

Lecture Notes:

- **Language:**
- **Language** is the knowledge of sounds (**phonetics, phonology**).
- When you know a language or are a native speaker of that language, you have the knowledge of the sounds of that language. Furthermore, you know which sounds exist in that language.
I.e. When you know a language, you know which sounds are part of the language.
- E.g.

English speakers know that *t* is a sound in their language, but not *ɣ* (a voiced velar fricative).
Japanese speakers know that *t* is part of their language but *th* is not.

- In addition, you know which sound combinations are possible in your language.
- E.g.

English speakers know that words in English can start with *str-*, *spl-*, or *sk-* but not **rts-*, **lps-* or **ks-*

- **Language** is also the knowledge of word structure (**morphology**).
- When you know a language, you know which words are possible and which words are not.
- E.g.

im-mobile-ity but not **ity-mobile-im*
un-deny-ab-ly but not **deny-ly*.

- **Language** is also the knowledge of sentence structure (**syntax**).
- Speakers of a language also know which combinations of words are possible and which combinations are not.
- E.g.

This student is difficult to teach. → *It is difficult to teach this student.*
This student is anxious to leave. → **It is anxious to leave this student.*

Note: The sentence "This student is anxious to leave." is grammatical while the sentence "It is anxious to leave this student." is ungrammatical.
Therefore, knowing a language means being able to judge grammatical vs ungrammatical sentences.

- We use our knowledge of sentence structure every time we speak, creating sentences that have never been uttered or heard before.
- **Language** is also the knowledge of meanings (**semantics**).
- Speakers can recognize ambiguities in meaning.

- E.g.

John ate the ice cream on the table.

MEANING 1 = On the table, John ate the ice cream.

MEANING 2 = John ate the ice cream that was placed on the table.

- **Language** is also the knowledge of real-world usage (**pragmatics**).
- Speakers are aware of different levels of formality in their first language and know when to use them.
- E.g. Compare the sentences "Pass the salt vs Could you please pass me the salt?" A native speaker would know that "Pass the salt" is used in an informal context whereas "Could you please pass me the salt?" is used in a formal context.
- **Grammar:**
- For linguists, **grammar** is a mental system that allows speakers of a language to produce and understand an infinite number of sentences including those that have never been heard or uttered before.
- Grammar is a system of rules.
- Components of grammar:

Component	Domain
Phonetics	The articulation and perception of speech sounds.
Phonology	The patterning of speech sounds.
Morphology	Word formation.
Syntax	Sentence formation.
Semantics	The interpretation of words and sentences.

- There are two approaches to grammar:
 - 1. Prescriptive:**
 - **Prescriptive grammar** is about should and shouldn'ts.
I.e. How you should speak and how you shouldn't speak.
 - Arguments put forth by prescriptive grammarians in defense of their preferences:
 - One form is more logical than another.
 - There is a preference for older forms of the language.
 - There is an injunction against the use of foreign words.
 - For English, they propose rules such as:
 - Don't end a sentence with a preposition.
E.g.
What are you looking at? (Unacceptable)
At what you are looking? (Acceptable)
E.g.
Who are you talking to? (Unacceptable)
To whom are you talking? (Acceptable)

2. Don't split an infinitive. An **infinitive** is "to + base form of a verb."
E.g. Make sure to carefully read the document. (Unacceptable)
3. Two negatives make a positive.
E.g. I didn't see nobody. (Unacceptable)

