, and I know, I'm [an ugly overgrown] **lump** of [a woman]." (ON / MM: 16)

Hogan: "May be he'd like [a fine strong handsome] **figure** of [a woman]." (ON / MM: 18)

Hogan: "... but I can't think of anyone crazy enough unless it'd be [some damn] **fool** of [a millionaire]

¹⁸⁹ Apud Otto Jespersen, *Growth and Structure of the English Language*, Tenth edition, The University of Chicago Press, 1982, p. 226

¹⁹⁰ Hortensia Pârlog, *The Sound of Sounds*, Hestia Publishing House, Timișoara, 1995, p. 117

¹⁹¹ Evelien Keizer, *The English Noun Phrase. The Nature of Linguistic Categorization*, CUP, University Publishing Online, 2010.

¹⁹² Cf. Frances O. Austin, " 'A Crescent-Shaped Jewel of an Island'. Appositive Nouns in Phrases Separated by Of". In *English Studies* 61, 1980, pp.357-366.

buying up land to..."(ON / MM: 20f)

Essentially superlative 'Adjective + Noun' phrases by nature, these pre-article English structures can hence be rephrased as *a devil* of [a child] is 'a very naughty child', while *a beauty* of [a girl] is 'a very beautiful girl'. They are rendered into Romanian either by a noun phrase, that is, *un drac de copil/ un drăcușor, o năzbâtie de copil; o mândrețe de fată*, or by deadjectival epithets such as *un împielit, o frumoasă / frumusețe* (en. *a (great) beauty*). Intensifying Romanian structures such as *frumoasă foc / foc de frumoasă* (i.e. 'o frumoasă'), *deștept foc / foc de deștept* (i.e. 'un deștept'), or intensified deadjectival noun combinations such as *neasemuit / nemaipomenit / teribil / extrem de frumoasă* are rendered into English by premodified adjectives: *very/ extremely [beautiful / clever]*.

Some count nouns can be reclassified as mass nouns when they are premodified by non-numerical quantifiers such as *enough of, more of, much of, sufficient of* in a comparative phrasal pattern: *He was enough of / sufficient of [a leader]... She is not much of [a lady]*, as a matter of fact she's *more of [a slanderer than of a lady]*... He was *much of [a vagabond]* (Hulban, 2001: 29).

Quantifier *many* may also occur in a slightly formal pre-article phrasal pattern: 'many + a + (sg) [+Count] N', i.e. *many a somebody / something / person / thing / place*, etc, with an emphatic, intensifying plural meaning, which reads 'a large number of people or things' amounting to a large but indefinite number: *That's happened many a [time] to us. ('many times') ... Many a + (good/great) + writer has travelled this place...* The title of Aldous Huxley's novel *After Many a Summer Dies the Swan* is taken from Tennyson's poem *Tithonus*, about a figure in Greek mythology... *Many a man has fallen in love with Sarah... "Many a man has finally succeeded only because he has failed after repeated efforts. If he had never met defeat he would never have known any great victory"* (Orison Swett Marden, quotes from BrainyQuote. com. *Brainy Quote*, http://www.brainyquote.co/quotes/authors/o/orison_swett_marden.html) "*To many a man, and sometimes to a youth, there comes the opportunity to choose between honorable competence and tainted wealth.* (Orison Swett Marden quotes from BrainyQuote. com. www.brainyquote.com/quotes/quotes/o/orisonswet133071.html)

Note also the plural phrasal structure 'a good many / a great many + pl. N', meaning 'a lot of', 'a large indefinite number of': *There were a good many [people] at the concert... A good many of the students had the flu... They drank a good many beers that night.*

The suffix *-ful* also functions as a marker of intensification. When added to nouns denoting different types of container, it forms quantifying nouns which may acquire some strong intensifying, even hyperbolic meaning ('a lot/large quantities of') under pluralisation: *armfuls of books, basketfuls/cupfuls/handfuls of [cherries], hatfuls, mouthfuls of [cheese], spoonfuls of [medicine /comfort]*.

Irreversible binominals are quite common **invariable collocations** with singular and plural nouns: *bread and butter, fish and chips, ham and eggs, milk and honey; (to wait on someone) hand and foot, (from) head to foot, head and foot, head over heels (in love) knife and fork, needle and thread, pots and pans; hands and knees, (can)not make head nor tail (of something), heads or tails (?), aches and pains, goods and services, hugs and kisses; dollar for dollar, bit by bit, hand in hand, from hand to mouth, from top to toe, by leaps and bounds, from rags to riches; the rich and the poor/the haves and the have-nots, the highs and lows/the ups and downs (of life); at someone's beck and call, through water and fire.*

Standardized or lexical quantitative hendiadys are also used idiomatically: *by leaps and bounds* (ro. 'foarte repede', 'cu pași uriași'), *airs and graces* (ro. 'fandoseală', 'aere'), *babes and sucklings* (ro. 'ageamii', 'novici').

The [+/-Plural] distinction operates in English in a number of cases which gets neutralized in Romanian. Compare: All the gentlemen were wearing *hats*. (ro. Toți domnii purtau *pălărie*)... He went on walking *hands in pockets*. (ro. *cu mâinile în buzunar*)... They have given *their lives* for their country (ro. *Și-au dat viața pentru patrie*) (Dutescu-Coliban 1986: 195)

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SEMINAR on NUMBER

COURSE # 4 IN A NUTSHELL

PLURAL OF NOUNS		
In English, the plural is more often than not realized by adding -S to the singular form of the noun (regular plural):	MAP – MAP <u>S</u> CAT – CAT <u>S</u> BOOK – BOOK <u>S</u> ¹⁹³	CRAB – CRAB <u>S</u> PAD – PAD <u>S</u> LEG – LEG <u>S</u> PEN – PEN <u>S</u> BELL – BELL <u>S</u> CAR – CAR <u>S</u> TREE – TREE <u>S</u> ¹⁹⁴
However, many regular plural nouns display certain peculiarities, as in the following cases: 1. nouns ending in -F sau -FE; in this case the plural termination (usually but not always) turns into -VES (consonant shift; voicing):	CALF – CAL <u>VES</u> ELF – EL <u>VES</u> HALF – HAL <u>VES</u> KNIFE – KNIV <u>ES</u> LEAF – LEAV <u>ES</u> LIFE – LIV <u>ES</u> ¹⁹⁵ LOAF – LOAV <u>ES</u> SELF – SEL <u>VES</u> SHELF – SHEL <u>VES</u> THIEF – THIEV <u>ES</u> WOLF – WOLV <u>ES</u> WIFE – WIV <u>ES</u>	DWARF – DWAR <u>VES</u> (also DWAR <u>FS</u>) HOOF – HOOV <u>ES</u> (also HOO <u>FS</u>) SCARF – SCARV <u>ES</u> (also SCAR <u>FS</u>)
		ROOF – ROOF <u>S</u> BELIEF – BELIEF <u>S</u> CHIEF – CHIEF <u>S</u> CLIFF – CLIFF <u>S</u> CUFF – CUFF <u>S</u> PROOF – PROOF <u>S</u> SAFE – SAF <u>ES</u> SHERIFF – SHERIFF <u>S</u>
2. nouns ending in -O: a) when [O] is preceded by a consonant, the nouns will end in -ES when in the plural b) when [O] is preceded by a vowel, the nouns will end in -S when in the plural The same {-S} is applied to rare words or words imported (relatively) recently from other languages (mostly Italian) or abbreviated words : they get an -S for plural even if they end in <i>consonant + -O</i> :	ECHO – ECHO <u>ES</u> HERO – HERO <u>ES</u> NEGRO – NEGRO <u>ES</u> POTATO – POTATO <u>ES</u> TOMATO – TOMATO <u>ES</u>	EMBRYO – EMBRYO <u>S</u> KANGAROO – KANGAROO <u>S</u> RADIO – RADIO <u>S</u> TATTOO – TATTOO <u>S</u>
	CASINO – CASINO <u>S</u> GHETTO – GHETTO <u>S</u> PIANO – PIANO <u>S</u> SOPRANO – SOPRANO <u>S</u> STUDIO – STUDIO <u>S</u>	AUTO – AUTO <u>S</u> KILO – KILO <u>S</u> MEMO – MEMO <u>S</u> PHOTO – PHOTO <u>S</u> SOLO – SOLO <u>S</u> VIDEO – VIDEO <u>S</u> ZOO – ZOO <u>S</u>
	ARCHIPELAGO – ARCHIPELAGO <u>ES</u> (also ARCHIPELAGO <u>S</u>)	

¹⁹³ The {-s} plural morpheme is to be pronounced [S] after **voiceless consonants** (like P, T, K etc.), as in MAPS [mæps], CATS [kæts] or BOOKS [buks]. By the same token, **nouns ending in -TH** will end in -S (pronounced [S]) when in the plural, as the sound [θ] is also voiceless (e.g. BATH – BATHS; MOUTH – MOUTHS; PATH – PATHS).

¹⁹⁴ The {-s} plural morpheme is to be pronounced [Z] after **voiced consonants** (like B, D, G etc.), as in CRABS [kræbz], PADS [pædz], LEGS [legz], after **nasals**, as in PENS [penz], after **liquids**, as in BELLS [belz], after **consonant [R]**, as in CARS [ka:z], as well as after **vowels**, as in TREES [tri:z].

¹⁹⁵ But: STILL-LIFE – STILL-LIFES.

	BRAVO – BRAVO <u>ES</u> (also BRAVO <u>S</u>) BUFFALO – BUFFALO <u>ES</u> (also BUFFALO <u>S</u>) CARGO – CARGO <u>ES</u> (also CARGO <u>S</u>) DOMINO – DOMINO <u>ES</u> (also DOMINO <u>S</u>) FRESCO – FRESCO <u>ES</u> (also FRESCO <u>S</u>) GROTT – GROTT <u>ES</u> (also GROTT <u>S</u>) HALO – HALO <u>ES</u> (also HALO <u>S</u>) MANIFESTO – MANIFESTO <u>ES</u> (also MANIFESTO <u>S</u>) MEMENTO – MEMENTO <u>ES</u> (also MEMENTO <u>S</u>) MOSQUITO – MOSQUITO <u>ES</u> (also MOSQUITO <u>S</u>) MOTTO – MOTTO <u>ES</u> (also MOTTO <u>S</u>) TORNADO – TORNADO <u>ES</u> (also TORNADO <u>S</u>) VOLCANO – VOLCANO <u>ES</u> (also VOLCANO <u>S</u>) ZERO – ZERO <u>ES</u> (also ZERO <u>S</u>)	
3. nouns ending in –(T)CH, –S(S), –SH, –X, or –Z(Z) add linking –E before –S:	WATCH – WATCH <u>ES</u> BUS – BUS <u>ES</u> CLASS – CLASS <u>ES</u> BRUSH – BRUSH <u>ES</u> BOX – BOX <u>ES</u> BUZZ – BUZZ <u>ES</u>	
4. nouns ending in Y: a) if preceded by a consonant, Y turns into I and –ES is added for plural b) if preceded by a vowel, Y gets a simple –S for plural EXCEPTIONS: a) proper nouns ending in –Y b) words of Latin origin like COLLOQUY or SOLILOQUY	BABY – BABI <u>ES</u> CANDY – CANDI <u>ES</u> COUNTRY – COUNTRI <u>ES</u> FACTORY – FACTORI <u>ES</u> PASTRY – PASTRI <u>ES</u>	BOY – BOY <u>S</u> DAY – DAY <u>S</u> KEY – KEY <u>S</u> PLAY – PLAY <u>S</u> WAY – WAY <u>S</u>
	THE KENNEDY <u>S</u>	COLLOQUY – COLLOQUI <u>ES</u> SOLILOQUY – SOLILOQUI <u>ES</u>
5. irregular (Anglo-Saxon) plurals:	MAN – MEN WOMAN – WOMEN CHILD – CHILDREN OX – OXEN (-EN plurals)	TOOTH – TEETH FOOT – FEET GOOSE ¹⁹⁶ – GEESE (mutation)
		MOUSE – MICE LOUSE – LICE
6. foreign (Latin, Greek, French) plurals: a) us > a; a > ae; um > a; b) us > a (GENU <u>S</u> – GENERA <u>A</u> ; CORPU <u>S</u> – CORPORA <u>A</u>) c) ix, ex > ixes, ices (APPENDI <u>X</u> – APPENDIX <u>ES</u> / APPENDI <u>CES</u> ; INDEX – INDEX <u>ES</u> / INDICI <u>ES</u>) d) eau, ieu > eaux, ieux (TABLEAU – TABLEAU <u>X</u> ; ADIEU – ADIEU <u>X</u>)	CACTU <u>S</u> – CACTI (also CACTU <u>SES</u>) FUNGU <u>S</u> – FUNGI STIMULU <u>S</u> – STIMULI	Latin masc.
	ALGA – ALGAE ANTENNA – ANTENNAE FORMULA – FORMULAE	Latin fem.
	BACTERIU <u>M</u> – BACTERIA DATU <u>M</u> – DATA MEDIU <u>M</u> – MEDIA	Latin neuter
	ANALY <u>SI</u> S – ANALY <u>SE</u> S	THESI <u>S</u> – THESE <u>S</u>

¹⁹⁶ But: Mother **Gooses**; You, silly **gooses** / **louses**!

	BAS <u>I</u> S – BASE <u>S</u> OAS <u>I</u> S – OASE <u>S</u> CRIS <u>I</u> S – CRISE <u>S</u> EMPHAS <u>I</u> S – EMPHAS <u>E</u> S	(also: SYNTHESIS, ANTITHESIS, PARENTHESIS, HYPOTHESIS)
	CRITERI <u>O</u> N – CRITERIA PHENOMEN <u>O</u> N – PHENOMENA TAX <u>O</u> N – TAXA	
7. <u>nouns with the same form for both singular and plural</u> (zero plural):	TROUT – TROUT SALMON – SALMON DEER – DEER SHEEP – SHEEP	SERIES – SERIES SPECIES – SPECIES

PLURAL OF COMPOUND NOUNS	
❑ When both components of a compound are nouns, the plural suffix is added to the second: <i>e.g:</i> CLASSROOM – CLASSROOMS HORSE RACE – HORSE RACES FELLOW-TRAVELLER – FELLOW-TRAVELLERS However: - When only one of the components is a noun, or in compound nouns formed with verb + <i>er</i> and an adverb, the noun component takes the plural suffix: <i>e.g:</i> LOOKER-ON – LOOKERS-ON PASSER-BY – PASSERS-BY - In words with a noun and a prepositional phrase the headword takes the plural suffix: <i>e.g:</i> MOTHER-IN-LAW – MOTHERS-IN-LAW EDITOR-IN-CHIEF – EDITORS-IN-CHIEF COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF – COMMANDERS-IN-CHIEF MAN-OF-WAR – MEN-OF-WAR COAT-OF-ARMS – COATS-OF-ARMS - When the first component is either MAN- or WOMAN-, both are made plural: <i>e.g:</i> MAN SINGER – MEN SINGERS WOMAN DOCTOR – WOMEN DOCTORS - When the compound does not contain any noun, the plural is formed by adding S- to the last word: <i>e.g:</i> FORGET-ME-NOT – FORGET-ME-NOTS GROWN-UP – GROWN-UPS MERRY-GO-ROUND – MERRY-GO-ROUNDS GOOD-FOR-NOTHING – GOOD-FOR-NOTHINGS - When the first element is a genitive, some uncertainty prevails as to the plural of the genitive: <i>e.g:</i> DEBTOR'S / DEBTORS' PRISON; MAN'S / MEN'S CLUB, but: BIRD'S EYE VIEW - Words in -FUL usually make their plural in the ordinary way: <i>e.g.</i> ARMFULS, HANDFULS, SPOONFULS. - Figures, letters, signs and words that are not normally pluralized may also assume the plural suffix, generally with an apostrophe: <i>e.g:</i> in the 1970's / 1970s; dot your i's and cross your t's; all these if's; the three X's; all your but's. - The plural of abbreviations is sometimes marked by doubling a letter: <i>e.g:</i> p. (page) – pp. (pages); MS. (manuscript) – MSS. (manuscripts) or by putting an s after the full stop: <i>e.g:</i> M.P. (Member of Parliament) – M.P.s. / MP's (Members of Parliament)	

Co. (Company) – Co.s (Companies)

- The plural of titles:
e.g.: Mr. (Mister / Monsieur) – Messrs. (Messieurs)
 Miss – Misses
 Madam – Mesdames

PRACTICE Give the plural of the following nouns:

analysis, appendix, belief, box, casino, child, cliff, curriculum, dairy, deer, dwarf, echo, fish, foot, forget-me-not, goose, half, hero, house, index, industry, kangaroo, kilo, laboratory, larva, ladybird, leaf, louse, memo, memorandum, monkey, mouse, nucleus, oasis, offspring, ox, phenomenon, photo, piano, potato, roof, salmon, sanatorium, self, series, sheep, shrimp, sister-in-law, species, spruce, stimulus, story, swine, synthesis, thief, tooth, tornado, tree, trout, vertebra, wife, wolf, woman, zero, zoo.

Noun - Verb Agreement

noun + verb in the sg.

noun + verb in the pl.

noun + verb in the sg. / pl.

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☒ **Verb in the singular**

Singularia Tantum Nouns:

- **news**: ⇒ No *news* is good news.
- **information**: ⇒ Unfortunately, he was unable to provide much information.
- **politics**: ⇒ Politics is talk.
- **gymnastics**: ⇒ Gymnastics is one of the few fields in which the Romanians outshine many others.
 (BUT: The gymnastics are being held in the open.)
- **measles**: ⇒ Measles is an infectious disease common in children.
- **mumps**: ⇒ Mumps usually affects the neck.

☐ Some nouns are uncountable but can become countable under special circumstances (with different meanings for the plural form, however). *e.g.* →

☐ AIR → AIRS

⇒ <i>His speech was really like a breath of fresh air.</i> ⇒ <i>Don't put on airs with me.</i>
□ BEAUTY → BEAUTIES ⇒ <i>Beauty lies in the eye of the beholder.</i> ⇒ <i>A thing of beauty is a joy for ever.</i> ⇒ <i>Your sister looks like she'll grow up to be a beauty.</i>
□ CHEESE → CHEESES¹⁹⁷ ⇒ <i>Really now, you know I can't stand cheese.</i> ⇒ <i>French cheeses are really appreciated around here.</i> * the same with WINES
□ COFFEE → COFFEES ⇒ <i>They consider coffee a drug.</i> ⇒ <i>Two coffees (cups of coffee), please!</i>
□ DAMAGE → DAMAGES ⇒ <i>The damage is done. There's nothing you can do about it.</i> ⇒ <i>They got two million dollars in damages.</i>
See also the following cases:
□ EFFECT → EFFECTS ⇒ <i>If he wants to impress people at the party, I'm afraid his outfit will be of little or no effect.</i> ⇒ <i>His personal effects were taken by the widow.</i>
□ EXPERIENCE → EXPERIENCES ⇒ <i>Applicants for the job should have experience of working with computers.</i> ⇒ <i>This is an experience I won't forget for as long as I live.</i>
□ FORCE → FORCES ⇒ <i>I didn't mean to hurt you, it was through force of habit.</i> ⇒ <i>the Forces = (BE) the army / navy / air forces of a country</i>
□ GOOD → GOODS ⇒ <i>Going to AA would be for your own good.</i> ⇒ <i>He's trying to get rid of those stolen goods.</i>
□ HAIR → HAIRS ⇒ <i>Most men's ideal of beauty is a woman with long, fair hair.</i> ⇒ <i>If I hate grandma's cat is because it leaves hairs all over the sofa.</i>
□ OAK → OAKS ⇒ <i>In the centre there was an old table made of oak.</i> ⇒ <i>The oaks, pines and hemlocks sighed as they moved their branches.</i>
□ PAIN → PAINS ⇒ <i>to be in pain; to relieve / ease the pain</i> ⇒ <i>No gains without pains.</i>

¹⁹⁷ Mass nouns (*singularia tantum*) which can be shifted from one class (noncount) to another (count) are called nouns with **dual class membership** (e.g. *cheese(s), water(s), wine(s), coffee(s)* etc.).

<i>I'm at pains to explain what really happened.</i>
☐ WATER → WATERS ⇒ <i>They prefer soda to mineral water.</i> ⇒ <i>Still waters run deep.</i>
☐ WOOD → WOODS ⇒ <i>There was no wood left by the stove.</i> ⇒ <i>'Stopping by Woods on a Snowy Evening' is a famous poem written by Robert Frost.</i>
☐ WORK → WORKS ⇒ <i>If he's not at home, then he must be at work.</i> <i>Looking after children can be hard work, you know.</i> ⇒ <i>the works = the factory</i>

☐ Other nouns are countable but with plurisemantic plural forms. e.g. →
☐ COLOUR → COLOURS ⇒ <i>What kind of colour is crimson?</i> ⇒ <i>Australia's national colours</i> <i>to call to the colours = a chema sub drapel</i>
☐ COMPASS → COMPASSES ⇒ <i>A magnetic compass and a map are invaluable assets to a sailor.</i> ⇒ <i>Where are the compasses?</i>
☐ CUSTOM → CUSTOMS ⇒ <i>He might be able to offer further information on local custom.</i> ⇒ <i>Immigrants are usually stopped at customs and questioned.</i>
☐ GLASS → GLASSES ⇒ <i>People who live in glass houses shouldn't throw stones.</i> ⇒ <i>A: 'My grandfather lived to be ninety and never used glasses.'</i> <i>B: 'Well, lots of people prefer to drink from the bottle.'</i>
☐ LOOK → LOOKS ⇒ <i>Why don't we have a look around the village after lunch?</i> ⇒ <i>She got her good looks from her mother.</i>
☐ MANNER → MANNERS ⇒ <i>By his manner of speaking, one could tell he was a Southerner.</i> ⇒ <i>It's about time one taught you the good manners.</i>
☐ QUARTER → QUARTERS ⇒ <i>It's a quarter past ten. He must be in front of the cathedral.</i> ⇒ <i>At half past seven I'll pass by the servants' quarters.</i>
☐ SPECTACLE → SPECTACLES ⇒ <i>You should wear your spectacles to enjoy better this exciting spectacle.</i>

☒ **Verb in the plural**

Pluralia Tantum Nouns:

- **ashes:** oseminte, rămașițe pământești, ruine;
- **means:** means of transport; a means to an end; by means of; by all means; by no means
- **oats:** fields of oats; horses eat oats.
- **odds:** the odds are in favour of / against smth. / smbd.

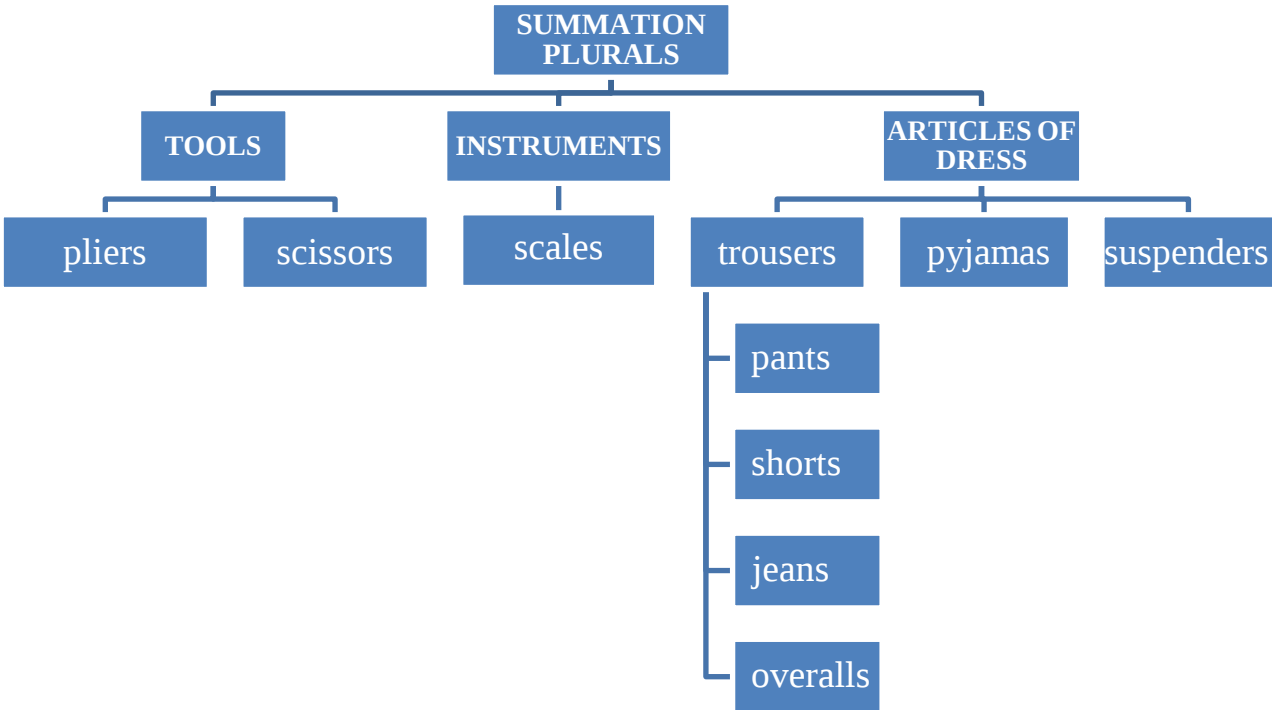
*The **odds** are that it will rain tomorrow.*

- **outskirts:** on the outskirts of the town

- **remains:** *They left the **remains** of the supper on the table.*

*His **remains** are buried in Westminster.*

Summation Plural Nouns:



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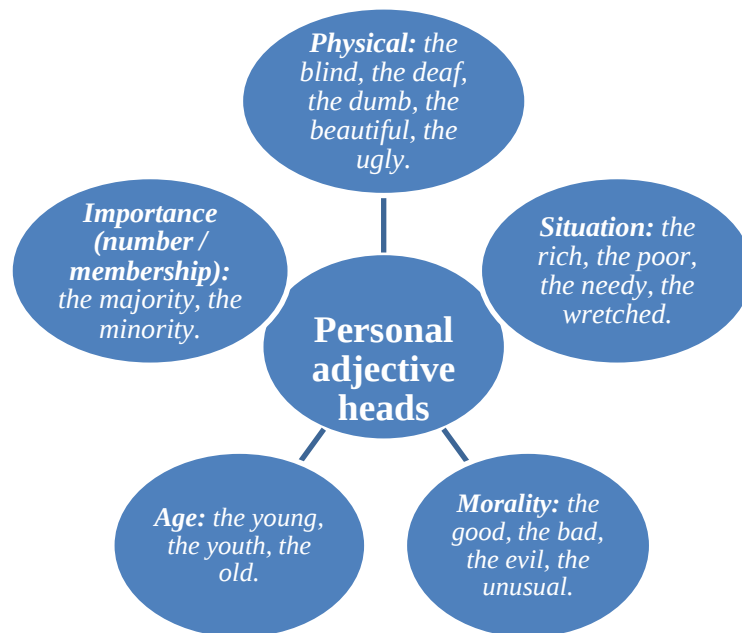
If premodified, *summation plural* nouns can take a verb in the singular too:
*e.g. Where **are** the binoculars / tongs? / Where **are** / **is** the new binoculars / tongs?*

☐ Collective nouns are singular in form but have a plural meaning. The agreement with the verb depends on the contextual meaning. <i>e.g.</i> →	
☐ the clergy = clerul	☐ the infantry = infanteria
☐ family	⇒ <i>My family has / have always been close.</i>
☐ poultry : <i>The poultry have been fed.</i>	☐ public : <i>Give the public what they want / it wants.</i>
☐ cattle : cattle rancher; 20/10 head of cattle	
☐ people : one person – many people ; one people – many peoples	

□ **police:** *The **police** were severely injured during the rioting.*

□ **vermin:** *Beggars are considered **vermin** by some people.
To a farmer, foxes are **vermin** because they cause damage.*

□ **Personal adjective heads** are substantivized adjectives which, just like collective nouns, are singular in form but refer to a group (of people).



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- Some nouns can be quantified by means of **general partitive phrases**. The most frequent: A PIECE OF (news, advice, information), AN ITEM OF (furniture), A BIT OF.
- Other quantifiers (partitive phrases):

B ● a bag of time (o groază de timp / timp berechet) ⊕ a ball of wool (un ghem de lână) ● a bar of chocolate (o tabletă de ciocolată) ⊕ a barrel of wine / beer (un butoi cu vin) ● a basket of fruit (un coș cu fructe) ⊕ a blade of grass (un fir de iarbă) ● a bottle of milk (o sticlă de lapte) ⊕ a bowl of soup (un castron cu supă) ● a box of chocolates (o cutie cu bomboane de ciocolată) ⊕ a box of matches (o cutie de chibrituri) ● a breath of air (o pală / gură de aer) ⊕ a bunch of keys (o legătură de chei) ● a bunch / bouquet of flowers (un buchet de flori)	C ● a can of beer / fish (o cutie de bere / o conservă de pește) ⊕ a cloud of dust (un nor de praf) ● a clump of trees (un pâl de copaci) ⊕ a collection of coins / stamps (o colecție de monede / timbre) ● a colony of ants (o colonie de furnici) ⊕ a crew of sailors / pilots (un echipaj: marinari, piloți etc.) ● a crop of fruit / apples / grapes (recoltă de fructe / mere / struguri etc.) ⊕ a crowd / mass / multitude of people (o mulțime de oameni) ● a crumb of bread (o firimitură de pâine) ⊕ a cup of coffee (o ceașcă de cafea)
D ● a drop of water / rain (un strop de apă / ploaie)	F ● a flock of sheep / birds (o turmă de oi / un stol de păsări)

G ● a gaggle of geese (un cârd de găște) ⊕ a grain of rice (un bob de orez) ● a group of friends (un grup de prieteni)	H ● a head of cabbage / lettuce (o căpățână de varză / salată) ⊕ a herd of cattle (o cireadă de vaci) ● a host of daffodils (un câmp / o grămadă / spuzenie de narcise)
J ● a jar of jam (un borcan de gem)	L ● a loaf of bread (o franzelă) ⊕ a lock of hair (o şuviță de păr) ● a lump of sugar (un bulgăre de zahăr)
N ● a nest of wasps (un cuib de viespi)	P ● a pack of cards (un pachet de cărți) ⊕ a pack of wolves (o haită de lupi) ● a pint of beer (pint = 0.57 l (GB) / 0.473 l (USA)) ⊕ a pot of milk (o oală cu lapte)
S ● a series of incidents (o serie de incidente) ⊕ a set of cutlery (un set de tacâmuri) ● a slice of cake / lemon (o felie de tort / lămâie) ⊕ a string of pearls / beads / islands (un șirag de perle / mărgelă; un șir de insule) ● a stud of horses (o herghelie de cai) ⊕ a suit of clothes (un costum de haine) ● a swarm of insects (un roi de insecte)	T ● a team of researchers (o echipă de cercetători) ⊕ a tube of toothpaste (un tub de pastă de dinți)
W ● a wink of sleep (un pui de somn) ⊕ a word of abuse (o insultă)	

<i>The English Lesson</i>	
We'll begin with box, and the plural is boxes, But the plural of ox should be oxen, not oxes. Then one fowl is goose, but two are called geese, Yet the plural of moose should never be meese. You may find a lone mouse or a whole lot of mice, But the plural of house is houses, not hice. If the plural of man is always called men, Why shouldn't the plural of pan be pen? The cow in the plural may be cows or kine, But the plural of vow is vows, not vine. And I speak of a foot, and you show me your feet, But I give a boot... would a pair be beet?	If one is a tooth, and a whole set is teeth, Why shouldn't the plural of booth be beeth? If the singular is this, and the plural is these, Why shouldn't the plural of kiss be kese? Then one may be that, and three be those, Yet the plural of hat would never be hose. We speak of a brother, and also of brethren, But though we say mother, we never say methren. The masculine pronouns are he, his and him, But imagine the feminine she, shis, and shim. So our English, I think you will agree, Is the trickiest language you ever did see.

PRACTICE Turn the following sentences into plural.

a) Where is the knife?

b) There's no child in their family.

c) _____ Who's _____ that _____ person?

PRACTICE. Write the plural of the following nouns and give their phonetic transcription:

member	members	['membəz]
apple		
bacterium		
bed		
book		
fungus		
glove		
letter		
month		
mother-in-law		
retina		
thesis		

PRACTICE. Write the following nouns in the plural in the corresponding columns:

alga, analysis, antithesis, appendix, automaton, bacterium, basis, cactus, crisis, criterion, curriculum, diagnosis, formula, fungus, larva, medium, nucleus, oasis, phenomenon, stimulus, vertebra

us → i [ai]	a → ae [i:]	um → a [ə]	ex, ix → ices [i:z]	is → es [i:z]	on → a [ə]

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PRACTICE. Fill in the boxes with either C (COUNTABLE) or U (UNCOUNTABLE):

- * I simply can't live without **chocolate**! ☐
- * Taking part in this contest proved to be a wonderful **experience**. ☐
- * The **information** you gave me is wrong. ☐
- * The **luggage** is too heavy for me to lift. ☐
- * He's supposed to take the **rubbish** out. ☐
- * Will you put more **wood** on the fire? ☐

PRACTICE. Explain the difference between:

ash	ashes	minute	minutes
brother	brothers / brethren	pain	pains
colour	colours	part	parts
content	contents	penny	pennies / pence
custom	customs	respect	respects
damage	damages	sand	sands
direction	directions	spectacle	spectacles

effect	effects	spirit	spirits
fury	Furies	sport	sports
glass	glasses	staff	staves
ground	grounds	sweeping	sweepings
honour	honours	weeping	weepings
manner	manners	writing	writings

PRACTICE Match the nouns with the appropriate quantifier:

a breath of	banknotes
a clump of	bacon
a crumb of	bees
a cube of	bread
a dollop / jar of	celery
a drop of	cheese
a flock of	dust
a hunk of	jam
a pinch of	juice
a rasher of	lemon
a roll of	pearls
a speck of	salt
a squeeze of	sheep
a stick of	sugar
a string of	toilet paper
a swarm of	trees
a wad of	air

PRACTICE Fill in with the appropriate nouns:

☒ A box of ☒ A bunch of ☒ A bundle of ☒ A pack of ☒ A packet of ☒ A pile of ☒ A sack of	amateurs, bananas, books, cards, cement, cereal, chocolates, cigarettes, coal, crisps, xdogs, firewood, grapes, laundry, laundry, matches, nerves, potatoes, rogues, sticks, wood, wolves
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PRACTICE. Provide creative partitives as in:

"A dish of polemics stood peacefully upon the dresser. Here lay an ovenful of the latest ethics – there a kettle of duodecimo *mélanges*." (E. A. Poe, *Bon-Bon*)

PRACTICE. Make up sentences with the following:

• a crumb of - a crust of - a loaf of - a morsel of - a piece of - a slice of BREAD	• a ball of - a cut of - a joint of - a loaf of - a roast of - a slice of - a stone of MEAT	• a grain of – COMFORT - CORN - HUMOUR - LOGIC - PEPPER - RICE - SAND - TRUTH
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PRACTICE. Complete the following table:

	cards	chocolate	cigarettes	cloth	flats	information	lies	snow	soap	truth	wolves	wool
a ball of												
a bar of												
a block of					X							
a brand of												
a grain of												
a pack of												
a piece of												
a strand of												

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PRACTICE.	an armful of	coffee
Match:	a bucketful of	flowers / hay
	two cupfuls of	flowers / people / occasions
	a glassful of	people / furniture
	a handful of	soup
	a plateful of	sand / water / bricks
	a roomful of	milk
	a spoonful of	sugar / salt

PRACTICE. Translate into English:

* un fir de – bumbac - iarbă - lână - nisip - pâr - praf	* o gură de – aer curat / proaspăt - cremă	* un pui de - leu - somn
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PRACTICE. Choose the right form of the verb:

1. The athletics (was / were) held in Japan last week.
2. The cattle (was / were) kept in the open.
3. The new shears (is / are) blunt.
4. The army headquarters (has / have been) moved away.
5. Mumps (is / are) less dangerous than measles.
6. His politics (has / have) never been known to us.
7. Cod (eats / eat) a great variety of food.
8. Nearly all the class (has / have) got good marks / grades.
9. The class (was / were) taken up by a new teacher.
10. The public (is / are) requested to keep off the grass.

PRACTICE. Classify the following nouns according to the groups they fall into:

analysis, Athens, axis, barracks, brother, Brussels, cattle, crossroads, the Danube, elk, flour, fireworks, furniture, gold, gymnastics, the Highlands, knife, linguistics, lorry, man-of-war, mouse, music, news, overalls, ox, phenomenon, police, the rich, savings, scissors, series, sheep, shorts, species, stigma, swine, Tom, tongs, tooth, trousers, wife.

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Mass nouns	
Proper nouns	
Invariable proper nouns ending in –s	
Singularia tantum	
Pluralia tantum	
Summation plurals	
Collective nouns	
Substantivized adjectives	
Nouns with foreign plurals	
Regular plurals	
Irregular plurals	
Unchanged / zero plurals	
Equivocal plurals	

PRACTICE. Use *is, are, has, have, much, many* in the blanks [Budai, 224/275]:

1. The deer their usual pasture.
2. The cattle grazing in the field.
3. All the wounded been evacuated.

4. The poultry in the yard.
5. Only the old folk been left.
6. The clergy opposed to the plan.
7. The English a Germanic people.
8. The public no fools.
9. My family early risers.
10. Oxford won the race this year.
11. His family small.
12. Joe's trousers very dirty.
13. Where my pyjamas?
14. The scissors blunt.
15. My spectacles broken.
16. It only a means to an end.
17. Phonetics the science of sounds.
18. Mathematics well taught in Romania.
19. What the acoustics of this hall like?
20. His phonetics excellent.
21. Her mathematics poor.
22. Did he give you good advice?
23. What the news?
24. Does he eat bread?
25. Have you received valuable information?
26. Have you work to do?
27. It a most interesting item of information.
28. My clothes wet.
29. What the stairs made of?
30. Oats grown in Scotland.
31. Mathematics her weakest point.
32. Politics always interested me.

PRACTICE. Turn into English:

✕ fier; fiare de călcat; ✕ dantelă; șireturi de la pantofi; ✕ cauciuc; galoși; ✕ a arunca zarurile; ✕ oaze; ✕ odrasle; ✕ păsări de curte; ✕ o stivă de lemne; ✕ o bandă de hoți; ✕ un banc de pești;	✕ un lanț de munți; ✕ un șir de trepte; ✕ un ciorchine de struguri; ✕ o flotă de vase; ✕ trecătorii; ✕ adulții; ✕ în anii '60; ✕ surdo-muții; ✕ trei viței; ✕ trei spiriduși.
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PRACTICE. Translate into English:

1. În acest restaurant nu se servesc varietăți de vin de cea mai bună calitate.
2. Toate informațiile au fost transmise prin fax.
3. Informațiile acestea trebuie verificate imediat.
4. Aceste informații nu sunt corecte și asta dovedește că nu ai cunoștințe suficiente despre caz.
5. Au mâncat rață și vânat.
6. Carnea de vită este mai scumpă decât cea de porc și de pui / pasăre.
7. Am cumpărat trei duzini de ouă.
8. Cenușa i-a fost împrăștiată pe pajiște.
9. I-am dat câteva sfaturi despre cum să-și redecoreze casa dar ea nu le-a acceptat.
10. Barăcile au fost reparate și văruiate.
11. Aruncă zațul și mai fă-ne două cafele.
12. Afacerile sunt afaceri.
13. Câte cafele ai comandat?
14. În zilele noastre, copiii au prea multe teme acasă.
15. Am două vești pentru tine: una bună și una rea.
16. O busolă nu e la fel de bună ca un compas, dar e mai bună decât nimic.
17. Câte specii de brad cresc prin părțile astea?
18. M-a întrebat unde sunt bagajele mele.
19. În afară de un pâlț de copaci, la periferia orașului nu era pic de vegetație.
20. Bărbatul voia despăgubiri.
21. Banii nu sunt importanți.
22. Informațiile sunt vitale.
23. Sfaturile tale sunt întotdeauna binevenite.
24. Ai multe teme de făcut?
25. Temele acasă sunt foarte dificile.

Course # 7 Headword (II). Noun Gender

Motto: "Another consequence of social condition is that two words are required for *host* and *hostess*, but only one for *guest*." [Jespersen, *Essentials*, 2006: 149]

- **The Category of Gender: Grammatical vs. Natural**
- **Gender Distinctions in English**
- **Gender Classes** (Nouns Morphologically (Un)Marked for Gender. Common / Dual Gender)
- **Referential Gender: Personal vs. Non-Personal Pronoun Reference**
- **Gender and Personification**

Ciobanu, Carmen, *Gender in English*, in Gina Măciucă (ed.), *Lexico-Morphological Idiosyncrasies of Romanian as Compared with European Romance and Germanic Languages. Similarities and Contrasts (II): The Noun / Identitatea lexicală și morfologică a limbii române în contextul multilingvistic european. Consonanțe și disonanțe (II): Substantivul*, Ștefan cel Mare University Press, Suceava, 2012, pp. 253-300

II. GENDER IN ENGLISH

Gender is a basic grammatical category which generally marks nouns, adjectives and pronouns, revealing mainly two types of contrasts: **masculine - feminine - neuter** and **animate - inanimate**.¹⁹⁸

II. 1. The Category of Gender

Approaches to this category have "generally focused on the need to distinguish **natural gender**, where items refer to the sex of real-world entities, and **grammatical gender**, which has nothing to do with sex,¹⁹⁹ but which has an important role in signalling grammatical relationships between words in a sentence". (Crystal 1992: 149).

Linguists make the difference between **grammatical / syntactic gender**, which operates with **masculine, feminine** and **neuter words / lexemes** and **natural / notional sex**, which operates with **male** and **female beings**, on the one side, and **sexless things**, on the other.²⁰⁰ According to Otto Jespersen, **gender** refers to "any *grammatical* class-division presenting some analogy to the distinction in the Aryan languages between masculine, feminine, and neuter, whether the division be based on the natural division into the two sexes, or on that between animate and inanimate, or on something else. While a great many, probably the vast majority of languages, have no gender in this sense, there are some languages which divide nouns into gender classes."²⁰¹ (Jespersen 1951: 226)

¹⁹⁸ Cf. David Crystal, *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*, Third edition, Blackwell Publishers, Oxford, 1992, pp.149-150.