2. Descriptive:

- Favoured by linguists. Linguists are descriptive grammarians.
- A **descriptive approach** studies and characterizes the actual language of specific groups of people in a range of situations.
- It does not bring any preconceived notions of correctness to the task.
- It does not favor the language of one social group as somehow "better" than those of others. All varieties/forms are equal.
- The descriptive approach talks about do's and don't's and studies how the language is actually used.
- Descriptive grammarians counter the above prescriptive claims with the following:
 - All varieties of a language are valid systems with their own logic and conventions.
 - There is no strong reason to expect one language to match the mold of another.
 - Languages are continually changing in subtle ways without reducing their usefulness, preciseness or aesthetic value.
- **Standard Language:**
- **Standard language** is the variety of a language spoken by the most powerful group in a community and generally held to be 'correct' by prescriptive grammarians.
- The reasons for choosing one variety over another are mostly social and political.
- Standard or prestige varieties are usually based on the speech of the rich, powerful, and highly educated members of a society (political elite or upper class).
- **Formal vs Informal:**
- Most, if not all, languages and dialects have ways of expressing formality as well as familiarity.
- Informal speech is not incorrect, it simply has a different usage from formal speech. Thus, informal speech is still grammatical.
- E.g.
I ain't got time. (Informal & grammatical)
Ain't got I time. (Ungrammatical)
- E.g.
Pass the salt. (Informal & grammatical)
Could you please pass me the salt? (Formal & grammatical)
- **Grammatical vs. Ungrammatical:**
- A **grammatical sentence** conforms to grammatical rules of a language, while an ungrammatical sentence does not.
- Note that grammaticality is judged with respect to a particular speaker or dialect. Certain combinations that are ungrammatical in one dialect may be perfectly grammatical in another dialect.
I.e. A sentence that is judged ungrammatical in one dialect may be grammatical in another.

Textbook Notes:

- **Introduction:**
- **Language** is an essential part of what it means to be human. We use language to communicate, listen, read, and write. Language helps us build communities and relationships, allowing us to bond and grow.
- **Linguistics** is a study of all things related to language - how humans speak, the underlying structure of language, how children acquire it, how it changes over time, and so on.
- When you are a native speaker of a language:
 1. You know the sounds of that language. You know which sounds do and do not exist in that language. You also know which sound combinations are possible in your language.
 2. Moreover, you are aware of words and word combinations, and whether certain combinations of words are or are not possible.
 3. Additionally, you know which strings of words are meaningful constructions, and which are not.

E.g. Compare the 2 sentences below:

1. The man has seen the dog.
2. Seen man the has dog the.

Native speakers will know that the first sentence is grammatical and meaningful while the second sentence is ungrammatical since it does not follow certain principles (rules) of the English language.

- As a native speaker of a language, you know whether a sentence is **ambiguous** or not. E.g. Any native speaker of English knows that the following sentence is ambiguous, and therefore has two meanings.

The tourist saw the astronomer with the binoculars.

Meaning 1: The tourist used the binoculars to see the astronomer.

Meaning 2: The astronomer that the tourist saw had the binoculars.

Note that this linguistic knowledge is unconscious. That is, people speaking a specific language are able to explain what constructions are correct or incorrect in that language, but they are not able to explain why. This unconscious knowledge is also called

competence.

- When you know a language, you also have knowledge of the real-world usage. You can make a distinction between **familiarity** and **formality**. E.g. You are aware that the first sentence below is used in an informal context, while the second sentence below is used in a formal one.

1. What y'all watchin?
2. What are all of you watching?

The above sentences are examples of **register/style**. The first sentence indicates an informal register while the second one is an example of formal register. **Register/style** refers to the levels of formality. **Register** is a variety of language used in very particular social settings.

Note: It's not just the informal register that is restricted to certain situations; it can be equally inappropriate to use a formal register in casual situations.

- **Grammar:**
- **Grammar** has various distinct meanings. For linguists, **grammar** is a mental system of rules that exists in the head of native speakers. This system of rules allows native

speakers of a language to produce and understand sentences that have never been produced or heard before. This is what we also call **mental grammar**. Our mental grammar consists of 5 main components:

1. **Phonetics**: Deals with the perception and articulation of speech sounds.
 2. **Phonology**: Deals with sound combinations, particularly which sound combinations are possible.
 3. **Morphology**: Deals with the structure of words.
 4. **Syntax**: Deals with the structure of sentences.
 5. **Semantics**: Deals with meaning and the interpretation of sentences.
- As you can see, grammar is a complex system of rules that governs how speakers organize sounds into words and words into sentences.
 - **Prescriptive Grammar/Traditional Grammar**:
 - Prescriptive grammarians believe in the absolute standard of correctness. This approach to grammar governs the version of English considered appropriate for use by educated speakers. Here, we are dealing with should(s) and shouldn't(s).
I.e. How you should speak and how you shouldn't speak.
 - In prescriptive grammar:
 - a. One form is more logical than another.
 - b. There is an appeal to classical forms.
 - c. There is a preference for older forms of the language.
 - d. There is an injunction against the use of foreign words (words borrowed from other languages)
 - According to this view, language is either correct or incorrect. Any educated person should be able to understand at once and faithfully follow the norms of correctness which are thought to be preserved in authorities' reference works such as dictionaries and handbooks.
 - E.g. Consider the sentence: Me and John went to the movies.
This sentence is not acceptable from a prescriptive point of view. From a prescriptive point of view, this sentence "should" be 'John and I went to the movies' since the pronoun 'me' cannot be used in the subject position of a sentence.
 - Examples of prescriptive rules:
 1. Don't end a sentence with a preposition.
 2. Don't split an infinitive (to+base form).
 3. Don't use double negatives. Two negatives make a positive.
 - **Note**: In this course, we are not concerned with prescriptive grammar. Instead, we make appeal to the concept of descriptive grammar.
 - **Descriptive Grammar**:
 - **Descriptive Grammar**: A descriptive approach which studies and characterizes the actual language of specific groups of people in a range of situations. It does not bring any preconceived notions of "correctness" to the task nor does it favour the language of one social group over others. It describes how grammatical systems operate. It also aims to record facts, describing the actual language (I.e. descriptive rules) as comprehensively as possible and avoids the law-giving tone of traditional textbook grammars.
 - Linguists are descriptive grammarians. When linguists write a grammar of a language, they attempt to describe the rules that govern the grouping of the words of that language into meaningful patterns.

- The term **descriptive grammar** refers to an objective, nonjudgmental description of the grammatical constructions in a language. It's an examination of how a language is actually being used, in writing and in speech.
- Descriptive linguists counter the prescriptivist claims with the following:
 - a. All varieties of a language are valid systems with their own logic and conventions.
 - b. There is no scientific reason to expect one language to match the mold of another.
 - c. Languages are continually changing in subtle ways without reducing their usefulness, precision or aesthetic value.
 - d. All languages have adopted words from other sources.
- **Note:** Both approaches to language studies involve rules, but prescriptive rules are about mandating language and descriptive rules are about describing it.
I.e. Descriptive rules tell us what speakers do and don't do while prescriptive rules tell us what speakers should and shouldn't do.
- Descriptive rules form the basis for grammaticality judgments (I.e. The opinion of a native speaker as to whether a given construction is well formed or not), which are always made relative to a particular dialect.
E.g. Something that is grammatical in Standard British English is not necessarily grammatical in Standard Canadian English or African-American Vernacular English, and so on.
- Example of descriptive rules:
 1. Articles such as "the" and "a" precede nouns in English.
 2. In English, adjectives come before nouns to modify them.
 3. The word order in English is Subject + Verb + Object (SVO).
- **Standard vs Non-Standard:**
- There are many varieties of English, with each variety following a slightly different subset of rules by which language operates. A **standard language** is the variety of any given language spoken by the most powerful group in a community. This variety is generally held to be "correct" by prescriptive grammarians. Standard or prestige varieties are usually based on the speech of the rich, powerful, and highly educated members of a society (political elite or upper-class). People are considered standard speakers as long as they do not use any strongly stigmatized forms.
- **Note:** A non-standard language does not mean an ungrammatical language. A sentence can be informal/non-standard and still be grammatical.