¹⁹⁹ "The degree of correspondence between the classification of nouns by grammatical gender and a classification of the persons and objects denoted by them according to the relevant 'natural' properties will vary considerably from language to language." (John Lyons, *Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics*, CUP, 1979, p. 284).

²⁰⁰ Jespersen considers that the "rivalry between the notional idea of sex and grammatical gender..." is one the most typical examples of "grammatical conflicts" (Otto Jespersen, *The Philosophy of Grammar*, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., 1951, p. 338). Therefore, it is better to keep sex and gender apart than to speak of **natural / notional** and **grammatical / syntactic** gender. (cf. *idem*: pp 55-56) .

²⁰¹ The term **gender** derives from the Latin **genus**, which means 'class' or 'kind'.

Grammatical gender is a very old inflectional category which initially reflected correspondence with natural gender or the notional category of **sex**. However, in most gender-marked modern languages, such as French, German, Italian, Romanian, Russian etc., in spite of the fact that there is some natural, semantic basis for gender categorization, natural gender and grammatical gender may fail to correspond, mainly with nouns that denote inanimates, but are either masculine or feminine. This proves that grammatical gender is “logically independent of any particular semantic association that might be established between the gender of a noun and the physical properties” of the entity it denotes.²⁰²

The distinctions between **animate / living** and **inanimate / lifeless**, that is [+/-Animate], **human** and **non-human**, that is [+/-Human], or **personal** and **non-personal**, that is [+/-Person], pervade the grammars of many languages, either in close connection with natural gender, or independent of it. (cf. *idem*: 234)

II. 2. Gender Distinctions in English

Grammatical gender is not a feature of present-day English, where gender contrasts are, on the whole, natural. There is no gender-adjectival concord in English and “the reference of the three personal pronouns is very largely determined by what is sometimes referred to as ‘natural’ gender...”: (Lyons 1979: 283) Therefore, the largest number of gender distinctions in English is displayed by the paradigm of the third-person singular pronoun (*he, she, it*). The three personal pronouns are marked as **masculine**, **feminine** and **neuter** terms in the gender system, satisfying “the general definitions of the three gender categories in that they characteristically refer to males, females and inanimates respectively.”²⁰³ Nevertheless, the correlation between form and meaning is not always perfect, as *he* may be used for “a non-specific member of a set including both males and females, as in *If any student wishes to take part in the seminar, he should consult his tutor*” (Huddleston 1995: 98), even if, in everyday speech, many speakers would use the informal *they*, which avoids the ‘sexist’ bias in *he*.

The gender of Old English nouns was indicated by their modifying adjectives and their determining demonstrative pronouns rather than by their own endings. Weakening and, finally, loss of inflections in everyday speech went on together with loss of gender. This made some linguists argue that “English has ... been fortunate in shedding grammatical gender”, as it “has surely gained everything and lost nothing by casting off this useless burden which all the other ... languages of Europe still bear to their great disadvantage.”²⁰⁴ Yet, “[a]mong the things that English lost in the general sloughing-off of inessential grammatical machinery... grammatical gender is one of the more conspicuous and the more troublesome.” (Conner 1968: 41) Therefore, present day English has “no vestige” of agreeing nominal and adjectival inflectional forms. (cf. *ibid*). Nevertheless, all in all, English seems to have “gained in clearness and simplicity by giving up these distinctions and applying *he* only to male, and *she* only to female living beings. The distinction between animate and inanimate now is much more accentuated than it used to be, and this has led to some other changes, of which the two most important are the creation (about 1600) of the form *its* (before that time *his* was neuter as well as masculine) and the restriction of the relative pronoun *which* to things: its old use alike for persons and things is seen in ‘Our father *which* art in Heaven’.”²⁰⁵

In Old English, like in Modern German, all nouns were placed into one of the three gender classes which were not primarily associated with sex. For example, *foot* (**ger. der Fuss**) was **masculine**, *hand* (**ger. die Hand**), **feminine**, and *eye* (**ger. das Auge**), **neuter**. Three Old English nouns which all meant ‘woman’, belonged to

²⁰² In most Indo-European languages, grammatical gender illustrates the opposition “male-female-neither ...”, ignoring the fact that some nouns in the ‘male’ set are names of things that are neither male nor female.” (Jack E., Conner, *A Grammar of Standard English*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1968, p. 40)

²⁰³ Rodney Huddleston, *English Grammar: an outline*, CUP, 1995, p. 98.

²⁰⁴ Simeon Potter, *Our Language*, Penguin Books, 1976, pp. 24-25.

²⁰⁵ Otto Jespersen, *Growth and Structure of the English Language*, University of Chicago Press, 1982, p. 180.

different genders: *woman* (masculine), *quean* (feminine), and *wife* (neuter). *Sun* was feminine and *moon*, masculine. The noun *day* was masculine whereas *night*, *sorrow* and *glove* were feminine, though they had nothing to do with male or female sex. *Wheat* was masculine, *oats* feminine, *corn* neuter, and so were *horse*, *sheep*, and *maiden*. (Cf. Potter 1976, pp. 24-25)

II.2.1. Gender classes

In most languages, gender is generally a defining, **overt** category of nouns, their determiners, modifiers and pronouns, unlike in English, where gender distinction is usually **covert**. Moreover, “the opposition masculine-feminine in the noun is realized in some instances only and mainly by lexical means”²⁰⁶. Therefore, some linguists argue that there is not a grammatical category of gender proper in English.

Nevertheless, most grammarians refer to three genders in English: **masculine**, **feminine** and **neuter**, which correspond to the third person personal pronouns *he*, *she* and *it*, manifest mainly in their discourse, referential function to nouns. It is especially this relationship that seems to justify the postulation of gender as a grammatical category in English. (Cf. Dutescu-Coliban: 205-206)

The **grammatical gender** of most English nouns coincides with their **natural gender** or **sex**. According to Randolph Quirk and his co-workers, the main gender classes are **animate** and **inanimate**. The former are either **personal** or **non-personal**. The **personal** / [+Person] class includes **masculine**, **feminine** and **dual gender** nouns (e.g. *sibling*, *student*) as well as **common gender** nouns (e.g. *baby*) and **collective** nouns (e.g. *team*), which are considered to be also **neuter**. The last two subclasses are intermediate between personal and non-personal nouns. **Non-personal** / [-Person] nouns denote **masculine** and **feminine higher and lower animals** as well as **higher organisms**. **Personal** [+Person] **masculine** and **feminine** nouns are considered to be **morphologically unmarked** for gender. Nouns **morphologically marked for gender** include two subclasses: **common / dual gender nouns** and **nouns with gender marking suffixes**. (Cf. Quirk et al 1978: 187)

Generally, classifications of English nouns into gender classes have taken into account **four semantic features**: [+/-Animate], [+/-Human], [+/-Male] and [+/-Countable], whose different combinations have determined a preliminary classification into **Human/Personal** and **Neuter/Non-Personal** nouns.²⁰⁷

II.2.1.1. Human/Personal nouns are always [+Animate] and belong to three genders: the **masculine**, the **feminine** and the **common/dual gender**. The **masculine gender** is represented by nouns marked by the features [+Human, +Male], such as *father*, which can be referred to as *he*, *him*, *himself* and is determined by *his*, as in *my father and his friends*. The **feminine gender** is represented by nouns marked by the features [+Human, -Male], such as *mother*, which can be referred to as *she*, *her*, *herself* and is determined by *her*, like in *my mother and her friends*. **Common/dual gender** nouns are intermediate between personal and non-personal nouns and are marked by the features [+/-Human, +/-Male]. Because they have one form for both sexes and do not involve the idea of natural gender or sex, their real gender is revealed in context, as with: *actor*, *artist*, *artiste*, *chair*, *chef*, *cook*²⁰⁸, *cousin*, *criminal*, *cyclist*, *fool*, *foreigner*, *individual*, *lecturer*²⁰⁹, *linguist*, *novelist*, *professor*, *relative*, *sailor*, etc.

²⁰⁶ Taina Duțescu-Coliban, *Grammatical Categories of English*, Universitatea din București, București, 1986, p. 153.

²⁰⁷ Douglas Biber, Biber, D., S. Johansson, G. Leech, S. Conrad and E. Finegan, Foreword by Randolph Quirk, *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*, Longman, 1999 (LGSWE).

²⁰⁸ The dual gender noun *cook* refers to ‘a person who cooks’, ‘a man who cooks in the army, on a ship’, whereas *chef* is ‘the person who cooks or oversees cooking in a restaurant or another public establishment’. When it is capitalized and used without the definite article, the noun *Cook* functions as a member of the family, like *Mother*, *Father*, etc.

²⁰⁹ Nouns ending in *-er* / *-or* are basically perceived as masculine gender, though they are usually dual gender.

II.2.1.2. Neuter/Non-Personal²¹⁰ nouns do not imply the idea of natural gender or sex. They are [+/-Animate] nouns that denote **animals** and **plants, substances, abstractions**. Most often they are [-Count] or **collectives**, unities which can be referred to as either *it, itself* or as *they, themselves* and are determined by either *its* or *their*, like in *the university and its senate; the party and its/their followers*.

II.2.2. The lexical expression of gender

In Modern English, gender distinction is made especially by lexical means. However, the [+/-Male] opposition is revealed not only lexically but also morphologically. Therefore, grammarians refer to nouns that are **morphologically unmarked**, but **lexically marked for gender** and nouns that are **morphologically marked for gender**.

Morphologically unmarked for gender are **lexical pairs**, whereas **morphologically marked** are three types of **gender-specific formal markers** which express sex, such as: **premodifiers**, which precede a common/dual gender noun; **compounding elements**, as the second term of a compound, and **derivational suffixes**.

II.2.2.1. Nouns morphologically unmarked for gender. Lexical pairs

These are distinctive terms or stems whose inherent semantic feature is either [+Male] or [-Male]. They are not derived from each other, hence not morphologically linked. The nouns belong to the following semantic domains: **kinship** and **family relations** (*father – mother, daddy – mummy, mamma – pappa, brother – sister, half-brother – half-sister, boy – girl, son – daughter, boy / lad / laddie – girl / lass / lassie*,²¹¹*uncle – aunt, man – woman*, etc.); **social roles** and **trades** (*bachelor – spinster, friar/monk – nun, gaffer – gammer, gentleman/lord – lady, king – queen, monk – nun, tailor – seamstress, Sir – Madam, Mr – Mrs, Master – Miss/Ms*²¹², etc.), *wizard – witch*; **animals** (*cock / rooster – hen*²¹³, *dog/hound – bitch/slut, drake – duck, fox – vixen, gander – goose, horse/stallion – mare*).²¹⁴

The semantic oppositions [+/-Male] and [+/-Human] have generated several situations. Therefore, some linguists speak of **gender paradigms** which may consist of **one** up to **four nouns**. In some cases, beside the masculine and feminine pair, marked [+Male] and [-Male], respectively, there is a third, common gender noun, used generically, and therefore marked [+/-Male]: *parent: father – mother; parent – father – mother; parent – father – mother – child / kid*; *child: boy – girl; child: son – daughter*; *spouse: husband – wife*; *sibling: brother – sister*; *sovereign: king – queen, deer: stag/hart – doe/roe*.²¹⁵*horse: stallion – mare; horse – stallion – mare; horse – stallion – mare – colt*. (cf. Duțescu-Coliban)

A number of nouns have no counterpart for the opposite sex. Most [-Male] or feminine gender nouns convey sexual overtones, a negative or disphoric connotation, especially as regards a young woman's physical appearance or immoral behaviour, whereas others are insulting names for old(er) or wicked women: *belle* ('a handsome woman: the chief beauty of a place: a fair lady generally'), *blonde, brunette, chick, cookie, dish, doll(y), mermaid, peach, siren, tomato* (US and Canadian slang for 'girl' or 'woman'; 'a stupid act or person'),

²¹⁰ "The vast majority of words in English go with *it*: *box, table, chair, egg, information*... You might call them 'neuter' – but most modern grammars refer to them as 'inanimate' words (as opposed to the 'animate' male and female ones)." (David Crystal, *Who Cares about English Usage*, Penguin Books, 1984, p. 101)

²¹¹ Sometimes, males are named by feminine nouns and viceversa. For example, *sissy*, a diminutive of *sister*, is used pejoratively to refer to 'an effeminate boy or man' (*ro. fătălău*), whereas *tomboy* denotes 'a girl who enjoys rough and noisy games' (*ro. băiețoi*).

²¹² Ms "simply signals 'female', regardless of marital status". However, "it is commonly understood by many people to mean 'feminist'," as "it is only when women acquire professional status as 'Dr', 'Professor', 'Your honour', etc. that they achieve titular equality with men." (Rob Pope, *The English Studies Book*, Routledge, London and New York, 1998, p. 116)

²¹³ Gender-specific nouns are rarely used, except by people who have a special interest in animals, such as farmers or vets. Therefore, common or dual gender nouns are more frequent: *cock / rooster – hen – chicken – fowl/poultry*.

²¹⁴ See also Hulban, Horia, *Syntheses in English Morphology*. Perspectives of the English Language Series 2, Editura SPANDA, Iasi, 2001, pp. 59-60.

²¹⁵ Cf. also Knud Schibbye, *A Modern English Grammar*, Second edition, OUP, 1979, p.111.

ripe tomato (no longer in use, a slang term in the 1920s to the 1950's, seemingly linked to the women's tendency to wear bright red lipstick, 'a woman ready for seduction or marriage') *hot tomato* ('an attractive woman', 'a desirable-looking woman')²¹⁶ *bag* ('a prostitute'), *old/stupid bag/trout* ('a stupid, ugly, ill-tempered, unattractive, disagreeable woman'), *old bat / deer, cat* (old fashioned, used derogatorily of a woman who is thought to be unkind or unpleasant), *crone* ('an ugly, withered old woman' ro. *babă, hîrcă, cotoroanță*), *dowdy* ('an unattractive woman, not fashionable in dress or appearance'), *drab* ('a slovenly woman; a prostitute' ro. *femeie murdară, neglijentă; femeie stricată, prostituată*), *frump, old girl, hag* ('a female demon or evil spirit'; 'a witch'; 'an enchantress'; 'an ugly, often vicious old woman'), *harlot* ('a whore', 'a prostitute'), *hussy* (a contemptuous or playful term meaning 'a woman, especially one of low morals'; a bold, saucy girl), *jilt* ('a woman who rejects a suitor after accepting or encouraging him'; ro. *cochetă (fără suflet); femeie nestatornică / înșelătoare*), *minx* (old fashioned 'a girl who is not respectful and is very good at getting what she wants'; ro. *obraznică; fată obraznică, răsfățată; femeie ușoară / stricată, târâtură, târfă*), *prude* ('a woman who is overly modest or proper in behaviour, dress or speech, especially in a way that annoys others'; ro. *mironosiță, izmenită, femeie afectată*), *scold* ('a person, especially a woman, who habitually uses abusive language' ro. *femeie certăreață, gaiță, (rar) persoană care dojenește*), *shrew* (ro. *femeie rea, scorpie, zgrițuroaică*), *slut* ('a careless, dirty, slovenly woman'; 'a sexually immoral woman'; 'a female dog', 'a bitch'), *strumpet* ('prostitute', 'harlot'), *tart* ('a prostitute' or 'a woman of low morals'), *termagant* ('a boisterous, quarrelsome, scolding woman'), *virago* ('a quarrelsome, shrewish woman, scold'; archaic, 'a manlike woman; ro. *amazoană, femeie cu fire și maniere de bărbat; bărbătoi; femeie, jandarm; femeie cicălitoare, zgrițuroaică*), *whore*. *Dowager* is among the few nouns which can have both a positive and a negative meaning, that is, 'a widow inheriting a property, or title from her deceased husband or an elderly woman of wealth and dignity' or 'a woman who is sexually immoral'.

There are few [+Male] nouns which refer to men and their sexuality: *asshole* and *dick* ('a rude man'), *beau* ('a man attentive to dress or fashion'), *dandy, dude, fop* ('dandy'), *groper, dirty old man, Randy old goat* (for men, not for women), *ruffian* ('a violent man, involved in a crime'), *trick* (sl. 'the customer of a prostitute'), *Casanova, ladykiller* ('a man who is, or fancies himself, irresistible to women'), *philander(er)* (used in fiction as a name for a lover, (rare) 'a man who philanders'; ro. *crai, curtezan, Don Juan*), *puppy* (old-fashioned, 'a young man who is rude or too self-confident'). When they behave rudely, some nouns are used informally and insultingly for old men. They basically refer to animals, used as **epithets** or **names**: *bird* (a general term for 'an odd man or woman', used in the 1920s), *stud, ram, buffer, codger, Colonel Blimp, gaffer, goat, grandad, old boy, old-timer, wrinkly* [+/-Male].

II.2.2.2. Nouns morphologically marked for gender. Common / dual gender

These nouns are intermediate between personal and non-personal nouns.

Personal common / dual gender nouns, which are generally marked [+Human, +/-Male], have only one form for both the masculine and the feminine: *accountant, ace, adult, champion, coach, comrade, darling, dear, doctor, driver, enemy, engineer, expert, friend, guest, inhabitant, journalist, lawyer, librarian, major, mechanic, musician, neighbour, orphan, owner, parent, passenger, person, professional, pupil, relation, relative, sergeant, scientist, servant, singer, speaker, spouse, stranger, student, teacher, tourist, traveller, trainer, visitor, writer*.²¹⁷

Notionally, they have been **grouped** into nouns that denote: **kinship, family** or **social relations**: *parent, relative; comrade, enemy, foe, friend, guest, partner; inhabitants, nationality, race*: *American, Canadian, European, Londoner; professions, trades and **positions** which have opened up to the opposite sex too: *accountant, agent, artist, baker, dancer, doctor, driver, engineer, editor, expert, major, mechanic, merchant, musician, (computer) operator, pilot, professional, sergeant, shoemaker, teacher, thief, thinker, violinist; leaders*: *ace, captain, chair, chairman,**

²¹⁶ According to Wiktionary, the free dictionary.

²¹⁷ See also L. G. Alexander, *Longman English Grammar*, 1996, pp. 50-51.

champion, chief, decision maker, employer, leader, Member of Parliament, official, president, Prime Minister, principal, speaker, supervisor; followers and supporters: atheist, democrat, fan, heathen, Lutheran, Mohammedan, recruit, suffragist, voter; collective nouns: assembly, audience, cabinet, crowd, family, folk, government, jury, majority, mankind, minority, mob, nobility, party, peasantry, press, team. (cf. also Hulban 2001: 59)

There are three classes of [+/-Human] **common / dual gender** nouns, established according to the **gender-specific formal markers** that they take, such as **premodifiers** (as the first element of a compound), **compounding elements** (as the second element of a compound), and **derivational endings** which function as **gender marking suffixes**.

II.2.2.2.1. Common gender nouns morphologically marked by a gender-specific noun or pronoun premodifier (*male - female, boy - girl / maid, man - woman / lady; he-/she-*)

In this case, gender marking is realized either by **gender-specific noun premodifiers** (such as *male - female, boy - girl / maid, man - woman / lady*) or by **gender-specific pronoun premodifiers** (like *he-/she-* in their full or stressed form). These [+/-Human] **compounds** consist of N+N (as in *boy friend* [+Male], *girl friend* [-Male] - *friend* [+/-Male], *dog-wolf - bitch-wolf - wolf*, of PRN+N²¹⁸ (as in *he-doctor - she-doctor - doctor; he-bear - she-bear - bear*), as well as a combination of the last two patterns (like in *rat - buck-rat - she-rat*). **Free gender marking morphemes** combine in different ways with common gender nouns:²¹⁹ *boss: lady boss; cousin: male/female cousin; economist / editor / engineer: male/female editor / engineer; footballer: lady footballer; friend: boyfriend - girlfriend, male/female friend, man/woman friend, lady friend; reader: male/female reader; missionary: female/lady missionary; novelist: female/woman novelist; officer: female officer; speaker: female speaker; woman artist / aviator / clerk / councillor / customer / doctor / journalist / Member of Parliament / writer; beggar: woman beggar; doctor: female/lady/woman doctor; diplomat: woman diplomat; voter: woman voter; lady clerk / friend / reporter / writer; male/female/lady cashier; man/girl cashier; male/female child / patient / servant / student; boy/girl student;²²⁰ *typist: girl/lady typist; milkboy - milkmaid; scout: boy / girl scout; reindeer: female-reindeer; he- / she-bear / -goat / -monkey / wolf.**

The premodifier *female* is present in several syntagms: *the female sex, the male part and the female part*²²¹, *a female plant, female company, female labour, female staff, female equality, female concerns, female inventions, female areas of work.*

Few masculine nouns, especially compounds, use a feminine stem to denote a profession traditionally held by women, such as *bride: bridegroom; model: male model; nanny: male nanny; nurse: male-nurse; secretary: male secretary; midwife: man-midwife.*

The plural of these nouns is usually taken by the last term or by both terms: *boy-friends, men friends, women doctors, women students, a choir of men and women students, her collection of paintings includes works by many well-known artists, men and women.*

Other gender-specific premodifiers either refer to family members, such as *brother-/sister-in-law, father-/mother-in-law, son-/daughter-in-law, prince-/queen-consort* or build up abstract masculine and feminine nouns, like *fatherhood - motherhood; fatherland - motherland / mother country, mankind - womankind.*²²²

II.2.2.2.2. Common gender nouns morphologically marked by a gender-specific compounding element as the second term of the compound

²¹⁸ These compounds are always hyphenated.

²¹⁹ These compounds are rarely hyphenated.

²²⁰ Compounds of *fellow(-)* are dual/common gender [+/-Male] (e.g. *fellow countryman, fellow man / men, fellow actor / diner / student(s), fellow worker(s), fellow passenger / traveller, school-fellow*).

²²¹ A technical term which names two parts of a device or piece of equipment which fit together; *ro. moș și babă.*

²²² The older compound *man'kind* refers to 'all human beings', whereas the more recent form '*mankind* opposes '*womankind*. (cf. Jespersen 1951, p. 231)

II.2.2.2.1. [+Human] common gender nouns morphologically marked for gender by *-man* - *-woman* / *girl*, *-person*, *-people*

This subclass frequently add the “semi-suffixes” *-man*²²³ and *-woman* or *girl*. They denote: **occupation, profession or trade** (e.g. *airman* – *airwoman*; *coachman* – *coachwoman*; *policeman* – *policewoman*, *servant-man* – *servant-girl*; *serviceman* – *servicewoman*; *sportsman* – *sportswoman*, *statesman* – *stateswoman*, *woman statesman*); **rank or social status** (*jurymen* – *lady jurymen*, *jurywoman*; **nationality and provenance** (*Dutchman* – *Dutchwoman* – *Dutchgirl*; *Englishman* – *Englishwoman*, *Scotsman* – *Scotswoman* – *Scotsgirl*). With nationality nouns that have one form for both sexes, such as *African*, *Albanian*, *American*, *Austrian*, *Romanian*, sex can be expressed by the nouns *girl* or *woman*: *an English / a Romanian girl/woman*, *a Spaniard – a Spaniard/a Spanish woman/girl*; *a Turk – a Turk / a Turkish woman / girl*. (see Hulban 2001: 63-64)

Several nouns ending in *-man* (e.g. *airman*, *alderman*, *ambulanceman*, *anchorman*, *barman*, *boatman*, *cabman*, *cameraman*, *churchman*, *clergyman*, *coalman*, *conman*²²⁴, *countryman*, *craftsman*)²²⁵ have no feminine counterpart ending in *-woman*.²²⁶ Only six feminine compounds are at all common: *spokesman* – *spokeswoman*, *policeman* – *policewoman*, *businessman* – *businesswoman*, *chairman* – *chairwoman*, *congressman* – *congresswoman*, *horseman* – *horsewoman*. Moreover, five of the seven uniquely feminine terms, with no masculine equivalent, denote roles of lesser social status: *beggarwoman*, *charlady*, *charwoman*, *ghostwoman*, *needlewoman*, *slavewoman*, *sweeperwoman*.²²⁷

However, masculine nouns ending in *-man* occur more frequently than their feminine counterparts because, on the one hand, they can often be used as **duals** [+/-Male] and, on the other, they reflect some **linguistic bias**, based on “societal differences in the typical roles of men and women, where men still hold more positions of power and authority than women”. (LGSWE: 312)

Nevertheless, compounds with *-man* or *-woman* as a second element may differ greatly as to gender. Nouns ending in *-man* are used to refer only to men, when a specific referent is not identified, or to both sexes, as in “Area manager Beth Robinson says: ...” (*idem*: 315), or in “Her father had made a *fisherman* of *her*; her duties as *chairman*.” (Schibsbye 1979: 112)

In present-day English, the free morpheme *-man* has lost its gender-marking feature in some compounds which apply to [+/-Male] entities, such as *chairman*, *Englishman*, *penman*, *spokesman*, *statesman*, etc. The tendency is to use the common gender forms *spokesman* and *chairman* for both genders. One of the most controversial words is *chairman*. *Chairwoman*, used in English since the 17th century, didn't catch on. Therefore, a woman who presides over a committee may be called a *chairperson* and be also addressed as ‘*Madam Chairman*’, the traditional mode of address for a woman in the chair, in British English.²²⁸ In AmE, especially, *chairperson* is nowadays very widely used in publicity for academic conferences but rarely in

²²³ The noun *man*, which has long been used specifically of the male sex, may be ambiguous between [+/-Male], as Shelley has illustrated in “All, all are men – women and all!” (apud *ibid*) Remember also that, especially for nationality names, the singular nouns in *-man* refer only to [+Male] individuals whereas their plural counterparts in *-men* refer to [+/-Male] individuals.

²²⁴ The compound refers to: (1) ‘a man who tricks other people, especially in order to get their money’; syn. *liar*, *cheat*, *hypocrite*, *fraud*, *crook*; (2) sl. ‘a plausible character’, from the more formal term *a confidence man*.

²²⁵ The masculine nouns *man* and *brother* may be used generically for the whole class, as in “All *men* are mortal” and “*Man* is the measure of all things.” Remember also *man of letters*, which refers to ‘a male writer, especially one who writes novels or writes about literature’, whereas the noun *man-of-war/ man-o’-war* does not refer to a male but it is old use for ‘a fighting ship in the navy’. (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, Longman Group Ltd., 1995, p. 872; LDCE)

²²⁶ For example, there is no feminine opposite for *snowman*, when it means ‘a figure of a person made of snow’. However, if the noun refers to ‘Yeti’, its feminine is *snow-woman*.

²²⁷ In *Batman*, *Catwoman* is a fictional character who, although described as ‘a shy woman, endowed with the speed, reflexes and senses of a cat, ... walks a thin line between a criminal and a hero’.

²²⁸ Cf. Michael Swan, *Practical English Usage*, 1991, OUP, pp. 258-260.

industrial and commercial media. However, the noun *chairwoman* is used derisively when it connotes extreme views of feminists. (Cf. Crystal 1984: 104)

Of lower frequency than compounds ending in *-man* / *-woman*, are some recent “moderately common” compounds ending in *-person* (occurring over 20 times per million words), and in *-people* (occurring over 10 times per million words), such as *chairperson*, *salesperson*, *spokesperson*, *salespeople*, *townspeople*, which “overcome issues of bias associated with the use of masculine forms in a dual gender function”. (LGSWE: 316).

Compounds of *mate* (i.e. ‘pal’, ‘friend’) are used informally, especially by men, also as a form of address: *desk mate*, *room mate*, *school mate*; *You’ll be all right, mate!*

In mixed types of compounds gender-markers have been doubled by a free gender-marking morpheme, as in: *woman* / *lady chairman*, *chairman-lady*, *statesman* – *stateswoman* / *woman statesman*, *lord mayor* – *lady mayoress*.

In order to avoid criticism of sexist extremists and to promote “politically correct” vocabulary, some dual gender nouns have been coined to replace older *-man* terms: *business manager* / *executive* (**not** *businessman*); *camera operator* (**not** *cameraman*); *firefighter* (**not** *fireman*); *fisher* (**not** *fisherman*); *human achievements* (**not** *man’s achievements*); *human power* (**not** *man power*), *insurance agent* (**not** *insurance man*); *leader* (**not** *statesman*); *mail carrier* (**not** *mailman* or *postman*); *member of Congress* (**not** *congressman*); *salesperson* / *clerk* (**not** *salesman*); *supervisor* (**not** *foreman*); *flight attendant* (**not** *airline hostess*); *head teacher* (**not** *head master*); *homemaker* (**not** *housewife*); *usher* (**not** *usherette*); *the best person* / *candidate* (**not** *the best man*); *husband and wife* (**not** *man and wife*).²²⁹

In some compounds, the premodifier is not always inherently marked for gender: *male chauvinism* (‘the belief, held by certain men, that men are inherently superior to women’); *female impersonator* (‘a male theatrical performer who acts as a woman’); *lady-killer* (informal for ‘a man who is, or thinks he is irresistibly fascinating to women’); *Ladysmith* (a city in South Africa); *Lord Muck* and *Lady Muck* (‘an ordinary man / woman behaving or being treated as if he/she were aristocratic’); *ladybird* (‘any of various small brightly coloured and flying beetles’); *mother-in-law’s tongue* and *mother-of-thousands* are ‘perennial plants’. (see Hulban 2001: 64)

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II.2.2.2.2. [-Human] common gender nouns morphologically unmarked or marked for gender. Higher and lower animals

Like with [+Human] nouns, the opposition [+/-Male] in animal nouns is revealed either by **lexical pairs**, **morphologically unmarked for gender**, or by three types of **morphologically marked** or **gender-specific formal markers**, such as **premodifiers**, **compounding elements** and **derivational endings**.

Higher, big or domesticated animals traditionally belong to the common / dual gender and can be marked for gender (e.g. *horse* – *stallion* – *mare*; *camel* – *male camel* – *female camel*; *tiger* – *tigress*), whereas **lower animals**, which are similar to [-Animate] nouns, traditionally belong to the neuter / non-personal gender.

Several [-Human] animal **lexical pairs** mark the [+/-Male] opposition, as in: *dog* [+/-Male] or [+Male] – *bitch* [-Male]; *fox* [+/-Male] or [+Male] – *vixen* [-Male]; *horse* [+/-Male] – *stallion* [+Male] – *mare* [-Male]; *duck* [+/-Male] or [-Male] – *drake* [+Male], *ram* [+Male] – *ewe* [-Male]. (cf. Vereş et al 1996: 219)

The subclass of **animal nouns morphologically marked for gender** are premodified either by a noun or a pronoun, depending on whether they are higher or lower animals.

²²⁹ By the same token, *barmaid* will be avoided in favour of *bar person* and so will be feminine gender-specific words and “stereotype” phrases, such as *suffragette* for *suffragist* and *libber* for *feminist*. (Cf. Grigore Vereş, Anca Cehan, Iuliana Andriescu, *A Student’s Companion to English Grammar*, Editura Universităţii „Al. I. Cuza” Iaşi, 1996, p. 219)

The **premodifiers** most frequently used for **large mammals** are *male – female*, *bull – cow*, for **medium size** and **smaller** ones, *buck – doe*, for **carnivorous mammals**, *dog – bitch*, and, for **birds**, *cock – hen*.²³⁰ Derived from proper names are *tom – tabby*²³¹, *jack – jenny*²³², and *billy – nanny*²³³.

The gender of **lower animals** is usually indicated by the personal pronouns *he-/she-*: *he bird – she bird...* (See *idem*: 224)

In some gender opposites the two terms belong to different word classes (e.g. *rat: buck-rat – she-rat*; *sparrow: he-/male sparrow – hen sparrow*) or the gender marker is the second term (e.g. *turkey: turkey-cock / tom-turkey – turkey-hen*. **Compare**: *ape / monkey: male / dog-/jack-ape – female monkey / ape*; *camel: male camel – female camel*; *cat: tom(-cat) / tabby(-cat)*; *goat: billy-goat / nanny-goat*; *hare: male/ jack / buck-hare – female / doe-hare*; *hedgehog: buck-hedgehog – doe-hedgehog*; *elephant: bull- / male elephant – cow- / female elephant*; *fox: dog-fox – bitch-fox*; *frog: male frog – female frog*; *calf: bull-calf – cow-calf*; *otter: dog-otter – bitch-otter*; *rabbit: buck-rabbit – doe-rabbit*; *rat: buck-rat – she-rat*; *wolf: dog-wolf – bitch wolf*; *eagle: male eagle – female eagle*; *peafowl: peacock – peahen*; *pigeon: cock pigeon – hen pigeon*; *sparrow: he-sparrow – hen-sparrow*; *bee: drone – queen bee*.

However, with many animal pairs, one word is unmarked for sex. With **higher animals**, for instance, where the opposition [+/-Male] is neutralized to [+Male], most names refer to both genders (e.g. *cat*, *elephant*, *fox*, *horse*, *ox*, *tiger*), the **masculine** form often acquiring the additional function of a generic or a common gender noun. The sex-marked word (e.g. *vixen*) is used only when sex distinction is important. The **feminine** form is used generically only with some common water-birds and fowl, like *duck* and *goose*, when the female is dominant in the pair: *duck: drake – duck*; *goose: gander – goose*.

Unlike in Romanian, in English, “self-specification is absent or confined to morphological devices.” (Duțescu-Coliban 1986: 216). Some free morphemes (e.g. *calf*, *cub* and *pup*) are used for [-Adult], “remote, very small or economically unimportant animals” (*ibid*): *bull calf* (ro. *tăurean*, *tăuraș*, *malac*), *elephant bull – elephant cow – elephant calf* (ro. *elefântel*), *whale calf*, *bear cub* (ro. *ursuleț*), *lion cub* (ro. *leuț*), *dog pup* (ro. *cățeluș*), *fox pup*, *wolf pup* (ro. *lupușor*).²³⁴

Beside the opposition [+/-Male], series of **four nouns** include a [-Adult] term, as in: *horse – stallion – mare – colt*; *sheep – ram/wether*²³⁵ – *ewe – lamb*, *pig – boar – sow – piglet*, which remind of the Romanian series *cal – armăsar – iapă – mânz*, *oaie – berbec – mioară – miel*, *porc – vier – scroafă – godac*.²³⁶

Several free gender marking morphemes or premodifiers can be used with the same noun, in order to build up compounds, such as *female / tabby / she-cat*. The examples below illustrate the main **free morphemes** or **premodifiers** specialized in marking [+/-Male] oppositions. (adapted from Duțescu-Coliban 1986: 213) **Compare**:

he – she: he-bear – she-bear; he-cousin – she-cousin; he-

sparrow – she-sparrow; he-wolf – she wolf. Remember: devil – she-devil;

male – female: male-student – female-student; but also: female-doctor; female-engineer; male-nurse; male sparrow;

man – woman / maid: salesman – saleswoman, man-

servant – woman-servant; woman doctor, but also: alderman, footman,²³⁷ charwoman;

²³⁰ Remember the gender biased opposition *stag party – hen party*.

²³¹ Cf. *Thomas* and *Tabitha*.

²³² Cf. *Jack* and *Jean*.

²³³ From *William* and *Anne*.

²³⁴ Some derivational bound suffixes marked by the feature [-Adult], such as *-ette*, *-let*, or *-ling*, beside a diminutive meaning, connote the idea of ‘small’ (e.g. *duckling*, *gosling*) and, often, of ‘unimportant’, ‘contemptible’ or ‘derogatory’ meaning. Compare : *prince – princeling*; *star – starlet*²³⁴ (cf. Duțescu-Coliban 1986: 212)

²³⁵ The term refers to a castrated ram.

²³⁶ Remember also the [+/-Adult] oppositions: *bat – bitten*; *cat – kitten/kitty* (ro. *pisică – pisoi-pisicuță*), *dog – puppy/doggie* (câine – cățel/cățeluș), *swan – cygnet*, as well as *guppy – little guppy*.

boy - girl: *cash-boy - cash-girl*;

cock - hen: *cock-sparrow - hen-sparrow; cock-pheasant - hen-pheasant; cock-guinea - hen-guinea; cock-turkey - hen-turkey; peacock - peahen*;

bull - cow: *bull elephant / calf / rhinoceros - cow elephant / calf / rhinoceros*;

boar - sow: *boar-pig - sow-pig*;

buck - doe: *buck rabbit - doe rabbit*;

dog - bitch: *dog-fox - bitch-fox; dog-wolf - bitch-wolf*.

Remember: *bulldog - bullbitch*;

Jack - Jenny: *Jack-ass - Jenny-ass; jack-sparrow - jenny-sparrow*;

billy - nanny: *billy-goat - nanny-goat*;

tom - tib(by): *tom-cat - tib(by)-cat*.

The opposition [+/-Animate] is illustrated by pairs of nouns that refer to the **live animal** and to its **flesh**, respectively: *calf - veal*; *cow / ox - beef*; *hen / cock / chicken - chicken*; *pig - pork*; *sheep - mutton*; *lamb - lamb*.

II.2.2.2.3. Derivational suffixes / endings²³⁸ morphologically marked for the feminine gender: *-ess, -ette, -inal/-ine, -ix, -a, -ant(e); -e(nne), -ée*

Most of the bound gender marking derivational morphemes / suffixes are **anglicised** forms of some foreign suffixes (*-ess, -ette, -inal/-ine, -ix, -a, -ant(e); -e(nne), -ée*) which are attached to [+/-Human, +Male] nouns.

The “commonest” feminine gender marking suffix is *-ess*: *baron - baroness, count - countess, giant - giantess, god - goddess, heir - heiress* (‘a rich marriageable lady’), *host - hostess, (Lord) Mayor / (Lady) Mayoress, millionaire - millionairess, patron - patroness, peer - peeress, prince - princess, prophet - prophetess, tailor - tailoress*,²³⁹ *sorcerer - sorceress, steward - stewardess*, etc. (LGSWE: 311)

In a number of cases the stem is abbreviated: *ambassador - ambadress, actor - actress, adventurer - adventuress, arbiter - arbitress, benefactor - benefactress, conductor - conductress, doctor - doct(o)ress, editor - editress, elector - electress, emperor - empress, enchanter - enchantress, founder - foundress, heir - heiress*,²⁴⁰ *host - hostess, hunter - huntress, inspector - inspectoress / inspectress, instructor - instructress, launderer - laundress, manager - manageress, mayor - mayoress, murer - mureress, postmaster - postmistress, procurer²⁴¹ - procuress²⁴², proprietor - proprietress, protector - protectress, shepherd - shepherdess, songster - songstress, sorcerer - sorceress, steward - stewardess, tiger - tigress, traitor - traitress, waiter - waitress, warder - wardress*.

In other cases the sound of the stem is so altered that the feminine can hardly be described as a derivative of the masculine: *abbot - abbess, duke - duchess, marquis - marquess / marchioness, master - mistress, headmaster - headmistress, negro - negress*.²⁴³

Masculine-feminine pairs are not always on a par. **Compare:** *governor - governess* (‘a woman who is employed by a family to live with them and educate their children’); *master - mistress, mayor - mayoress* (the mayor’s wife) and *(Lord) Mayor - Lady Mayoress* (i.e. *female mayor*).²⁴⁴

²³⁷ There are no feminine counterparts for *alderman* and *footman*.

²³⁸ The use of suffixes to indicate sex is considered a grammatical rather than a lexical means, because these morphemes do not affect the meaning of the nouns but only indicate gender.

²³⁹ The old-fashioned *seamstress* seems to be the only feminine noun in *-ess* which does not derive from a masculine term.

²⁴⁰ These pairs do not always have strictly comparable meanings. For example, *an heir* is ‘a man or a woman who inherits a title, an estate, etc.’ whereas *an heiress* means ‘a woman who will inherit a large fortune’.

²⁴¹ ‘One who procures for another the means of gratifying his base passions: a pimp, a pander’, *ro. proxenet, pește*.

²⁴² ‘A bawd, a panderess’.

²⁴³ See Kurt Schibsbaye, *A Modern English Grammar*, Second edition, OUP, 1979, p. 110.

²⁴⁴ Remember some Romanian [+Male] - [-Male] equivalents: *decan - decăniță, primar - primăriță, poet - poeteasă, ministru - ministereasă*.

In present-day English, the suffix *-ess* has fallen into disuse.²⁴⁵ Especially with nouns that denote occupations, professions, some feminine forms may sound obsolete or slightening (e.g. *authoress*, *instructress*, *lawyeress*, *manageress*, *poetess*), if not disparaging (e.g. *Jewess*, *negress*)²⁴⁶. Hence the conclusion that, “in contemporary English, the *-esse* morpheme is productive – if it is productive at all – in its derogatory meaning rather than as a marker for the feminine.” (Dutescu-Coliban 1986: 212) However, the frequency of bound derivational morphemes or suffixes has decreased dramatically in every-day use, most often, speakers tending to use free morphemes in gender marking. (cf. Dutescu-Coliban 1986: 212; see also Swan 1991: 258-260)

A few other foreign suffixes are used for feminine designations: *chauffeur* – *chauffeuse*, *masseur* – *masseuse*, *czar/tsar/tzar* – *czarina/tsarina/tzarina*; *don* – *donna*, *sultan* – *sultana* / *sultaness*; *hero* – *heroine*²⁴⁷, *landgrave* – *landgravine*, *Paul* – *Pauline*, *administrator* – *administratrix*, *aviator* – *aviatrix*, *executor* – *executress* / *executrix*, *prosecutor* – *prosecutrix*, *testator* – *testatrix* (Schibsbye 1979: 110), *fiancé* – *fiancée*,²⁴⁸ *leader* – *leaderette*, *undergraduate* – *undergradette*, *usher* – *usherette*, as well as the pair *confidant* [+/-Male] – *confidante* [-Male].

II.2.3. The Grammatical Expression of Gender. Referential gender: personal vs non-personal pronoun reference²⁴⁹

In present-day English, gender is usually revealed syntagmatically, in discourse, by some **substitution rules** (Cf. Duțescu-Coliban, 1986: 206). They show that, even if there is no manifestation of gender in the grammatical form of most English nouns, beside some “lexical means of making gender explicit” (LGSWE: 312), there are grammatical means of surfacing it by pronoun reference. Gender marked pronominal reference to persons, animals and things in a given context has generated a **normative**²⁵⁰ or a **standard pattern** (Duțescu-Coliban, 1986: 206). It essentially involves the use of *he/she*, when reference is made to [+Human, +/-Male] entities,²⁵¹ and of *it* for [-Human] entities.

A syntagmatic classification of nouns by gender has taken into account correlations of nouns with their co-referential personal pronouns *he*, *she*, *it*,²⁵² as well as with the relative pronouns *who* and *which* (adapted from *idem*: 218):

- (a) *he/who*: father, widower, Mike;
- (b) *she/who*: mother, widow, Esther;
- (c) *he/she/who*: citizen, friend, parent, relative;
- (d) *it/which*: book, insect, paper;
- (e) *it/he/which*: dog, horse, stag;

²⁴⁵ Even if “several *-ess* forms are felt to be unpleasant or condescending” nowadays, “*-ess* is alive and well, as an ending”, being used for comic effects in opposite pairs like *vicar* – *vicarress*, ‘a vicar’s wife’. (Crystal 1984, pp. 101-102)

²⁴⁶ Both in *Jewess* and *negress*, the free derivational morpheme has a disphoric connotation. Therefore, when sex specification is necessary, these nouns must be paraphrased as *a Jewish / negro woman*. (Cf. Duțescu-Coliban 1986, p. 212)

²⁴⁷ “People quite often say ... ‘She’s the real hero of that situation’. *Heroine*, to many, is beginning to sound like something out of a Victorian girl’s adventure comic.” (*idem*, p. 102)

²⁴⁸ This suffix differs from *-ee*, the noun forming suffix in the dual gender nouns *absentee*, *retiree*. Mainly productive in AmE, this relatively recent English morpheme frequently conveys playful or whimsical connotations, as in *flirtee*, *kickee*, *kissee*, *laughee*, *huggee*, *meetee*. Its Romanian equivalent is an attributive structure, that is ‘someone / a person who ...’ and ‘something that ...’.

²⁴⁹ See also Hulban 2001, p. 67.

²⁵⁰ Ioana Ștefănescu, *Lectures in English Morphology*, Universitatea din București, Facultatea de Limbi Străine, Catedra de limbă și literatură engleză, București, 1978, p. 172.

²⁵¹ *He* is the unmarked term, either [+Male] or unspecified as to sex’, whereas *she* is the marked one.

²⁵² Hence gender has been defined as a classification of nouns in terms of either adjectival concord or of pronominal reference, which is primarily important in communication. (Cf. John Lyons, *Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics*, CUP, Cambridge, 1979, p. 288).

- (f) *it/she/which*: cat, car, mare, doe;
 (g) *it/he/she/who/which*: baby, cat, infant.

The semantic opposition [+/-Human] corresponds to the syntactic opposition between nouns substitutable by either *he* or *she* and nouns, possibly, but not obligatorily, substitutable on the one hand, by *it*, and, on the other, by the relative pronouns *who* and *whom*, marked by the features [+Human], and *which*, marked by the feature [-Human]. They agree in gender with their antecedent, unlike *whose*, which can refer back to [+/-Animate] correspondents. This opposition is neutralized in the case of both *that* and the genitive *whose*, which apply to [+/-Human] contexts. (Cf. *idem*: 206) Compare: *the student who wrote the essay*; *the student whose essay I read*; *the pot whose handle has been broken*; *the book which they sent us*; *the book whose title/author I can't remember*. Relative-interrogative pronouns follow the same pattern as non-restrictive relative pronouns, that is *who* for [+Human] and *what* for [-Human].

The following patterns illustrate how the **Human/Personal vs Neuter/Non-Personal** distinction extends to **indefinite, interrogative and relative pronominal correlations** (Adapted from LGSWE: 312):

Indefinite: Human/Personal (*nobody / no one*) and **Neuter/Non-Personal** (*nothing*);

Interrogative: Human/Personal (*who*) and **Neuter/Non-Personal** (*what*);

Relative: Human/Personal (*who/that*) and **Neuter/Non-Personal** (*which/that*).

Gender distinction is most obvious in co-occurrence patterns of the singular **personal pronouns** *he, she, it* and their corresponding **possessive** and **reflexive pronouns** (see also LGSWE: 311 and Jespersen 1951: 234). Number, person and gender concord applies to the relation of the Subject with **reflexive pronouns** which function as Direct Object, Subject Complement and Prepositional Complement, as in: *I have been asking myself this question for a long time.*; *He has shaved himself*; *She hasn't been herself lately*; *Grannie crossed herself when she saw us back safe and sound*; *He's made a sandwich for himself*.²⁵³ When the sex of the referent is not known or irrelevant, masculine pronouns are often used. **Two major devices** may be used to avoid such reference: (a) **coordinated pronoun forms** like *he or she, his or her, him or her, he/she, (s)he*,²⁵⁴ as in *Everybody may sit wherever he/she likes*;²⁵⁵ and (b) **plural determiners** and / or **pronouns**,²⁵⁶ co-referential with the indefinite pronouns *everyone, everybody, anyone, anybody, someone, somebody, no one, nobody*. Sub-standard or anomalous as it might be, the use of the pronouns which avoid gender marking has been gaining ground in colloquial English. Except when the context is definitely feminine, there can be used either the singular masculine personal pronoun *he* and its derivatives or the plural personal pronoun *they*, which can refer to both sexes, as well as its derived possessive adjective *their* and the reflexive pronoun *themselves*. They both may defy number concord, replacing the indefinite pronouns, which normally take singular concord, as in *Everyone thinks he is/they are right*. The proximity principle may lead to plural concord, as in *Everybody may sit wherever they like*; *Has anyone brought their camera*? Difference in number between co-referents may be avoided by using a plural noun subject or object, as in *We expect candidates to acknowledge*

²⁵³ R. Quirk argues that "The relation between the reflexive pronoun object and its subject may be seen as a special case of the concord between a pronoun and its antecedent", a relation which "may extend beyond clause boundaries". (Randolph Quirk, R., S. Greenbaum, G. Leech and J.Svartvik, *A Grammar of Contemporary English*, Longman, 1978, pp. 368-369).

²⁵⁴ Dispreferred in other registers, they are relatively rare in academic writing, where editors are particularly careful about gender bias.

²⁵⁵ Especially in AmE, there have been attempts to introduce in writing sex-neutral forms such as *s/he* and *wo/man* for both feminine and masculine.

²⁵⁶ Quirk and co-workers are of the opinion that "The plural pronoun is a convenient means of avoiding the dilemma of whether to use the *he* or *she* form". (*idem*, p. 370)

their participation by e-mail; **Nobody** prevents you, do *they*? **Most of them** have applied. (See Veres et al. 1996: 219). **Compare also:** Has *anyone* got *his / his or her / their* visa? **No one** shall leave *their* luggage at the check-in desk. **Every** contestant hopes to win the trophy after *he / she / he or she* has / *they* have participated in the biggest event of the racing season; **No one** was speaking; **No one**, not even the children, *were* speaking; **Each** kid *has its* own cradle; The kids *each have their* own cradle; **Everyone** crossed *themselves*; **Everybody** may sit wherever *he/she* likes. **Nobody** can assume *his/her/their* responsibility for this failure.

Concord may vary with **indefinite expressions of amount as subjects** as well as with some **co-ordinated subjects**. For example, when the indefinite pronouns *any, none* correlate with the alternative pronouns *either, neither*, they are used with both singular and plural concord. **Compare:** *I've ordered the furniture but none (of it) has been delivered; I've also ordered the chairs, but none (of them) has/have been delivered; I've written to both Ann and Mike but neither (of them) has/have replied and I wonder whether either (of them) is/are going to answer.*

There are also concord rules in sentences whose subjects are coordinated by the **disjunctive negative correlative conjunctions** *either ... or* (see Quirk et al 1978: 363):

[*Either the coach or his pupil*] **has** ruined *his* own chances. (2sg.NPs => Vsg.)

[*Either the coaches or their pupils*] **have** ruined *their* own chances. (2pl.NPs => Vpl.)

[*Either the coaches or their pupil*] **has** ruined *his* own chances. (1pl.NP+1sg.NP => Vsg.; concord by proximity)

[*Either the coach or his pupils*] **have** ruined *their* own chances. (1sg.NP+1pl.NP => Vpl.; concord by proximity)

II.2.3.1. Gender patterns: the standard / objective / normative/predictable pattern *vs* the non-standard /subjective / intimate / non-predictable pattern

Common gender is still subject to controversy both in English and Romanian grammars. "[E]xcept for very fastidious and pedantic carefulness," when the combination *he or she* is used, most speakers will refer to nouns like *bourgeois, doctor, lawyer, offender, peasant, sinner, teacher, transgressor*, etc., as *he*, or, in clearly feminine contexts, such as *dress-maker, seamstress, manicurist or nurse*, as *she*. Hence the rule that "the masculine may stand for the whole class, acquiring the power of generalization. The feminine used in its stead would on the contrary diminish the degree of generalization and become specific, referring to a particular group of people or implying a relative generalization."²⁵⁷ Nevertheless, the access of women and men to traditionally masculine, respectively feminine individual occupations (e.g. *officer, soldier, nurse*)²⁵⁸ or to groups of people (e.g. *crew, team, the military, the militia, the police*).²⁵⁹ (Cf. Bantaş et al. 1995: 51) This process has conferred these nouns a common gender status.

Specific collective nouns, for instance, which are notionally plural and grammatically singular, take either **singular** or **plural concord**. They can be substituted either by the singular *it* and the relative pronouns *which / that* (in order to focus on the **non-personal collectivity** of the group) or by the plural *they* and the relative pronouns *who / that* (in order to point to **personal individuality** within the group) Therefore, when a noun referring to a collection of people has plural concord, its antecedents are *who / whose / they / them* rather than *which / it*. **Compare:** *The government,*

²⁵⁷ Andrei Bantaş, R., Albu, M., Popa, C., Ciobanu and A., Trofin, *English for Advanced Students*. With a special chapter on *English Lexicology* by Herbert Pilch, Institutul European, Iasi, 1993, p. 51.

²⁵⁸ Moreover, we often tend to refer to a common / dual gender noun as to a representative of a group of people by the pronoun *he*, although *he or she* can also be used: *A politician often finds that he has to compromise. When a passenger loses his/her luggage he or she must address the missing luggage department.*

²⁵⁹ There have been established three classes of collective nouns: **specific** (e.g. *army, clan, class, crew, family, government, team*), **generic** (e.g. *the intelligentsia*), and **unique** (e.g. *the Vatican*). (Cf. Veres et al. 1996, p. 223).

who have cut their / which has cut its losses..., as in: *We are talking about a family which dates back to the 16th century vs His family, who are all in business, have invested a lot; My family is / are not very happy about it.*²⁶⁰

Determined by emotional factors or the importance the speaker attaches to the respective entity, gender selection has “attracted considerable discussion” in present-day English. (Crystal 1992: 150) Therefore, linguists speak of two basic **gender patterns**: (a) the **standard / objective / normative / predictable pattern**, whose nouns are marked by the feature [+/-Person] and (b) the **non-standard / subjective / intimate / non-predictable pattern**. Deviations from the **standard** pattern, which occur at different stylistic levels (i.e. formal, informal/colloquial and literary style), have generated the **non-standard** pattern of English gender marking, in which the three genders (masculine, feminine and neuter) enter the same fundamental formal oppositions as in the standard pattern, that is, *he/she* versus *it* and *she* versus *he*. The **non-standard pattern** “takes precedence” over the former, being “used only in conditions of intimacy with the interlocutors”, by “pragmatically conditioned transfers,” such as [-Person] => [+Person] or [+Person] => [-Person] as well as [-Person] => [+Person] => [øMale]. (Duțescu-Coliban 1986: 206) This pattern involves three situations in which the normative pattern is disregarded:²⁶¹ **personification** of [-Human] entities, **denial of human status** to [+Human] entities, and **reversal of sex roles** of [+/-Male] entities, so that [-Male] entities are treated as [+Male] and referred to as *he*, while [+Male] entities are treated as [-Male] and referred to as *she*.

In colloquial speech, **personal** and **non-personal reference** may be alternatives with nouns belonging to four semantic domains: (1) **children**, such as *baby, brat, child, infant, kid, toddler*²⁶² and *adolescent, teenager, youth*; (2) **animals**, especially *pets*; (3) **countries** and **dwellings**; as well as (4) **vehicles**, such as *boat, frigate, liner, ship, schooner, steamer, submarine, (air)crafter, motorbike, motor car* or *locomotive*.

Personal reference (*he, she*) implies greater familiarity or involvement whereas **non-personal reference** (*it*) is more detached.²⁶³ **Compare:** *He/She's the baby of the family, A baby walker is a frame on wheels that is used to support a baby while it is learning to walk.*²⁶⁴ *The baby was crying in his / her / its crib. Fetch the baby from its cot: it's crying. Call that child and give it its lunch! I gave baby her milk: she was hungry. Shortly before its birth the infant reverses its position.* (Bădescu 1963: 22-32) Family members may use *it* to express worry about or irritation at their kid's behaviour, as in “Look at *it*! (i.e. a dirty/naughty/ spoilt child) Have you ever seen the like of *it*?”

Animals/Pets are often referred to as *he/she*, when their owners think of them as being intelligent, having personality or feelings, as in: *Where's Tilly? She's on her rug.*²⁶⁵ *Where's Max? Will you call him and feed him, please? Their dog has been trained since it was a puppy.* (See Swan 1991: 258-260) When no sex distinction is made or known, the pronoun *he* (and not *it*) generally refers to big, strong, **higher animals**, like *dog, eagle, elephant, horse, lion, tiger*, etc. When their sex is either not known or not necessary to specify, nouns like *horse, zebra, snake*, etc., are referred to by *it*, whereas *a cat, a mouse, a hare* and *a parrot*, will be referred to as *it* or *she*.²⁶⁶ *A wolf, a fox, a woodpecker* is either *it* or *he*. When animal names are associated with **maternal instincts**, the feminine *she* will be used, as in *the bear and her cubs; the hen and her chickens*.

²⁶⁰ It seems that “substitution of [-SET] indefinites (e.g. *everybody*) by *they* shows that the speaker resorts to the feature [+PLUR] in order to annihilate the unwanted +/-Male sex distinction. In conclusion, the feature [+PLUR] neutralizes gender oppositions in pronouns.” (Duțescu-Coliban 1986, p. 219)

²⁶¹ Cf. Ștefănescu 1978, p. 172 and Duțescu-Coliban 1986, pp. 221-222.

²⁶² In everyday speech, Romanian speakers use “a sort of de-sexed form, *puști*, or even a recent coinage *puștime*, which may be interpreted as a sort of common gender ... being equally vague and non-committal as far as number is concerned (though it may stand for both plural and singular – which does not happen in the case of the English non-committal equivalent *kid*, which necessarily requires *kids* for the plural ...).” (Bantaș et al. 1995, p. 50)

²⁶³ The personal pronoun *it* and derivatives may also indicate dignity, estate, rank, as in *Its Majesty cannot see you*.

²⁶⁴ The pronoun *it* is normally used by speakers/writers who do not know, are indifferent to the sex, or are not emotionally related to the child.

²⁶⁵ Referring to a female dog.

²⁶⁶ See also H. Pârlog, *The English Noun Phrase*, Hestia, Timișoara, 1995, p. 27.

Insects with many legs will usually be referred to as *it*, and exceptionally as *he*, when the speaker / writer wants to express affection towards them, as in “Look at *him* (i.e. ‘the cockroach’), *crawling along there. He’s looking for some food.*” (Adapted from Crystal 1984: 105).

II.2.3.2. Gender and personification

Other exceptions from the normative pattern are motivated **stylistically** or **emotionally**.²⁶⁷ The nouns which are personified or “personalized” will be stylistically marked [+Person], [+/-Male] or [-Male].

Masculine nouns refer to **natural elements** or **phenomena** which are defined by ‘force’, ‘violent action’ and ‘passion’ (e.g. *anger, day, crime, danger, death, discord, despair, fury, the grave, law, love, murder, vice, war, the sun, ocean, storm, stream, summer, thunder, time, wind*), **mountains** and **rivers**, as well as **abstract notions**.

Feminine nouns involve ‘gentleness’, ‘attachment’, ‘fertility’ as well as ‘passion’ or ‘negative feelings and negative traits of character’. **Vehicles, vessels, abstractions, the arts, sciences, countries** and famous **universities** are feminine (e.g. *affection, adversity, ambition, benevolence, charity, devotion, envy, faith, hope, jealousy, justice, liberty, melancholy, memory, mercy, modesty, patience, peace, pity, pride, religion, revenge, truth, the soul, sympathy, vanity, victory, virtue, understanding, wisdom; the earth, evening, the world, life, nature, sea, spring, the moon, morning, nature, night, darkness, world; balloon, bus, car, coach, engine, locomotive, mill, motor, boat, ship, steamer, submarine, plane, schooner; art, drama, painting, philosophy, poetry, science; Cambridge, Oxford, Harvard, Yale, etc.*). **Cars** are referred to as *she*, especially by their owners or personnel: ‘How’s your new *car*?’ ‘Terrific. *She’s* going like a bomb’; *The ship was struck by lightning, which destroyed her mast first.* (Swan 1991: 258-260) When **countries** are thought of as **geographical units** they are referred to as *it*, whereas as **economic** and **political units**, they may be referred to as *she/her*, especially by their citizens. National **teams** will be replaced by either *it/its* or *they/their*, depending on whether unity or individuality, respectively, are involved. **Compare:** *Romania is situated in Eastern Europe; its climate is temperate-continental. France has decided to increase her trade with China; Romania lost many of her bravest soldiers in the two world wars; Romania had increased her exports by 2 per cent that year.* (See also *ibid*; Vereş et al. 1996: 223)

Deviations from the normative patterns involve a process of either **upgrading** or **downgrading**. **Upgrading** usually “indicates various degrees of positive involvement” on the part of the speaker with the entity referred to, from mild interest to passionate attachment”. (Ştefănescu 1978: 174) Practically, any object that the speaker considers “close enough, or dear enough to personify” (*idem*: 175-176) can be upgraded by “a generous transfer of humanity from the speaker on to the objects around” (Dutescu-Coliban 1986: 221-222) **Downgrading** indicates “various degrees of negative involvement on the part of the speaker with the entity referred to, from lack of interest to mild annoyance, contempt, or even violent rage.” (Ştefănescu 1978: 176) Linguistically, people can be downgraded by simply being denied their inherent or attributed human status, that is, by being referred to as *it* or as a [-Animate/-Human] entity: “*Robert* ignored me all evening, and then *it* finally asked me to dance!”; “*It* spoke!” (when a very quiet person breaks in on a conversation). (Crystal 1984: 106) Owners may express their **affection** or **antipathy** not only to their cars or pets but also to some other possession, as in “Isn’t *she* beautiful?” (a stamp collector about one of the specimens) or in *She’s an absolute bastard, this truck.* (in colloquial British and Australian English).

Gender and personification often interrelate in fiction, especially in fables and stories, so that **birds, animals** and **insects** are treated either as **feminine** (e.g. *crane, dove, lark, parrot, sparrow; cat, horse, mole, mouse, otter*) or as **masculine** (e.g. *canary, eagle; fly; bear, camel, dog, donkey, leopard, lion, monkey, pig, tiger*). (Cf. Hulban 2001: 69)

The metaphorical patterns traditionally established by usage will have it that [-Animate] entities which can

²⁶⁷ George Curme refers to them as manifestations of the ‘animating gender’ which are used in ‘the higher forms of literature’. (Cf. Duţescu-Coliban 1986, p. 220)

be described as “delicate, slim, trim, sleek, graceful, elegant, young, clean, white” are **feminine** / *she* nouns (e.g. *crocus*) whereas [-Animate] entities characterized as “ungraceful, slow, awkward, bulky, large, loud” are generally **masculine** / *he* nouns (e.g. *cactus*). (apud Ștefănescu 1978: 175)

A minimal selection from Oscar Wilde’s stories²⁶⁸ illustrates personification via the referential function of some personal and possessive pronouns that correlate with [-Human] and [-Animate, -Cont] nouns: *the Nightingale* / *she, her, who*; *a Swallow* / *he, his*; *a Green Lizard* / *he, his*; *a Butterfly* / *who*; *the Tree* / *its*; *the Oak-tree* / *he, his*; *a Daisy* / *his*; *a Reed* / *her*; *the Sun* / *his*; *the Moon* / *her*; *Philosophy* / *she*; *Power* / *he, his*.

As “gender is not a simple reflection of reality” but “rather ... to some extent a matter of convention and speaker choice” (LGWSE: 312), gender will vary with register and style, with the sex and the age of the speaker / writer as well as with other pragmatic factors.

PRACTICE Consider the terms ‘**bachelor**’/‘**spinster**’, and ‘**widow**’/‘**widower**’:

- In what senses can each be seen as a pair, and in what sense not?
 - Do you use one item of each ‘pair’ more than the other? Do you use the two items of each pair in different ways?
 - Can you think of a more modern equivalent for ‘spinster’ than ‘bachelor girl’, in English? What are the possibilities in other languages?
 - How are the phrases ‘widow’ and ‘widower’ used now? What about in languages other than English?
- [*Language and Gender*, 96]

SEMINAR ON GENDER

COURSE # 5 IN A NUTSHELL

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"A male and a female nurse were in attendance."
(E. A. Poe, *The Facts in the Case of M. Valdemar*)

There are 4 genders in English:

1. masculine gender: *man, boy, father, husband, king, cock* etc.
2. feminine gender: *woman, girl, mother, wife, queen, hen* etc.
3. common gender: *teacher* (profesor/profesoară), *neighbour* (vecin/vecină)
4. neuter gender: *dog, summer, pride*

The distinction between masculine and feminine can be made by:

- different words

man – woman

boy – girl

father – mother

king – queen

cock – hen

fox – vixen

- adding suffixes to the masculine form:

- ✓ **-ess** (abbot – abbess; actor – actress; adventurer – adventuress; ambassador – ambassadress; author – authoress; baron – baroness; benefactor – benefactress; conductor – conductress; count – countess; deacon – deaconess; duke – duchess; emperor – empress; enchanter – enchantress; giant – giantess; god – goddess; heir – heiress; host – hostess; instructor –

²⁶⁸ O. Wilde, *The Happy Prince and Other Stories*. “The Oscar Wilde Collection”, www.oscarwildecollection.com

instructress; lion – lioness; mayor – mayoress; ogre – ogress; poet – poetess; priest – priestess; prince – princess; prophet – prophetess; protector – protectress; sorcerer – sorceress; steward – stewardess; tailor – tailoress; waiter – waitress etc.)

- ✓ **-ine** (hero – heroine; Joseph – Josephine)
 - ✓ **-ix** (administrator – administratrix; aviator – aviatrix / aviatrix; director – directrix / directress; executor – executrix / executress; prosecutor – prosecutrix etc.)
 - ✓ **-a** (czar – czarina; don – donna; signor – signora; sultan – sultana)
 - ✓ **-e / -enne** (confidant – confidante; fiancé – fiancée; protégé – protégée; comédien – comédienne; tragedian – tragedienne)
 - ✓ **-ette / -use** (usher – usherette; chauffeur – chauffeuse)
- using compounds in which the first element specifies gender (MALE/FEMALE, HE/SHE, COCK/HEN, DOG/BITCH for animals and BOY/GIRL, MAN/WOMAN or MALE/FEMALE for people)

male – camel

he/ bull / male – elephant

cock – bird

boy-friend

manservant

male-candidate

female – camel

she / cow / female elephant

hen – bird

girl-friend

maidservant

female-candidate

- using compounds in which the second element specifies the gender

chairman

grandfather

chairwoman

grandmother

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- adding the suffix **-er** to the feminine: *widow – widower*
- adding the suffix **-groom** to the feminine: *bride – bridegroom*

The following nouns have no counterpart for the other sex:

- *butler* (ro. *paharnic*; *majordom*; *chelar*)
- *footman* (ro. *lacheu*; *valet*)
- *charwoman* (cleaning woman)

For stylistic purposes , a few nouns that are neuter may become either masculine or feminine . (C. Paidos)	
Such nouns as the following may become <u>masculine</u> :	The following may be spoken of as <u>feminine</u> :
❑ nouns denoting passions and violent actions: <i>anger, crime, despair, discord, fear, fury, love, murder, terror</i>. ❑ names of things that suggest power, dignity, impressive nature: <i>autumn, death, grave, mountain, ocean, river, storm, stream, summer, sun, time, winter</i>.	❑ nouns that suggest beauty, gentleness: <i>affection, charity, devotion, faith, hope, justice, melancholy, mercy, spring, virtue</i>. ❑ nouns denoting negative traits of character: <i>envy, jealousy, revenge, stubbornness, vanity</i>. ❑ nouns denoting some natural elements: <i>darkness, earth, evening, moon</i>. ❑ names of arts and sciences: <i>art, drama, painting, poetry</i>. ❑ names of countries/localities: <i>country, city, London, Romania</i>. ❑ names of aeroplanes, boats, ships, vehicles: <i>balloon, boat, bus, car, plane, steamer, submarine</i>. ❑ names of universities: <i>Cambridge University, Oxford University, California University</i>.

COURSE # 5 FURTHER PRACTICE

PRACTICE. Arrange the nouns below on 4 columns corresponding to their gender:

student, friend, relatives, novel, infant, Christine, heroine, instrument, garment, sow, jenny-ass, hen party, filly, drone, drake, tom-cat, cock-pigeon, billy-goat, subject, patient

Masculine	Feminine	Common	Neuter

PRACTICE. Give the feminine corresponding to the following masculine nouns:

lord lad bachelor gander	monk earl sir wizard	master shepherd negro mankind	buck-rabbit dog-wolf landlord billy-goat
-----------------------------------	-------------------------------	--	---

PRACTICE. Complete the triangles:

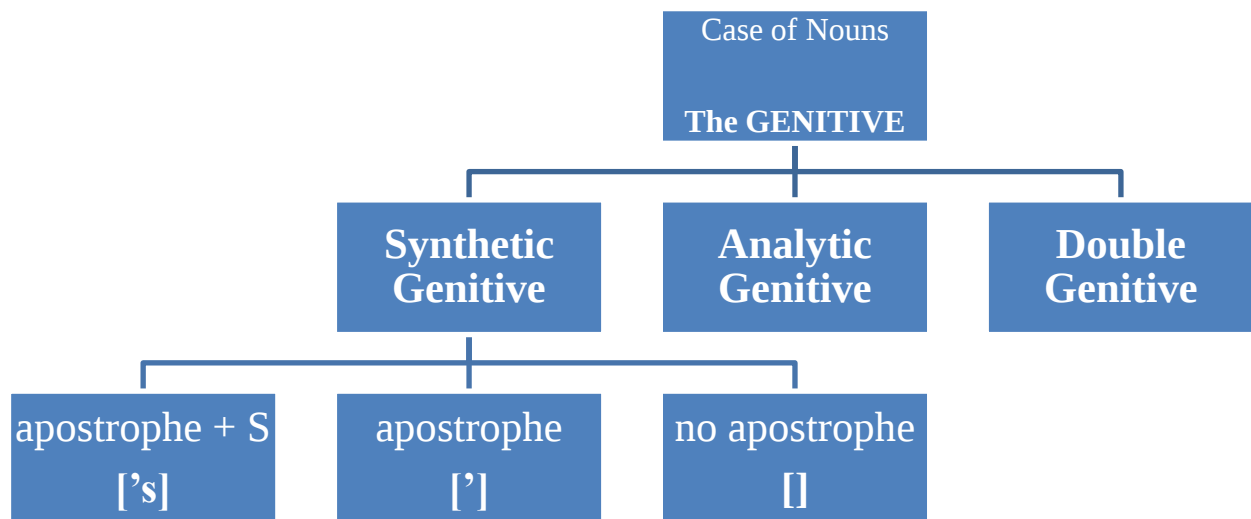
common

masculine feminine

???	sheep
??? mare	??? ???
spouse	???
??? ???	??? granddaughter
???	???
father ???	brother ???
???	deer
??? hen	??? ???

Course # 8 Headword (III). Noun Case (The Genitive)

- **The Synthetic / Inflectional / 'S / Saxon Genitive** (Elliptic Synthetic Genitive. Implicit Synthetic Genitive. Group Genitive)
- **The Analytic / Periphrastic / Of / Prepositional Genitive**
- **Double Genitives**
- **Genitive Semantic Types**
- **Classifying Genitives**
- **Genitives of Gradation**



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THE SYNTHETIC / INFLECTIONAL / 'S / SAXON GENITIVE

- apostrophe + S [\'s] → singular common nouns designating people or beings

⇒ *my daughter's car*

⇒ *the student's book*

⇒ *the engineer's tools*

→ singular proper nouns

⇒ *John's car*

⇒ *Dr. Johnson's prescription*

→ irregular plural nouns

⇒ *the children's toys*

⇒ *the women's hats*

- apostrophe ['] → regular plural common nouns

⇒ *my daughters' car*

→ plural proper nouns

⇒ *the Johnsons' apartment*

→ proper nouns ending in -S, -X, -Z etc.

⇒ *Dickens'* (but also: *Dickens's*)

⇒ *Burns'* (but also: *Burns's*)

⇒ *Brutus', Moses'* etc.

→ common nouns ending in -S and followed by *sake*

⇒ *for goodness' sake* (but also: *for goodness sake*)

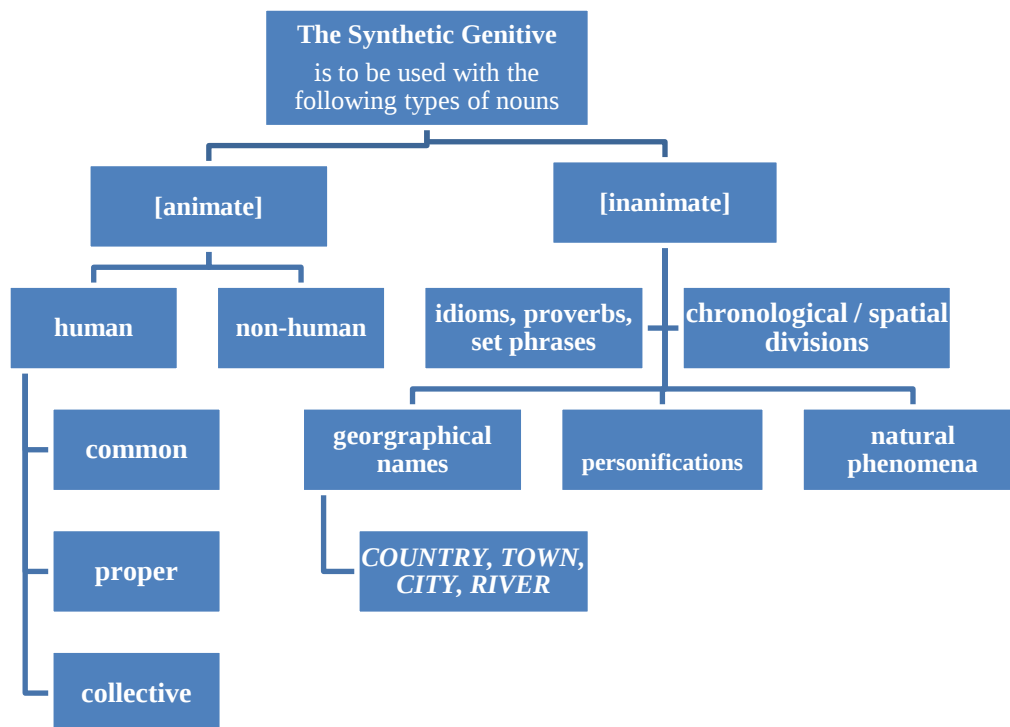
BUT: *for Mary's sake; art for art's sake; for God's sake*

► no apostrophe [] → streets, restaurants, shops, factories, publishing companies, firms etc.

⇒ *St. James Road* (⇔ *St. James'(s) Road*)

⇒ *Longmans* (⇔ *Longman's*)

⇒ *Harrods* (⇔ *Harrods'*)



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⇒ *the boy's car* [animate → human → common]

⇒ *Shakespeare's plays* [animate → human → proper]

⇒ *the government's policy; the people's complaints* [animate → human → collective]

⇒ *the dog's food;*

the cat's fur;

the spider's web;

a bird's egg;

cow's milk;

the wolf's fangs [animate → non-human] BUT: *chicken soup; calf skin*

⇒ *my heart's desire*

a bird's eye view

at arm's length

Hawks will not pick hawk's eyes.

by a hair's breadth [inanimate → idioms, proverbs, set phrases]

⇒ *a day's wait*
a month's delay
a year's leave
a fortnight's vacation
a moment's thought
the hundred years' war
in a minute or so's time
today's / yesterday's newspaper
in two years' time
last year's edition
a 10 minutes' walk [inanimate ➔ temporality]

⇒ *a 3 tons' lorry* [inanimate ➔ weight]
 ⇒ *a 5 dollars' book* [inanimate ➔ cost]
 ⇒ *at a stone's throw* [inanimate ➔ space]

⇒ *Europe's countries*
Romania's economy
Bucharest's streets
Moldavia's monasteries
The Danube's Delta [inanimate ➔ geography]
 ⇒ COUNTRY, TOWN, CITY, RIVER → the town's inhabitants; the river's banks
 ⇒ *the film's defenders*
life's joys
liberty's voice [inanimate ➔ personifications]

⇒ *the Sun's rays / heat*
the Moon's surface
the earth's water
the ocean's roar [inanimate ➔ natural phenomena]

□ Elliptic Synthetic Genitive

⇒ *Don't take my book. Take somebody else's.*
 ⇒ *Whose coat is this? Hellen's? No, my sister-in-law's.* (to avoid repetition)
 ⇒ *Tom's is the fastest car.*
 ⇒ *His memory is like an elephant's.*
 ⇒ *St. Paul's* (*St. Paul's Cathedral*) (**local genitive**)
 ⇒ *Breakfast at Tiffany's.* (local genitive)
 ⇒ *They met at Uncle Tom's.* (local genitive)
 ⇒ *the hairdresser's* (local genitive)
 ⇒ *the dressmaker's* (local genitive)
 ⇒ *the greengrocer's* (local genitive)
 ⇒ *the baker's* (local genitive)
 ⇒ *the chemist's* (local genitive)
 ⇒ *Marks and Spencers* (**implicit genitive**)

The 's phrase stands alone as an ellipted head of the NG when the noun head is recoverable, either because it has already been mentioned, or by convention. In the latter case the 's element often refers to **people's homes** or **establishments** such as **restaurants** and **shops**, as well as to individuals:

Let's have dinner at *Archy's*.

These gloves aren't mine, they're *Daniel's*.

I have to go to *the cleaner's* (*dry cleaner's*), *the butcher's*, *the florist's*. [Downing & Locke, 2006: 426]

□ Implicit Synthetic Genitive

⇒ *the Students Association, the United Nations Organisation*

⇒ *shepherd dog*

⇒ *sheepskin*

⇒ *student hostel*

⇒ *horse / pig tail*

THE GROUP GENITIVE

In Old and Middle English the genitive marker was always attached to the noun being made genitive. *The Queen of England's robe* would have been *the Queen's robe of England*. In the modern version *England* carries the genitive marker, even though it is not England's robe. The Chaucer story which modern readers know as *The Wife of Bath's Tale* was in Chaucer's manuscript *The Wyfes Tale of Bath*. In the seventeenth century, a **group genitive** developed whereby the entire noun phrase receives the genitive marker – [*the Queen of England's robe*]. Today, complex constructions are often marked with the genitive, especially in casual speech:

[the dentist who lives around the corner]'s car

A periphrastic paraphrase makes it clear exactly which part of the structure is receiving the genitive marker.

This is the car of the dentist who lives around the corner.

While group genitives may not be acceptable in most forms of edited English, they are quite common in informal discourse. [Berk, 1999: 74-75]

The s is appended to a group of words if it forms a sense unit:

All the other people's opinions.

Today is the heir-apparent's birthday.

The King of Denmark's court.

A doctor of divinity's gown.

The man of the world's respectability.

He said that in plenty of people's hearing.

At about a quarter of a mile's distance.

My daughter-in-law's jewels.

The commander-in-chief's office.

A man about town's chambers.

Everybody else's rights are my wrongs (Dickens).

*Credulity is belief in **somebody else's** nonsense.*

*At **her lord and master's** sudden return.*

***My wife and childrens** ghosts will haunt me still (Sh.).*

***Beaumont and Fletcher's** plays.*

*We had **an hour and a half's** talk.*

*In **a year or two's** time.*

*The test of **a man or woman's** breeding is how they behave in a quarrel (Shaw).*

***Mr What's-his-name's** stupid remark. [Jespersen, Essentials, 2006: 103]*

Special Cases:

- ❑ **2 possessors – 1 object / 2 possessors – 2 objects or more**
 - ⇒ *Jim and Sarah's parents* (either Jim and Sarah are siblings, or this is about Jim, on the one hand and Sarah's parents, on the other)
 - ⇒ *Jim's and Sarah's parents* (Jim and Sarah are definitely not siblings)

THE ANALYTIC / PERIPHRASTIC / OF / PREPOSITIONAL GENITIVE

- ❑ **possession** (⇒ *the picture of my mother*)
- ❑ **appurtenance** (⇒ *the cover of the book*)
 - ⇒ *the lid of the pot*
 - ⇒ *the trees of the forest*

Compare:

⇒ *a picture of my mother*

⇒ *a picture of my mother's*

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The Analytic Genitive is to be used as follows:

- ➔ *the streets of the town* [inanimate common nouns]
- ➔ *the mother of Anne and Sarah* [coordinated proper nouns]
- ➔ *the fears of the poor* [personal adjective heads]
- ➔ *the teachings of the wise*
- ➔ *the reign of Queen Elisabeth the First*
- ➔ *the coat of the old man in the doorway*
- ➔ *the papers of the guests present*
- ➔ *the murder of Caesar*
- ➔ *the month of February*
- ➔ *'Historical Plays of William Shakespeare'*
- ➔ *The first of December is the Romanian National Holiday.*
- ➔ *He was a great supporter of Blair's.*

DOUBLE GENITIVES

- ⇒ *a picture of my mother* (o fotografie sau un tablou în care apare mama) [*simple genitive*]
- ⇒ *a picture of my mother's* (o fotografie sau un tablou care aparține mamei sau care au fost realizate de aceasta) [*double genitive*]
- ⇒ *a description of Sadoveanu* (Sadoveanu este cel descris) [*simple genitive*]
- ⇒ *a description of Sadoveanu's* (descrierea aparține lui Sadoveanu) [*double genitive*]
- ⇒ *the sister-in-law of my mother's cousin* [*double genitive*]

DOUBLE GENITIVES

English speakers sometimes exploit double genitive constructions, constructions in which the genitive is marked both inflectionally and periphrastically. In *I am reading a novel of Austen's*, Austen is marked by {-s} and at the same time occurs in an *of* prepositional phrase. In other words, Austen is marked genitive twice.

a novel [of Austen('s)]

Such constructions are highly constrained in terms of form. The noun head is usually indefinite, i.e. preceded by the article *a*. The genitive NP (i.e., the NP carrying the {-s} suffix) must have highly specific reference; it often contains a pronoun or a proper noun.

A friend of Bill's is coming over later.

An idea of yours has been adopted by the boss.

An admirer of my mother's sent her a dozen roses.

Normally, double genitives are used when a speaker wishes to refer to one of a class of individuals. Expressions like *a friend of mine*, *a fan of Reba's*, or *a student of hers* are perfectly acceptable, but **a husband of mine* and **a car of Reba's* are odd.

Anna Wierzbicka has also argued that the double genitive "is particularly suited to collective categories, where all members can be viewed as equidistant with respect to the person who provides the point of reference" (Wierzbicka, 1997: 43). In other words, members of the category are undifferentiated.

Surprisingly, demonstrative determiners can appear in the noun head of a double genitive construction.

I can't stand those cats of Susan's.

That music of Stan's is simply awful.

This idea of theirs is great.

In these sentences the NP is highly definite; the speaker knows that the hearer is familiar at some level with the cats, the music, and the idea. Constructions like these are often used emphatically. *I can't stand those cats of Susan's* sounds much stronger than *I can't stand Susan's cats*. In fact, even a noun like *child* can be used in an emphatic double genitive – *That child of mine will drive me insane!* (The noun head in a double genitive construction can sometimes be preceded by the definite article *the* when the genitive is followed by a restrictive relative clause – *The friend of mine who gave me this dress wants it back.*) [Berk, 1999: 73-74]

Here is an example of **fourfold genitive**: "Here, then, said Dupin to me, you have precisely what you demand to make the ascendancy complete – **the robber's knowledge of the loser's knowledge of the robber.**" (E. A. Poe, *The Purloined Letter*)

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PRACTICE. Explain the difference in meaning between the 2 forms of genitive:

a) The movie we watched yesterday is a description of Dickens.

b) This interesting text is a description of Dickens'.

a) This painting is a portrait of Gainsborough.

b) This masterpiece is a portrait of Gainsborough's.

a) Cezar Petrescu wrote a novel of Eminescu.

b) *Cezara* is a novel of Eminescu's.

a) We were told the story of Hemingway.

b) We read a story of Hemingway's.

GENITIVE SEMANTIC TYPES

Possessive Genitives [Berk, 1999: 68]	
<i>The child's bicycle was smashed to bits.</i>	[The child had a bicycle.]
<i>Weifang's pencil fell on the floor.</i>	[Weifeng had a pencil.]
<i>Their yacht won't fit in this harbor.</i>	[They own a yacht.]
<i>A bully stole my kids' cookies at recess.</i>	[My kids had cookies.]
<i>Hamish's hair is black.</i>	[Hamish has hair]
<i>My mother is a surgeon.</i>	[I have a mother.]

Subject Genitives [Berk, 1999: 69]	
<i>The police didn't believe Mary's story.</i>	[Mary told a story.]
<i>Hemingway's novels are exciting.</i>	[Hemingway wrote the novels.]
<i>The government was surprised by his defection.</i>	[He defected.]
<i>Carol resented the child's refusal.</i>	[The child refused.]
<i>The Dean's lecture was boring.</i>	[The Dean lectured.]
<i>Mozart's quartets are magnificent.</i>	[Mozart composed quartets.]

Object Genitives [Berk, 1999: 70]	
<i>The city's destruction was total.</i>	[Something destroyed the city.]
<i>She was upset by that neighbour's murder.</i>	[Somebody murdered that neighbour.]
<i>Freddie's eviction shocked everyone.</i>	[Someone evicted Freddie.]
<i>I was surprised by Nixon's pardon.</i>	[Someone pardoned Nixon.]