Lecture Notes:

- **Nouns:**
- Traditionally nouns refer to “people, places, and things”. However, a number of nouns do not fit this criteria since they do not refer to people, places, or objects. This includes nouns such as love, weight, decision, absence, patience, happiness, etc. Therefore, we need tests to identify nouns.
- **Categories of nouns:**
 1. **Common Nouns:**
 - Used to refer to generic items.
 - E.g. book, dog, tree, absence, height, fear, erosion, etc
 2. **Proper Nouns:**
 - Used to refer to specific items and are usually written with a capital letter.
 - E.g. Canada, Toronto, Mozart, Fred, Betty, January, etc
 3. **Concrete Nouns:**
 - Are nouns that are perceived by your senses.
I.e. You can see/feel them.
 - E.g. window, blackboard, door, house, etc
 4. **Abstract Nouns:**
 - Cannot be perceived by any of your senses.
I.e. You can't see/touch them.
 - E.g. Love, honesty, ideas
 - **Note:** Some abstract nouns can pluralize and/or show possession.
 - E.g. four new ideas, honesty's rewards
 5. **Animate Nouns:**
 - Are humans and animals and whatever is alive.
 - Animate nouns may be further divided into **human nouns** as in daughter vs. **non-human nouns** as in deer.
 6. **Inanimate Nouns:**
 - Refer to the category of nouns that are things or concepts.
 - E.g. Chair, window, door, pen, marker etc
 7. **Count Nouns:**
 - Can be counted with cardinal numerals (one, two, three, etc).
 - E.g. two cups, one shoe, four phrases, three ideas.
 8. **Non-Count Nouns/Mass Nouns:**
 - Cannot be counted with cardinal numerals.
 - E.g.
(Incorrect) two hairs(s) → (Correct) two strands of hair
(Incorrect) two oils(s) → (Correct) two drops of oil
(Incorrect) two gums(s) → (Correct) two pieces of gum
 - Non-count nouns cannot be used with the indefinite article “a” or “an” or end with -s, but they can be used with the definite article “the”.
 - **Note:** Although some nouns are clearly count or non-count, many have both count and non-count counterparts with different meanings/uses.
 - E.g.
NON-COUNT: water = puddle, drop, lake...
COUNT: a water = serving/bottle

- E.g.
I don't like beer. (NON-COUNT)
She offered me a beer. (COUNT)
- Singular vs Plural Nouns:**
- Most nouns have both **singular** and **plural** forms. However, some nouns are an exception in this case.
- Nouns that follow this rule: plural form = singular form + s are called **regular nouns**. Nouns that don't follow the above rule are called **irregular nouns**.
- E.g. of regular nouns are: books, parks, benches
- E.g. of irregular nouns are:
child → children
man → men
woman → women
- Nouns whose plural and singular forms are the same are called **base-plural nouns**.
- E.g. sheep, cod, deer, barracks
- Nouns that don't have a singular form are called **plural-only nouns**.
- E.g. cattle, clothes, glasses
- There are also a number of singular nouns that end in -s.
- E.g. hives, mumps, rabies, rickets, shingles, hiccups, measles, billiards, checkers, darts, dominoes, acoustics, economics, ethics, linguistics, mathematics, politics, etc

9. Noun Phrases (NPs):

- **Noun Phrase:** Predeterminer + Determiner + Postdeterminer + Noun
- **Determiners:** Determiners are a particular type of dependent in NPs. They identify rather than modify a noun. They normally occur before the noun and most modifiers. While determiners are normally optional, there are times when they are necessary.
- E.g. The new car was stolen. Here, "the" is the determiner and it is needed. "New car was stolen" doesn't make grammatical sense and is an ungrammatical sentence.
- NPs without determiners are called **bare NPs**.
- NPs with determiners are called **determined NPs**.
- Basic Determiners:
 - Articles: the, a, an
 - Demonstratives: this, that, these, those
 - Note:** When "this" is by itself, it functions as a noun.
 - Possessive pronouns: my, your, his, her, its, our, your, their
E.g. Consider the sentence "The young woman's father bought the house." Here, the function of the word "woman's" is that it's a possessive NP which functions as a determiner.
 - Quantities: many, several, few, little, enough, no, two, some
- **Predeterminers** occur before determiners.
- E.g. all, half, both, what and such
- **Postdeterminers** occur after determiners.
- E.g. cardinal numbers, ordinal numbers, indefinite quantities such as several, many, few, etc

- **Note:** The noun is the head of an NP.

Textbook Notes:

- **Syntactic Categories:**
- Also known as parts of speech.
- It includes the following: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, determiners, pronouns, tense, conjunction, complementizers, and negation.
- Syntactic categories are split into 2 sub-categories, which are **Lexical Categories/Open Categories** and **Functional Categories/Closed Categories**.
- **Lexical categories** express content and are usually **open**, meaning they allow new words to be added. There are five main members in this group: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs and prepositions.
E.g. Consider the word “selfie.” 20 years ago, this word wasn’t around.
- **Functional categories** express functionality or grammatical information. This category is **closed**, meaning it is often fixed with very limited members and is not exactly open to any new additions. There are eight members in this group: determiners, pronouns, tense, conjunctions, complementizers, negation, degree words and auxiliary verbs.
- The main reasons for this dual categorization of the syntactic categories is due to three primary qualities: **Inventory**, **Productivity**, and **Semantics**.

	Inventory	Productivity	Semantics
Meaning	Refers to the number of items in each category.	Refers to the possibility of creating new items. To be productive.	Is about the meaning behind the words/items.
Lexical	Unlimited. Is constantly being added to. Uncountable	Yes	There is an association between meanings and words.
Functional	Limited. Countable.	No	Contentless. Often needing help from those with meaning.

- Note that the open class contains more words compared to the closed class. There is also the possibility of creating new items in this class. Therefore, the open class contains an unlimited number of words. This is what we refer to as **productivity**. However, functional categories are usually countable. Moreover, the members of the open class or lexical categories are meaningful. This is while functional words are either contentless or often need help from those with meaning.
- **Nouns:**
- As we know, a noun is a person, place or thing/idea. However, this definition of nouns is not specific enough to help us differentiate nouns within their own category. We need to get more specific to be able to identify the differences between the different types of nouns. We can determine the syntactic category of a word by the affixes that are attached to it or by the syntactic context in which it appears. This is what we call **distributional definition**. There are two types of distributional definition: **morphological distribution** and **syntactic distribution**.

- **Morphological distribution** or **morphological evidence** refers to the type of affix that is attached to a word. The shape of a word determines its category. Note that there are certain words that contain no affixes. In this case, there is no morphological evidence. E.g. Consider the word reality. The ity suffix tells us that it's a noun. E.g. Consider the word case. There is no morphological evidence to tell us that it's a noun. E.g. Consider the word developers. We can tell that it's a noun for 2 reasons:
 1. The suffix -er which attaches to verbs and creates nouns as in teacher, driver, etc.
 2. The suffix -s which is a plural marker and attaches to nouns. Note that the suffix -s only attaches to nouns that follow the regular plural formation of nouns.

Note: Some nouns do not follow this rule. For instance, consider the word child. The plural form of this word is children. In this case, we call children an **irregular form** since it does not follow the regular rule.
- **Syntactic distribution** refers to the position of the word. I.e. What comes before or after the word. Here are some syntactic criteria to determine whether or not a word is a noun:
 1. It is preceded by a determiner.

E.g.
Some children.
The art of speaking.
Many students.
The underlined words are nouns since they are preceded by a determiner. A **determiner** is a word that normally precedes a noun to identify it. In the above examples, some, the and many are determiners.
 2. It is the subject or the object of the sentence.

E.g.
John runs fast. (John is a noun since it is the subject of the sentence)
I saw John. (John is a noun since it is the object of the sentence)
 3. They sometimes come after adjectives.

E.g.
A hungry lion.
Those happy children.
Two constructive comments.
In these examples, the word hungry, happy, and constructive are adjectives which are followed by nouns lion, children, and comments.
 4. They may be preceded by a preposition.

E.g.
By noon.
Before the trip.
During class.
Under the desk.
Prepositions are usually words that come before nouns and show the relationship between the noun and what comes before that preposition. Some English prepositions are by, from, in, to, during, after, before, etc.
- **Common vs Proper Nouns:**

Common nouns usually refer to general categories such as girl or teacher; they are

written in lower-case. **Proper nouns**, contrastively, refer to a specific noun, such as Mary or California, and are written in capital letters. Proper nouns usually include the name of people, places, cities, events, etc. The plural form of proper nouns is very restricted as they do not normally take the plural -s marker.