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Part/Whole Genitives [Berk, 1999: 71]
<i>The roof of the house blew off during the big storm.</i> <i>The woman scratched the hood of my car with her keys.</i> <i>The tree's branches swayed in the wind.</i> <i>My car's battery is dead. / Its battery is dead.</i>

Genitives of measure have an interesting history. In Old English, the plural genitive marker was not {-s} as it is in Modern English, but rather a vowel, usually *-a*. Sometime later, vowel suffixes were lost in English and so the plural genitive had no ending at all. Eventually, most plural genitives took on the {-s} genitive marker. However, in many regions of the United States, you can still hear speakers say "He lives three mile down the road" or "That ceiling is ten foot tall." And we all use the old genitive of measure in expressions like "I'm five foot four." The lack of a plural marker on *mile* and *foot* is a remnant of this ancient form. We see the same phenomenon in *a nine inch stick* and *a two hour lecture*. In genitives of measure, the measurement term is the noun head and the entity being measured always takes the inflectional or periphrastic genitive form. [Berk, 1999: 72]

the length of this room
 [measurement noun] [entity being measured]
the baby's length
 [entity being measured] [measurement noun]

Genitives of Measure [Berk, 1999: 72]
<i>None of my students knows the circumference of the earth.</i> <i>The length of the trial surprised the jurors.</i> <i>She calculated the weight of the shipment.</i> <i>I was intimidated by the man's size.</i> <i>Do you know Sally's weight?</i>

Summary of Genitive Semantic Types [Berk, 1999: 72-73]	
Possessive	<i>Carol's suit was wrinkled.</i>
	<i>The child's face was sunburned.</i>
Subject	<i>Frank Lloyd Wright's homes are priceless now.</i>
	<i>The boy's lie outraged his mother.</i>
Object	<i>Daphne's promotion pleased everyone.</i>
	<i>Victoria was upset about the rejection of her proposal.</i>
Part/Whole	<i>The book's cover was torn.</i>
	<i>The roof of the barn blew off.</i>
Measure	<i>The weight of the cargo was calculated.</i>

CLASSIFYING GENITIVES²⁶⁹

Some 's NGs may also function as **classifiers**, as in *girls' names*. With the article *a(n)* the NG may have two interpretations. The NG *a lady's bicycle* may refer to the bicycle of a particular lady, or to the class of bicycle designed for ladies, not for men. The context of discourse normally clarifies the interpretation. Other examples of this type include:

a lion's mane, a bird's nest, a child's toothbrush, and also:

I need a specialist's opinion, not a journalist's.

Classifying genitives are typically used with plural personal nouns:

children's clothing

a men's club

boys' names. [Downing & Locke, 2006: 426]

The so-called **genitive of gradation** [Parlog, 1995: 32] actually expresses a superlative (*the king of kings, the song of songs*). See also: "And blood, too, that **word of all words** – so rife with mystery, and suffering, and terror...!" [E. A. Poe, *The Narrative of Arthur Gordon Pym*]

²⁶⁹ Also called *Descriptive Genitive* (H. Parlog, *The English Noun Phrase*, 1995: 31).

SEMINAR on GENITIVE**CHAPTER 6 FURTHER PRACTICE**

PRACTICE. Genitives: movie title analysis: *The Book of Eli* (What significance(s) does the use of the analytical genitive instead of the synthetic one have?)

PRACTICE. Express the following sentences differently, using 's determinatives if you think this structure is acceptable: [Downing & Locke, 2006: 466]

- (1) I should like the opinion of another doctor.
- (2) Have you read the report of the chairman of the examination committee?
- (3) The failure of the Regional Training Scheme was inevitable.
- (4) The dog belonging to my next-door neighbour barks all night.
- (5) The grandmother of one of the girls in my class has died.
- (6) Here's the address of the only person I know in London.

PRACTICE. Translate into English:

1. casa primarului	1. Nepotul soției fiului Mariei ne-a făcut de curând o vizită.
2. piciorul mesei	2. Camera lui John și a lui Peter este la etajul 2.
3. coperta cărții	3. După o călătorie de o zi au ajuns în ținuturile natale.
4. culoarea copertei	4. Cabana cea mai apropiată era la o depărtare de 3 km.
5. culoarea copertei cărții	5. Domnul Smith este prietenul unchiului meu George.
6. cartea studentului	6. Am patinat pe suprafața înghețată a râului.
7. cărțile studenților	
8. pălăria bărbatului	
9. pălăriile bărbatilor	
10. culoarea pălăriei bărbatului	

Course # 9 Headword (IV). Noun Substitutes (Pronouns)

- **Personal Pronouns** (Empty IT. Cataphoric IT. Plurals of Approximation. Plural of Modesty. Plural of Majesty)
- **Reflexive Pronouns** (Emphatic Reflexives. Possessive Reflexives)
- **Reciprocal Pronouns**
- **Demonstrative Pronouns**
- **Relative Pronouns**
- **Interrogative Pronouns**
- **Indefinite Pronouns** (Substitute ONE / ONES)
- **Quantifying Pronouns**

Pronouns oil the wheels of good prose,
helping avoid unnecessary repetition and
moving a passage along smoothly.
[Kolln, 2012 Exercises: 155]

As their name suggests, **pronouns** are **words that stand for nouns**. Perhaps a more accurate label would be *pronominal*, because they actually stand for any construction that functions as a nominal in the sentence. We refer to the noun or nominal that the pronoun stands for as its **antecedent**. Not all pronouns are alike. The label *pronoun* actually covers a wide variety of words, many of which function in quite different ways. [Kolln, 2012: 289-290]

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Pronouns represent **the simplest NPs**. Unlike nouns, **pronouns are almost never preceded by determiners or adjectives**, although after listening to you describing an upcoming trip to Alaska, a friend may say enviously, “Lucky you”. Pronouns take many different shapes and have a variety of functions in English. They are most often used as a kind of **shorthand** to refer to items that have already been introduced into the discourse or conversation. Pronouns can also be used to refer to **unknown entities** or to underscore the fact that no relevant entity exists. The uses of pronouns in discourse are actually quite complex. [Berk, 1999: 83]

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

The **personal pronouns** are the ones we usually think of when the word *pronoun* comes to mind. We generally label them on the basis of person and number:

PERSON	NUMBER		
	Singular	Plural	
1st	I	we	[person(s) speaking]
2nd	you	you	[person (s) spoken to]
3rd	he	they	[person (s) spoken about]
	she		
	it		

For example, we refer to *I* as the “first-person singular” pronoun and *they* as the “third-person plural.” In addition, the third-person singular pronouns include the feature of **gender**: masculine (*he*), feminine (*she*), and neuter (*it*). [Kolln, 2012: 290]

Personal pronouns don't have specific reference if their antecedents don't have specific reference. In *Sonya wants to marry a tall man; he must be handsome*, neither *a tall man*, nor *he* has specific reference. However, in *Sonya wants to marry a banker; he lives in Boston*, both the pronoun and its antecedent refer to a specific individual. [Berk, 1999: 85]

The term **pronoun-antecedent agreement** describes our selection of the pronoun in reference to the noun or noun phrase (or nominal) it replaces: The personal pronoun "agrees with" its antecedent in both number and, for third-person singular, gender. Note that the second person (*you*) has neither gender nor number distinctions. [Kolln, 2012: 290]

The third person personal pronoun must agree with the noun it refers to in gender and number, e.g., *Robert / he, the architects / they, Esther / she* etc. This creates problems when the noun does not have specific reference or the individual's gender is unknown to the speaker – *Susan wants a new dentist and she? / he? must be willing to use laughing gas. A student has taken my grade book and she? / he? must be apprehended*. A few die-hard traditionalists insist that *he* should be used as a "**gender neutral**" pronoun in such contexts, but this is patently absurd. Speakers often cope with this dilemma by employing *they* as a singular pronoun – *A student has taken my grade book; they must be apprehended*. Edited English usually demands a more elaborate solution. Some publications (and teachers) accept the hyphenated pronoun used in this book – *s/he, him/her*; others insist that the writer recast the sentence to avoid the dilemma altogether; and a few still demand *he* in such circumstances. [Berk, 1999: 86]

More on HE, SHE and THEY as Gender-Neutral Pronouns

Until fairly recently the pronouns *he* and *his* (in both pronominal and determiner function) were regularly used, not only to refer to a male referent, but also as a supposedly gender-neutral pronoun to include a female referent, as in 1 below. Such a **discriminatory use in favour of males** has become increasingly unacceptable to many speakers, particularly with reference to occupations, jobs and roles. One alternative, to use *she* as the unmarked form, has not caught on extensively, presumably because it discriminates in favour of females, as in 2, so it does not solve the problem, which is essentially the fact that **English does not have a sex-neutral 3rd person singular pronoun. In writing, the combination *s/he* is becoming common, but it is not transferable to the spoken language. The disjunctive *he or she* becomes cumbersome if repeated too often.** A further alternative, the use of *they* with both singular and plural verb forms, is becoming more extensive as in 2:

1 Every human being of adult years and sound mind has a right to determine what shall be done with *his* own body.

2 . . . the non-distressed parent may choose to make explicit to the friend *her* own thinking, such as 'well, the children do usually obey us and every parent gets wound up from time to time with *their* child.' [Downing & Locke, 2006: 412-413]

PRACTICE The following passage, from "The Winter of Man," an essay by Loren Eiseley, was published in 1972, a time when the masculine pronoun was accepted as a generic singular. Note too the use of *man* in reference to humans in general. [Kolln, 2012: 305-306]

Students of the earth's climate have observed that **man**, in spite of the disappearance of the great continental ice fields, still lives on the steep edge of winter or early spring. The pulsations of these great ice deserts, thousands of feet thick and capable of overflowing mountains and valleys, have characterized the nature of the world since **man**, in his thinking and speaking phase, arose. The ice which has left the marks of its passing upon the landscape of the Northern Hemisphere has also accounted, in its long, slow advances and retreats, for movements, migrations and extinctions throughout the plant and animal kingdoms. Though **man** is originally tropical in his origins, the ice has played a great role in his unwritten history. At times it has constricted his movements, affecting the genetic selection that has created him. Again, ice has established conditions in which **man** has had to exert all his ingenuity in order to survive. By contrast, there have been

other times when the ice has withdrawn farther than today and then, like a kind of sleepy dragon, has crept forth to carry **man** once more. For something like a million years this strange and alternating context has continued between **man** and the ice.

Revise the passage in gender-neutral language.

Third person personal pronouns have **anaphoric reference**. Once a person (or entity) has been introduced into a discourse with a full NP, a speaker can use a third person pronoun to refer to that person, often for a long period of time. [Berk, 1999: 83]

The first and second person pronouns are **deictic rather than anaphoric**. Whoever is speaking uses *I*; the person to whom the speaker is speaking is always addressed as *you*. [Berk, 1999: 86]

STATISTICS

- ❑ While the definite article and the demonstrative determiner both have anaphoric reference, **the most frequently used “anaphors” in subject position are pronouns**. Using data from oral English, Talmy Givón (1995, p. 51) has calculated that the text frequency of anaphoric subject pronouns is 74.5%, while that of definite NPs is only 25.6%. Even though we have a number of strategies for making anaphoric reference, we most often choose personal pronouns.
- ❑ While fiction and other kinds of written narratives frequently exploit third person pronouns, people engaged in actual conversations tend to use a lot of first and second person pronouns. After examining a corpus of spoken conversation, one researcher calculated that ***I* is the most frequently used word in personal discourse** and *you* is the sixth most frequently used (Dahl, 1979, quoted in Miller, 1996, p. 126). [...] We most obviously spend a lot of time talking with others about ourselves. [Berk, 1999: 85-86]
- ❑ **The vast majority of subjects in English are pronouns, not nouns**. This is because topics usually appear in subject position, and pronouns are always topical, i.e., they always express **given information**. [Berk, 1999: 87]

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PERSONAL PRONOUNS AND CASE

Forms of Personal Pronouns [Berk, 1999: 83]						
	First person		Second person		Third person	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Subject	I	we	you	you	he / she / it	they
Object	me	us	you	you	him / her ²⁷⁰ / it	them
Genitive	my / mine	our(s)	your(s)	your(s)	his / her(s) / its	their(s)

The possessive forms of pronouns function as determiners. The objective case is used for pronouns in all the object slots: direct object, indirect object, and object complement. A pronoun as object of the preposition is also in the objective case, with one exception: The preposition *of* usually takes the possessive case, producing a structure called the **“double possessive”**:

Tim’s friend = a friend of Tim’s

his friend = a friend of his

my class = a class of mine

²⁷⁰ The feminine pronouns actually come first in Lynn Berk’s [1999] table.

With common nouns we often use the *of* prepositional phrase in the place of the possessive noun:

the car's engine = the engine of the car

the day's end = the end of the day

Alternative forms of the possessive case, shown in parentheses in the previous chart, are used when the headword of the noun phrase is deleted:

This is my book. This is mine.

This is her book. This is hers.

Possessive nouns can also be used without headwords when the headword is understood by the reader or listener:

This is John's book. This is John's.

Mary's book is missing. Mary's is missing. [Kolln, 2012: 291]

The third-person singular *it*, the most neutral of the personal pronouns, is sometimes used as an "anticipatory" subject [...] (see CATAPHORIC *IT* below). In some cases it has clear pronoun status, as in this passage from Robert Frost's poem "Stopping by Woods on a Snowy Evening":

My little horse must think it queer

To stop without a farmhouse near. [Kolln, 2012: 291]

In other cases the *it*, while acting as a grammatical subject, remains **essentially an empty word** (see EMPTY *IT* below):

It is raining

It's a nice day.

The plural pronoun *they* can also have **neutral status**:

They say best men are moulded out of faults. [Shakespeare] [Kolln, 2012: 291]

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IT

- 1 They were all shouting and fighting; *it* was terrible.
- 2 She was very scared, but she tried not to show *it*.
- 3 Olga's baby is due in October. – Oh, is *it* a boy or a girl?
- 4 After the child is born, *it* needs constant care.
- 5 *It* won't be easy to pass the driving test first time.

The pronoun *it*, besides referring to **specific objects and animals**, can refer to a **situation 1** or a **fact 2**. It is also used to refer to **babies and infants**, especially if the sex is undetermined by the speaker 3 or the reference is generic 4. In addition, *it* is often **nonreferring** as in 3, its presence responding to the need, in English, for an overt syntactic subject (except in the imperative).

The pronouns *he* and *she* are often used to refer to animals, especially when they are in contact with humans. Otherwise they are referred to as *it*. [Downing & Locke, 2006: 413]

Personal pronoun *it* can refer back to an inanimate or even a non-human animate entity – *I bought a new computer yesterday; it cost \$1000; That new puppy is a pain; it just peed on the kitchen floor*. *IT* can also be used to refer back to a complex situation or a series of events.

The regime you serve is morally and financially bankrupt. **It's** exactly the same as working for the KGB after the collapse of the Soviet union. (Michael Dibdin, *Dead Lagoon*, 1996, p. 260)

Here *IT* refers to everything that is entailed in working for a morally and financially bankrupt regime. [Berk, 1999: 85]

So, [t]he normal function of the pronoun *it* is to refer to something that has already been mentioned in the discourse—*Natalie bought a new car. It is a red convertible*. Whenever a pronoun refers back to an item that has already been introduced into the discourse, the pronoun is making **anaphoric reference**. (The Greek prefix *ana-* means "back or backwards.")

EMPTY *IT*

There are, however, contexts in which *it* does not have anaphoric reference. Many languages have odd ways of commenting on the weather or the ambient environment and English is no exception. In the sentences *It is raining* and *It's sunny out today*, the subject *it* doesn't refer to any previously introduced noun; in fact, it doesn't really refer to anything at all. But except for the imperative construction, all English sentences demand subjects and *it* is acceptably neutral in those cases where there isn't a semantically meaningful subject.

It is hot!

It's foggy in Seattle.

It is cold in Alaska.

It was smoky in that restaurant.

Empty *it* is sometimes called **expletive *it***, a rather unfortunate traditional label. [Berk, 1999: 21-22]

EMPTY *IT* DIRECT OBJECT

Maggie is living **it** up. [Berk, 1999: 30]

CATAPHORIC *IT*

When a complex clause functions as the semantic subject of a sentence, a speaker will often put that clause at the end of the sentence and replace it with the pronoun *it*. In this case *it* is not semantically empty; its semantic content is the subsequent clause.

That my daughter had lied bothered me. / **It** bothered me *that my daughter had lied*.

That Megan would win was predictable. / **It** was predictable *that Megan would win*.

That Sam was mad was obvious. / **It** was obvious *that Sam was mad*.

This *it* is called cataphoric because it refers to something that comes after; the Greek prefix *cata-* means "away." [S]ubject *it* can have three very different functions—anaphoric reference, cataphoric reference, and empty placeholder. [Berk, 1999: 21-22]

The Missing Pronoun. We should also note that our system of personal pronouns—or, to be more accurate, a gap in the system—is the source of a great deal of the sexism in our language. Missing from the system is a singular third-person pronoun that refers to either gender. Our plural pronoun [*they*] includes both male and female; but when we need a pronoun to refer to an unidentified person, such as "the writer" or "a student" or "the doctor," the long-standing tradition has been to use the masculine (*he/his/him*):

The writer of this news story should have kept personal his opinion out of it.

In this situation, we could avoid the sexism of *his* either by eliminating the determiner or substituting *the*. Perhaps someday the plural pronoun will be accepted for both singular and plural, a usage known as the "singular *they*" which has become quite common in speech:

Someone broke into our car last night; *they* stole our tape deck and all our tapes. [Kolln, 2012: 292-293]

PLURALS OF APPROXIMATION. PLURAL OF MODESTY. PLURAL OF MAJESTY

- ❑ ***I and we.*** Whereas *I* refers to the current speaker, *we* is not the plural of *I*, but rather *I* plus one or more other persons. The pronouns *we/us* either include or exclude the addressee:

inclusive *we*: Shall *we* sit together over there?

inclusive *us*: Let's go! Let us pray. (formal)

exclusive *we*: *We* wanted to ask you a favour.

exclusive *us*: Let *us* go!

- ❑ Strong stress (marking information focus) on *we* can disambiguate a potentially ambiguous reference. Otherwise, the addressee has to work out the meaning from the context:

A. How are we going to get there? (ambiguous: speaker's intended meaning was probably inclusive)

B. Well, *WE*'re going in Tom's car. (exclusive)

- *We/ us* can refer to 'everybody in general':

We don't seem to be near world peace yet. [Downing & Locke, 2006: 411-412]

- The most important instance of **the plural of approximation** is *we*, which means I + one or more not-I's. It follows from the definition of the first person that it is only thinkable in the singular, as it means the speaker in this particular instance. [...] The word *we* is essentially vague and gives no indication whom the speaker wants to include besides himself. It has often, therefore, to be supplemented by some addition: *we doctors, we gentlemen, we Yorkshiremen, we of this city*.
- **The plural of the second person** may be, according to circumstances, **the normal plural** (ye = thou + a different thou + a third thou, etc.), or else **a plural of approximation** (ye = thou + one or more other people not addressed at the moment).
- When a person speaks of himself as "**we**" instead of "**I**" it may in some cases be due to a **modest reluctance** to obtrude his own person on his hearers or readers; he hides his own opinion or action behind that of others. But the practice may even more frequently be due to **a sense of superiority**, as in the "**plural of majesty**." This was particularly influential in the case of the Roman emperors who spoke of themselves as *nos* and required to be addressed as *vos*. This in course of time led to the French way of addressing all superiors (and later through courtesy also equals, especially strangers) with the plural pronoun *Vous*. In the Middle Ages this fashion spread to many countries; in English it eventually led to the old singular *thou* being practically superseded by *you*, which is now **the sole pronoun of the second person and no longer a sign of deference or respect**. [Jespersen, *The Philosophy of Grammar*, 1958: 192-193]
- **YOU [sg.] vs. YOU [pl.]. The Historical Facts.** During Shakespeare's time, English lost the distinction between singular and plural forms in the second person. In Old and Middle English various forms of *thou/thee/thine* were used for singular reference, while various forms of *ye/you/your* were used in the plural. As happened in other European courts, the monarch's use of the royal *we* led speakers to address him or her in the second person plural, *ye* rather than *thou*. Gradually the use of the second person plural instead of the singular became a sign of respect. The object form *you* supplanted the subject form *ye*, and eventually the singular form disappeared completely in all dialects except that used by Quakers, some of whom still use *thee*. (The refusal of the early Quakers to use the second person plural form was a political act for which they were persecuted.) As a result of all of these social pressures, there is an unfortunate gap in our second person pronoun system, i.e., there is no distinction in form between singular and plural. But speakers have come up with many creative ways to fashion a distinct second person plural form (ex. In the US *you all*, in New York and Chicago *yous, you guys* – although it, too, raises gender issues). Among some speakers of British English, *you lot* is a common second person plural. An English mother might say to her rowdy children, "You lot, get over here!" [Berk, 1999: 86-87]

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PRACTICE. Substitute personal pronouns for the underlined nouns and noun phrases in the following sentences. [Kolln, 2012: ex. 58 / 293]

1. Luis and Maria have bought a new house.
2. Bev and I will be going to the game with Otis.
3. Betsy bought that beautiful new car of hers in Charlotte.
4. Both of her cars are gas guzzlers.
5. There have always been uneasy feelings between the neighbors and my husband.

- 6. I want Tony to approve of the project.
- 7. The kids gave their father and me a bad time.
- 8. My brother, who works for the Navy in California, spends his weekends in Las Vegas.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

Reflexive pronouns are those formed by adding *-self* or *-selves* to a form of the personal pronoun [Kolln, 2012: 295]:

PERSON	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1st	myself	ourselves
2nd	yourself	yourselves
3rd	himself	themselves
	herself	
	itself	

In English if two NPs refer to the same entity (i.e., are **co-referential**) and are used in the same simple sentence, in the second instance the NP must be a **reflexive** pronoun and it must reflect that same gender and number as the first NP. The first co-referential NP is usually the subject.

- Henry hates himself.*
- The kids scared themselves.*
- Barb talks to herself.*
- I cut myself.*
- We fooled ourselves.*

The reflexive allows us to distinguish among possible referents with the same number and gender. Clearly the direct object in *Henry hates him* refers to a different male than the direct object of *Henry hates himself*. [Berk, 1999: 87]

There are **syntactic constraints** on reflexive pronouns. **Only personal pronouns take the reflexive {-self} form** and, as a rule, **reflexive objects** (which may be **direct objects**, **indirect objects**, or **objects of prepositions**) are **animate when the first NP is the subject**. This is not surprising because it is usually animate beings that act or reflect upon themselves. The subject is usually an agent or an experience in a sentence containing a reflexive pronoun.

- Guillermo argues with himself.*
- Marsha doesn't trust herself.*
- My mother gave herself a present.*
- Tom believes in himself.*
- Jane considers herself a success.* [Berk, 1999: 87]

Sometimes a nonvolitional causer occurs as the subject in such a sentence:

- Penelope accidentally hurt herself.*
- Daniel scared himself.*
- The baby burned herself.* [Berk, 1999: 87-88]

The reflexive pronoun is used as the **direct object**, **indirect object**, and **object of the preposition** when its antecedent appears in the same clause, usually as the subject:

- John cut himself.* (John → himself)
- I glanced at myself in the mirror.* (I → myself)
- I cooked dinner for Shelley and myself.* (I → myself)
- Joe cooked dinner for Gary and himself.* (Joe → himself) [Kolln, 2012: 295]

Although the first co-referential NP in a reflexive construction is usually a subject, it need not be – *Jeremiah offered Esther a picture of herself; We talked to Trudy about herself*. **Inanimate reflexives** are uncommon but they do exist – *She turned my argument in upon itself*. Inanimate reflexives are particularly likely when we endow **inanimate subjects with animate qualities** – *The water heater blew itself up. My car destroyed itself; That book sells itself*. The following sentence appeared in a motorcycle owners magazine: “[Bearings][rulmenti] virtually never tighten themselves” (Glaves, 1997, p. 16) [Berk, 1999: 88]

Some normally transitive verbs occur intransitively when the direct object is a **covert reflexive pronoun**. *Tom shaved* means *Tom shaved himself*, while *Tom shaved him* means *Tom shaved someone else*. We see the same phenomenon with certain other **grooming verbs** – *Wendy bathed; The kids dressed; Raymond washed*. [Berk, 1999: 88]

There are only a few **verbs which take only reflexive objects**:

The children behaved themselves.

The witness perjured herself.

My brother has bettered himself.

Arlene prides herself on her advanced degrees. [Berk, 1999: 88]

Behave can occur with a covert, unexpressed object, but this, too, always refers back to the subject. While we can say “The children behaved” (meaning the children behaved well), we can never say “The children behaved their cousins.” An individual can never *perjure*, *pride* or *better* someone else, although it is possible to *best* another individual or group – *The Chicago Bulls bested their New York Knicks*. [Berk, 1999: 88]

Reflexives don’t normally occur with copulas and, when they do, the copula does not express mere existence. When a speaker utters a sentence like *Hamlet is not himself today*, s/he is really indicating that Hamlet is behaving strangely, not that he actually exists as something other than himself. [Berk, 1999: 88]

Reflexives can also be used to mean “**alone**” or “**on one’s own**”. In these constructions the reflexive is often **preceded by the preposition by**.

I’ll fix it myself.

The building stood by itself in a field.

The baby tied his shoes by himself.

The difference between a straight reflexive pronoun and one which means “alone” is underscored by this wonderfully ambiguous classified ad.

Are you tired of cleaning yourself? Let me do it. [Berk, 1999: 88-89]

PRACTICE Fill the blanks with the appropriate reflexive pronouns. [Kolln, 2012: ex. 59 / 296]

1. Gabrielle gave _____ a black eye when she fell.
2. Li and Mei-Ting cooked _____ salmon for dinner.
3. The ceramic figurine sat by _____ on the shelf.
4. We sat by _____ in the front row. [ourselves]
5. Paulo cooked a delicious Mexican feast for Rosa and _____ .
6. Wearing our new designer jeans, Sheila and I admired _____ in the mirror.

INTENSIVE PRONOUNS / EMPHATIC REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

Also known as the *emphatic reflexive pronouns*, the intensive pronouns have the same form as the reflexives. The intensive pronoun serves as an **appositive** to emphasize a noun [or pronoun], but it need not directly follow the noun [or pronoun]:

I myself prefer chocolate.

I prefer chocolate myself.

Myself, I prefer chocolate. [Kolln, 2012: 296-297]

I myself never smoked.

*I handed her **the gold itself**.*

*I've never actually talked to the President **myself**.*

Constructions like these work best in larger stretches of discourse – *Tom smokes like a chimney but **I myself** have never smoked; She was expecting only a certificate but I handed her **the gold itself**.* [Berk, 1999: 89]

Remember the three functions of the reflexive pronouns:

- ☐ co-reference with the subject [*They learned to take care of **themselves**.*]
- ☐ an emphatic use, in which the pronoun is either appositive to the subject or postponed [*Susan **herself** told me so. Susan told me so **herself**.*]
- ☐ and where they are required by the verb [*She knows how to fend for **herself**. One should avail **oneself** of such opportunities.*] [after Downing & Locke, 2006: 413]

POSSESSIVE REFLEXIVES

If you hear a sentence like *Mary destroyed her toys* out of the context, it is impossible to determine whether genitive *her* refers to Mary or to another female. But **the modifier own** can be used in conjunction with a genitive determiner to produce a **genitive reflexive**.

*Mary destroyed **her own** toys.*

*Benjamin wants **his own** bed.*

*Laurie threw out **her own** tax records.*

There are a few cases in which a genitive determiner expressing **inalienable possession** will always be interpreted as referring back to the subject. These typically involve movements made with a part of the body (Levin, 1993, p. 108).

*David craned **his** neck.*

*The bodybuilder flexed **her** muscles.*

*The teacher pursed **her** lips.*

*The dog wagged **his** tail.*

*The guest smacked **her** lips.* [Berk, 1999: 89]

RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS

Like most reflexive pronouns, **reciprocal pronoun phrases** typically have **the same referent as the subject**, the difference is that the subject to which a reciprocal pronoun refers must include more than one entity. Thus, **the subject NP must be plural** or there must be **two or more coordinated NPs**. The action in such constructions is **reciprocal**, each individual subject has the same relationship to the other subjects in the construction.

*My children fight with **each other**.*

*We babysit for **each other's** children.*

*They gave **one another** gifts.*

Like reflexives, reciprocal pronouns are almost always **animate**. [Berk, 1999: 90]

They serve either as **determiners** (in the possessive case) or as objects, referring to previously named nouns.

Each other generally refers to two nouns; one another to three or more.

*Juan and Claudia help **each other**.*

*They even do **each other's** chores.*

*All the students in my study group help **one another** with their homework.* [Kolln, 2012: 297]

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

[T]he selection of a **determiner** is based on certain **inherent features**, such as **definite or indefinite, countable or noncountable**. The **demonstrative pronouns**, one of the subclasses of **determiners**, include the features of “**number**” and “**proximity**”:

PROXIMITY

NUMBER

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Near</i>	this	these
<i>Distant</i>	that	those

That documentary we saw last night really made me think, but this one is simply stupid.

Those trees on the ridge were almost destroyed by gypsy moths, but these seem perfectly healthy.

[Kolln, 2012: 297]

Like other determiner classes, the demonstrative pronoun can be a substitute for a nominal as well as a signal for one [Kolln, 2012: 298]:

These old shoes and hats	will be perfect for the costumes.
These	will be perfect for the costumes.

When the demonstratives (*this, that, these, those*) are used alone without a noun head, they are considered demonstrative pronouns. They behave very much like demonstrative determiners (i.e. they express spatial and sometimes temporal deixis), except that the noun to which they refer is not part of the NP – *This is moldy; I don't want that*. Demonstrative pronouns are often accompanied by **gestures**, e.g. a child might point while saying "This is my room." The context will usually make the referent of the demonstrative clear.

A demonstrative pronoun can also be **anaphoric**, in which case it often refers back to an entire proposition – *I listen to opera all the time. This drives my family nuts*. [I]n general **anaphoric this** is used for a **current situation**, whereas **anaphoric that** refers to a **past event**. So even when demonstrative pronouns are used anaphorically, they retain some of their **deictic properties**. [Berk, 1999: 90]

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THE PRONOUNS THIS & THAT

The deictics *this* and *that* can function as NG heads to refer to a whole proposition or situation or something inferred from it, a use which we classify here as pronominal. These pronominal references may be:

- ❑ **anaphoric** (to a previous part of the discourse)
- ❑ **cataphoric** (to a later part of the discourse) or
- ❑ **exophoric** (to something outside the discourse).

Anaphoric reference: *Hilda was making a Dutch Delft cake at the oven. This was her speciality and she made it on every occasion.*

Cataphoric reference: *This is a security announcement: Would those passengers who have left bags on their seats please remove them.*

Exophoric reference: *I never thought things would come to this.* (= to this extreme)

We can see that all the referents in these examples are inanimate and general, and some of them refer to pieces of extended discourse.

Reference to persons by the pronouns *this* and *that* is limited in English to the following uses:

1. **This is** (+ *one's own name*) for identifying oneself in a non-face-to-face situation, illustrated by **1a**; as compared with self-introduction when face-to-face **1b**, where we can use *I am/I'm* (+ *one's own name*).
2. **This is** ... for introducing one person to another **2** (less formal than *May I introduce you to X?*).
3. **That** ... for asking or giving the identification of a more distant 3rd person, using *that* **3**.

- 1a *This* is Sally Jones speaking (not **I am Sally Jones*) (non-face-to-face self-identification, for instance, on the telephone)
- 1b *I am* Sally Jones (not **This is Sally Jones*) (face-to-face self-identification)
- 2 *This* is my friend June. (introducing one person to another)
- 3 Who is *that*? *That's* my friend June. (identification of a 3rd person at some distance away from the speaker, or looking at a photograph)

So far we have seen *this* indicating **proximity** to the speaker and *that* **distance**. However, these terms are often interpreted subjectively. For instance, an event distant in time may be referred to as *this* if it has just been mentioned:

*Columbus discovered the Bahamas in 1492 and **this** changed the course of history.*

Conversely, events near in time may be referred to by *that* when an effect of psychological distancing is required. In many cases, however, the choice is open:

*If the Opposition wins the motion of 'No Confidence' today, **that** / **this** will mean the end of the present government.* [Downing & Locke, 2006: 414-415]

RELATIVE PRONOUNS

The **relative pronouns** are *who*, *which*, and *that*; they introduce clauses that modify the nouns that are the antecedents of these pronouns. *Who* inflects for both possessive and objective cases: *whose* (possessive) and *whom* (objective). The case of *who* is determined by the part it plays (its function) in its own clause:

The man who lives across the street sold me his car.

In this sentence *who* renames *man*, its antecedent, and plays the part of subject in the relative (adjectival) clause. In the next sentence the relative pronoun is in the possessive case form, *whose*:

The man whose car I bought was not very honest about the gas mileage.

Here *whose*, the possessive relative pronoun, again stands for *man*; in its own clause it acts as the determiner for *car*, the role that possessives normally play.

Whose also acts as the possessive form of *which*:

The wooded ridge across the valley, whose trees were infested by gypsy moths, turned brown in mid-June.

The relative pronoun *that* is generally subjective or objective, never possessive:

I lost the backpack that I bought yesterday.

That renames *backpack* and acts as the object within its own clause. **In object position, *that* can be omitted:**

I lost the backpack I bought yesterday.

When *that* the subject of the clause, however, it cannot be omitted:

The route that will get us there fastest is straight across the mountain.

The *wh-* relative pronouns also have an expanded form with the addition of *-ever*, known as **indefinite relative pronouns**: *whoever*, *whosever*, *whomever*, and *whatever*. The expanded relatives have indefinite referents rather than specific ones as the simple relatives do:

I will give a bonus to whoever works the hardest.

I will pay you whatever you deserve.

I will call whomever the doctor recommends.

What is also considered an indefinite relative pronoun when it introduces adjectival clauses and means "that which":

I will pay you what you deserve. [Kolln, 2012: 298-299]

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

The list of interrogative pronouns is similar to that of the relatives: *who* (*whose*, *whom*), *which*, and *what*. The interrogatives, as their name suggests, are among the question words that produce information questions (in contrast to yes/no questions):

What do you want for lunch?

Whose car is that?

Which section of history did you get? [Kolln, 2012: 299]

Interrogative pronouns always begin with the letters *wh* in written texts, thus they are called *wh* words. The interrogative pronoun, regardless of its grammatical function, is almost always the first word in the sentence. The one exception is in those cases where the interrogative is the object of a preposition, in which case some speakers place the preposition before the interrogative pronoun.

<i>Who left the door open?</i>	[Who is a subject]
<i>What is Matilda eating?</i>	[What is an object]
<i>Who did you loan your car to?</i>	[Who is an indirect object]
<i>To whom did you loan your car?</i>	[To whom is an indirect object]
<i>What did Maggie call Cedric?</i>	[What is an object complement]
<i>What is his name?</i>	[What is a subject complement]

There are **adverb interrogatives** as well – *where*, *when*, *why* and *how*. [Berk, 1999: 93]

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

We often need to speak about persons, things or events whose identity or character is unknown to us. The indefinite pronouns allow us to do just that. But once again, the term **indefinite** is misleading. It means that the referent is **not specified**, but it does not mean that the referent is **nonspecific**. Indefinite *someone* and *something* can have either specific or nonspecific reference, depending on the context. Upon being asked out, a young woman might respond with “I’m dating someone.” Here the speaker obviously knows the identity of the person she is dating but doesn’t wish to divulge it. After breaking down on a country road, you might say to your companions, “Surely, someone will come along and help us.” In this case *someone* has nonspecific reference.

Someone will call the police, I’m sure. [nonspecific]

You’ll find *somebody* to take to the prom. [nonspecific]

Something exploded in the garage. [specific]

Someone is walking on the deck. [specific]

Anyone and *anything* never have specific reference – *The baby will eat anything*; *He’ll talk to anyone*. Because they don’t have referents, these indefinites are most often used in negatives and questions.

Did *anyone* hear you?

My children won’t read *anything*.

Has *anybody* told you about the new rules?

Gertrude won’t loan her plane to *anyone*.

If you enter your apartment and you hear footsteps in the upstairs hall, you might yell, “Is someone here?” Your expectation is that the answer will be positive. If your friend’s house appears dark and empty, you might yell “Is anybody here?” with the expectation that no one will answer.

Since *nobody* and *nothing* already contain a negative form as part of the pronoun, neither form occurs with the negative particle in formal edited English, although sentences like *I didn’t see nothing* are quite common in

conversational discourse. It should be obvious that **all the indefinite pronouns** were once **nouns or numerals preceded by a quantifier** – *some + body, no + thing, every + one*. *Nobody* was written as two separate words until the eighteenth century and it is only a constraint on our pronunciation of double vowels that prevents us from writing **noone* for *no one* today. Since it behaves exactly like *nobody*, we'll treat *no one* as a pronoun also.

Someone, something, no one, and nothing can also be classified as **quantifying pronouns**; this is not incompatible with being indefinite.

[T]here are **adverb indefinites** as well as pronoun indefinites – *sometime, somewhere, somehow, anywhere*. [Berk, 1999: 91-92]

The **indefinite pronouns** include a number of words listed earlier as determiners:

- enough many all either more**
- few much both neither most**
- fewer several any none each**

One is also commonly used as a pronoun (as are the other cardinal numbers—*two, three*, etc.) along with its negative, *none*. As a pronoun, *one* often replaces only the headword, rather than the entire noun phrase:

- The blue shoes that I bought yesterday will be perfect for the trip.*
- The blue ones that I bought yesterday will be perfect for the trip.*

The personal pronoun, on the other hand, would replace the entire noun phrase:

They will be perfect for the trip. [Kolln, 2012: 300]

SUBSTITUTE ONE / ONES

An object that has already been mentioned or is visible in the discourse can be referred to by the head-word *one*, plural *ones*. These words have no semantic identity of their own, but only the grammatical function of substituting for a noun or NG in order to avoid repetition. When used in this way, these items are classed as '**substitute heads**', to distinguish them from the classes of 'pronominal heads' of NGs.

It is important to note that *one / ones* can replace either a whole antecedent NG or only part of it. Compare 1 and 2 with 3. In 4, the elliptical plural *some*, not *ones* is the plural of *one*:

- 1 I knew Mavis wanted a blue scarf, so I bought her *one*. (*one* = whole NG a blue scarf)
- 2 I knew Mavis wanted a blue scarf, so I bought her a lovely *one*. (= blue scarf).
- 3 I couldn't find a blue scarf for Mavis, so I bought her a green *one*. (= scarf)
- 4 I know Mavis likes scarves, so I bought her *some* lovely ones. (= scarves)

The substitute item *one/ones* may be accompanied by a determiner, a pre-modifier or a post-modifier, thus producing NGs of varying structures:

- dh:** this one, each one, either one, which ones, any ones.
- dmh:** that big one, a small red one, a few ripe ones.
- dhm:** that one over there, any one you like.
- dmhm:** some fresh ones from the country. [Downing & Locke, 2006: 416]

The pronouns *every, any, no, and some* can be expanded with *-body, -thing, and -one*:

some	body	every	body
	thing		thing
	one		one
any	body	no	body
	thing		thing
	one		one (two words)

(Note that *every* and *no*, which function as determiners, do not function as pronouns except in the expanded forms shown here.)

These pronouns can take modifiers in the form of clauses and phrases:

Anyone *who wants extra credit in psych class* can volunteer for tonight's experiment.

They can also be modified by verb phrases:

Everyone *reporting late for practice* will take fifteen laps.

And by prepositional phrases:

Nothing *on the front page* interests me anymore.

Unlike most nouns, the expanded indefinite pronouns can be modified by single adjectives in postheadword position:

I don't care for anything *sweet*.

I think that something *strange* is going on in here.

And unlike other pronouns, when the expanded indefinite pronouns are used in the possessive case—as they are when functioning as determiners—they require an **apostrophe + s**, just as possessive nouns do:

Somebody's books are in the back seat.

The teacher ignored everyone's complaints about the exam schedule. [Kolln, 2012: 300-301]

QUANTIFYING PRONOUNS

The forms that were included in the predeterminer and postdeterminer categories can also stand alone as pronouns – *All were crying*; *Both were stubborn*; *Four remained*. The plural indefinite article *some* can also stand alone as a pronoun – *I will give you some*. [...]

Everyone, *everything*, *nothing*, and *nobody* are also quantifying pronouns – *Everyone likes her*; *He ate everything*; *Nobody attended the meeting*. *Someone* and *something* can also be included in this category although their primary semantic characteristic is **indefiniteness**. [...]

There are **adverb quantifiers** as well, e.g. *everywhere*, *anytime* etc. [Berk, 1999: 91]

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USAGE MATTERS. PROBLEM PRONOUNS

Somebody and anyone and everyone. When we use these pronouns as sentence subjects, we treat them as singular in terms of the verb:

Everyone in class is invited to the picnic.

Everybody plans to be there.

Clearly, however, the referent of these pronouns is plural; that is, both *everyone* and *everybody* refer to more than one person. That's why, when we need a personal pronoun, we choose *they*:

When everyone arrived, they organized a softball game.

Everybody had a good time, didn't they?

In these examples, there's really no alternative to this use of the plural *they* even though the indefinite pronouns require a singular verb. However, in some cases *they* will sound awkward:

Someone called last night, but they didn't leave a message.

Here the problem is a different one. Here *someone* is actually singular—but we have no singular pronoun that refers to a person whose sex is unknown.

In the past, until a few decades ago, writers had no qualms about using the masculine pronoun in this situation; it was standard usage:

Someone called last night, but he didn't leave a message. [Kolln, 2012: 301-302]

Indefinite Pronouns and Gender. Indefinite pronouns are neutral in terms of gender and this creates problems when an indefinite pronoun is the antecedent of a personal pronoun.

[M]ost English speakers use *they/them/their* as **gender neutral pronouns** even in contexts in which the antecedent appears to be singular.

If *anyone* calls, tell *them* I'm out.

Everyone must pack *their* own lunch.

I saw *someone* in the shadows and *they* were watching me.

Anyone who thinks *they* can fix this is a fool.

Traditional grammars argue that anyone, someone and everyone are singular pronouns because they end in “one”. It is true that these pronouns take singular verbs. But in most of the examples above, the number implied by the indefinite is actually indeterminate. In *If anyone calls...*, the number could be anywhere from zero to any reasonable finite number; in *Everyone must pack their own lunch*, there is a presumption that there is more than one potential lunchpacker; only in *I saw someone in the shadows* does the indefinite pronoun clearly refer to a single individual. For this reason, speakers seem especially willing to use *they* when the antecedent is *anyone* or *everyone*. Certain quantifying determiners pose exactly the same solution – *Every student must pack their own lunch. Each child will bring their birth certificate*. (Although the noun head is singular in both these cases, *every* presupposes more than one student and *each* more than one child). [Berk, 1999: 92-93]

The "Some/Any" Rule. Although the restrictions are not apparent in their forms, the choice of *some* and *any*, as well as their expanded versions with *body*, *thing*, and *one*, is usually determined by the presence or absence of *not* or another negative, such as *never*, *rarely*, *seldom*, and the like:

Do you want some dessert?

No, I don't want any.

I saw someone you know at the concert.

I didn't see anyone I know.

The adverbs *somewhere* and *anywhere* carry the same restriction:

My sister is somewhere in the mall.

I'm not going anywhere until she shows up.

We should emphasize that while these examples follow the standard rule, it is not unusual to hear variations. In the first example, for instance, the response “No, I don't want some” would sound a bit odd – but would probably not be judged ungrammatical. [Kolln, 2012: 301-302]

PRACTICE. Underline the pronouns in the following sentences. Identify the subclass to which each pronoun belongs. [Kolln, 2012: ex. 60 / 302-303]

1. When Roberto ordered a pizza with everything, I ordered one too.
2. Millie and Bev shopped at almost every store in the mall but couldn't find any shoes they liked.
3. Someone was standing in the shadows, but we couldn't see who it was.
4. All that I had for lunch was that overripe banana.
5. Booker and Marcus didn't eat much either, but they both ate more than I did.
6. I myself will go along with whatever you decide.
7. One hour of studying was enough for me.
8. Quarreling among themselves, the committee members completely disregarded one another's suggestions.
9. At the end of most months, I find myself without funds.
10. The employment office will find a job for whoever wants one.

SEMINAR on PRONOUNS

COURSE # 7 IN A NUTSHELL

Classification according to content:

No.	Name	Form(s)	Examples
1.	The Personal Pronoun (pronumele personal)	Nominative: <i>I, you, he, she, it, we, you, they</i> Genitive: <i>mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs</i> Accusative: <i>me, you, him, her, it, us, you, them</i> Dative: (to) <i>me / you / him / her / it / us / you / them</i>	<i>She</i> was to meet <i>me</i> here. <i>They</i> say we shall have a lot of rain. (generic function)
2.	The Reflexive Pronoun (pronumele reflexiv)	<i>myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves</i> + impersonal pronoun <i>oneself</i>	Did you hurt <i>yourself</i> ? She introduced <i>herself</i> to the other girls. Suddenly I saw <i>myself</i> as he saw me... My friends and <i>myself</i> knew very little about him. He was quite satisfied with <i>himself</i> . They whispered among <i>themselves</i> .
3.	The Emphatic Pronoun (pronumele de întărire)	<i>myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves</i> + impersonal pronoun <i>oneself</i>	He says so <i>himself</i> . Did you speak to the general <i>himself</i> / <i>yourself</i> ? Do it <i>yourself</i> . When preceded by BY, it means ON ONE'S OWN: You needn't help them; they can do the work <i>by themselves</i> .
4.	The Possessive Pronoun (pronumele posesiv)	<i>mine, yours, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs</i>	It's <i>mine</i> , not <i>his</i> . When preceded by OF, it has a partitive meaning: He's a cousin <i>of mine</i> . When OF is preceded by a demonstrative adjective, it expresses either love, admiration, or disdain, hate: Look at <i>this baby of ours</i> . <i>That dog of yours</i> is a nuisance.
5.	The Demonstrative Pronoun (pronumele demonstrativ)	<i>this, that, these, those</i> + <i>same, such</i>	<i>This</i> is my son George and <i>that</i> is my daughter Mary. It is not <i>the same</i> . <i>Such</i> was his opinion, <i>such</i> was the result.
6.	The Interrogative Pronoun (pronumele interogativ)	<i>who, whose</i> ²⁷¹ , (to) <i>whom, what, which</i>	<i>Who</i> told you that? <i>Whose</i> was that opinion? <i>Whom</i> are you talking to? <i>To whom</i> did he speak about that? <i>What</i> comes next? <i>Which</i> of the books is the most interesting?

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²⁷¹ Whose functions as a genitive and an interrogative determiner simultaneously.

			Idiomatic expressions: What about going to the movies? What is he like? What does she look like?
7.	The Relative Pronoun (pronumele relativ)	<i>who (whom, to whom, whoever) / which / that ("care")</i> <i>what ("ce", "ceea ce")</i> <i>but ("care să nu", "care nu")</i>	People who live in glass houses should never throw stones. What is worth doing is worth doing well. All that glitters is not gold. There was no man but admired him.
8.	The Indefinite Pronoun (pronumele nehotărât)	<i>some, any, none and compounds with some, any, no, every (+ BODY / ONE / THING - e.g. somebody, someone, something etc.)</i> <i>one, each, another, others, the other, both, all, either, neither, whole, much, little, a little, several, few, many</i>	Some answered in the affirmative and some in the negative. I should like to have some of that coffee. I should like to drink some tea. Is there any left? No, there isn't any . I do not want any of these cakes. Any of these dictionaries will do. Something is better than nothing . One mustn't forget that. Which one do you need? Several of us saw them all .
9.	The Reciprocal Pronoun (pronumele reciproc)	<i>each other ("unul pe celălalt") – when two people / items are involved</i> <i>one another ("unul pe altul") – when more than two people / items are involved</i>	They always told each other / one another the truth. They were looking at each other's / one another's copy-books.

Pronoun IT**Anticipatory IT:**

It's a wonder he didn't hurt himself.

It is no use crying over spilt milk.

*I thought **it** my duty to warn you.*

When followed by BE, IT acquires the stylistic function of emphasis:

***It** was yesterday that I lost the book.*

More often than not, IT has an impersonal function to refer to:

- 1) natural phenomena: ***It** looks like rain. **It** is snowing. **It** was getting dark.*
- 2) time: ***It** was late when I arrived, **it** was midnight.*
- 3) distance: ***It's** a long way to Tipperary. **It's** two miles to the bus.*
- 4) a general state of affairs: ***It** was very pleasant at the seaside. **It's** all over with him.*

IT can be used with no semantic value, as in:

*I can't help **it**.*

*You must make **it** up to him.*

COURSE # 7 FURTHER PRACTICE**PRACTICE Translate into Romanian:**

We therefore decided that we would sleep out on fine nights; and hotel it, and inn it, and pub it, like respectable folks, when it was wet, or when we felt inclined for a change. (Jerome K. Jerome)

PRACTICE. Translate into English using either reflexive or emphatic pronouns:

1. Acum câteva zile m-am tăiat cu un cuțit.
2. Asta nu-i cartea ta; am cumpărat-o eu însumi.
3. Copiii se certară unii cu alții și în cele din urmă plecară pe la casele lor.
4. De vrei să faci un lucru cum trebuie, fă-l tu însuși.
5. John spune că astea nu-s mănușile lui, deși seamănă foarte bine cu cele pe care le-a cumpărat chiar el nu demult.

PRACTICE. Fill in with *some* and *any* compounds:

1. If ... calls, say that I'm out.
2. Don't let ... disturb me.
3. Mary has got ... to tell you.
4. It is ... difficult to say which book is the most interesting of all.
5. Water can be found almost ... on earth.

PRACTICE. Translate into English using EITHER / NEITHER:

1. Niciunul dintre prietenii mei nu sosise încă (așteptam doi prieteni).
2. Am două cărți pe birou, dar nu-i niciuna interesantă.
3. Pe ambele maluri ale râului cresc mulți copaci.
4. Oricare din aceste (două) autobuze vă duce la aeroport.
5. Pe care din aceste (două) cărți vrei s-o iei? Oricare din ele.
6. Oricare din aceste (două) drumuri duce la gară.

PRACTICE. Combine the pairs of sentences below:

Model: Henry came to see me last week. He is living next door to us.

Henry, who is living next door to us, came to see me last week.

1. Her cat is very fond of meat. It is called Tim.
2. The great fire of London destroyed a large part of the city. It broke out in 1666.
3. The river Danube flows through many countries. It is one of the biggest in Europe.
4. Geoffrey Chaucer wrote *The Canterbury Tales*. He lived between 1340 and 1400.
5. Ann's grandfather is eighty today. He was born in Bucharest.

PRACTICE. Identifying Pronouns. TEST. Underline the pronouns in the following sentences. Identify the subclass to which each pronoun belongs. Place your labels below the underlined pronouns: personal (pers), reflexive (refl), intensive (int), reciprocal (recp), demonstrative (dem), relative (rel), interrogative (inter), indefinite (ind). [Kolln, 2012 Exercises: 159-160]

Example: Someone was standing in the shadows, but I couldn't see who it was.

indef

pers

inter pers

1. We gave haircuts to each other; they look terrible. 2. Theirs look better than mine. 3. Who ate all the fudge? 4. The coach blames himself for the loss of Friday's game. 5. Everyone takes advantage of me because of my generous nature. 6. The financial aids office will try to find a work-study job for whoever wants one.	7. You must take the initiative yourself. 8. Many politicians are obligated to the big contributors who helped them get elected. 9. One hour of studying was enough for her. 10. Is that the book which the dramaturge couldn't find yesterday? 11. We were not surprised to see several of our friends at the concert with us.
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Course # 10 Determiners (II). Articles

- The Definite Article
- The Indefinite Article
- The Zero Article
- Definiteness / Indefiniteness / Genericity
- Determinerless NPs

THE DEFINITE ARTICLE

Form & pronunciation:

- the form of the definite article is always THE²⁷², but its pronunciation differs according to the initial sound of the following word; thus, the definite article is pronounced [ðð] before consonants and the semivowels [w], [j] and [ɔi] before vowels and mute “h” (*the man, the woman, the year* - [ðð]; *the egg, the honour, the hour* - [ɔi])
- sometimes, when the definite article indicates “excellency” / is stressed / used as subject, it must be emphasized; in such cases, the definite article is italicized if in print, while in speech, it is pronounced [ɔi], irrespective of the initial sound of the following word (“*The*” is the definite article. Is this *the* Mr. Lloyd?)

FUNCTIONS ²⁷³		
The Anaphoric²⁷⁴ Function	It indicates a noun already mentioned during the communication: it is very close to the functions of the demonstrative adjective, with which it can easily be replaced.	<i>There is a man who wants to see you; the man has already called on us in the morning.</i>
The Cataphoric Function (also called: Anticipatory – S. Manoliu)	Reference is made to nouns with further specifications in the context.	<i>The lady who is speaking was my teacher of history. The London of Dickens’ time is described in his novels.</i>
The Situational	Reference is made to a noun easily	<i>Have you learned the news?</i>

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²⁷² THE is a definite article only when it is used before a noun or accompanies an adjective in the superlative degree + noun: *He is one of **the** best (students).* When it accompanies 2 correlated adjectives / adverbs in the comparative / superlative, THE is an adverb: ***The** sooner, **the** better. He who remembers **the** longest, grieves **the** most!*

²⁷³ Another distinction of the functions of the definite article is made between **definite specific reference** and **generic / classifying function**. The former comprises the **implicit / situational** and the **explicit / linguistic** reference (László Budai, *Gramatica engleză. Teorie și exerciții*, Teora, București, 2002 (1997)). The **implicit / situational reference** has 4 subsets:

1. **Implicit reference to immediate surroundings:** *Pass me **the** salt, please. Shut **the** window, will you? What’s **the** weather like (here and now)?*
2. **Reference to unique entities:** ***the** sun, **the** moon, **the** sky, **the** earth, **the** universe, **the** Bible, **the** Lord etc.*
3. **Inherent possession:** *I looked her in **the** face. He was shot in **the** chest. He patted me on **the** shoulder. He was hit on **the** head.*
4. **Backward reference** (anaphoric function): *I ordered **a** book and **the** book has just arrived.*

The **explicit / linguistic reference** implies numerals or NEXT / LAST (*He is sitting at **the** first desk. Take **the** next turning to the left.*); adjectives in the superlative (*This is **the** oldest building in town.*); defining / specifying adjectives (*Give me **the** blue pen.*); appositions (*Newton, **the** great physicist: Mary, **the** cook*); prepositional phrases (*We lit a fire on **the** edge of a wood.*); participial phrases (***The** book lying on the floor is yours.*); clauses (***The** soup you made yesterday was nice.*)

²⁷⁴ See also the **associative anaphora** (e.g. *I’ve just seen **a** house. **The** front door was impressive.*) (S. Manoliu).

Function (also called: Deictic / Demonstrative – <i>apud</i> S. Manoliu)	understood from a well-known / immediate situation.	Shut the window, please.
The Generic ²⁷⁵ Function	Reference is made to nouns considered generally, including a whole class of objects. It is used with: count nouns in the singular, nouns denoting peoples / social groups, personal / abstract adjective heads.	The wolf is a wild animal. the Romanians; the English; the Europeans; the workers; the farmers The wounded are carried to the hospital. The good and the evil are always at fight.
The Grammatical Function	The definite article is also used with ordinal numerals and in superlatives .	the first, the second, the third the best, the most beautiful, the smartest
The Idiomatic Function	Set Phrases.	on the one / other hand, by the way, on the whole, in the morning, at the beginning, to break the law, to beat about the bush, to give smbd. the cold shoulder, in the long run, for the time being, to play the violin / piano / drums ²⁷⁶ , to go by the book, on the radio / telephone, out of the question

The Non-Significant Definite Article - there is a situation when the proper nouns are to be preceded by the definite article, as a consequence of the English language evolution; in this case, the article has no function, being a “non-significant” determiner of the respective proper noun. The categories of proper nouns taking a definite article are:

- **GEOGRAPHIC NAMES** (**names of mountains / hills**: the Atlas, the Caucasus, the Carpathians, the Alps, the Balkans; **rivers**²⁷⁷: the Danube, the Thames, the Mississippi; **seas / oceans / some lakes**: the Black Sea, the Atlantic ocean, the Lake of Geneva; **isles / groups of isles / capes (used with an adjective)**²⁷⁸: the British Isles, the North Cape, the Cape Verde; **gulfs / channels / canals / straits**: the Bay of Biscay, the English Channel, the Panama Canal, the Strait of Gibraltar; **some countries / regions / deserts / provinces**: the Antarctic, the Arctic, the Ukraine, the Sahara, the Midwest; **names of countries including a common name**: the United Kingdom, the United States of America; **names of countries / continents / regions (in the plural)**: the Netherlands, the Bahamas, the Balears, the Low Countries, the Highlands; **names of some towns**: the Hague, the Bronx)
- **PROPER NAMES NO LONGER UNIQUE (proper nouns in the plural**: the Smiths, the Browns; common names originating in proper nouns: *I'll drive the Ford today.* (car's brand); **proper names preceded by an adjective**²⁷⁹: *the beautiful Mary, the famous Diana, the celebrated Brâncuși*)
- **TITLES (professional / nobiliary / academic / expressing politeness etc., when they are not considered unique**: the secretary, the professor, the King of Spain, the Prince of Wales)²⁸⁰

²⁷⁵ A **metonymic** use as well: *The Rembrandt proved a fake.* A **distributive / numerical** value might be added: *to sell by the pound; to pay by the hour.*

²⁷⁶ **Musical instruments** and **nouns denoting inventions** are generally used with the definite article (e.g. *I like listening to you playing the piano. We learn to live with the computer.*).

²⁷⁷ If the name of the river is used to form a compound proper name, NO article is used (ex. *Stratford-on-Avon*).

²⁷⁸ But Cape Horn, Cape Cod; similarly, the nouns HEAD, HARBOUR, HAVEN, FIRTH, POINT, HILL, LAND preceded by proper / common names have no article: *Pearl Harbour, Lizard Point* etc.

²⁷⁹ If the adjective has an emotional character / is a nickname / constitutes with the nouns only one meaning or name, no definite article is used: *dear John, darling sister, lazy Sissy, Little Dorrit, Modern English, Ancient Rome* etc.

- **CARDINAL POINTS²⁸¹ AND THE RESPECTIVE GEOGRAPHICAL REGIONS / DISTRICTS** (the East, the West. The North-East, the East End)
- **NAMES OF INSTITUTIONS / HOTELS / RESTAURANTS:** the Hilton, the University of London, the House of Commons, the British Broadcasting Corporation, the Lido
- **NAMES OF MUSEUMS / CHURCHES / ART GALLERIES (made up of an adjective and a common noun):** the Tate gallery, The Globe, the National History Museum
- **NAMES OF THEATRES / CINEMA HALLS / CLUBS / BUILDINGS:** the Old Vic, the Shakespeare Royal Company, the Athenaeum
- **NAMES OF VESSELS / SHIPS:** the Titanic, the "Transilvania"
- **NAMES OF SOME NEWSPAPERS / DAILY PUBLICATIONS²⁸²:** The Economist, The Times, The Guardian, The Washington Post, The Sun
- **SOME VERY WELL-KNOWN NAMES OF STREETS / PARKS / MONUMENTS / PUBLIC PLACES²⁸³:** the High Street, the Townhall Square, the Lincoln Memorial
- **SOME FROZEN CONSTRUCTIONS:** the BBC, the Navy, the Intelligence Service, the Bible, the Tropic, the Equator
- **NAMES OF THE DAYS / MONTHS / SEASONS (IN SOME CIRCUMSTANCES):** *The spring when we met was very special.* (the definite article has a deictic function); *On **the** Sunday we used to go to church.* (the noun expresses a general moment); *We go to ski in **the** winter and to the seaside in **the** summer.* (the article has a contrastive meaning); *In **the** August of 2000 she gave birth to a child.* (the noun has an attribute)

Common nouns used with the definite article:

- **NAMES OF DANCES:** the tango, the rock, the waltz
- **A LARGE NUMBER OF PHRASES:** *on **the** one / other hand, by **the** way, to tell **the** truth, at **the** seaside, in **the** country, in **the** mountains, on **the** whole, in **the** morning, at **the** beginning, on **the** right / left, to break **the** law, to beat about **the** bush, to give sbmd. **the** cold shoulder, to feel **the** pulse, in **the** long run, for **the** time being, to play **the** violin / piano / drums, to go by **the** book, to do **the** trick, to go to **the** cinema, to get to **the** point, in **the** beginning, to make **the** bed, on **the** move / run, to tell **the** time / truth, on **the** radio / telephone, out of **the** question, on **the** alert, on **the** point of.*

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THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE

Form & pronunciation:

- The form of the indefinite article is A [ə] when used before the words beginning with a consonant or semivowel, and AN [ən] when used before vowels or words beginning with mute "h" (*a man, a woman, a year, a window: an egg, an interesting book, an hour, an heir*)
- The strong form of the indefinite article (pronounced [ei] / [æn]) is used when the article is used as noun:
I said "a" [ei] man not "a" [ei] woman.

FUNCTIONS	
The Epiphoric²⁸⁴	✓ used with a noun introduced in the context for the first time: <i>When Ellen opened</i>

²⁸⁰ When the title followed by the preposition OF is an apposition, no article is used: *Juan, King of Spain; Charles, Prince of Wales.*

²⁸¹ When the cardinal points are used as adverbials of place / different phrases, no article is used: *The wind blows **south**. We travelled from **north** to **south**.* When they represent geographical names, they are written in capital letters.

²⁸² Magazines and periodicals normally take the zero article: *Life, New Scientist.*

²⁸³ Here are some exceptions: *Pall Mall, Covent Garden, Soho* etc.

Function	<i>the door she saw a boy staring at her.</i> ✓ after THERE IS: <i>There is a book on the table, there was a lady in the garden.</i> ✓ before the predicative expressed by nouns in the singular denoting profession / rank / title / position / quality / nationality / religion / age²⁸⁵: <i>John is a student; he is no longer a child. Peter is an only child. Is Mike an actor or a stage director? He is a lover of beauty. He is a Romanian and an orthodox. (S. Manoliu calls this non-specific / attributive.)</i> ✓ before proper nouns, emphasizing the idea that the respective person is not known, or, on the contrary, the person is so well-known that s/he symbolizes a quality²⁸⁶: <i>A Mary Brown / Jane Doe / John Doe cannot be accepted here. (a totally unknown person); She can be considered a Florence Nightingale of our town. He is a Scrooge (a miser) / a Romeo (a young romantic lover).</i> ✓ before proper nouns: <i>He thinks he is a Napoleon. He has the humour of a Dickens. The Elizabethan Age produced a Spenser, a Marlowe, a Shakespeare (here the meaning of the indefinite article is "like the person", "one having the qualities of").</i> ✓ before appositions: <i>Byron, a well-known romantic poet, died in Greece.</i> ✓ as part of some constructions: <i>She is as nice a girl as I have ever seen. As a good citizen, he is well-known in the town. Many a tree had been cut when we arrived. However interesting a work may be, you are tired of it one day. This is a most lovely story!</i> ✓ before an abstract or material word or a noun considered to be unique; the noun is usually associated with a descriptive pre- or postmodifier; in this function, A(N) means AN INSTANCE OF, A PIECE OF, A KIND OF: <i>They lived a happy life. He led a life of activity. A loud noise was heard. A brilliant idea occurred to me. We had a very good dinner. A hot sun was in the sky. I have a (bad) cold.</i> ✓ with a proper noun, it may indicate an aspect of, or a temporary state of the person or thing denoted: <i>Shaw showed an Ireland very different from what the Lady Yeats made her out to be.</i>
The Numerical Function	✓ used before numerals: <i>a / one thousand; two pencils and a rubber</i> ✓ before COUPLE, DOZEN ✓ A(N) after OF and AT, in some phrases, means "one and the same": <i>They are of an age. They were much of a size. Carry them 2 at a time.</i> ✓ before nouns expressing measures / chronological divisions / fractions: <i>a meter, a pound, an inch, a year, a quarter, a third, a half</i> ✓ with the meaning of EACH: <i>An apple a day keeps the doctor away. We play tennis twice a week</i>²⁸⁷.
The Generic Function	✓ used with count nouns in the singular form to express an entire class of objects: <i>A wolf is an animal.</i> ✓ to express "cost" / "speed": <i>five dollars a book; 50 miles an hour</i>
The Idiomatic	✓ in some set phrases: <i>once upon a time, all of a sudden, once in a blue moon, for a</i>

²⁸⁴ Also called: **Referential / Specific (SM)**.

²⁸⁵ When the predicative denotes a **unique** representative of a title / rank etc., it is not preceded by any article: *He is manager in this factory, isn't he?* Compare also: *He turned linguist. vs. He became a linguist. // He was an interpreter. vs. He acted as interpreter. // He would make a good manager. vs. He made / appointed John manager. // He was a headmaster. vs. He held the office of headmaster.* (SM)

²⁸⁶ In: *She has married a Jackson.* Or: *When a Forsyte was engaged, married or born, all the Forsytes were present.* – the article means "one of".

²⁸⁷ The following use of the definite article has sprung up in imitation of the indefinite article in this function (i.e. **distributive function**, Budai p. 292): *This material sells at 80p the / a yard. Save 5p in the / a pound.* The definite article can also occur independently of a(n), as in: *You can buy them by the hundred. Its popularity is increasing by the day. The average deaths last year was 48 in the thousand.*

Function	<i>while, at a loss, for a change, on a large scale, as a result of, to have a headache, to make a noise / fire, to set an example, just a moment, once in a blue moon, to keep an eye on, as a matter of fact</i>
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THE ZERO ARTICLE

- also called “alogistic” or “unexpressed” article, it is an article which is not expressed and has some functions, as the other 2 articles have.

FUNCTIONS		
The Generic Function	- used before proper nouns	- names of persons (with or without titles²⁸⁸; with or without simple appositions)²⁸⁹: <i>Mary, Mr. Brown, Dr. Smith, Queen Elisabeth, Judge Brenneman, President Obama</i> - names expressing family relations with unique reference: <i>Father, Mother, Uncle, Dad</i> - some geographical names: <i>Europe, Romania, Mont Blanc, Everest, Lake Windermere</i> - proper names followed by common nouns, indicating institutions²⁹⁰ / buildings / streets / squares / parks / bridges: <i>Westminster Abbey, Windsor Castle, Hyde Park, Kensington Garden, Trafalgar Square, Scotland Yard, Wall Street, Covent Garden, Kennedy Airport</i> - names of festivals: <i>Christmas (Day), Easter (Sunday), Thanksgiving Day, New Year's Eve, Independence Day</i> - before nouns used in the Nominative of Address: <i>Come on, Man! Good bye, Girl!</i>
	- with common nouns used with a specialized meaning	seasons / months of the year / days of the week: <i>in spring, in January, on Monday</i> - nouns denoting diseases: <i>anaemia, appendicitis, diabetes, influenza</i> - nouns denoting meals: <i>at breakfast, over lunch, after tea, before dinner</i> - nouns indicating place / institution / location: <i>to be in hospital, to go to church</i>²⁹¹, <i>to be at / to go to sea</i> - nouns indicating means of transport: <i>to travel by</i>

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²⁸⁸ See footnote 132 as well.

²⁸⁹ There are some exceptions when reference is made to some specific persons: *The Emperor* (Napoleon), *The Duke* (Wellington); *The Lord* (God).

²⁹⁰ The name of universities can have 2 forms: *the University of London / London University*, but, when they are named after a person the form is like: *Yale University, Brown University*

²⁹¹ *To be in the hospital* and *to go to the church* are also valid, but the meaning is “just for a visit”, “on business”, not for their primary purposes - as an intern (hospital) or to attend the mass (church). The zero article is used with SCHOOL, CLASS, COLLEGE, UNIVERSITY, HOME, WORK, CHURCH, BED, HOSPITAL, PRISON, TOWN when we talk about going to these places or being in them for their normal use. “In American English, *in* school/university/college are more common than *at* school/university/college. In American English *the hospital* is preferred to *hospital* in all cases.” (SM, p. 75)

		<i>car, to go by bus, to leave by air</i> - non-count nouns in the singular denoting substances / abstract notions: <i>wine, beer, gold, wood, peace, beauty, music, truth, heaven, hell, paradise, providence</i> - names of sports / games / subject matters / science: <i>mathematics, football, physics</i> - names of languages²⁹²: English in its early form was an inflected language. Translate it from Romanian into Russian. She speaks Spanish and Italian. His native tongue is English.
	- count nouns in the plural form	nouns denoting (in)animates in general, with reference to all the members of the class: <i>Cats are expert hunters.</i>
	- non-count singular nouns	<i>He achieved remarkable progress in math last year. We got written permission to enter the building.</i>
The Indefinite Numerical Function	The noun expresses a general meaning of uncertain number / unprecised quantity: the meaning is quite similar to SOME, A FEW, A NUMBER OF, A QUANTITY OF: used with both count and non-count nouns.	<i>In London we visited parks, museums and monuments.</i> <i>They grew maize, corn and oats.</i>
The Idiomatic Function	The zero article is used before the noun in some set phrases.	<i>by means of, at random, to make flames, to set on fire, to drop anchor, in fact</i> <i>in parallel structures: from time to time, arm in arm, from head to foot, day by day, day in day out, face to face, from dawn to dusk, from right to left, from beginning to end, shoulder to shoulder, night after night, from morning till night</i>

Zero Article versus Ellipsis of the Article

- While the zero-article is used in the situations and with the functions mentioned above, the omission of the article takes place for stylistic reasons and it can be easily placed back, in its proper place.
- The omission of the article takes place in:
 - Stage directions**: *John goes door right.* (John goes to the door on the right.)
 - Advertisements**: *"Enjoy sea with cream Lee!"*
 - Scientific papers**: *Heart takes blood from....* etc. etc.
 - Titles in newspapers**: *Life Insurance – Happiness for All*
 - Poetry, mannerism in literary works**
 - Informal language**: *We left house in hurry.*

DEFINITENESS, INDEFINITENESS, GENERICITY

²⁹² But: *The English language* is spoken by millions of people. What is *the English word* for "zână"?

- 1 Definiteness is marked by the definite article *the* and by the determinatives *this, that, these, those* or by the possessives *my, your, etc.* + noun.
 - 2 Indefiniteness is marked by *a(n), some, any* and *zero*. Indefinite nouns are specific or non-specific.
 - 3 Generic reference by *zero* (+ singular mass, plural count nouns); by *a(n)* and by *the*.
- [Downing & Locke, 2006: 417]

DEFINITE AND INDEFINITE REFERENCE

In English, the grammar obliges us to refer to people and things as definite, indefinite, or generic. This is done syntactically by the use of determinatives, and among these, in particular, by the **definite, indefinite and zero articles**, which are traditionally treated separately as **a subsystem of the system of determination**.

Definite reference is made by *the* or a deictic determinative (*this, that, these, those*) or a possessive (*my, your, etc.*). Indefinite reference is made by *a(n)*, unstressed *some, any* or the absence of a marker, which, since its absence is grammatically significant, is called the **'zero article'**. **'Zero' doesn't mean that an article has been omitted, as may occur in a newspaper headline, such as *Plane crashes on village*, but is a category in its own right.**

The three articles are distributed as follows with mass and count nouns [Downing & Locke, 2006: 417]:

	Mass	Singular count	Plural count
definite	the butter	the woman	the women
indefinite	(zero) butter (unstressed) some butter	a woman -	(zero) women (unstressed) some women

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An entity is considered as 'indefinite' if there is nothing in the discourse or the situation or our general knowledge of the world that identifies it for us. This is the case with *a tiger, a child of six, a show* and *a school* in the news item from *The Sunday Times* below:

A tiger attacked a child of six during a show at a school in California after its handler lost control of the 200lb animal. The head teacher wrestled the boy from the animal's jaws and he was flown to hospital.

Once the entity has already been mentioned it can be considered as 'definite': *the 200lb animal, the boy, the animal's jaws*. Definiteness is inferred if there is sufficient information to identify it, either in the text (*its handler, the head teacher*) or in the non-linguistic situation (**Don't forget to lock the door**) or in general knowledge (*The Olympic Games*). Note that neither the handler nor the head teacher in this text had been previously mentioned. We identify them in relation to 'tiger' and 'school', respectively through general knowledge and inference: animals on show have a handler and schools have a head teacher. This is known as **indirect anaphoric reference**. [Downing & Locke, 2006: 418]

Indefinite Reference: Specific and Non-Specific

Although the term 'indefinite' might appear to be synonymous with 'non-specific', it can in fact be applied to both non-specific and specific entities, whether these are count or mass:

singular:	I've bought <i>a new car</i> . I need <i>a new car</i> .	(indef. specific) (indef. non-specific)
plural:	I've got <i>some friends</i> in London. I've got <i>friends</i> in London.	(indef. specific) (indef. non-specific)

mass:	I managed to find <i>some work</i> .	(indef. specific)
	I managed to find <i>work</i> .	(indef. non-specific)

The examples show that with singular count nouns (*a car*), the article *a(n)* refers to both specific and non-specific entities, the different interpretations being deduced pragmatically from shared knowledge and also from the different predicates. When we need a car, it is obviously not yet specific, but potentially any car. When we have bought a car, it is obviously a specific one. The article *a(n)* can be indeterminate, however, between specific and non-specific interpretations:

Ted wants to buy a house in Sussex. (= any house, as long as it's in Sussex)

Ted wants to buy a house in Sussex. It's number 2, Farm Road, Brighton. (= a specific house)

As an indefinite determinative, *some* (unstressed) is used mainly with mass and plural count nouns, but the stressed form is sometimes used with mass or count nouns with the meaning of indefinite specific as in: *There is still some hope of recovery*, or non-specific as in *I'll need some book or other to read on the beach*. Either would be meaningful here. [Downing & Locke, 2006: 418-419]

Indefinite Proper Nouns

Since proper nouns (Albert Einstein, William Shakespeare) refer to unique entities, they are already definite and cannot logically be conceived of as indefinite. On the other hand, since it is often possible for several entities to be denoted by the same name, such as persons or days of the week, they can be treated sometimes as classes composed of individual members. This allows expressions such as the following:

Is there <i>a John Smith</i> in this class?	(indef. specific)
It would be better to meet on <i>a Monday</i> .	(indef. non-specific)
We had <i>a very hot June</i> last year.	(indef. specific)

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Indefinite reference can be made to proper nouns used as common nouns:

I'd like a Martini. [Downing & Locke, 2006: 419]

- ❑ Most students assume that the term “indefinite” means that the article and subsequent noun don't refer to anyone or anything in particular. But that is seldom the case. In *There is a snake in my bathroom*, the speaker is referring to a very specific reptile, in *I know a fellow who always wears six ties*, the speaker is referring to a particular man with particular tastes in clothes. There are, however, times when the article *a* does not have specific reference, as in *A robbery is committed every day in this neighbourhood* or *I hate a crabby clerk*. The grammatical context will usually reveal if the reference is specific or nonspecific.

Article <i>a</i> with <u>specific</u> reference	Article <i>a</i> with <u>nonspecific</u> reference
a) Becky is dating <i>a</i> nice doctor.	a) Becky is looking for <i>a</i> nice doctor.
b) She is slicing <i>a</i> juicy mango.	b) I enjoy <i>a</i> juicy mango.
c) I see <i>a</i> red Porsche.	c) I want <i>a</i> red Porsche.
d) I witnessed <i>a</i> bad crash.	d) I fear <i>a</i> bad crash.

- ❑ An utterance like “I was searching for a sweater” is potentially ambiguous. If the speaker continues with “and I found it”, the NP *a sweater* has specific reference; the speaker found the one s/he was looking for. But if the speaker continues with “and I found one”, the NP has nonspecific reference; the speaker found some sweater or

other (Lambrecht, 1994, p. 80).

- ❑ What then is the function of the article *a*? Its primary function is simply to introduce a noun phrase into the discourse. Not surprisingly then, *a* is one of the ways speakers introduce new information into a discourse. Once a noun phrase is introduced with *a*, a speaker (or writer) can use *the* or an appropriate pronoun to refer to this entity.
Melinda bought a new house last week. The house is white with green trim.
A little brown puppy wandered into our yard last night. It was obviously lost.
There is a new student in my class. She seems rather shy.
- ❑ *Some* is usually considered the plural indefinite article – *Some puppies wandered into our yard*. In this context, the discourse function of *some* is identical to that of *a*. (*some* is also used with non-count nouns, many of which never have a plural ending. Here, too, it is used to introduce a noun into discourse but it does not suggest plurality in any way – *I spilled some milk; Let's listen to some music*.)
- ❑ Stressed *some* can be used with singular nouns when a speaker wishes to underscore the fact that the identity of the noun is unimportant – *Some sophomore got hurt during football practice; My older sister is dating some boy*. In both these cases, the noun modified by *some* has specific reference, but the identity of the referent is irrelevant to the speaker. Stressed *some* also serves to express annoyance or contempt – *Some idiot left gum on this seat*. [Berk, 1999: 59-60]

Definite Reference

The definiteness of a common noun is indicated by the article *the*. This does not by itself identify the referent, but indicates that it can be identified within the text, or outside the text in the situation or from general knowledge. Within the text, the reference may be anaphoric (backwards) or cataphoric (forwards). The anaphor often expresses the antecedent in different words, as in the following news item:

Ten lionesses at the city zoo are to be put on a contraceptive pill to prevent a population explosion. For 20 years the lions¹ have prided themselves on their breeding capabilities. Now, the treatment² will make them infertile for 3 years and so stop the increase.³

1= ten lionesses; 2= a contraceptive pill; 3= a population explosion

The referent of a definite head noun can be identified cataphorically by the information contained in the post-modifier, as in: *the bus coming now, the journey home, the Ministry of Health*; or by a determiner or pre-modifier: *this bus, the first bus, the red bus*.

Reference to shared knowledge immediately identifies the referent of, for example, *the sun, the sky, the rain, the government, the political situation, the television*.

Clearly dependent upon inference for their interpretation, but totally normal in certain professional registers of English are metonymic uses, where the thing stands for the person, as in the following examples:

The ham sandwich has left without paying.

The kidney transplant in 104 is asking for a glass of water.

When a personal noun, such as *secretary, queen, director, head*, functions as Subject Complement in a clause and refers to a unique social role, definiteness can be marked either by *the* or by *zero*, with certain lexicogrammatical constraints:

He soon became *director/ the director* of the firm.

When the noun functions as Complement in a verbless clause introduced by *when, while, if, although*, definiteness can be marked by *zero*:

While Minister of Health, he introduced many reforms.

Although not party leader, he greatly influenced the party's policies. [Downing & Locke, 2006: 419-420]

- ❑ In most cases, *the* cannot be used unless the person or object has already been introduced into the discourse. In other words, the article *the* typically refers back to something. This is another case of **anaphoric reference**.
- ❑ The article *the* can be used without first introducing the item into the discourse if there is only one such item in the immediate world of the speakers and they share knowledge of its existence. We refer to ***the sun*** and ***the moon*** because we all recognize their existence and there is only one of each in our sky. Future space settlers living on Jupiter won't be able to refer to ***the moon***.
- ❑ In a given household, family members will put on ***the kettle***, open ***the refrigerator***, and read ***the paper*** while lying in ***the hammock***, because, as a rule, there is only one such item in the house.
- ❑ If you routinely go to the same grocery store and financial institution, you probably refer to them as ***the store*** and ***the bank***.
- ❑ The use of *the* signals that the referent should be identifiable to the hearer as well as the speaker.
- ❑ Sometimes the discourse itself will contain the information that allows the hearer to identify the referent of the noun, even though the noun itself hasn't been used. In the case of *We could see Mt. Everest in the distance; **the peak** was covered with snow*, the hearer is expected to deduce that mountains have peaks. By introducing Mt. Everest into the discourse, the speaker has indirectly introduced its peak as well. If an acquaintance says "My wife was hit by a car last night," he could go on to say, "The driver was arrested." The driver is introduced into the discourse by inference; we assume that moving cars have drivers. [Berk, 1999: 60]

Discourse Functions of Definite and Indefinite Nominal Groups

The semantic function of the articles is to present the referents of NG heads as definite, indefinite or generic. The first two meanings are basically discourse functions, associated with the information packaging of the content of a clause, sentence or extended discourse into **Given** and **New** information; that is, what is taken by the speaker as known to the hearer, and what is taken as not known, respectively (see Chapter 6). The following paragraph, also from Alan Ayckbourn, giving the stage directions for the play, illustrates these functions. 'New' is marked by *a/an* or *zero*, and 'Given' by *the*:

February. A garage attached to a medium price executive house on a private estate belonging to DENNIS and VERA. Down one wall of *the* garage a workbench littered untidily with tools etc. In fact *the* whole place is filled with *the* usual garage junk, boxes, coils of rope, garden chairs, etc. In *the* midst of this, a small popular car, at least seven years old, stands neglected. Over *the* work bench a grimy window which looks out over a small paved 'sitting area'. On *the* other wall a door, leading across a small dustbin yard to *the* backdoor of *the* house. There is also a paved walkway round *the* side of *the* garage, nearest us, leading to *the* 'sitting area'.

The text begins naturally with New items (*a garage*, *a house* and *a private estate*); followed by a second mention of *the garage*, which is now known or 'Given'; then a 'New' item, *a workbench*, with indefinite 'New' *tools*, and

a second mention, by inference, to *the whole place*. The text continues to build up a description of the stage cohesively, bit by bit, in a straightforward, coherent way. This is a normal way of introducing Given and New information in a text of this kind.

Quite commonly in fiction, however, a writer introduces a new referent at the beginning of a story as if it were already known. This happens in the novel *Watership Down*, where the first sentence is ‘The primroses were over’. The use of the definite article here perspectivises the story from a particular viewpoint: that of the rabbits, the protagonists of the story, as readers soon discover. [Downing & Locke, 2006: 420-421]

- “Definite” and “indefinite” are terms which are usually applied to noun phrases (NPs). In English, *the* is referred to as “the definite article”, and *a/an* as “the indefinite article”. Noun phrases (NPs) which begin with *the* (e.g. *the Queen of England*, *the book*), which are also called (especially in the philosophical literature) “definite descriptions”, are generally taken to be prototypical examples of definite NPs in English. Similarly NPs which begin with *a/an* (*an elephant*, *a big lie*), “indefinite descriptions”, are prototypical examples of indefinite NPs. (Plural indefinite descriptions use the determiner *some*.)
- **Uniqueness**. Bertrand Russell’s classic work on denoting phrases (Russell 1905). On this tradition what distinguishes *the* from *a/an* is uniqueness – more specifically the existence of one and only one entity meeting the descriptive content of the NP. [W]hen we stress the definite article contrastively, it brings out the sense of uniqueness. Example (3)
(3) Did you meet **an** owner of El Azteco or **the** owner?
seems to be inquiring as to whether there is more than one owner, or only one.
[T]he descriptive content of a definite description is not sufficient to pick out a unique referent from the world at large. One example of such an “incomplete description” is in (4):
(4) Please put this on the table.
(4) is readily understandable despite the fact that the world contains millions of tables.
- **Familiarity**. The other main tradition concerning the meaning of definiteness generally cites the Danish grammarian Paul Christophersen. In Christophersen’s view, what distinguishes definite from indefinite descriptions is whether or not the addressee of the utterance is presumed to be acquainted with the referent of the NP. In an often cited passage, Christophersen remarks: “Now the speaker must always be supposed to know which individual he is thinking of; the interesting thing is that the *the*-form supposes that the hearer knows it too” (Christophersen 1939, 28). Within current linguistic theory, the familiarity approach was revived by the work of Irene Heim (1982, 1983). Like Strawson, Heim argued that definite descriptions are referential rather than quantificational; however she also argued indefinite descriptions are referential as well. Heim took the uses of definite and indefinite descriptions as they occur in (6) as typifying their semantics.
(6) Mary saw a movie last week. The movie was not very interesting.
In the mini discourse in (6), the indefinite NP *a movie* is used to introduce a new entity into the discourse context. Subsequently that entity is referred to with a definite (*the movie*). Notice that we might as easily have referred to the movie in the second sentence of (6) with a pronoun: ...*It was not very interesting*. Heim grouped pronouns and definite descriptions together as being governed by a “**Familiarity**” condition: use of a definite is only permitted when the existence of the referred to entity has been established in the particular discourse. Indefinite descriptions, on the other hand, are subject to a “**Novelty**” condition: they presuppose that their referent is being introduced into the discourse for the first time.
- **Bare NPs**. One interesting kind of NP in English has received a significant amount of attention. So called **bare NPs** do not have any determiner, and the head noun must

be either plural or a mass noun. These NPs have (at least) two distinct uses. Sometimes they are interpreted generically, as in the examples below.

(26) a. Mary likes sharpened pencils.

b. Water with fluoride in it is good for the teeth.

The sentences in (26) concern the whole category referred to by the underlined NP. On the other hand sometimes these bare NPs have an existential interpretation, where they are just referring to some members or a subpart of the category.

(27) a. Mary bought sharpened pencils.

b. There was water with fluoride in it in the test tube.

As can be seen in example (27b), when bare NPs occur in a locative existential sentence, they

can only have the existential interpretation, and not the generic one.

- **Other types of indefinite NPs.** [T]here are some other unexpected cases of NPs which look as though they should be definite, because they have definite determiners, but which can appear naturally in a locative existential. One kind, noticed first by Prince (1981), uses the proximal demonstrative determiner (*this, these*), but with an indefinite reference.

(29) a. There was this strange note on the blackboard.

b. There are these disgusting globs of stuff in the bowl.

Also, it is worth noting that this indefinite use of *this* and *these* is somewhat marked stylistically. Examples like those in (29) would not appear in a formal context. Finally, there are some kinds of NPs that look like definite descriptions but whose sense is indefinite, and which can appear naturally in existentials.

(30) a. There was the nicest young man at the picnic!

b. There were the same nominees on both ballots.

- **Other kinds of categorizations.** A simple binary distinction like definite vs. indefinite may be too crude, especially if we are trying to classify NPs in general. Furthermore it may be more useful to look at the role of NP form with respect to discourse function. A number of researchers have turned to the idea of **information status** – an extension of the familiarity idea but with greater articulation.

- **Old and new.** Prince (1992) argued that we need to distinguish two ways in which information can be novel or familiar, new or old. One is with respect to (the speaker's assumption about) the addressee, which Prince called **Hearer-old** and **Hearer-new**. The speaker assumes that the addressee is already acquainted with the referent of a Hearer-old NP, whereas Hearer-new NPs are assumed to introduce new entities to the addressee. On the other hand entities can be new or old with respect to a discourse: **Discourse-old** or **Discourse-new**. Discourse-old NPs refer to entities which have already been mentioned in the current discourse, in contrast to Discourse-new NPs. Prince found that it was the category of Hearer-old/Hearer-new which correlated roughly with the definite/indefinite distinction, rather than Discourse-old/Discourse-new. This seems to agree more with Christophersen's than with Heim's conception of definiteness and indefiniteness.

- **The givenness hierarchy.** Gundel, Hedberg and Zacharski (1993) proposed a hierarchy of givenness corresponding to the degree to which the referent of an NP is assumed to be cognitively salient to the addressee.

- **The accessibility hierarchy.** A third approach, similar to the one just mentioned but with its own distinct characteristics, has been developed by Mira Ariel (1990, 2001). Ariel proposes an even more articulated accessibility hierarchy, reflecting the marking of NPs according to how accessible in human memory their referents should be. [Abbott, B., *Def / Indef*]

PRACTICE. The article *the* indicates that the referent of a noun is being presented as definite, and can be identified either somewhere in the text or from our general knowledge. Read the following short paragraph from Mario Puzzi's *The Godfather* and then do the exercise given below. [Downing & Locke, 2006: 464-465]

The Don was a real man at the age of twelve. Short, dark, slender, living in the strange Moorish-looking village of Corleone in Sicily, he had been born Vito Andolini, but when strange men came to kill the son of the man they had murdered, his mother sent the young boy to America to stay with friends. And in the new land he changed his name to Corleone to preserve some tie with his native village. It was one of the few gestures of sentiment he was ever to make.

(1) Write out the definite nouns in the text and say how each one is identified, within the text or outside it.

(2) Write out the indefinite nouns in the text, and say how their indefiniteness is marked,

e.g. *The Don*: The article forms part of a proper noun and proper nouns are inherently definite.

the age: Identified by the qualifying information of *twelve*.

a real man: Marked by *a* as an indefinite-specific count noun.

- ❑ **In general, singular nouns cannot occur without a determiner.** **Dog is in the garden* and **House is brick* are ungrammatical. There are, however, some exceptions to the rule. Singular nouns that refer to abstract institutions rather than physical structures can occur without determiners – *I am going to school now*; *She was sent to prison for three years*; *He has left for church*; *Olympia is attending college*. Which school, prison, church, or college is immaterial. British and Canadian speakers exploit this construction even more often than Americans do; for example *they go to hospital* and *attend university*. On the other hand, when any English Speaker wishes to refer to a particular building, determiners are required – *We drove by the school*; *That prison needs repair*; *My temple is on this street*.
- ❑ When a singular noun refers to the means by which an act is carried out, it, too, occurs without a determiner. In *Sally went by car* or *My parents travel by train*, the speaker is referring, not to a specific vehicle, but to an abstraction, i.e., a means of transportation. We also send things *by mail* and make things *by machine*. Even the noun *bed* exhibits this behavior. We *go to bed* but we buy *a bed* and make *the bed*. In the first example, *bed* is an abstraction, not an entity; in fact, we can go to bed on the floor or on the couch. [W]hen such nouns are used in this abstract way, they cannot be pluralized. **I am going to beds* and **My parents travel by trains* are both ungrammatical. [T]here are a number of abstract nouns that do not co-occur with the or the plural marker – **He is in the trouble*; **The sincerity shows*; **Isn't loves wonderful*?
- ❑ **[N]ouns that refer to concrete entities are more likely to carry nominal inflectional endings (possessive and plural) than nouns that are abstract.** We see the same pattern with articles. When words like *school*, *train*, and *machine* refer to concrete entities, they occur with the appropriate article. But when those same words are used to refer to an abstract institution as opposed to a particular place, a means of transportation rather than a particular vehicle, or a means rather than a particular piece of equipment, the article is often omitted. **Like inflectional endings, articles tend to attach themselves to nouns that refer to physical entities.** [Berk, 1999: 60-61]

DETERMINERLESS NOUN PHRASES

- ❑ 'Determination' is the superordinate term which comprises definiteness and indefiniteness: [definite] and [indefinite] are simply realizations of 'determination'.

‘Determination’ is an inherent property of all nouns, which are thus characterized as [+determined] (and then as +/-definite), or as [-determined]. [Alexiadou, 2007: 169]

- (10) a. *Cats* gathered at the entrance of the restaurant.
b. *Cats* are very independent animals.
c. *Wine* spilt on the floor.
d. *Wine* goes well with seafood. [Alexiadou, 2007: 173]
- Let us first consider the interpretation of the noun phrases in (10). *Cats* is an articleless plural noun and it is generally agreed that such articleless plurals are indefinite, the lack of an overt definite article being as it were a ‘marker’ of indefiniteness (Lyons 1999; Diesing 1992). The bare plural *cats* in (10a) means ‘some cats’ or a number of cats; the noun is interpreted existentially. (10a) is about a set of cats located at a particular place and, though it is not explicitly mentioned in the particular sentence, at a particular time. [Alexiadou, 2007: 174]
- In contrast, in (10b) the same bare plural noun refers to the totality of cats, to all cats as members of a class, or as belonging to the same (natural) kind, let us say to the “cat-kind”, and not to any set of locally or temporally identifiable cats. *Cats* in (10b), as an expression referring to all members of a kind, constitutes a *generic* or universal term. **The term generic applies to a noun phrase through which reference is being made to the entire class of entities of which the denotatum of the noun is a member.** The class in question consists of all the cats that satisfy the description expressed by ‘cat’... [Alexiadou, 2007: 174-175]

GENERIC REFERENCE

Each of the articles can also be used when we wish to refer to a whole class of entities, usually with regard to their typical characteristics or habitual activities:

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<i>the</i> + singular count noun:	They say <i>the elephant</i> never forgets.
<i>a(n)</i> + singular count noun:	They say <i>an elephant</i> never forgets.
<i>zero</i> + plural count noun:	They say <i>elephants</i> never forget.
<i>zero</i> + mass noun:	They say <i>exercise</i> keeps you healthy.

In the everyday use of English, the zero form with plural count nouns (elephants) is most applicable, while with mass nouns (e.g. *love*) the zero form is obligatory. **The three articles express genericity from different points of view**, which we will gloss as follows:

- *the* represents the referent of the noun as **a single undifferentiated whole class of entities**;
- *a(n)* represents **any individual member of a class of entity as typical of the whole class**;
- *zero* implies that **all or most members of the class of entity possess the characteristic that is predicated of it**.

The four structures mentioned above are **not freely interchangeable** in all generic statements. **The generic use of *a(n)* is restricted, in that it can't be used in attributing properties which belong to the class as a whole.** For example, *the* but not *a* is acceptable in the following, since an individual kangaroo does not constitute a species, whether near extinction or not, whereas the class as a whole, represented by *the*, does:

The kangaroo is far from being extinct.

**A kangaroo is far from being extinct.*

Both *the* and *a(n)* are acceptable with a characterising predicate, as in our next example, since carrying its young in a pouch is characteristic of each and every female kangaroo:

The female kangaroo carries its young in its pouch.

A female kangaroo carries its young in its pouch.

The article *the* tends to generalise more readily than *a(n)*, which refers essentially to a singular indefinite member as representative of its class. *The + singular count noun may have a generalising value*, even when not used in a generic statement:

*Do you play **the piano**?*

*Some people sit for hours in front of **the television**.*

The definite article is also used:

- with certain adjectival or participial heads of NGs referring to abstract qualities (*the unknown*);
- for groups of people named by a nominalised Attribute (*the underprivileged, the vulnerable*);
- with nouns derived from PPs (*the under-fives, the over-forties*);
- for nationalities (*the Dutch, the Swiss*).

All but abstract qualities have plural concord with the verb:

*Science proceeds from **the known** to **the unknown**.*

*Nursery schools for **the under-fives** are desperately needed in this area.*

Not all adjectives and PPs can function in these ways and the non-native speaker should be cautious in choosing them.

The loosest and therefore most frequent type of generic statement is that expressed by the zero article with plural count nouns or with mass nouns:

***Kangaroos** are common in Australia.*

***Wine** is one of this country's major exports.*

Zero article with plural count nouns may have generic or indefinite reference according to the predication:

***Frogs** have long hind legs.* (generic = all frogs)

*He catches **frogs**.* (indefinite = an indefinite number of frogs)

A mass noun with zero article can be considered generic even if it is modified:

***Colombian coffee** is said to be the best.*

It is definite, however, if preceded by *the*. Contrast, for example:

generic: ***Nitrogen** forms 78% of the earth's atmosphere.*

definite: ***The nitrogen** in the earth's atmosphere is circulated by living organisms.* [Downing & Locke, 2006: 421-422]

REMEMBER!

There are four distinct strategies for communicating **generic reference**:

- ☐ plurality
- ☐ the indefinite article
- ☐ the definite article
- ☐ the predeterminer *all*. [Berk, 1999: 75]

PRACTICE The following are generic statements in which the first noun is preceded by a definite or indefinite or zero article. Test each noun for its use with the other two articles, and say whether either of them can also be used to express generic reference. [Downing & Locke, 2006: 465]

- (1) *A liquid* has no shape.
- (2) *Gases* have no mass.
- (3) *A human being* needs the company of others.
- (4) *War* is politics carried out by violent means.
- (5) *Animals* that live in captivity play with their food as if it were a living animal.
- (6) *Television* is a mixed blessing.

- (7) *The bicycle* is a cheap form of private transport.
 (8) *The computer* has revolutionised business methods.

PRACTICE. Which of the following statements do you interpret as indefinite and which as generic (...)?
 [Downing & Locke, 2006: 466]

- (1) *Bicycles* are very useful during a holiday.
 (2) We always hire *bicycles* during our holidays.
 (3) I have *official information* for you.
 (4) *Official information* is usually difficult to obtain.

PRACTICE. What are the two possible interpretations of the final noun in the following sentence? [Downing & Locke, 2006: 466]

My sister wants to marry *a Frenchman*.

SEMINAR on ARTICLES

COURSE # 9 IN A NUTSHELL

FUNCTIONS		
The Anaphoric Function	It indicates a noun already mentioned during the communication.	<i>There is a man who wants to see you; the man has already called on us in the morning.</i>
The Cataphoric Function	Reference is made to nouns with further specifications in the context.	<i>The lady who is speaking was my teacher of history. The London of Dickens' time is described in his novels.</i>
The Situational Function	Reference is made to a noun easily understood from a well-known / immediate situation.	<i>Have you learned the news? Shut the window, please.</i>
The Generic Function	Reference is made to nouns considered generally, including a whole class of objects. It is used with: count nouns in the singular, nouns denoting peoples / social groups, personal / abstract adjective heads.	<i>The wolf is a wild animal. the Romanians; the English; the Europeans; the workers; the farmers The wounded are carried to the hospital. The good and the evil are always at fight.</i>
The Grammatical Function	The definite article is also used with ordinal numerals and in superlatives .	<i>the first, the second, the third the best, the most beautiful, the smartest</i>
The Idiomatic Function	Set Phrases.	<i>on the one / other hand, by the way, for the time being, to play the violin / piano / drums.</i>

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FUNCTIONS	
The Epiphoric Function	✓ used with a noun introduced in the context for the first time: <i>When Ellen opened the door she saw a boy staring at her.</i> ✓ after THERE IS: <i>There is a book on the table, there was a lady in the garden.</i> ✓ before the predicative expressed by nouns in the singular denoting profession /

	rank / title / position / quality / nationality / religion / age: <i>John is a student; he is no longer a child. Peter is an only child. Is Mike an actor or a stage director? He is a lover of beauty. He is a Romanian and an orthodox. (S. Manoliu calls this non-specific / attributive.)</i> ✓ before proper nouns, emphasizing the idea that the respective person is not known, or, on the contrary, the person is so well-known that s/he symbolizes a quality: <i>A Mary Brown / Jane Doe / John Doe cannot be accepted here.</i> (a totally unknown person); <i>She can be considered a Florence Nightingale of our town. He is a Scrooge (a miser) / a Romeo (a young romantic lover).</i> ✓ before proper nouns: <i>He thinks he is a Napoleon. He has the humour of a Dickens. The Elizabethan Age produced a Spenser, a Marlowe, a Shakespeare</i> (here the meaning of the indefinite article is “like the person”, “one having the qualities of”). ✓ before appositions: <i>Byron, a well-known romantic poet, died in Greece.</i> ✓ as part of some constructions: <i>She is as nice a girl as I have ever seen. As a good citizen, he is well-known in the town. Many a tree had been cut when we arrived. However interesting a work may be, you are tired of it one day. This is a most lovely story!</i> ✓ before an abstract or material word or a noun considered to be unique; the noun is usually associated with a descriptive pre- or postmodifier; in this function, A(N) means AN INSTANCE OF, A PIECE OF, A KIND OF: <i>They lived a happy life. He led a life of activity. A loud noise was heard. A brilliant idea occurred to me. We had a very good dinner. A hot sun was in the sky. I have a (bad) cold.</i> ✓ with a proper noun, it may indicate an aspect of, or a temporary state of the person or thing denoted: <i>Shaw showed an Ireland very different from what the Lady Yeats made her out to be.</i>
The Numerical Function	✓ used before numerals: <i>a / one thousand; two pencils and a rubber</i> ✓ before COUPLE, DOZEN ✓ A(N) after OF and AT, in some phrases, means “one and the same”: <i>They are of an age. They were much of a size. Carry them 2 at a time.</i> ✓ before nouns expressing measures / chronological divisions / fractions: <i>a meter, a pound, an inch, a year, a quarter, a third, a half</i> ✓ with the meaning of EACH: <i>An apple a day keeps the doctor away. We play tennis twice a week.</i>
The Generic Function	✓ used with count nouns in the singular form to express an entire class of objects: <i>A wolf is an animal.</i> ✓ to express “cost” / “speed”: <i>five dollars a book; 50 miles an hour</i>
The Idiomatic Function	✓ in some set phrases: <i>once upon a time, all of a sudden, once in a blue moon, for a while, at a loss, for a change, on a large scale, as a result of, to have a headache, to make a noise / fire, to set an example, just a moment, once in a blue moon, to keep an eye on, as a matter of fact</i>

FUNCTIONS		
The Generic Function	- used before proper nouns	▫ names of persons (with or without titles; with or without simple appositions): <i>Mary, Mr. Brown, Dr. Smith, Queen Elisabeth, Judge Brenneman, President Obama</i> ▫ names expressing family relations with unique reference: <i>Father, Mother, Uncle, Dad</i> ▫ some geographical names: <i>Europe, Romania, Mont Blanc, Everest, Lake Windermere</i>

		- proper names followed by common nouns, indicating institutions / buildings / streets / squares / parks / bridges: <i>Westminster Abbey, Windsor Castle, Hyde Park, Kensington Garden, Trafalgar Square, Scotland Yard, Wall Street, Covent Garden, Kennedy Airport</i> - names of festivals: <i>Christmas (Day), Easter (Sunday). Thanksgiving Day, New Year's Eve, Independence Day</i> - before nouns used in the Nominative of Address: <i>Come on, Man! Good bye, Girl!</i>
	- with common nouns used with a specialized meaning	seasons / months of the year / days of the week: <i>in spring, in January, on Monday</i> - nouns denoting diseases: <i>anaemia, appendicitis, diabetes, influenza</i> - nouns denoting meals: <i>at breakfast, over lunch, after tea, before dinner</i> - nouns indicating place / institution / location: <i>to be in hospital, to go to church, to be at / to go to sea</i> - nouns indicating means of transport: <i>to travel by car, to go by bus, to leave by air</i> - non-count nouns in the singular denoting substances / abstract notions: <i>wine, beer, gold, wood, peace, beauty, music, truth, heaven, hell, paradise, providence</i> - names of sports / games / subject matters / science: <i>mathematics, football, physics</i> - names of languages: <i>English in its early form was an inflected language. Translate it from Romanian into Russian. She speaks Spanish and Italian. His native tongue is English.</i>
	- count nouns in the plural form	nouns denoting (in)animates in general, with reference to all the members of the class: <i>Cats are expert hunters.</i>
	- non-count singular nouns	<i>He achieved remarkable progress in math last year. We got written permission to enter the building.</i>
The Indefinite Numerical Function	The noun expresses a general meaning of uncertain number / unprecised quantity: the meaning is quite similar to SOME, A FEW, A NUMBER OF, A QUANTITY OF : used with both count and non-count nouns.	<i>In London we visited parks, museums and monuments.</i> <i>They grew maize, corn and oats.</i>
The Idiomatic Function	The zero article is used before the noun in some set phrases.	<i>by means of, at random, to make flames, to set on fire, to drop anchor, in fact</i> <i>in parallel structures: from time to time, arm in arm, from head to foot, day by day, day in day out, face to face, from dawn to dusk, from right to left, from beginning to end, shoulder to shoulder, night after</i>

		<i>night, from morning till night</i>
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COURSE # 9 FURTHER PRACTICE**PRACTICE.** Read the following sentences and define the functions of the definite article:

1. **The** question she has expected did not come, and so she could not give **the** answer she had prepared.
2. When **the** news came that his sister-in-law was dying, he set off at once for London.
3. Mr. Wilson was **the** richest man in Blackstable.
4. On **the** second day after Philip arrived an unlucky incident occurred.
5. **The** sky was forlorn and grey.
6. Mr. Carey kissed Philip on **the** forehead and went away.
7. I've put him in **the** small dormitory for **the** present.
8. He's thinking of **the** good breakfast he'll have tomorrow.
9. Think of **the** grief you're causing your poor mother in heaven.

PRACTICE. Read the following sentences and define the functions of the indefinite article:

1. The doctor walked to **a** table on the other side of the room.
2. He called himself **a** Catholic.
3. Philip did not say **a** word.
4. He liked **a** bottle of wine and **a** good dinner.
5. The Vicar swallowed it at **a** gulp.
6. She had **a** shy manner and **a** gentle voice.
7. She liked to see in him **an** infant Samuel.
8. Birds of **a** feather flock together.
9. He ran down the stairs three at **a** time.
10. Philip had led always the solitary life of **an** only child.
11. He had seen grapes in the dining-room that must have cost at least 8 shillings **a** pound.

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PRACTICE. Read the following sentences and define the functions of the zero article:

1. **Coal** was expensive.
2. His sister, Mrs. Graves, kept **house** for him.
3. You know you are not allowed to play games on **Sunday**.
4. The Vicar was at **peace** with himself today.
5. He would then be able to play **football**.
6. He welcomed wet **days** because on them he could stay at home without pangs of conscience.
7. She knew nothing about **children**.
8. I don't wish you to go to **church** tonight, Philip.
9. Mrs. Carey often stopped at the bank to deliver a message to Jeremiah Graves, the manager, who was **choir-master, treasurer, and churchwarden**.

PRACTICE. Write the needed articles in the blanks wherever necessary:

- | | |
|---|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. send for doctor 2. drink wine 3. be in hospital | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 8. take somebody by arm 9. in England of his time 10. very man |
|---|---|

4. be sailor	11. from right to left
5. be genius	12. take train
6. have lunch	13. lie down on bed
7. at midnight	14. get flu

PRACTICE Complete the sentences with A, AN, THE or no article:

- How much are leeks? They are 80 pence pound.
- He's art teacher and she's electrician.
- A lot of people give money to charity at this time of year.
- life is very difficult for unemployed these days.
- Have you ever seen Acropolis in Athens?
- They went into town on their own.
- I had met her good many times, but we never talked.
- Carpathians are covered with snow even in summer time.
- She refused to study medicine and that's how she became teacher.
- They appointed him manager of company.
- He became financial manager of enterprise.
- Soon after lunch they set off and decided not to stop before dark.
- On Sundays we always get up later.
- For more than a week we've been having terrible weather.
- In metonymy bread stands for food.
- She took cloth to dust rooms.
- For Romanian, German is much more difficult than French.
- Philosophy is basic course in our universities.
- atom must work for man and not against him.
- Bernard Shaw was..... most interesting as public speaker.
- dollar had devaluated, but mark were revalued.
- leaf is basic organ of photosynthesis in plants.
- diphtheria and scarlet fever are contagious diseases.
- Anything is too short for him save for eternity.

PRACTICE Translate into English:

- Privește-mă în față.
- A fost împușcat în piept.
- El m-a bătut pe umăr.
- El este singur la părinți.
- Câinele este un animal credincios.
- Câți bani primesc șomerii?
- Știi să cânti la pian?
- El cântă extraordinar la vioară.
- I-ar plăcea să devină medic.
- Când era copil, călătorea deseori cu părinții în străinătate.
- Femeia e mai slabă din punct de vedere fizic decât bărbatul.
- Vorbeau cu voce scăzută.
- Ai fost în Hyde Park?
- Tenisul a devenit rapid un sport mult apreciat în întreaga lume.
- Ce bagaj greu duceți!

16. O oarecare domnișoară Brown vrea să-ți vorbească.
17. Ce păcat că nu poți veni la petrecere!
18. Noi toți admirăm sinceritatea considerând-o o calitate, și am fost impresionați de sinceritatea de care a dat dovadă prietenul nostru.
19. Mike și-a petrecut jumătate din viață în Orientul Mijlociu.
20. A fost înaintat căpitan anul trecut.
21. Unchiul meu a devenit șef de gară.
22. Bernard Shaw a fost un socialist toată viața.
23. Fabrica produce o mie de rochii pe zi.
24. Mary a comandat o duzină de ouă.
25. A fost acrobat dar a devenit actor.
26. Ce ne-am distrat în munți!
27. Este un Hercule.
28. Era student când s-a măritat cu el.
29. Stăteam la vremea aceea cu unchiul meu și soția sa.
30. Wilde era un om de lume.
31. E păcat că a pierdut cursa.
32. În zilele noastre, hârtia este făcută din lemn.
33. A fost ales președinte.
34. Își are sediul la Haga.
35. Și-a rupt piciorul căzând pe gheață.
36. Mona Lisa este prezentată publicului la Luvru.
37. Shaw a fost un Aristofan și un Molière al vremii sale.
38. Sper că te voi întâlni la familia Chesterton.

PRACTICE. In this first paragraph of a short story by Philip Smith, *The Wedding Jug*, all the 'things' mentioned are presented as definite. How does the reader identify them? [Downing & Locke, 2006: 465]

I stood at *the* backdoor and looked up at *the* moon. Its brightness from over *the* dark hump of *the* hillside made clear *the* pale drifting smoke from somebody's garden. The wood-smoke and *the* moon made me restless, eager to be moving in *the* sharp October night.

Read the paragraph aloud, replacing *the* and *its* by *a*. Is it possible to do so? If so, how does it change our interpretation of the scene?

Course # 11 Modifiers (II). Adjectives

- **Qualifying Adjectives**
- **Construction of Adjectives**
- **The Adjective and Other Word-Classes** (Adverbs, Participles, Nouns)
- **Syntactic Classification of Adjectives**
- **Semantic Classification of Adjectives**
- **Marked / Unmarked Adjectives**
- **Gradability** (Comparison)
- **Order of (Prenominal) Adjectives**

ON QUALIFYING²⁹³ ADJECTIVES

The qualifying adjectives are **invariable** (as far as gender and number are concerned) and most often occupy one of four positions. They occur:

- ❑ **preminally**²⁹⁴ (*i.e.*, before the noun)
- ❑ **after the copula** (*i.e.*, as predicate / predicative adjectives) or
- ❑ **after a complex transitive verb and a direct object** (*i.e.*, as object complements).
- ❑ **after the noun** (Sometimes an adjective will follow a noun or a pronoun in the absence of a complex transitive verb. These are **postnominal** adjectives.) [after Berk, 1999: 168-169]

<i>This is a risky business.</i>	Prenominal adjective
<i>This business seems risky.</i>	Predicate adjective
<i>She considers this business risky.</i>	Object complement adjective
<i>Something risky is being planned.</i>	Postnominal adjective

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Therefore, while most adjectives are placed comfortably and almost invariably **in front of** the noun (phrase) they qualify, some adjectives may follow the noun (phrase):

- whenever emphasis is needed (*mother **dear***, instead of *dear mother*);
- when more adjectives than one are used emphatically (*a writer **both witty and wise**, a face **thin and pale**; A combustion **irresistible, all-devouring, omni-prevalent, immediate**...* (E. A. Poe, *The Conversation of Eiros and Charmion*));

²⁹³ L. Budai (2002 [1997], p. 375): **qualitative** adjectives (denoting qualities of size, shape, age etc.), that have degrees of comparison, and **relative** adjectives (which characterize an object through its relation to another object: *woollen gloves, wooden houses* etc.), that have no degrees of comparison. Another semantic classification of adjectives distinguishes between:

- **qualitative** adjectives (indicating quality, gradable);
- **classifying** adjectives (identify someone or something as a member of a class, non-gradable: *British, daily, electric, financial, medieval, mental, real, sufficient, Victorian*);
- **colour** adjectives;
- **emphasizing** adjectives (emphasizing our feelings about the person / thing we are talking about: *absolute, complete, entire, perfect, pure, true, utter, very*).

Some adjectives can be either qualitative or classifying, depending on the meaning that we want to convey (e.g. **an emotional person** vs. **the emotional needs of children**).

²⁹⁴ Prenominal adjectives are sometimes called **attributive**. This terminology is somewhat misleading, however, because adjectives in other positions also attribute some quality to the noun head they modify. [Berk, 1999: 169]

- in set phrases (Court **Martial**, sum **total**, ambassador **extraordinary**, Asia **Minor**, attorney / postmaster / secretary **general**, letters **patent**, knight **errant**, the Poet **Laureate**, the Theatre **Royal**, from time **immemorial**, heir **apparent**, chairman / President **elect**, God **Almighty**);
- in expressions of size, time (2 meters **long**, 8 years **old**);
- when followed by an infinitive (a man **difficult to please**, a boy **eager to answer**);
- when followed by a prepositional phrase (a man **greedy for** money, matters **worthy of** attention, a mistake **typical of** beginners);
- when the adjectives form an apposition (It was a summer night, **warm and sunlit**.);
- when adjectives are preceded by the definite article and modify a proper noun (Alfred the **Great**);
- sometimes, if they end in **-able** or **-ible** (not *sensible*, *unreasonable* etc. but: It was the only thing **notable**. This is an offer **available** to employees only.);
- with *elect* and *proper* (the President **elect**, the interview **proper**);
- when adjectives modify indefinite pronouns²⁹⁵ (nothing **bad**, nobody **new**, someone **new**, somebody **important**, something **strange** etc.).

See also:

"Upon the succession of **a proprietor so young**¹, **with a character so well-known**², **to a fortune so unparalleled**³, little speculation was afloat in regard to his probable course of conduct." (E. A. Poe, *Metzengerstein*)

Other adjectives can either precede or follow the noun, but with a change of significance (*Summon the employees **responsible** for this disaster. / He is quite a **responsible** executive. Or: I put down the **present** address, just in case. / All the people **present** were stunned.*)

Collins Cobuild Grammar draws attention to the following:

- The adjectives **DESIGNATE**, **ELECT**, **GALORE**, **INCARNATE**, and **MANQUÉ** are only used immediately after a noun. Ex. *She was now president **elect**. There are empty houses **galore**.*
- The adjectives **BROAD**, **DEEP**, **HIGH**, **LONG**, **OLD**, **TALL**, **THICK**, and **WIDE** are used immediately after measurement nouns when giving the size, duration, or age of a thing or person. *...six feet **tall**; ...three metres **wide**; ...twenty five years **old**.*
- The adjectives **CONCERNED**, **INVOLVED**, **PRESENT**, **RESPONSIBLE**, and **PROPER** have different meanings depending on whether you put them in front of a noun or immediately after one. For example, *the concerned mother* describes a mother who is anxious, but *the mother concerned* simply refers to a mother who has just been mentioned.
*...the approval of interested and **concerned** parents. / The idea needs to come from the individuals **concerned**.
 ...one of those incredibly **involved** spy switches. / The songs **involved** are 'That'll Be the Day' and 'In Spite of All the Danger'.
 ...the **present** international situation. / Of the 18 people **present**, I know only one.
 ...parents trying to act in a **responsible** manner. / ...the person **responsible** for his death.
 ...a **proper** training in how to teach. / ...the first round **proper** of the FA Cup.*

²⁹⁵ The **some- / any- / no- / every-** series words are compulsory with **adjectives as postmodifiers**:

She despised **anybody** rude.
 We wanted to avoid **something** menacing.
 They promised they wouldn't go **anywhere** dangerous.
 She met **someone** new in the area.
Nothing great has been achieved so far.
 I heard **something** strange today.
 There was **nothing** new on the menu.
Everything necessary has already been done. [SM]

- The adjectives **AFFECTED**, **AVAILABLE**, **REQUIRED**, and **SUGGESTED** can be used in front of a noun or after a noun without any change in meaning.

*Newspapers were the only **available** source of information. / ...the number of teachers **available**.*

*...the **required** changes. / You're way below the standard **required**.*

*...the cost of the **suggested** improvements. / The proposals **suggested** are derived from successful experiments.*

*Aside from the **affected** child, the doctor checks every other member of the household. / ...the proportion of the population **affected**.*

REMEMBER!

- The *-ing* and *-en* participles are used in both **attributive** position and as **postmodifiers**:
 - (a) with no change of meaning: ...during the **approaching** season/ during the season **approaching** ... within the **agreed** time/ within the time **agreed**...on the **appointed** date/ on the date **appointed**...
 - (b) with a change of meaning: ... the **spoken** language/ the language **spoken**... the **used** stamps/ the stamps **used**... the **performing** dog/ the dog **performing**... [SM]
- A number of participles occur **only as postmodifiers**:

The British Museum was among the *places* **visited**.

All the *items* **left** were sold in no time.

The *money* **sent** was for his parents to cover the expenses.

The *people* **involved** / **questioned** went to the police station.

Permission **granted** / **obtained**, he left the town in the morning.

The *victims* **found** were taken to the nearest hospital. [SM]

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Bolinger (1967) argues that **the adjectives in postposition** in (21) **express an occasional property**, i.e. a property which the object designated by the noun has on some particular occasion. This might be a suitable characterization of the effect which postposition of the modifier has on the meaning of the noun phrases in (21),

[(21) a. the only river navigable *vs* the only navigable river

b. stars visible *vs* visible stars]

but it does not account for the meaning that the adjective *adjacent* has in (22):

(22) buildings adjacent will be closed for three days (Ferris 1993: 45)

Adjacency is hardly an occasional property of an object, as Ferris (1993) remarks in his penetrating analysis of the various uses of adjectives in English. According to **Ferris** both postnominal and predicative adjectives assign a property to **their head nouns**, whereas **prenominal adjectives only modify the meaning of the nouns they are subordinated to**. Pre- and postnominal adjectives are part of the noun phrase, predicative adjectives of the sentence. **In postnominal position adjectives are a kind of predicative attribute**. [Sleeman, 2011:11-12]

CONSTRUCTION OF ADJECTIVES

- Many present and past participles can be used as adjectives:

Present Participles (describing "something": active meaning)	Past participles (describing "someone"; passive meaning)
alarming	alarmed
amusing	amused

boring	bored
exciting	excited
frightening	frightened
interesting	interested
pleasing	pleased
surprising	surprised
tiring	tired
worrying	worried

- Here is a list of **-ing** adjectives which are **not** related to verbs:

appetizing balding cunning	enterprising excruciating impending	neighbouring scaling unwitting
----------------------------------	---	--------------------------------------

- Here is a list of qualitative **-ing** adjectives which are not related to a common transitive use of a verb:

becoming bracing cutting	dashing disarming engaging	fetching halting haunting	moving penetrating piercing	pressing promising rambling	ravishing retiring revolting	searching taxing trying
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- Many compound adjectives are formed with adjectives: *well-built; well-bred; well-cooked; time-wasting; fast-selling; handmade; home-grown; good-looking; short-sighted; ready-made; unheard-of; old-fashioned* etc.

(**parasyntetic compounds**)

- Many adjectives have suffixes; some of the most common suffixes are:

-able / -ible (able to be): *comfortable, enjoyable, credible, intelligible, forcible*

-ful (full of, having): *truthful, beautiful*

-less (being without, not having): *careless, powerless*

-ive (tending to, having the nature or quality of doing this): *attractive, impulsive*

-y: *hairy*

-ish: *childish*

- Some adjectives have prefixes (negative prefixes):

dis-: *disagreeable, dishonest*

im-: *impossible, impolite*

un-: *uninteresting, unnecessary*

in-: *inconvenient, insignificant*

il-: *illegal, illogical*

ir-: *irresponsible, irrelevant*

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PRACTICE. Construction of Adjectives. Make adjectives from the nouns or verbs below:

act,	care,	change,	describe,	dread,	enjoy,	forget,	motion,	rely,	submit,	truth
------	-------	---------	-----------	--------	--------	---------	---------	-------	---------	-------

PRACTICE. Construction of Adjectives. Complete the table with the adjectives in the box into the correct columns:

agreeable, attractive, convenient, destructible, explicable, flexible, friendly, honest, interesting, justified, legal, legible, literate, logical, mature, moral, mortal, patient, perfect, polite, possible, rational, regular, relevant, replaceable, responsible, reversible, separable, significant, soluble, tasteful

dis-	un-	il-	im-	in-	ir-

PRACTICE. Construction of Adjectives. Can you provide other creative parasynthetic compounds as in:

"The room, although **ill-contrived**, **smoke-blackened**, **low-pitched**, and in every other respect agreeing with the general character of such places at the period – was, nevertheless, in the opinion of the grotesque groups scattered here and there within it, sufficiently well adapted to its purpose." (E. A. Poe, *King Pest*)

THE ADJECTIVE AND OTHER WORD-CLASSES

- There are examples of overlapping between the adjective class and other word-classes (due to common syntactic or semantic features); the 3 relevant word-classes are: **adverbs**, **participles** and **nouns**.

ADJECTIVE AND ADVERB

- Certain words beginning with **a-** have constituted a problem in classification for grammarians, some assigning them to the adjective class and others to the adverb class; these **a-**words function predicatively, but only a few can be freely used attributively; common **a-**adjectives are: ABLAZE, ABREAST²⁹⁶, ADRIFT, AFIELD²⁹⁷, AFIRE, AFLOAT, AFOOT, AFRAID, AGAPE, AGHAST, AGOG²⁹⁸, AGROUND²⁹⁹, AJAR, ALERT, ALIGHT, ALIKE, ALIVE, ALONE, ALOOF, AMOK / AMUCK³⁰⁰, ASHAMED, ASLEEP, ASKEW³⁰¹, AVERSE³⁰², AWAKE, AWARE, AWRY³⁰³; of these, ALERT and ALOOF are freely used attributively; some of the other **a-**adjectives occasionally, though normally when they are modified: *the half-asleep children*; *the fully awake patient*; *a somewhat afraid soldier*; *a very ashamed student*.
- Certain items that function as adjectives are also used to define in some way the process denoted by the verb, which is a typical use of adverbs; for example, LONG and STILL, which commonly

²⁹⁶ They are running / swimming two **abreast**. The path was wide enough for two people to walk **abreast**. They were riding three **abreast**. I try to keep **abreast** of the news / the times / any developments.

²⁹⁷ People came from as far **afield** as Canada. His question led the discussion far **afield**. (<http://www.merriam-webster.com>) His remark was totally **afield**.

²⁹⁸ I'm all **agog** with curiosity. He was **agog** with the idea. The news has students **agog**.

²⁹⁹ The ship ran **aground** during the storm. The ship is currently **aground** off the coast.

³⁰⁰ "His brow was **amuck** with sweat: he was trembling in every limb; his ears were scarlet." (Nol Coward, *Terribly Intimate Portraits*) "Sure, and he climbed in at the window, and white as a haddock, and all **amuck** with sweat." (Hall Caine, *The Deemster*) "A secret affair resulting in plural marriage (polygamy) is adultery gone **amok**." (Dennis Gonzales)

³⁰¹ The picture / the hat was slightly **askew** so I adjusted it.

³⁰² He is not **averse** to having a drink now and then. (dictionary.reference.com)

³⁰³ The plans finally went **awry**. "I was proud of my schoolteacher father. If his suit was out of press, and his necktie knotted **awry**, I was too new to the world to notice." (John Updike, *New Yorker*, 10 Mar. 1997)

function as adjectives, are in pre-verb position in the following sentences and must therefore be adverbs: *Such animals have **long** had to defend themselves. They **still** can't make up their minds whether to go or not.*

- In other cases there is no corresponding adverb form of the same lexical item, so that only the adjective form is available: *They are working **late**. We finished **early** today. They will come **round** (BE) / **around** (AE) afterwards. He always talks **big** (informal).*
- Sometimes adjectives are used to express the result of the process denoted by the verb, as in: *That powder washed the clothes **white**.*
- In certain uses of SMELL and FEEL, there is considerable idiolectal variation, and perhaps also fluctuation in the usage of the same individual, between the adjective and adverb forms: *The flowers smell **good** / **sweet** / **sweetly**. He felt **bad** / **badly**.* Adverbs are much less common after TASTE: *The food tastes **good**.* After “recipient” LOOK and SOUND, it is normal to use adjective forms; there is a distinction in meaning between the adjectives GOOD and WELL: *He looks **good**.* (he has a good appearance); *He looks **well**.* (it looks as if he is well)

ADJECTIVE AND PARTICIPLE

- There are many adjectives that have the same form as participles in **-ing** or **-ed**: *surprising*; *offended*; they include forms that have not necessarily corresponding verbs: *downhearted*; *talented*; *diseased*.

ADJECTIVE AND NOUN³⁰⁴

- Some items can be both adjectives and nouns: *There was only one **black** in my class. He is investigating the **ancients'** conception of the universe. The King greeted his **nobles**. You won't find many **classics** in our library.*
- Nouns also commonly function attributively, as premodifiers of other nouns: *the **city** council; a **stone** wall; a **love** poem; **August** weather*; in this function, the attributive nouns resemble adjectives.

ADJECTIVES AND COMPOUND NOUNS [after Berk, 1999: 177-178]

- Sometimes an adjective becomes so closely associated with a noun that the construction becomes a compound noun. A compound noun carries different stress from an adjective plus noun construction. In an adjective plus noun construction, the second element (i.e., the noun) carries primary stress, while in a compound the first element carries the primary stress.
- A house that has been painted green is a *green **house*** but a place for growing plants is a ***greenhouse***.
- A bird which simply happens to be blue is a *blue **bird***, while there is an avian species called a ***bluebird***.
- Gardening may be *dirty **work***, but your boss may expect you to do her ***dirty** work*.
- A tall chair is a *high **chair***, but if that chair is for a baby, it is a ***highchair***.
- Spelling is irrelevant; compound nouns may be written as separate words long after they have become compounds in speech. There are, in fact, many compounds that are still spelled as two words—*hot tub*, *yellow jacket* (a bee), *blue book* (an examination booklet), *high school*, *potato salad* etc.
- A *soft spot* for animals has a distant semantic relationship to a *soft spot* on the ground.

³⁰⁴ Bear also in mind the substantivized nouns denoting nationality (*French* – franceez; *the French* – francezii) and the personal adjective heads (*poor* – sărac; *the poor* – săracii).

- Compounds can be found in other grammatical categories as well. Among adjectives we find *pigheaded*, *foolproof*, *bloodthirsty*, and *out-to-lunch* and among verbs *typeset*, *stir fry*, *spot weld*, *sidestep*, and *broadcast*.
- Occasionally a compound is formed by an NP and a word that was originally a **postnominal** adjective, i.e., an adjective that follows the noun. Such compounds tend to refer to quasi-legal or governmental entities—*president elect*, *the body politic*, *an attorney general*, *the heir apparent*. Just as in conventional compounds, the stress here falls on the original modifying element, which in this case is the second word in the compound—*president **elect***, *body **politic***.
- Usually a compound noun is semantically distinct from a comparable adjective plus noun counterpart, e.g., *a bluebook* is a completely different entity from *a blue book* and a *greenhouse* has little in common with a *green house*. In each of these examples the stress signals the difference.

SYNTACTIC CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES

- The 2 main syntactic functions of adjectives are their use as **attributives** and as **predicatives**.
- When an adjective comes before a noun, it is **attributive**: *She's an **intelligent young** woman. I simply love **black** coffee.*
- When an adjective is separated from the noun and comes after the verb, it is **predicative**; an adjective can follow verbs like: APPEAR, BE, BECOME, COME, FALL, FEEL, GET, GO, GROW, KEEP, LOOK, MAKE (+ person), PROVE, REMAIN, SEEM, SMELL, SOUND, STAY, TASTE, TURN; it is a complement of the verb and not an object: *The exam was really **difficult**. She seems **worried**. Hillary made me very **angry**.*
- Adjectives can be subclassified according to whether they can function as:
 - ✓ both **attributive and predicative**: *a **hungry** man; The man is **hungry**.*
 - ✓ **attributive** only: *an **utter** fool*
 - ✓ **predicative** only: *They are **fond** of her. She is **ill***³⁰⁵.
- A few adjectives can have a different meaning as attributive adjectives from their meaning as predicative adjectives:

Attributive: *Jenny's a really **old** friend.* (I've known her for a long time.)

Predicative: *Margaret's quite **old** now.* (old in age)

Attributive: *You are a very **heavy** sleeper.* (You sleep very heavily; you do not wake up easily.)

Predicative: *This suitcase is very **heavy**.*

Attributive: *His **late** father used to run the shop.* (His father is dead now.)

Predicative: *He's nearly always **late**.*

While most adjectives can occur in both prenominal and predicate adjective position, a few are limited to one position or the other. The adjectives that are limited to prenominal position fall into four general categories:

- 1) most denominal adjectives
- 2) a few adjectives derived from nominal forms by means of derivational suffixes
- 3) present participles functioning as adjectives
- 4) non-inherent adjectives
- 5) relationship adjectives [Berk, 1999: 169]

³⁰⁵ Among the "health" adjectives, UNWELL is sometimes used attributively, too, and SICK (especially in AE) is normally used attributively as well as predicatively: *the **sick** woman; The woman is **sick**.*

Complex expressions can sometimes be used as prenominal adjectives, especially in informal conversation.

*Roger is an **early-to-bed** guy.*

*Linda was a **take-charge** executive.*

*My daughter is in her **I-can't-stand-adults** phase.*

*It was a **take-no-prisoners** situation.* [Berk, 1999: 170]

Noninherent adjectives constitute a special class that can only be used prenominally. In most cases an adjective names some quality held by the noun being modified. Noninherent adjectives, however, do not actually describe the following noun, but rather another, related noun. In a sentence like *Terence is a big fool*, the speaker is not describing the stature of Terence, but rather the extent of his *foolishness*. An expression like *my old friend* refers to the length of the friendship, not to the age of the friend; even a child can have an old friend. *Attila is a poor loser* means that Attila is poor at losing, not that he is short of funds and a *wooden actor* is one whose acting is wooden, not a marionette. When a noninherent adjective is moved to predicate adjective position, its meaning changes and it loses its noninherent status. The meaning of *old* in *my old roommate* is quite different from that of *old* in *My roommate is old*. [Berk, 1999: 171]

CASE OF CURIOSITIES

NOUNS AS ADJECTIVES

There are some nouns that have, over the centuries, taken on real adjective status. In a sentence like *The building is stone*, *stone* is a descriptor, not a coreferential NP. Nouns that name the materials out of which things are made often take on this descriptive function and they can appear in both prenominal and predicate adjective position.

This is a brick wall. / The wall is brick.

This is a cardboard table. / The table is cardboard.

This is a paper hat. / The hat is paper.

That is a tin can. / That can is tin.

Even adjectives that have been derived from nouns via derivational morphology occasionally resist predicate adjective position. We speak of *atomic scientists* but no one would say **Those scientists are atomic*; Jack the Ripper was described as *a serial killer* but no journalist would have written that "The killer was serial." The phrase *presidential assistant* means something quite different from *the assistant was presidential*. [Berk, 1999: 170]

ADJECTIVE RESISTANCE TO COORDINATION

You will find that two or more adjectives that derive from different parts of speech sometimes resist being coordinated with *and*. While a scientist may be *tall and handsome*, he cannot be **tall and atomic*. A horse might be *strong and beautiful* but we would never speak of the **beautiful and galloping horse*. Furthermore, not all adjectives derived from nouns can be coordinated. Rugby might be described as *a bloody and dangerous sport* but not a **bloody and national sport*. Relationship adjectives and noninherent adjectives seldom coordinate with other types. **Martha's former and rich boss is coming to dinner*, and **My old and brilliant roommate is visiting next week* are ungrammatical, although *An old and dear friend is visiting* is fine. Past participle adjectives are quite flexible and can be coordinated with many other adjective types—*The witty and talented Bette Midler is being honored tonight*; *He is a quiet and reserved man*; *It was an exciting and animated performance*. This is a measure of how thoroughly some past participles have taken on adjective status. [Berk, 1999: 171]

ATTRIBUTIVE ONLY:

- 4 categories of adjectives are generally attributive only [Quirk]:

1. <i>Intensifying adjectives</i> ³⁰⁶	a) emphasizers	<i>a clear failure; a definite loss; an outright lie; the simple truth; plain nonsense; a true scholar</i>
	b) amplifiers	<i>a complete fool; a close friend; a perfect idiot; his entire salary; utter folly; the very end</i>
	c) downtoners	<i>a slight effort; a feeble joke</i>
2. <i>Restrictive adjectives</i>	Qualify the noun / restrict the reference of the noun exclusively.	<i>a certain person; his chief excuse; the exact answer; the main / sole reason; the only occasion; the specific point; the same student; a particular child; the very man</i>
3. <i>Adjectives related to averbials</i>		<i>my former friend</i> – someone who used to be my friend; <i>an old friend</i> – a friend I've had for a long time; <i>a possible friend</i> – possibly a friend; <i>the present king</i> – the king at present; <i>a hard worker</i> – someone who works hard; <i>a big eater</i> – someone who eats a lot; <i>a good thief</i> – someone who thieves well
4. <i>Denominal adjectives</i>	Derived from nouns.	<i>a criminal lawyer</i> – a lawyer specializing in criminal law; <i>an atomic scientist</i> – a scientist specializing in atomic science; <i>a woollen dress</i> – a dress made of wool

MORE ON INTENSIFYING AND DOWNTONING ADJECTIVES

In phrases like *an utter fool*, *a complete disaster*, *a total failure*, *an absolute idiot*, and *a real mess*, the prenominal adjectives do not carry much meaning of their own; instead they intensify the meaning of the noun. When someone says, "My brother-in-law is a real idiot," the speaker is using *real* to underscore the extent of the idiocy, not to express the opposite of "imaginary." Such adjectives are called **intensifying adjectives** and they are often interchangeable—*My best friend is an utter/total/complete/absolute/real failure*. Sometimes *horrible* and *terrible* can be used in this way as well—*It was a terrible mess; It was a horrible fiasco*.

While most intensifying adjectives can be used in both positive and negative contexts, *horrible* and *terrible* are usually reserved for unpleasant situations. **The party was a horrible success* would be anomalous for most speakers, and ?*The party was a terrible success* would be problematic for many.

Intensifiers vary in their ability to act as subject complements. *Total* and *absolute* retain their intensifying meaning in predicate adjective position — *The destruction was absolute; The chaos was total*.

³⁰⁶ *Intensifying adjectives*: **emphasizers** have a general heightening effect; **amplifiers** scale upwards from an assumed norm; **downtoners** have a lowering effect, usually scaling downwards from an assumed norm.

Complete is somewhat marginal in this regard — ?*The destruction was complete*. Utter cannot occur in predicate adjective position at all, and *real* loses its intensifier status when it occupies this position — *The destruction was real*.

English also contains constructions that **downplay** rather than intensify meaning. These constructions precede the entire noun phrase rather than the noun head, so they are not technically adjectives. Since there is no traditional grammatical label for these constructions, they are known simply by their semantic label, **downtoner**.

My boss is sort of a jerk.

She is kind of a prima donna.

Your cousin is rather a fool.

Boris is a bit of a snob.

Zoila is kind of an accountant.

The function of **downtoners** is to **soften** the **negative connotations** of an uncomplimentary noun or to **undermine** the **literal meaning** of a neutral noun. It is certainly better to have a boss that is *sort of a jerk* than a boss that is a *real jerk*. On the other hand, you may not want to trust your taxes to someone who is *kind of an accountant*. [Berk, 1999: 174-175]

MORE ON RESTRICTIVE ADJECTIVES OR LIMITERS

In the following sentences the items in boldface are **limiters**. They limit the hearer's attention to the noun phrase that follows and exclude other possibilities. **Like downtoners, limiters modify the entire NP**. Unlike the other modifying structures in this section, **limiters can modify proper nouns** [Berk, 1999: 175].

*He ate **only** the grapes.*

[He didn't eat the apples, oranges, or bananas.]

*I invited **just** the women.*

[Not the men]

***Only** Evelyn knew the answer.*

[No one else knew the answer]

***Just** the oak trees survived.*

[Nothing else survived.]

***Only** the bedroom was ransacked.*

[No other room was ransacked.]

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PREDICATIVE ONLY:

- Adjectives that are restricted or virtually restricted to predicative are most like verbs and adverbs; they tend to refer to a (possibly temporary) condition rather than to characterize; we include here the “**health**” adjectives (*ill, sick, well / unwell, fine, poorly*), some **adjectives describing feelings** (*content, sorry, upset* etc.) and a larger group of **adjectives that can take complementation**: *able (to), afraid (of / that / about), aware (of / that), conscious (that / of), fond (of), glad (to / that / about / of), happy (to / that / with / that), subject (to), tantamount (to)* etc., also: *near and far (away), alike, averse*.

Criteria for establishing Adjective Classes (Table 5:1, p. 233, Quirk I):

	Attributive	Predicative with SEEM	VERY	Comparison
<i>hungry</i>	+	+	+	+
<i>infinite</i>	+	+	-	-

<i>utter</i>	+	-	-	-
<i>tantamount</i>	-	+	-	-
<i>ablaze</i>	-	+	-	-
<i>abroad</i>	-	-	-	-
<i>soon</i>	-	-	+	+

CENTRAL AND PERIPHERAL ADJECTIVES

It is normal to classify as **CENTRAL** those **adjectives which fulfil these two [both] functions**, and as **PERIPHERAL** those which realise other functions, or only one, or neither of these central functions.

Interestingly, **central adjectives are also descriptors**. They add information as part of the nominal group or as subject complement, which fills out and enlivens the description of people, places and things. **Central adjectives also play an important role as evaluators, expressing the subjective or objective evaluation of the speaker.**

[C]lassifiers, degree emphasisers and process-oriented adjectives are all peripheral.

Summarising, then, we have:

1 Central adjectives:	descriptors
2 Predicative adjs only:	<i>afraid, asleep, ablaze, afloat, alive, alone, alike, aware, averse</i>
3 Attributive adjs only:	these can be grouped into the following types:
• restrictive classifiers:	the <i>chief/ main</i> reason; <i>sole</i> responsibility; an <i>only</i> child
• time/ space:	the <i>previous</i> page; my <i>old</i> school; a <i>new</i> baby; your <i>left</i> leg
• associative classifiers:	an <i>agricultural</i> college, <i>foreign</i> affairs, a <i>nuclear</i> weapon
• degree emphasisers:	<i>sheer</i> nonsense; <i>utter</i> rubbish; an <i>outright</i> lie
• process-oriented:	a <i>big</i> eater; a <i>hard</i> worker, a <i>light</i> sleeper, a <i>slow</i> reader

[Downing & Locke, 2006: 482-483]

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GALORE

- ❑ *Galore* – a peripheral but nonetheless widely-attested **postnominal expression**.
- ❑ **Resistance to subject positions** (??*Boulders galore rolled down the hill*).
- ❑ **Resistance to heavy NP complements reminiscent of how attributive adjectives behave** (??*boulders of solid granite galore*; cf. **a proud of his children father*).
- ❑ ***Galore* occurs only to the immediate right of an NP:**
 - (9) a. We found [NP angry chickens] galore.
 - b. The email contained [NP pictures of lolcats] galore.
 - (10) a. *We found galore [NP angry chickens].
 - b. *The email contained galore [NP pictures of lolcats].

It is in fact an NP rather than a bare noun, as (9) shows. This constituent cannot be a full DP:

 - (11) *We found [DP the / these / my / some / angry chickens] galore.
- ❑ With just this much, though, one might venture a denotation. *Chickens galore seems to mean something like ‘many chickens’*, so perhaps *galore* means precisely the same thing as *many*? This immediately runs into a problem, however. **Unlike *many*, *galore* occurs with mass NPs:**
 - (14) a. In the cave, we found guano galore.

b. There was equivocation galore in that paper.

What seems to be necessary is a **hybrid of *many* and *much***...

- ❑ One welcome consequence of such a denotation is that the sense that ***galore* is a hybrid of *many* and *much*** is immediately accounted for. In Chierchia's system, **the property counterpart of a kind is always mass**, because its extension includes both singular and plural individuals. Because of this, ***galore* always quantifies over masses**, even when combined with a count NP. It thereby **neutralizes the plural-mass distinction that distinguishes *many* from *most***.

- ❑ ***Galore* is a positive polarity item:**

(21) *There weren't chickens galore. [Morzycki, *Quantification Galore*, 2011]

PRACTICE. Participial Adjectives. Indicate by a tick (☑), otherwise by a dash (-), if the participles listed below can be

- a) used as attributive adjectives
- b) used as predicative adjectives
- c) modified by VERY, TOO or SO.

	a	b	c		a	b	c		a	b	c
amazing				furnished				opposed			
broken				insured				pleased			
confused				interesting				surprising			
damaged				known				tiring			
damaging				limited				trained			
defined				moved				unsettled			
forgotten								written			

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PRACTICE. Categories of Adjectives. Classify the adjectives as used in the following phrases by putting the number of the phrase in the appropriate frame below:

1. a true scholar	6. very unwell	11. a particular place
2. the chief reason	7. the principal cause	12. fond of icecream
3. afraid of mice	8. a medical school	13. the late President
4. utter stupidity	9. a possible friend	14. the solar system
5. my entire salary	10. pure water	

A. Intensifiers	B. Limiters	C. Related to adverbials
D. Denominal	E. Predicative only	

Adjectives as heads of NPs

(1) adjectives which can premodify personal nouns (*the rich, the poor*). They can be *pre* – modified (*The badly injured were taken to the hospital ... The physically handicapped need social assistance.*) and *post* – modified (*The old who resist change can expect violence*).

(2) adjectives denoting nationalities: *the British, the Irish, the English / Welsh / Dutch / French* can be premodified by adjectives, not by adverbs: *The conservative Welsh.*

(3) some adjectives function as NP heads with abstract reference. They also include *superlatives*, especially when we refer to things: *She feared the unknown. The very worst was yet to come.* [SM]

English Syntax: From Word to Discourse (Lynn M. Berk, Oxford University Press, New York, 1999)

Prepositional Phrases as Adjective Complements

Predicative adjectives are often followed by prepositional phrases that are clearly working with the adjective in a single grammatical structure. Such prepositional phrases are called **adjective complements**. The relationship of the prepositional phrase to the preceding adjective is semantically rather like the relationship of a direct object to the preceding verb. In a sentence like *Kate is fond of Henry*, *fond of Henry* is an adjective phrase containing an adjective head *fond* and its complement *of Henry*.

In the following sentences the adjective complements are in boldface.

Joseph was jealous of the new baby.

I am glad of that.

I'm aware of her problems.

Ted is resentful of Philip's success.

The children are afraid of spiders.

She is certain of her daughter's victory.

Jack is bad at math.

My father is mad at our neighbor. [Berk, 1999: 184]

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Adjectives That Function As Adjuncts

Up until now we've used the term *adjunct* exclusively in terms of adverbial constructions. However, adjectives can function in very much the same way. You already know that copulas require some sort of a complement, usually a predicate nominative or a predicate adjective. Sometimes intransitive verbs are followed by adjectives that modify the subject in much the same way that predicate adjectives do.

(a)	(b)
<i>Cassie walked into the room mad.</i>	<i>The river froze solid.</i>
<i>Charley sleeps nude.</i>	<i>The box broke open.</i>
<i>Mary arrived drunk.</i>	<i>A door slammed shut.</i>
<i>The river froze solid.</i>	
<i>The box broke open.</i>	
<i>They emerged from the building alive.</i>	

Constructions like these pose a number of problems. Clearly the adjectives in these sentences are not required for grammaticality; they are not complements in the technical sense. Furthermore, all of these verbs are typical intransitive verbs; none are copulas. Yet, each of the adjectives in column (a) modifies the subject by indicating what state it is in and each of the adjectives in column (b) modifies the subject by specifying a resultant state. The term **adjunct adjective** is sometimes used to describe such forms because the adjective is an optional construction. In addition, some of these adjectives do seem to have an adverbial quality. For

example, *Mary arrived drunk* might be paraphrased as *Mary arrived **while she was drunk*** and *Cassie walked into the room mad* might be paraphrased as *Cassie walked into the room **while she was mad***; in each case the boldface clause in the paraphrase is an adverb of time (Culicover, 1988, p. 53). [Berk, 1999: 207-208]

SEMANTIC CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES

- 3 semantic scales are applicable to adjectives (we are dealing with scales rather than with a feature that is present or absent).

1. **Stative / Dynamic** (adjectives are characteristically stative but some of them can be seen as dynamic, especially those susceptible to subjective measurement; a stative adjective such as TALL cannot be used with the progressive aspect or the imperative, whereas CAREFUL can: *He's being **careful**. Be **careful**!*; adjectives that can be used dynamically include: *abusive, adorable, ambitious, awkward, brave, calm, careful, careless, cheerful, clever, complacent, conceited, cruel, disagreeable, dull, enthusiastic, extravagant, faithful, foolish, friendly, funny, generous, gentle, good, greedy, hasty, helpful, impatient, irritable, irritating, jealous, kind, lenient, loyal, mischievous, naughty, nice, noisy, obstinate, patient, playful, reasonable, rude, sensible, serious, shy, slow, spiteful, stubborn, stupid, suspicious, tactful, talkative, thoughtful, tidy, timid, troublesome, unfaithful, vain, vicious, vulgar, wicked, witty* etc.)
2. **Gradable / Non-gradable** (most adjectives are gradable; all dynamic adjectives are gradable – meaning they can be modified by adverbs which convey the degree of intensity of the adjective; gradability includes comparison (*tall – taller – the tallest*) and other forms of intensification (*very / extremely / so tall*); non-gradable adjectives cannot be qualified by words like VERY, TOO, ENOUGH; non-gradable adjectives include: *absolute, complete* (but not always), *dead, empty, entire, fatal, final, full, ideal, impossible, inevitable, inferior, irrevocable, legal, major, manifest, medical, minor, paramount, perpetual, principal, stationary, sufficient, superior, unanimous, unavoidable, unconscious, unique, universal, weekly* etc. (where the meaning is strictly defined and cannot be qualified) or: *amazing* (sometimes), *astonished, delicious, hilarious, perfect, terrible, wonderful* (where the meaning is very strong, if not in the superlative already)³⁰⁷)
3. **Inherent – Non-inherent** (most adjectives are inherent – meaning they characterize the referent of the noun directly; the inherent adjective in *a wooden cross* applies to the referent of the object directly: *a **wooden** cross* is also a wooden object; on the other hand, in *a **wooden** actor*, the adjective is non-inherent.)

Semantic Classification of Adjectives (Table 5:2, p. 266, Quirk I)	Stative	Gradable	Inherent
<i>brave (man)</i>	-	+	+
<i>black (coat)</i>	+	+	+
<i>new (friend)</i>	+	+	-
<i>British (citizen)</i>	+	-	+

³⁰⁷ We can add, however, some strength to these words by preceding them with ABSOLUTELY or REALLY: *absolutely wonderful, really amazing*.

PRACTICE. Gradable / Non-gradable. Say which of the adjectives as used in the following phrases can be graded:

(1) *shallow* water; (2) the *closing* date; (3) a *daily* newspaper; (4) a *small* size; (5) the *probable* outcome; (6) the *main* reason; (7) a *fast* driver; (8) the *political* consequences.

PRACTICE. Inherent Adjectives. Say if the adjectives in the following sentences are inherent in the context:

1. A **poor**^a man is not necessarily **unhappy**^b.
2. A **strong**^a supporter does not need to be **strong**^b.
3. The **perfect**^a solution was found by the **perfect**^b genius.
4. A **big**^a eater is quite often a **big**^b man.
5. A **hard**^a worker may well have a **soft**^b heart.
6. A **criminal**^a lawyer does not usually have a **criminal**^b record.
7. The people **present**^a are waiting for the results of the **present**^b talks.

EPITHET vs. CLASSIFIER

Many words can function as **both epithets and classifiers**.

Some classifiers can be modified and then lose their classifier function: a *very French* lady [Downing & Locke, 2006: 442]:

Epithet	Classifier
<i>fresh</i> bread (= freshly made)	<i>fresh</i> water (i.e. not salty, not sea-water)
a <i>sick</i> person	<i>sick</i> pay, <i>sick</i> leave
<i>new</i> houses (= recently built)	<i>new</i> rooms (new to the occupier)
to do that would be <i>criminal</i>	the <i>criminal</i> court
a <i>medieval</i> state of sanitation	a <i>medieval</i> castle
a <i>provincial</i> attitude	a <i>provincial</i> town

MARKED vs. UNMARKED ADJECTIVES

A few commonly used scalar opposites exhibit **markedness**. In the context of pairs of adjectives, markedness reflects the fact that one member of the pair represents the "norm" in the grammar. *Short* and *tall* are opposites that refer to height, but *tall* is the more generally used and therefore "unmarked" form. No matter how short an individual is, the appropriate question is "How tall are you?" *Short* and *long* usually behave in the same way (although the constraints on *short* are somewhat less stringent). If you go to a hardware store to buy piece of lumber, the clerk will probably ask "How long do you want it?" Although *young* is the opposite of *old*, we ask even three-year-olds, "How old are you?" *Tall*, *long*, and *old* are the commonly used **unmarked adjectives**. *Short* and *young* are considered **marked**, even though they don't carry any special morphology, because they are used in more limited circumstances.

Unmarked adjectives can be modified by measurement terms—*The child was eight years old; The room was ten feet long*, but **marked adjectives cannot**—**Tom was two years young; *The room was ten feet short*. (The last sentence is possible in a different context, one in which the room is ten feet short of some goal.) When someone says "I am seventy years young," we smile in part because *young* is a highly marked form here. [Berk, 1999: 177]

GRADABILITY

He was a *remarkable* man –
 a *very remarkable* man –
 indeed *one of the most remarkable* men of the age.
 (E. A. Poe, *The Man That Was Used Up*)

THE BIGNESS GENERALIZATION

[A]djectives that predicate **bigness** (that is, upward monotonic size adjectives) are systematically able to receive degree readings, but this is not the case for adjectives that predicate **smallness**:

(19) *George is a big / enormous / huge / colossal / mammoth/ gargantuan idiot.*

(20) *George is a %small / %tiny / %minuscule / %microscopic / %diminutive / %minute idiot.* [Morzycki, *Degree Modification of Gradable Nouns*, 2009: 5]

COMPARISON

The table presents the comparative and superlative of superiority , where there are differences according to the length or regularity of adjectives.	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
<i>One-syllable adjectives</i> : young, big, short	younger, bigger, shorter	the youngest, the biggest, the shortest
<i>Two-syllable adjectives ending in –Y</i> : lovely, pretty, funny	lovelier, prettier, funnier	the loveliest, the prettiest, the funniest
<i>Other two-syllable adjectives</i> : pleasant, annoyed, modern, careful, careless	more pleasant / annoyed / modern / careful / careless	the most pleasant / annoyed / modern / careful / careless
<i>Adjectives of 3 or more syllables</i> : expensive, attractive, exciting, intelligent	more expensive / attractive / exciting / intelligent	the most expensive / attractive / exciting / intelligent
<i>Adjectives with irregular comparatives and superlatives</i> : good, bad, far, little, ill, old, much / many / some	better, worse, farther / further³⁰⁸, less, worse, older / elder³⁰⁹, more	the best, the worst, the farthest / the furthest, the least, the worst, the oldest / eldest, the most

- Notice the following spelling peculiarities:
 big → bigger → the biggest; hot → hotter → the hottest; thin → thinner → the thinnest³¹⁰
 nice → nicer → the nicest; large → larger → the largest; rude → rudier → the rudest³¹¹
 shy → shier → the shiest; friendly → friendlier → the friendliest³¹²
- The reference is introduced by THAN: *I am taller than my sister.*
- **The Comparative of Equality:**

³⁰⁸ *Farther / the farthest* refer to distance in space, whereas *further / the furthest* more to distance in time.

³⁰⁹ *Elder* is used especially with members of the family (*my elder sister* etc.)

³¹⁰ One-syllable adjectives ending in single vowel and single consonant double the consonant when followed by **–er** and **–est** respectively.

³¹¹ One-syllable adjectives ending in **–e** only add **–r** for the comparative and **–st** for the superlative.

³¹² Adjectives ending in **Y** preceded by consonant will have **–ier** and **–iest** for comparative and superlative, respectively.

The ticket is (**not**) as expensive as it was yesterday.

▫ **The Comparative of Inferiority:**

The ticket is less expensive today than it was yesterday.

▫ **The Superlative of Inferiority:**

It's the least expensive ticket I could find.

▫ 2 comparatives joined by AND give the idea of a continuing increase:

It's growing **bigger and bigger** every day.

It's getting **more and more difficult** every day.

▫ Parallel increase is suggested by THE + COMPARATIVE + THE + COMPARATIVE:

The *cleverer*, the *better*.

The *more difficult*, the *more interesting*.

The *easier*, the *less appealing*.

▫ LIKE, REAL, RIGHT, WRONG and predicative adjectives such as ALERT, ALONE, AWARE etc., take **more** and **most**.

▫ Adjectives stressed in their final syllable and ending in 2 plosives (EXACT, CORRECT, DISTINCT; ABRUPT etc.) and adjectives in **-er** where the preceding consonant is not homorganic with the [r] (PROPER, EAGER etc.) form their degrees of comparison by adding **more** and **most**.

▫ MINOR, MAJOR, INFERIOR, SUPERIOR etc. (Latin comparatives) are treated as positives.

Traditional grammars divide adjectives into *gradable* and *non-gradable*.

Gradable adjectives can take two types of comparison.

(a) **Synthetic / Inflectional** / **-er** (comparative) and **-est** (superlative) **comparison**.

(b) **Analytic / Periphrastic** / **more** (comparative) and **most** (superlative) **comparison**.

The pattern of comparison that adjectives take largely depends on their **length**.

1. **Monosyllabic / one-syllable** adjectives usually take inflectional **-er**, **-est** forms:

cheap	-cheaper	-cheapest
fat	-fatter	-fattest
scarce	-scarcer	-scarcest

Note: The monosyllabic adjectives *real*, *right* and *wrong* can only take periphrastic forms:

real	-more real	-most real
------	------------	------------

2. **Disyllabic / two-syllable** adjectives. Although Swan (1991: 143) holds that "a simple rule for two-syllable adjectives is use (periphrastic) **more** and **most** (forms) except for the ones ending in **-y**", the pattern of comparison very much varies according to their ending and the stress they take.

2.1. Disyllabic / two-syllable adjectives ending in **-le/l/-ly**, **-er**, **-ure** and **-ow** are used with both patterns of comparison: *able*, *feeble*, *humble*, *gentle*, *noble*, *simple*, *early*, *friendly*, *lovely*, *manly*, *ugly*, *clever*, *tender*, *mature*, *obscure*, *hollow*, *narrow*, *shallow*.

2.2. Sometimes used with periphrastic forms, disyllabic adjectives ending in **-y**, however, favour the use of inflectional forms: *angry*, *clumsy*, *bloody*, *easy*, *funny*, *happy*, *merry*, *noisy*, *pretty*, *tidy*, *wealthy*, *gloomy*, *guilty*, *haughty*, *healthy*, *heavy*, *hungry*, *lofty*, *lucky*, *ready*.

2.3. Some first-syllable stress disyllabic adjectives, such as *common*, *cruel*, *handsome*, *lonesome*, *pleasant*, *quiet*, *solid*, *stupid*, *tender*, *wicked*, etc., can be used with either inflectional or periphrastic forms.

2.4. Disyllabic adjectives ending in a **stressed syllable** may also take both forms of comparison: *absurd*, *complete*, *intense*, *minute*, *obscure*, *polite*, *profound*, *remote*, *severe*, *sincere*, etc.

2.5. Adjectives such as *active*, *afraid*, *alive*, *comic*, *correct*, *distinct*, *docile*, *fertile*, *sterile*, *eager*, *exact*, *foolish*, *morose*, *proper*, *recent*, *stupid*, *tiring* are used with periphrastic forms only.

Note: Both monosyllabic and disyllabic adjectives usually take periphrastic comparison when they are predicative and are followed by a **than**-clause:

Helen was *more sad* **than** her friend at the news.

Could you think of a man *more wicked* **than** he is?

They are *more happy* **than** ever.

3. **Plurisyllabic** (three or more syllable) adjectives can only take periphrastic forms, except for the negative forms of two syllabic adjectives tending in -y, prefixed with un-, which can take both types of comparison:

unhappy	-unhappier	-unhappiest
untidy	-untidier	-untidiest

Note: **Participle** forms used as adjectives regularly take periphrastic forms: *interested, interesting, wounded, torn*. [SM]

ABSOLUTE READING VS. COMPARATIVE READING

(5) John climbed the highest mountain.

(6) a. *Absolute reading*:

John climbed a mountain higher than all other mountains.

b. *Comparative reading*:

John climbed a mountain higher than (the mountains) everyone else climbed. [Teodorescu, *Modification in the Noun Phrase*, 2009: 6-7]

Grading Options in English [according to Downing & Locke, 2006: 486]

The scale of degree	Inflectional	Analytic
1 Comparative superiority	easier	more difficult
2 Superlative superiority	the easiest	the most difficult
3 Equality		as easy, as difficult
4 Comparative inferiority		less easy, less difficult
5 Superlative inferiority		the least easy, the least difficult
6 Sufficiency		easy enough, difficult enough

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The nice and construction. *Nice and* is often used in informal speech to intensify a second adjective: *nice and hot, nice and cold, nice and dirty*. *Good and* is also used in the same way. [Downing & Locke, 2006: 487]

The degree of sufficiency. This comprises three terms: 'excess', 'sufficiency', 'insufficiency', realised by the adverbs *too, enough, not enough*, respectively. When functioning predicatively, that is at Cs, the AdjG structure is as follows:

excess:	This knife is <i>too sharp</i> .
sufficiency:	Is this knife <i>sharp enough</i> ?
insufficiency:	This knife is <i>not sharp enough</i> .

When the AdjG modifies a noun, the NG structures are as follows:

excess:	This is <i>too sharp a knife</i> .
sufficiency:	This is <i>a sharp enough knife</i> .
insufficiency:	This is <i>not a sharp enough knife</i> .

If the noun is uncountable or plural (e.g. *weather, knives*), only the predicative structure is used for the expression of 'excess':

excess:	The weather was <i>too</i> wet.	*It was <i>too wet weather</i> .
	These knives are <i>too</i> sharp.	*These are <i>too sharp knives</i> .

The degree of excess can be expressed by the lexical item *over* (AmE *overly*) used as a compound adjective:
Don't be *over-anxious* about the future. [Downing & Locke, 2006: 488]

MORE ON SUPERLATIVES

- ❑ MOST can sometimes mean 'very':
*She is **most beautiful**. It is a **most interesting** novel.* [old course]
- ❑ Be aware that {-est} and *most* are not always superlative forms. Sometimes speakers use these forms as intensifiers without implying a comparison.
*I am dating the **most wonderful** woman.*
*Rachel is the **nicest** person.*
*He is a **most happy** baby.*
*This is the **worst** course.*
In each of these sentences *most* or {-est} is semantically closer to the intensifier *very* than the superlative. [Berk, 1999: 176]
- ❑ What is the effect of superlatives in the following texts?
 1. "...it is not too much to say that they were **the handsomest** pair of whiskers under the sun. At all events, they encircled, and at times partially overshadowed, a mouth utterly unequalled. Here were **the most entirely even**, and **the most brilliantly white** of all conceivable teeth." (E. A. Poe, *The Man That Was Used Up*)
 2. Arousing from **the most profound of slumbers**, we break **the gossamer web** of some dream. [...] It seemed evident that mine was not, at least, **the most hideous of fates**. (E. A. Poe, *The Pit and the Pendulum*)

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PRACTICE. Comparison. Give the comparatives and superlatives of the following adjectives:

able, bad, clever, common, concise, confused, distinct, delightful, dry, far, fat, healthy, ill, intelligent, narrow, perfect, pleasant, real, simple

PRACTICE. Fill in the blanks with the comparative and superlative degrees of the adjectives listed. Do any of them require *more* and *most*? [Kolln, 2012: ex. 52 / 255]

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
friendly		
helpful		
wise		
awful		
rich		
mellow		
expensive		
valid		
pure		
able		

ORDER OF (PRENOMINAL) ADJECTIVES

- ❑ Semantic sets accounting for the usual order of co-occurrent adjectives (Quirk *et al.*):

Intensifying adjectives	Post-determiners (including restrictive adjectives)	General adjectives susceptible to subjective measure	General adjectives susceptible to objective measure (including size and shape)	Adjectives denoting age	Adjectives denoting colour	Denominal adjective denoting material / resemblance to a material	Denominal adjectives denoting provenance or style
<i>a real hero, a perfect idiot</i>	<i>the fourth student, the only occasion</i>	<i>careful, naughty, lovely</i>	<i>wealthy, large, square</i>	<i>young, old, new</i>	<i>red, black</i>	<i>a silken handkerchief, a metallic substance / metallic voice, silken hair, cat-like stealth</i>	<i>British ship, Parisian dress</i>

- ❑ When 2 or more adjectives are used together, **subjective adjectives**, that express an opinion (BORING, LOVELY, UGLY) are used before **objective, concrete adjectives** (OLD, RED, SQUARE)
- ❑ Objective adjectives have the following order:
SIZE → AGE → SHAPE → COLOUR → ORIGIN → MATERIAL → PURPOSE³¹³
- ❑ Comparatives and superlatives normally come in front of all other adjectives in a noun group: ex. *...better parental control; ...the highest monthly figures on record.*
- ❑ When adjectives are concerned with SMELL or LUSTER, the order goes as follows:

Order:	<i>second, last</i>
Location:	<i>kitchen, westerly</i>
Source or Origin:	<i>Canadian</i>
Color:	<i>red, dark</i>
Smell:	<i>acrid, scented</i>
Material:	<i>metal, oak</i>
Size:	<i>large, 5-inch</i>
Weight:	<i>heavy</i>
Luster:	<i>shiny, dull</i>

³¹³ The comma separates the adjectives of equal emphasis: *He's an ignorant, selfish old man.* When 2 gradable adjectives come before the noun, we can put either a comma or AND between them: *an attractive, big garden* or *an attractive and big garden.* 2 ungradable adjectives have AND between them if they are from the same class, but AND is not used if they are from different classes: *mud and straw houses; financial and political conditions; improving financial conditions.*

- **Order of multiple epithets** (according to Downing & Locke):
 - attributes of **size**, **age**, **shape** and **colour** usually occur in that order: *a large, rectangular, black box*;
 - **de-verbal adjectives** (i.e. derived from verbs) before **denominal** ones (derived from nouns), as in: *an attractive, ambitious woman*;
 - **short adjectives** before **long** ones, as in: *a small, pretty, well-kept garden*;
 - **well-known words** before **less common ones**: *a strange, antediluvian monster*;
 - the **most forceful or 'dynamic' adjective** tends to be placed at the end: *a sudden, loud, ear-splitting crash*; such sequences are also felt to be more satisfying rhythmically, compared with *an ear-splitting, loud, sudden crash*.

What is it like?	How big?	How old?	What shape?	What colour?	Where was it made?	What is it made from? / What type is it?	Noun
				<i>red</i>	<i>Chinese</i>	<i>silk</i>	<i>shirt</i>
<i>beautiful</i>		<i>old</i>					<i>house</i>
<i>old-fashioned</i>						<i>handmade</i>	<i>doll</i>
	<i>small</i>		<i>square</i>	<i>brown</i>			<i>envelope</i>
	<i>heavy</i>		<i>oval</i>			<i>antique</i>	<i>table</i>

FOUR PREMODIFICATION ZONES [Quirk *et al.*, 1985, *apud* Pastor Gómez, 2009]

As already noted, there is a **general rule** whereby **the more objective and unquestionable modifiers** are placed **closer to the head of the NP**, whereas **the more subjective ones** are placed **further away**. This implies that **nouns are closer to the head noun**, while **adjectives (especially descriptive ones) will precede those modifying nouns**.

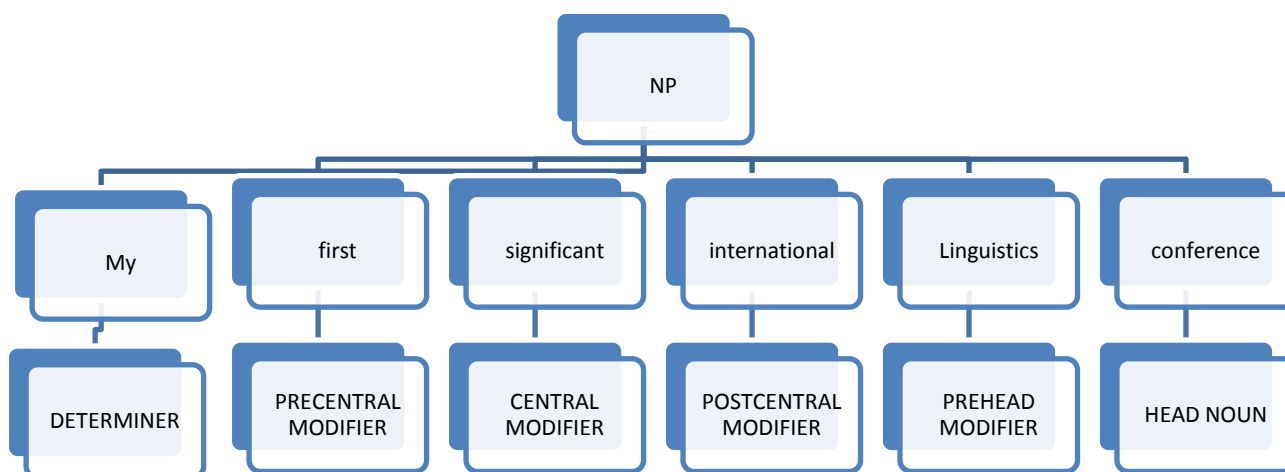
(8) A touching private poetry reading

In this NP, the descriptive adjective *touching* precedes the classifying adjective *private*, which itself precedes the modifying noun *poetry*; both are premodifiers of the head noun *reading*.

Thus, positions closer to the head noun are filled by descriptive modifiers, which are “more integral to the **identification, classification, or description** of the head noun referent.” (Biber *et al.*, 1999: 599).

Along the same lines, Quirk *et al.* (1985: 1339) distinguish **four different premodification zones**: **precentral, central, postcentral, and prehead position**. **Non-gradable adjectives** are situated in **precentral position**, **gradable adjectives** are placed in **central position**, whereas **participles and colour adjectives** are left in **postcentral position**. In **prehead position** are **the least adjectival and most nominal modifiers (adjectives denoting nationality, style, provenance; denominal adjectives and nouns)**. Figure II illustrates this classification. [Pastor Gómez, 2009: 24-25]

Figure II Premodification zones



EXCEPTIONAL ADJECTIVE ORDERINGS

In various languages, when **nouns are modified by more than one adjective at a time** certain **ordering restrictions arise**. Consider for instance the English examples in (133) and (134). In the absence of any special intonation, the order of the pre-nominal adjectives in (133a) is considered grammatical and natural, while the one in (133b) is generally perceived as awkward.

- (133) a. a tall Russian lawyer
b. # a Russian tall lawyer

Similarly, the noun phrase in (134a) is fine, but that in (134b) is not.

- (134) a. innocent naval officers (Bache 1978: 16)
b. # naval innocent officers

Such cases have captured the attention of linguists for a long time and there is a large body of literature discussing adjective orderings. It ranges from **early work** (Bloomfield 1933, Whorf 1956, Ziff 1960) to various grammars and **in-depth descriptions** (Quirk et al. 1972, Biber et al. 1999, Hill 1958, Vendler 1963, Lance 1968, Teyssier 1968, etc.); from **corpus studies** (Bache 1978, Vandelanotte 2002, Wulff 2003) and **typological studies** (Hetzron, 1978, Dixon 1982, Sproat and Shih 1991) to **syntactic analyses** (Vendler 1968, Bernstein 1993, Cinque 1994, Sadler and Arnold 1994 and others following them) and **psycholinguistic and neurolinguistic experiments** (Martin 1969a, 1969b, 1970; Martin and Ferb 1973; Danks and Schwenk 1972, 1974; Martin Richards 1975; Kemmerer et al. 2007).

However, questions like

- (i) what adjectives are ordered?
(ii) how are they ordered? and
(iii) why are they ordered the way they are?

are still very much a matter of debate. I propose to address these issues from a novel perspective, namely focusing on cases where adjective ordering restrictions do *not* apply. [Teodorescu, *Modification in the Noun Phrase*, 2009: 107-108]

In English, the order of prenominal adjectives is relatively fixed. For example, the ordering in (136a) gets 360 hits on Google, while the one in (136b) doesn't get any.

- (136) a. big rectangular table
b. # rectangular big table

Among the examples in (137), the ordering in (137a) is the only option as long as the adjectives are pronounced with **neutral intonation**. That is, all adjectives show the same secondary stress

pattern and they are not followed by pauses; **only the noun receives primary stress** (Hill 1958, Lance 1968, Martin 1970, Martin and Ferb 1973).

- (137) a. a beautiful small black cat
 b. # a beautiful black small cat
 c. # a small beautiful black cat
 d. # a small black beautiful cat

Example (138) shows nouns that are modified by more than three adjectives at a time. [...] Examples with long strings of multiple modifiers such as these are relatively rare, **most nouns being modified by one or two adjectives at a time (see report from Biber et al):**

- (138) a. a big new brown French leather jacket (Lance 1968:210)
 b. a magnificent ornamental 18th century carved mahogany mantelpiece (Halliday 1994:192) [Teodorescu, *Modification in the Noun Phrase*, 2009: 110-111]

(141) How adjectives are ordered (AOR):

- a. **Identifying adjectives** > **Characterizing adjectives** > **Classificatory adjectives** (Teyssier 1968)
 b. **Evaluative** > **Color, Age, Shape, Size** > **Denominal, Nationality/Provenance** (Hill 1958)
 c. **Evaluative/Quality** > **Size** > **Shape** > **Age** > **Color** > **Participle** > **Nationality/ Provenance** > **Denominal adjective** (Quirk et al. 1972)
 d. **Value** > **Dimension** > **Physical property** > **Speed** > **Human Propensity** > **Age** > **Color** > **Denominal adjective** (Dixon 1982)
 e. **Quality** > **Size** > **Shape** > **Color** > **Provenance** (Sproat and Shih 1991)

Teyssier (1968) for example, uses **three semantic classes** ordered as in (141a). The **identifying class** contains adjectives like *same, only and first*. The **classificatory class** consists of adjectives pointing to a **specimen of a class, such as denominal, nationality and relational adjectives, as well as other adjectives that have come to form a compound with the noun (e.g. blackbird, blue-bell)**, the latter being left aside in our subsequent discussion. The **characterizing class** contains **the rest of the adjectives**. [Teodorescu, *Modification in the Noun Phrase*, 2009: 113]

[Classes of flexible word order

Exceptions to AOR:

- a. adjectives that resemble Relative Clauses
 b. adjectives that bear 'comma intonation'
 (144) a. the large red chair (Size > Color)
 b. the red, large chair (Color > Size)

- c. adjectives that bear focus intonation

- (146) a. small black cat (SIZE > COLOR)
 b. BLACK small cat (COLOR > SIZE) [Teodorescu, *Modification in the Noun Phrase*, 2009: 115]

SEMINAR on ADJECTIVES

COURSE # 11 IN A NUTSHELL

Final Notes on Adjectives:

- **Denominals** (*i.e.* adjectives derived from nouns - ex. *technical, neurological, social* etc.) tend to be placed right before the noun. ⇒ SASCOMP completed: **Opinion – Size – Length – Shape – Width – Participle (past or present) – Age – Colour – Origin – Material – Denominal – Noun** (or: **Opinion – Size – Age - Colour – Participle** etc. according to Quirk & Greebaum). According to Silvia Manoliu, the order is as follows: **determiner + quality / evaluation + size + shape + age + colour + origin +**

material + noun in attributive position / participle + head noun. Therefore, the closest to the noun-head, i.e. immediately before the noun-head, come nouns in attributive position (1) or participles (2), preceded by adjectives denoting material (3), origin (4), colour or vintage frequency (5), age (6), shape (7), size (8), quality (9) and farthest in the sequence, i.e. in front position, the determiner: *all her beautiful long straight light-brown hair* [SM]

- When adjectives are used in a series, the determiner is followed by the ordinal number + cardinal number + adjectives: *the first three German students; his second car; the next few lesson* [SM]
- Occasionally, a cardinal numeral may be used before an ordinal numeral with a difference of meaning. **Compare:** *the first three prizes* (i.e. first prize, second prize and the third prize) **vs.** *the three first prizes* (i.e. there were three first prizes) [SM]
- Mind the affective connotation of **LITTLE**, which tends to be placed very close to the noun, as compared to synonym **SMALL**, that refers to size exclusively, no particular connotation, therefore will occupy the initial position in SASCOMP.
- When two descriptive adjectives are used together, they are separated in speech by a “**comma pause**” and in writing by a comma: *She was reading a long, fascinating book.* (where the shorter adjective precedes the longer one)
- If intensified, the intensifier precedes the adjective(s): *He was reading a terribly fascinating book.* [SM]
- Nouns as adjectives in attributive position that come immediately before the N-heads are almost always used in the singular: *They live in a pretty little yellow brick house.* [SM]
- After the N-head comes any prepositional phrase that occurs in a NP: *They live in a big white house on Oak street. She was talking to a funny little man in a blue suit.* [SM]
- Some adjectives, normally predicative, can become attributive if modified: *The child is awake.* → *The wide-awake child started to cry.*
- Besides attributive and predicative, some adjectives occur in **postposition**: e.g. *the people present, the seats available.*
- The adjectives **LAST**, **NEXT** and **PAST** can follow as well as precede the noun:

They arrived last Monday / on Monday last.
She graduated last June / in June last.
They will leave next Sunday / on Sunday next.
...remembrance of things past (Shakespeare, Sonnet XXIX).

COURSE # 11 FURTHER PRACTICE

PRACTICE. Put the adjectives in the right order:

☒ container: <i>old, plastic</i> ☒ ball: <i>red, hard</i> ☒ mask: <i>Korean, frightening</i> ☒ tin: <i>biscuit, round</i> ☒ plate: <i>small, broken</i> ☒ car: <i>blue, Japanese, small</i> ☒ house: <i>furnished, large, old</i> ☒ table: <i>beautiful, coffee, wooden</i>	☒ invention: <i>fantastic, German, new</i> ☒ box: <i>jewellery, metal, small, square</i> ☒ building: <i>enormous, old, grey</i> ☒ student: <i>medical, young, charming</i> ☒ necklace: <i>gold, beautiful, heavy</i> ☒ project: <i>impractical, time-wasting, expensive</i> ☒ actress: <i>successful, young, respected</i> ☒ work of art: <i>Chinese, famous, old</i>
--	--

☒ hair: <i>long, black, beautiful</i> ☒ shirt: <i>cotton, white</i> ☒ city: <i>Asian, important</i> ☒ wallet: <i>leather, brown, thin</i> ☒ morning: <i>unpleasant, dry, cold</i> ☒ speech: <i>long, tedious, incoherent</i>	☒ story: <i>wonderful, old, Native American</i> ☒ shoes: <i>leather, old</i> ☒ boy: <i>little, unhappy</i> ☒ line: <i>black, long, horizontal</i> ☒ man: <i>German, lower middle-class, typical</i> ☒ coin: <i>Greek, small, beautiful, brown, metal, old</i>
---	--

PRACTICE. Consider the order of the epithets and classifiers in the following sentences. Change the order if you think it is necessary, and say why. [Downing & Locke, 2006: 469]

- (1) It was an *unforgettable, heart-breaking sad* sight.
- (2) We heard a *tinkling, mysterious, faint* sound.
- (3) Her *artistic, slender, long* hands fluttered in the air.
- (4) She had a pair of *designer, exotic-looking, smart* sunglasses.
- (5) The lavatory was a *wooden, brown, smallish* box inserted in the floor.
- (6) We drove through the *granite, wooded, threatening, dark* mountains.

INTERNAL STRUCTURE OF THE ADJECTIVE PHRASE [Berk, 1999: 180]

Sometimes the adjectives in an NP have their own internal structure. In a phrase like *a large white building*, *large* and *white* each modify *building* but a phrase like *a light blue dress* is potentially ambiguous. The interpretation depends on whether *light* is construed as modifying *blue* or *dress*.

a [light (blue)] dress / a (light) (blue) dress

PRACTICE. Classify the following adjectives in the following extracts according to their meaning. Consider the syntactic classification, the semantic categories and their construction.

This loud-mouthed guy in the brown camel-hair coat was not really mean, he was drunk. He took a sudden dislike to the small well-dressed Filipino and began to order him around telling him to get back, not to crowd among the white people. He was full of grace.	I knew Salvatore first when he was a boy of 15 with a pleasant, ugly face, a laughing mouth and carefree eyes. They settled down in a tiny whitewashed house in the middle of a handsome vineyard. Assunta was a grim-visaged female, with decided features, and she looked old for her age.
--	---

PRACTICE. Write very short sentences using the following formal types of compound adjectives. If you are not sure of the meaning, consult a good dictionary [Downing & Locke, 2006: 522]:

- (1) **Adj + V-ing**: nice-looking, good-looking, easy-going, hard-wearing.
- (2) **Adj + V-en**: deep-frozen, big-headed, sharp-eyed.
- (3) **Noun + Adj**: world-famous, water-tight, self-confident.

PRACTICE. Suggest appropriate nouns or adjectives to form compounds with the following adjectives, e.g. sea-green. [Downing & Locke, 2006: 522]:
 -blue, -green, -pink, -red, -cold, -hot, -black, -sweet, -white.

PRACTICE. Express the following NGs differently, using a compound adjective as modifier of the head noun. The first is done for you [Downing & Locke, 2006: 522]:

- (1) a story so scarifying that it raises the hair on your head = a *hair-raising* story
- (2) an activity that consumes too much of your time
- (3) cakes that have been made at home
- (4) a speed that takes your breath away
- (5) troops that are borne (= transported) by air
- (6) a plain that has been swept by the wind
- (7) the performance that won an award
- (8) a device that saves a great deal of labour

PRACTICE. Say which of the following adjectives take the infected forms (-er, -est) for grading and which the analytical (*more, most*): *risky, real, varied, blue, typical, mistaken, friendly, userfriendly, small, tight, generous, bitter*.
 Say which of the adjectives as used in the following phrases can be graded:

- (1) *shallow* water;
- (2) the *closing* date;
- (3) a *daily* newspaper;
- (4) a *small* size;
- (5) the *probable* outcome;
- (6) the *main* reason;
- (7) a *fast* driver;
- (8) the *political* consequences. [Downing & Locke, 2006: 522]

APPENDIX # 1

ROOT, STEM, BASE

Root, stem and **base** are all terms used in the literature to designate that part of a word that remains when all the suffixes have been removed.

A **root** is a form which is not further analysable, either in terms of derivational or inflectional morphology. It is that part of word-form that remains when all inflectional and derivational affixes have been removed. A root is the basic part always present in a lexeme.

In the form *untouchables* the root is *touch*, to which first the suffix *-able*, then the prefix *un-* and finally the suffix *-s* have been added. In a compound word like *wheelchair* there are two roots, *wheel* and *chair*.

A **stem** is of concern only when dealing with inflectional morphology. In the form *untouchables* the stem is *untouchable*, although in the form *touched* the stem is *touch*; in the form *wheelchairs* the stem is *wheelchair*, even though the stem contains two roots.

A **base** is any form to which affixes of any kind can be added. This means that any root or any stem can be termed a base, but the set of bases is not exhausted by the union of the set of roots and the set of stems: a derivationally analysable form to which derivational affixes are added can only be referred to as a base. That is, *touchable* can act as a base for prefixation to give *untouchable*, but in this process *touchable* could not be referred to as a root because it is analysable in terms of derivational morphology, nor as a stem since it is not the adding of inflectional affixes which is in question.

(adapted from Bauer, 1983: 20-21)

APPENDIX # 2

OTHER CLASSIFICATIONS OF DETERMINERS

1. Defining and Particularising	2. Quantifying and Distributing	3. Numbering and Ordering	4. Semi-determinatives
Definite the	Fractional ($\pm$ of) half, (a) quarter, two thirds, four fifths etc. a dozen, a thousand	Cardinal one, two, ten, two hundred etc.	such, certain, former, latter, some, other, last, next, own
Indefinite a(n), some, zero (0)	Multiplying (*of) double, treble, twice, hundreds of, thousands of, millions of	three times	
Demonstratives this, that, these, those			
Possessive my, your, his, her, their Sam's, my friend's etc.	Non-exact some, any, no, much, (a) little, (a) few, many, several, enough	Ordinal first, second, third...	
Interrogative / Relative	Other Quantifiers A lot of, lots of,		

what, whose, which, whichever	plenty of, a great deal of, a number of		
Exclamative what (a)...			
	Distributives all, both, either, neither, each, every, none (of)		

(Downing & Locke, 2006: 433)

TYPE	EXAMPLE	EXAMPLE IN CONTEXT
The Additive Determiner	<i>another</i>	<i>Do you have another suggestion?</i>
Degree Determiners	<i>few, little, many, much</i>	<i>Few people know about his plans.</i>
Disjunctive Determiners	<i>either, neither</i>	<i>Either solution will do.</i>
Distributive Determiners	<i>each, every</i>	<i>Each student will write two essays.</i>
Existential Determiners	<i>any, some</i>	<i>Some people have all the fun.</i>
The Interrogative Determiner	<i>which</i>	<i>Which radio stations do you listen to?</i>
The Negative Determiner	<i>no</i>	<i>No amount of tea will satisfy her.</i>
Nominal Determiners	<i>one, two, three etc.</i>	<i>We have three children.</i>
Personal Determiners	<i>you, we, us</i>	<i>You people are always against our ideas.</i>
Positive Paucal Determiners	<i>certain, a few, a little, several, various</i>	<i>Several people arrived at the gate.</i>
The Relative Determiner	<i>which</i>	<i>He left at ten, at which point everyone sighed with relief.</i>
Sufficiency Determiners	<i>enough, sufficient</i>	<i>I have enough bread to eat.</i>
Universal Determiners	<i>all, both</i>	<i>All cats love milk.</i>

<https://grammarianism.wordpress.com/2015/05/10/determiners/>

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APPENDIX # 3

THE MEANING OF THE NOUN + NOUN SEQUENCE

MEANING	N1-N2 RELATION	EXAMPLES
Composition	N2 is made from / consists of N1	<i>glass windows; word classes; tomato sauce; satin dress; fact sheets; horror film</i>
Purpose	N2 is the purpose for N1 / N2 is used for N1	<i>pencil case; safety device; war fund; radio station; patrol car; Easter eggs</i>
Identity	N2 has the same referent as N1 but classifies it in terms of different attributes	<i>men workers; exam papers; member country; junk food; fairy godmother</i>
Content	N2 is about N1; N1 deals with N2	<i>algebra text; market report; success rates; intelligence bureau; colour adjective; road map; speed limit; personality disorder</i>

Source	N2 is from N1	<i>irrigation water; plant residues; computer printout; chicken flu</i>
Objective	N1 is the object of the process described in N2 / N2 is the object of the process described in N1	<i>egg production; waste disposal; case study; time travel</i> <i>discharge water; pilot products; retail items</i>
Subjective	N1 is the subject of the process described in N2 / N2 is the subject of the process described in N1	<i>child development; eye movement; skin eruption; heart failure; wolf attack</i> <i>labour force; research team</i>
Time	N2 is found at the time given by N1	<i>summer conditions; Sunday school; April fool</i>
Location	N2 is found or takes place at the location given by N1 / N1 is found or takes place at the location given by N2	<i>roof slates; Paris conference; world literature; church square</i> <i>job centre; staff room; breakfast menu</i>
Institution	N2 identifies an institution for N1	<i>insurance company; ski club; university hospital</i>
Partitive	N2 identifies parts of N1	<i>cat legs; family member; garage doors; sea floor; banana skin; window frame</i>
Specialisation	N1 identifies an area of specialisation for N1 [N1 being animate]	<i>finance director; Education secretary; gossip columnist; estate agent; heart surgeon; sheep farmer</i>

(adapted from Bagge & Manning, 2007: 557-561 and Biber *et al.*, 1999: 589-591)

APPENDIX # 4

RESTRICTIVE AND NON-RESTRICTIVE REALISATIONS OF THE POST-MODIFIER

The basic principle of **restrictive / defining** and **non-restrictive / non-defining** in the noun phrase may be summarised as follows:

- ❑ If the modification of the noun phrase answers the question *Which?*, i.e. if the head of the noun phrase can only be identified by means of the modification (either pre- or post-), this is **restrictive / defining**. It can be signalled by an adjective, a prepositional phrase, or a relative clause:

The handsome man was her brother. [Which man?]

The woman on the balcony was the Queen. [Which woman?]

The beer that I like best is Guinness. [Which beer?]

- ❑ If, on the other hand, the pre- or post-modification does not indicate *Which?*, if it is merely “extra information” and is to be considered as if it were inside a set of brackets, it is **non-restrictive / non-defining**:

His wife, who knew him well, realized that he was innocent.

Tobacco, which is one of the main causes of cancer, has been banned in bars.

The man involved, who was arrested last week, has been released.

The book, which I read as soon as it came out, has now been banned.

Sometimes the relative antecedent is not a noun phrase, but a whole clause [sentential non-defining relatives]:

He jumped off the bridge, which was rather silly of him because the river was dry.

In relative clauses, **punctuation** shows the essential difference between restrictive / defining and non-restrictive / non-defining clauses. Restrictive / defining relative clauses are an essential part of the super-

ordinate clause, and commas are *never* used; in non-restrictive / non-defining clauses, commas signal the “extra-information” nature of the relative clause (as if it were in brackets):

The attention (that) they received pleased them. [restrictive / defining]

My mother, who is 90, still smokes. [non-restrictive / non-defining]

(adapted from Falinski, 2011: 144, 145, 152)

RESTRICTIVE (EMBEDDED) REALISATIONS OF THE POST-MODIFIER	
TYPE OF UNIT	EXAMPLE
1. finite relative clause	Perhaps the people <i>who were waiting</i> are still there.
2. non-finite clauses to-infinitive clauses –ing clause –en clause	It's time <i>to say good night</i> ; there's nothing <i>to eat</i> an envelope <i>containing a white powdery substance</i> spring water <i>bottled in the Malvern hills</i>
3. prepositional phrase	a policeman <i>on a motor-cycle</i> a new album <i>by a top musician</i>
4. adjectival group	a box <i>full of screwdrivers and spanners</i>
5. adverbial group	the Prime Minister's speech <i>yesterday</i>
6. appositive NG	our son <i>Barney</i> ; the explorer <i>Marco Polo</i>
7. reflexive pronoun	the Americans <i>themselves</i>
8. noun complement clause	expectations <i>that we'll win the Cup</i> their plans <i>to go on strike</i>
9. PP complement	reliance <i>on public transport</i> ; a threat <i>to our security</i>
NON-RESTRICTIVE (SUPPLEMENTIVE) REALISATIONS OF THE POST-HEAD ELEMENT	
TYPE OF UNIT	EXAMPLE
1 finite relative clause	A meeting was arranged with the gypsies, <i>who were allowed to stay until the 24th of July</i>
2 non-finite clauses –ing clause –en clause	. . . and the taps, <i>gleaming as gold</i> , were surrounded by a platoon of little bottles and cases, <i>all matching</i> ...the enormous volume, <i>dedicated to his wife</i> , lay on the desk
3 prepositional phrase	The departure time, <i>at 5 a.m.</i> , was uncomfortably early.
4 adjectival group	and he opened out the big, blue toolbox, <i>full of screwdrivers and spanners</i>
5 circumstantial clause	We were all just trying to get through high school so we could hurry up and get to college, <i>where, we'd heard, things were better (All American Girl)</i>
6 appositive NG	our youngest son, <i>Barney</i> ; <i>Marco Polo, the explorer</i>
7 verbless clause	and the Minister, <i>himself a Quaker</i> , made no objection
8 complement clause	her life-long wish, <i>to own a horse</i> , was at last fulfilled

(Downing & Locke, 2006: 447-448)

APPENDIX # 5

TYPES OF COPULAS aka LINKING VERBS

SENSORY COPULAS

These copulas must be followed by an adjective, a prepositional phrase with the preposition *like*, or, on rare occasions, a noun phrase:

*The record **sounds** scratched. / That animal **sounds** like an elk.*

*Margie **looks** terrible. / She **looks** a mess. / That cloth **looks** like silk.*

*Your cabin **smells** musty. / This room **smells** like a barn.*

*This meat **tastes** rancid. / This squid **tastes** like rubber.*

*This cloth **feels** rough. / This lump **feels** like a cyst.*

You can say *This room smells* without an overt adjective following the copula, but your hearer will presume the adjective *bad*. If you want to suggest any other quality, you must include an adjective.

STATIVE COPULAS

There are two copulas, *seem* and *appear*, each of which suggests that a subject has a particular quality or is in a particular state (e.g. *Joyce **seems** happy. Tom **appears** satisfied.*)

Copula *remain* is closely related to intransitive verb *remain*. In a sentence like *Jorgen **remained** angry*, the copula indicates that the state persists. In a sentence like *Jeff remained in the room*, the intransitive verb indicates that the subject persists in a particular location.

CHANGE OF STATE COPULAS

*The milk **turned** sour yesterday.*

*Michelle **became** an architect.*

*My husband is **going** bald.*

*My grandparents **grew** old last year.*

*She **became** irate.*

*Henry **gets** angry easily.*

Turn constrains its predicate adjective more than other resultative copulas do [for one, it usually suggests a relatively rapid change of state, that is why sentences like **He turned tall* are unacceptable]. While copula *turn* cannot be followed by a noun phrase, *turn into* can:

*The frog **turned into** a prince.*

*She **turned into** a lovely woman.*

Since the second NP in each of these sentences has the same referent as the subject, it makes sense to treat *turn into* as a two-word copula.

RESTRICTED COPULAS—STATIVE AND CHANGE OF STATE

There is a small class of highly restricted copulas that co-occur with a very limited number of subject complements.

*The problems **loomed** large.*

*The children **fell** silent/asleep/ill.*

*The task **proved** difficult / impossible / insurmountable.*

*The kids **ran** wild.*

Sensory copulas	Stative copulas	Change of state copulas
<i>The wind sounds loud.</i>	<i>Maggie seems content.</i>	<i>It turned cold last night.</i>

<i>This tastes awful.</i>	<i>Your mom appears upset.</i>	<i>Wally got mad.</i>
<i>The task looked impossible to Joseph.</i>	<i>The world is flat.</i>	<i>She became an attorney.</i>
<i>This plaster feels cracked.</i>	(Restrictive)	<i>They grew old.</i>
<i>The fish smelled rotten to the customer.</i>	<i>This problem looms large.</i>	<i>The prince turned into a frog.</i>
	<i>The disease proved incurable.</i>	(Restrictive)
		<i>The passengers fell ill.</i>

Subject complement—stative	Subject complement—resultative
<i>Helena sounds angry.</i>	<i>Helena grew angry.</i>
<i>Vera was a doctor.</i>	<i>Vera became a doctor.</i>
<i>That music seems loud.</i>	<i>The music got loud.</i>
<i>The weather looks bad.</i>	<i>The weather turned bad.</i>

(adapted from Berk, 1999: 45-49)

APPENDIX # 6

SYNTACTIC FUNCTIONS OF PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

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Prepositional Phrases

Noun /
Adjective /
Adverb
Modifiers

Adverbials

Subject
Complements

Subjects

Direct
Objects

...the book **on**
the table...
...happy **about**
the result...
...most quickly
by far...

On weekends I
usually sleep
late.

The winners
were **over the**
moon.

Before noon
would be
perfect.
By plane is more
expensive than
by train.

I would prefer
before noon for
a meeting.

APPENDIX # 7

SYNTACTIC FUNCTIONS OF NOUN / NP SUBSTITUTES (PRONOUNS & NUMERALS)

Syntactic Functions of the Personal Pronoun ³¹⁴	
Subject:	<i>We arrived late.</i>
Direct Object:	<i>They had seen us the day before.</i>
Prepositional Object:	<i>Cody will not survive without us.</i>
Subject Complement:	<i>It was us.</i>
Premodifier (attribute):	<i>We / us elder sisters do keep our promises.</i>
Syntactic Functions of the Possessive Pronoun	
Subject:	<i>Ours is more exact.</i>
Direct Object:	<i>Please take ours.</i>
Prepositional Object:	<i>I don't need their car; I'm coming with ours.</i>
Subject Complement:	<i>Moldavia is not ours.</i>
Postmodifier (attribute):	<i>A friend of ours just came back from Finland.</i>
Syntactic Functions of the Reflexive Pronoun	
Direct Object:	<i>He shaved himself.</i>
Prepositional Object:	<i>Snow-White looked at herself in the mirror.</i>
Subject Complement:	<i>After the exam I was myself again.</i>
Syntactic Functions of the Demonstrative Pronouns	
Subject:	<i>This tastes scrumptious.</i>
Direct Object:	<i>He sent this by express mail.</i>
Indirect Object:	<i>You need to give this your closest attention.</i>
Prepositional Object:	<i>You can have these, and your brother will play with those.</i>
Subject Complement:	<i>What I want is this!</i>
Object Complement:	<i>You painted my bedroom walls that?</i>
Syntactic Functions of Indefinite Pronouns	
Subject:	<i>Anyone may attend this lecture.</i>
Direct Object:	<i>You should say something.</i>
Indirect Object:	<i>She always sends someone a gift on Christmas.</i>
Prepositional Object:	<i>Dexter brought doughnuts for everyone.</i>
Subject Complement:	<i>The culprit must be someone in the company.</i>
Syntactic Functions of the Numeral	
Subject:	<i>Only two came in.</i>
Direct Object:	<i>He got one, I got two.</i>
Indirect Object:	<i>I gave the second a second chance.</i>
Prepositional Object:	<i>He died in 1980.</i>
Subject Complement:	<i>Robert is forty-six.</i>
Adverbial:	<i>Robert won the race and James came second.</i>

³¹⁴ Personal pronoun *it* abounds in nuances, therefore it may have various other uses than that of substituting a noun / noun phrase: it can be "empty" (e.g. *The lake makes **it** pleasant here.*), it can have an anticipatory / emphatic function (e.g. ***It** is no use crying over spilt milk. **It** was yesterday that I saw him.*) etc.

Glossary of Grammatical Terms [Kolln, 2012: 349-364]

Absolute adjective. An adjective with a meaning that is generally not capable of being intensified or compared, such as *unique* or *perfect* or *square*. Careful writers avoid such usages as “very perfect” or “more unique.”

Absolute phrase. A noun phrase related to the sentence as a whole that includes a postnoun modifier (often a participial phrase). One kind of absolute explains a cause or condition (“*The weather being warm*, we decided to have a picnic”); the other adds a detail or a point of focus to the idea in the main clause (“he spoke quietly to the class, *his voice trembling*”).

Adjective. One of the four form classes, whose members act as modifiers of nouns; most adjectives can be inflected for comparative and superlative degree (*big, bigger, biggest*); they can be qualified or intensified (*rather big, very big*); they have characteristic derivational endings such as *-ous* (*famous*), *-ish* (*childish*), *-ful* (*graceful*), and *-ary* (*complementary*).

Adjective phrase. A modified adjective, such as an adjective with a qualifier (*very happy, extremely happy*), a comparative or superlative word (*more generous, most generous*), or with a complement (*happy to see you, happy that you could come*).

Adverb. One of the four form classes, whose members act as modifiers of verbs, contributing information of time, place, reason, manner, and the like. Like adjectives, certain adverbs can be qualified (*very quickly, rather fast*), some can be inflected for comparative and superlative degree (*more quickly, fastest*), they have characteristic derivational endings such as *-ly* (*quickly*), *-wise* (*lengthwise*), and *-ward* (*backward*).

Adverb phrase. A modified adverb, such as an adverb with a qualifier (*very quickly, rather quickly*) or with *more* or *most* (*more quickly, most anxiously*).

Affix. A morpheme, or meaningful unit, that is added to the beginning (prefix) or end (suffix) of a word to change its meaning or its grammatical role or its form class: (prefix) *unlikely*; (suffix) *unlikely*.

Agreement. (1) **Subject-verb.** A third-person singular subject in the present tense takes the *-s* form of the verb: “*The dog barks* all night”; “*He bothers* the neighbors.” A plural subject takes the base form: “*The dogs bark*”, “*They bother* the neighbors.” (2) **Pronoun-antecedent.** The number of the pronoun (whether singular or plural) agrees with the number of its antecedent: “*The boys did their* chores”; “*Each girl did her* best.”

Allomorph. A variation of a morpheme, usually determined by its environment. For example, the three allomorphs of the regular plural morpheme are determined by the final sound of the nouns to which they are added: /s/ *cats*; /z/ *dogs*; and /ɪz/ *churches*.

Article. One of the determiner classes, including the indefinite *a*, or *an*, which signals only countable nouns, and the definite *the*, which can signal all classes of nouns.

Attributive adjective. The adjective in prenoun position: “my *new* coat”; “the *big* attraction.”

Base morpheme. The morpheme that gives a word its primary lexical meaning: *helping, reflect*.

Bound morpheme. A morpheme that cannot stand alone as a word. Most affixes are bound (*helping, react*); some base morphemes are also bound (*concise, legal*).

Case. A feature of nouns and certain pronouns that denotes their relationship to other words in a sentence. Pronouns have three case distinctions: subjective (e.g., *I, they, who*); possessive (e.g., *my, their, whose*), and objective (e.g., *me, them, whom*). Nouns have only one case inflection, the possessive (*John's, the cat's*). The case of nouns other than the possessive is sometimes referred to as **common case**.

Collective noun. A noun that refers to a collection of individuals: *group, team, family*. Collective nouns can be replaced by both singular and plural pronouns, depending on the meaning.

Common noun. A noun with general, rather than unique, reference (in contrast to proper nouns). Common nouns may be countable (*house, book*) or noncountable (*water, oil*), they may be concrete (*house, water*) or abstract (*justice, indifference*).

Complement. A structure that “completes” the sentence. The term includes those slots in the predicate that complete the verb: direct object, indirect object, subject complement, and object complement. Certain adjectives

also have complements—clauses and phrases that pattern with them: “I was *certain that he would come*; I was *afraid to go*.”

Countable noun. A noun whose referent can be identified as a separate entity; the countable noun can be signaled by the indefinite article, *a*, and numbers: *a house*; *an experience*; *two eggs*; *three problems*.

Deep structure. A term from transformational generative grammar that refers to the underlying semantic and syntactic relationships of the sentence, in contrast to surface structure, which is the sentence as it is actually written or spoken.

Definite article. The determiner *the*, which generally marks a specific or previously mentioned noun: “*the* man on the corner.”

Degree. The variations in adjectives that indicate the simple quality of a noun, or positive degree (“Bill is a *bigboy*”), its comparison to another, the comparative degree (“Bill is *bigger* than Tim”); or to two or more, the superlative degree (“Bill is the *biggest* person in the whole class”). Certain adverbs also have degree variations, usually designated by *more* and *most*.

Demonstrative pronoun. The pronouns *this* (plural *these*) and *that* (plural *those*), which function as nominal substitutes and as determiners. They include the feature of proximity: near (*this, these*); distant (*that, those*).

Dependent clause. A clause that functions as an adverbial, adjectival, nominal, or sentence modifier (in contrast to an independent, or main, clause).

Derivational affix. A morpheme that is added to a form-class word, either to change its class (*friend* > *friendly*; *act* > *action*) or to change its meaning (*legal* → *illegal*; *boy* > *boyhood*).

Determiner. One of the structure-class words, a marker of nouns. Determiners include articles (*a, the*), possessive nouns and pronouns (e.g., *Chuck's, his, my*), demonstrative pronouns (*this, that*), quantifiers (e.g., *many, several*), indefinite pronouns (e.g., *each, every*), and numbers.

Direct object. A nominal slot in the predicate of the transitive sentence patterns. The direct object names the objective or goal or the receiver of the verb's action: “We ate *the peanuts*”; “The boy hit *the ball*”; “I enjoy *playing chess*.”

Expanded determiner. The determiner, together with pre- and postdeterminers that qualify and quantify and in other ways alter its meaning.

Expletive. A word that enables the writer or speaker to shift the stress in a sentence or to embed one sentence in another: “A fly is in my soup. → *There* is a fly in my soup”; “I know *that* he loves me.” The expletive is sometimes called an “empty word” because it plays a structural rather than a lexical role.

Flat adverb. A class of adverb that is the same in form as its corresponding adjective: *fast, high, early, late, hard, long* etc.

Form classes. The large, open classes of words that provide the lexical content of the language: nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Each has characteristic derivational and inflectional morphemes that distinguish its forms.

Free modifier. A nonrestrictive, nondefining modifier that is set off by commas and can usually occupy a position at the beginning, at the end, or in the middle of the sentence: “He spoke quietly to the class, *his voice trembling*”; “*Looking pale and nervous*, she stood at the podium”; “New England in the autumn, *because of the brilliant maples and birches*, has become a tourist destination.”

Free morpheme. A single morpheme that is also a complete word (in contrast to a bound morpheme, which is not).

Function. The role that a particular structure plays, or the slot that it fills, in a sentence (or in any larger structure). In “The book on the table is mine,” “table” functions as the *object of a preposition* in the prepositional phrase “on the table”; the prepositional phrase functions as an *adjectival*, modifying “book.” The entire noun phrase “the book on the table” functions as the *subject* in its sentence.

Functional shift. The conversion of one word class to another, simply by changing its function: “He *bottled* the wine” (noun to verb); “She *lowered* the curtain” (adjective to verb); “We took a *swim*” (verb to noun).

Gender. A feature of personal pronouns and certain nouns that distinguishes masculine (*he*), feminine (*she*), and neuter (*it*). Nouns with gender distinctions include *waiter, waitress, actor, actress, girl, boy, man, woman, ewe, ram*.

Genitive case. The Latin term for possessive case.

Gerund. An *-ing* verb functioning as a nominal: “I enjoy *jogging*”, “*Running* is good exercise.”

Gerund phrase. A gerund together with all of its complements and modifiers.

Grammatical. Usage that conforms to the rules that native speakers follow or that native speakers would find acceptable in a given situation. See also *Ungrammatical*.

Headword. The word that fills the noun slot in the noun phrase: “the little *boy* across the *street*.” The verb is the headword of the verb phrase; the preposition is the headword of the prepositional phrase.

Hedging. A metadiscourse signal that helps readers interpret the writer’s degree of certainty: *perhaps, possibly, might, seems* etc.

Heteronyms. Words that are spelled the same but differ in both meaning and pronunciation: *bass/bass, wound/wound, Polish/polish*.

Homonyms. Words and morphemes that have the same sound and the same spelling but have different meanings: *saw/saw; farmer/brighter*.

Homophones. Words that have the same sound, but with both different meanings and different spellings: *sale/sail; to/too/two*.

Idiom. A combination of words, a set phrase, whose meaning cannot be predicted from the meaning of the individual words.

Indefinite article. The determiner *a*, or *an*, which marks an unspecified count noun. See also *Definite article*.

Indefinite pronoun. A large category that includes quantifiers (e.g., *enough, several, many, much*), universals (*all, both, every, each*), and partitives (*any, either, neither, no, some*). Many of the indefinite pronouns can function as determiners.

Indefinite relative pronoun. The relative pronouns with *-ever* added, which have indefinite referents; they introduce adjectival clauses: “I will give a bonus to *whoever* works the hardest” (i.e., to the person who works the hardest).

Indirect object. The nominal slot following the verb in a Pattern VIII sentence. In a sentence with a verb like *give*, the indirect object is the recipient; the direct object is the thing given: “We gave *our friends* a ride home.” The indirect object can be shifted to the slot following the direct object with the preposition *to* or *for*: “Joe gave a message to Kim”; “Sam bought a ticket for his dad.”

Inflectional suffix. Morphemes that are added to the form classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs) to change their grammatical role in some way. Nouns have two inflectional suffixes (*-s* plural and *-s* possessive); verbs have four (*-s, -ing, -ed, and -en*); adjectives and some adverbs have two (*-er* and *-est*)

Intensive pronoun. A pronoun that serves as an appositive to emphasize a noun or pronoun. It is formed by adding *-self* or *-selves* to a personal pronoun: “I *myself* prefer chocolate.”

Morpheme. A sound or combination of sounds with meaning.

Morphology. The study of morphemes.

Nominal. Any structure that functions as a noun phrase normally functions.

Nominal clause. A clause that fills a noun phrase (NP) slot.

Nominalization. The process of producing a noun by adding derivational affixes to another word class, commonly a verb: *legalize-legalization, regulate-regulation, friendly-friendliness*.

Nominative case. The Latin term for subjective case.

Noncountable noun. Nouns referring to what might be called an undifferentiated mass—such as *wood, water, sugar, glass*—or an abstraction—*justice, love, indifference*. **Whether or not you can use the indefinite article, *a*, is probably the best test of countability: If you can, the noun is countable.**

Nonrestrictive modifier. A modifier in the noun phrase that comments about the noun rather than defines it. Nonrestrictive modifiers following the noun are set off by commas.

Noun. One of the four form classes, whose members fill the headword slot in the noun phrase. Most nouns can be inflected for plural and possessive (*boy, boys, boy’s, boys’*). Nouns have characteristic derivational endings, such as *-tion (action, compensation), -ment (contentment), and -ness (happiness)*. Nouns can also function as adjectivals and adverbials (The *neighbor* children went home).

Noun phrase (NP). The noun headword with all of its attendant pre- and postnoun modifiers.

Number. A feature of nouns and pronouns, referring to singular and plural.

Object complement. The slot following the direct object, filled by an adjectival (Pattern IX) or a nominal (Pattern X). 'The object complement has two functions: (1) It completes the idea of the verb; and (2) it modifies (if an adjective) or renames (if a nominal) the direct object: "I found the play *exciting*"; "We consider Pete *a good friend*."

Object of preposition. The nominal slot—usually filled by a noun phrase — that follows the preposition to form a prepositional phrase.

Person. A feature of personal pronouns that distinguishes the speaker or writer (first person), the person or thing spoken to (second person), and the person or thing spoken of (third person).

Personal pronoun. The pronoun that refers to a specific person or thing. In the subjective case the personal pronouns are *I, you, he, she, we, you, they, and it*. The personal pronouns have variant forms for objective and possessive case.

Phoneme. The smallest unit of sound that makes a difference in meaning.

Phonology. The study of phonemes.

Phrasal preposition. A preposition consisting of two or more words, a simple preposition preceded by a word from another category, such as an adverb or adjective: *according to, aside from, because of, prior to*.

Phrase. A word or group of words that functions as a unit within the sentence.

Plural. A feature of nouns and pronouns denoting more than one, usually signaled in nouns by the inflectional ending *-s* (or *-es*).

Possessive case. The inflected form of nouns (*John's, the dog's*) and pronouns (*my, his, your, her, their*, etc.) usually indicating ownership.

Predicate. One of the two principal parts of the sentence, the comment made about the subject. The predicate includes the verb, together with its complements and modifiers.

Predicating verb. The function of the verb slot in the sentence patterns, consisting of the main verb together with its auxiliaries.

Predicative adjective. The adjective that occupies a complement slot in the sentence as subject complement or object complement.

Prefix. An affix added to the beginning of the word to change its meaning (*unlikely, illegal, prescribe, renew*) or its class (*enable, belittle*).

Preposition. A structure-class word found in pre-position to—that is, preceding— a nominal. Prepositions can be classed according to their form as *simple* (*above, at, in, of*, etc.) or *phrasal* (*according to, instead of* etc.).

Prepositional phrase. The combination of a preposition and a nominal, which is known as the object of the preposition.

Prescriptive grammar. An approach to teaching grammar, the purpose of which is to prescribe "proper" usage, rather than to describe how the language is actually used. It is sometimes referred to as "linguistic etiquette."

Pronoun. A word that substitutes for a noun—or, more accurately, for a nominal—in the sentence.

Proper noun. A noun with individual reference to a person, a historical event, or other name. Proper nouns are capitalized.

Qualifier. A structure-class word that qualifies or intensifies an adjective or adverb: "We worked *rather* slowly"; "The work was *very* difficult."

Reciprocal pronoun. The pronouns *each other* and *one another*, which refer to previously named nouns.

Referent. The thing (or person, event, concept, action, etc.)—in other words, the reality—that a word stands for.

Reflexive pronoun. A pronoun formed by adding *-self* or *-selves* to a form of the personal pronoun, used as an object in the sentence to refer to a previously named noun or pronoun: "I gave *myself* a haircut."

Relative adverb. The adverbs *where, when, and why*, which introduce adjectival clauses.

Relative clause. A clause introduced by a relative pronoun (*who, which, that*) or a relative adverb (*when, where, why*) that generally modifies a noun. The broad-reference *which* clause functions as a sentence modifier.

Relative pronoun. The pronouns *who* (*whom, whose*), *which*, and *that* in their role as introducers of a relative clause.

Restrictive modifier. A modifier in the noun phrase whose function is to restrict the meaning of the noun. A modifier is restrictive when it is needed to identify the referent of the headword. The restrictive modifier is not set off by commas.

Sentence. A word or group of words based on one or more subject—predicate, or clause, patterns. The written sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with terminal punctuation—a period, question mark, or an exclamation point.

Sentence modifier. A word or phrase or clause that modifies the sentence as a whole.

Simple preposition. A one-word preposition.

Singular. A feature of nouns and pronouns denoting one referent.

Structuralism. An approach to analyzing grammar, associated with midtwentieth-century linguists, in which the purpose is to describe how the language is actually used in its various dialects, not to prescribe a "version".

Structure classes. The small, closed classes of words that explain the grammatical or structural relationships of the form classes.

Subject. The opening slot in the sentence patterns, filled by a noun phrase or other nominal, that functions as the topic of the sentence.

Suffix. An affix added to the end of a form-class word to change its class (act - *action*, laugh → laughable) with derivational suffixes or to change its grammatical function (boy - boys; walk — walking) with inflectional suffixes.

Surface structure. A term used by transformational grammarians to designate the sentences of the language as they are spoken and written.

Syntax. The structure of sentences; the relationship of the parts of the sentence.

Transformational grammar (also called transformational generative, or T-G). A theory of grammar that attempts to account for the ability of native speakers to generate and process the sentences of their language.

Transitive verb. The verbs of Patterns VII through X, which require at least one complement, the direct object, to be complete. With only a few exceptions, transitive verbs are those that can be transformed into the passive voice.

Ungrammatical. Usage that does not conform to the rules that native speakers follow. Usage that varies from one dialect or speech community to another is not necessarily ungrammatical. "I ain't coming" is an unacceptable usage to many, although it follows the "rules." However, it is not part of the prestige, or standard, dialect and would be inappropriate in most formal and business situations.

Verb. One of the four form classes, traditionally thought of as the action word in the sentence. A better way to recognize the verb, however, is by its form, its *-s* and *-ing* endings. Verbs also have an *-ed* and an *-en* form, although in the case of some irregular verbs these forms are not readily apparent. And every verb, without exception, can be marked by auxiliaries. Many verbs also have characteristic derivational forms, such as *-ify* (*typify*), *-ize* (*criticize*), and *-ate* (*activate*).

Verb phrase (VP). A verb together with its complements and modifiers; the predicate of the sentence is a verb phrase.

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