- **Concrete vs Abstract Nouns:**
Concrete nouns such as phone and window can be experienced through your five senses while **abstract nouns** refer to concepts with no specific visual image, such as honesty or idea.
- **Animate vs Inanimate Nouns:**
Animate nouns are humans and animals and whatever is alive. **Inanimate nouns** refer to the category of nouns that are things or concepts. Animate nouns may be further divided into **human nouns** as in daughter vs. **non-human nouns** as in deer.
- **Count vs Non-count (mass) Nouns:**
Count nouns refer to things that are considered separate entities. This enables us to count them. They occur with certain determiners such as many, numbers, a, an, and they can also take the plural marker -s.
 E.g. Many desks, many aunts, many phones
Non-count nouns refer to entities that we think of as not countable or separable but occurring in a mass. Some examples of non-count or mass nouns include oil, water, coffee, money, rice, electricity, bread and sunshine. These nouns only occur in their singular form with determiners such as much, some, less, little, etc, that do not include the notion of number.
 E.g. much oil, some water, a lot of coffee, a little rice, less bread.
- **Noun Phrases:**
- The noun and elements surrounding it form a unit that is called a **noun phrase**.
- **Noun phrases** are constituents that are made up of nouns and their modifiers (adjectives) or determiners. The noun is always the head or core of the phrase. This head noun may be preceded or followed by optional modifiers – additional descriptors of the noun or determiners that identify nouns.
- **Note:** A **determiner** usually occurs before a noun and thus is a good identifier regarding lexical categories such as nouns. Basic determiners include articles, demonstratives, possessives, and quantifiers.
- **Articles:** a, an, the
- **Demonstrative determiners:** this, that, these, those
- **Possessive determiners:** my, your, his, her, its, our, their
- **Quantifiers:** some, many, much, a few, a little, several, etc.

Lecture Notes:

- **Pronouns** are words that replace noun phrases. As such, they count as NPs.
- E.g.
The happy children played in the park until they got tired.
 ^Here, the pronoun “they” is replacing the noun phrase “The happy children.”
Sarah didn’t come to work today because she was tired.
 ^Here, the pronoun “she” is replacing the noun phrase “Sarah”.
- Every pronoun has an **antecedent**. The **antecedent** is the noun phrase that gives the pronoun meaning. The antecedent may be found in the same sentence, in the discourse, or simply in the unspoken context.
Note: The antecedent and the pronoun should agree in number. They should both be singular or both be plural.
- E.g.
 The jewelry has lost its glow.
 ^Here, the antecedent of the pronoun “its” is “jewelry”.
Sarah and John made their presentation.
 ^Here, the antecedent of the pronoun “their” is “Sarah and John”.
- Pronouns can carry a lot of grammatical meaning and many inflect to show grammatical distinctions.
- E.g.
 he/she = gender distinction
 it/he = animate and human distinction
 I/we = number distinction
 we/you/they = person distinction
 he/him/his = case distinction
- Table of subject vs object pronouns:

		SUBJECT CASE	OBJECT CASE
FIRST-PERSON			
singular		I	me
plural		we	us
SECOND-PERSON			
singular		you	you
plural		you	you
THIRD PERSON			
singular	masculine	he	him
	feminine	she	her
	neuter	it	it
plural		they	they

- E.g. We can describe the pronoun “she” as: animate (human); feminine; 3rd person; singular; subject pronoun.

- E.g. We can describe the pronoun “her” as: animate (human); feminine; 3rd person; singular; object pronoun.
- When a pronoun occurs in a **conjoined noun phrase**, there can be confusion of the case of the pronoun. A **conjoined noun phrase** is two noun phrases that are joined using the word “and”.
- E.g. of conjoined noun phrases:
A car and a bike.
Sarah and John.
- E.g. of a pronoun occurring in a conjoined noun phrase:
Me and John] went to the movies today.
Here the noun phrase is the subject of the sentence, yet in informal speech, the object form of the pronoun may appear. If you try omitting the noun and the conjunction, you’ll hear the error immediately.
Me went to the movies today.
- When a sentence contains reference to the same noun phrase, one in the subject and one in the predicate, the second becomes a **reflexive pronoun**, ending in –self/selves.
- E.g.
John saw himself in the mirror.
The children helped themselves to more candies.
- Table of Reflexive Pronouns:

First Person	
Singular	Myself
Plural	Ourselves
Second Person	
Singular	Yourself
Plural	Yourselves
Third Person	
Singular Masculine	Himself
Singular Feminine	Herself
Plural	Themselves

- Reflexive pronouns can be used for emphasis.
- E.g. He himself told me this.
Here, there is a strong emphasis that “he” told me about this.
- Reflexive pronouns are used when the subject of the clause is the same as the object of the clause.
- E.g. I cut myself.
- Sometimes, they are used after prepositions.
- E.g. She did it by herself.

- While the function of the reflexive pronoun is to refer directly back to the antecedent, the **reciprocal pronoun** distributes the action among all of the individuals using “one another” and “each other”. A **reciprocal pronoun** is a pronoun which is used to indicate that two or more people are carrying out or have carried out an action of some type, with both receiving the benefits or consequences of that action simultaneously. Any time something is done or given in return, reciprocal pronouns are used.
Note: There must be two or more people, doing the same thing.
- E.g.
Tom likes Jerry and Jerry likes Tom. → Tom and Jerry like each other.
The children hugged one another.
We gave each other gifts.
The two prisoners were blaming one another.
- Note the difference in meaning between using a reflexive and a reciprocal pronoun:
The candidates shouted at themselves. [Reflexive]
The candidates shouted at one another. [Reciprocal]
- **Indefinite pronouns** refer to indefinite entities or quantities. That is they do not refer to any specific person, thing or amount. They also have no specific antecedent. They can be singular or plural.
- E.g. of singular indefinite pronouns:
 - Nobody
 - Everyone
 - Noone
 - Each
- E.g. of plural indefinite pronouns:
 - Some
 - Few
 - Several
 - Many
 - Others
- E.g.
I spoke to nobody/everyone/noone/some/others.
Many/more/most/few/enough/either/neither/all/several/both/each will go to the party

Textbook Notes:

- **Introduction:**
- **Pronouns** may replace or stand for noun phrases.
- E.g.
Do you like **the books on the shelf**?
Yes, I like **them**.
Here, the pronoun “them” is used to refer to “the books on the shelf.”
- E.g.
The tall woman is famous. **She** has played in many American movies.
Here, the pronoun “she” is used to refer to “the tall woman”.
- The noun phrase that the pronoun replaces and refers to is called **an antecedent**.
Therefore, in the first example, the antecedent of the pronoun ‘them’ is the noun phrase ‘the books on the shelf’ and the antecedent of the pronoun ‘she’ is the noun phrase ‘the tall woman’ in the second example.

- **Personal Pronouns:**

- **Personal pronouns** refer to the topic that is/was talked about (subject) or object that is/was referred to. This means that personal pronouns are mainly the subject or object of the sentence. Pronouns inflect for number. Number refers to singular and plural. Some pronouns are singular (e.g. I, you, he, she, it) or plural (we, you, they). All of personal pronouns except for 'you' have distinct forms signalling number, either **singular or plural**. Pronouns also inflect for a person. For example, in English, **first person** and **second person** personal pronouns (e.g. I, we, you) refer to the speaker and other participants in the conversation. The **third person** pronouns, however, refer to other people or things. **Gender** is not encoded in the English pronouns except for the third person singular pronouns he (masculine) and she (feminine).
- Pronouns that replace noun phrases can function as the subject or the object of the sentence. In this case, we call them **subject pronouns** or **object pronouns**.
- **Subject pronouns** as their name suggests are forms that are used when the pronoun functions as the subject of the sentence.
- E.g.
They are looking for an apartment.
I showed **them** the apartment.
We wrote a great term paper.
- **Object pronouns** are used when the pronoun functions as the object of the sentence.
- E.g.
The old man saw **her**.
Susan loves **it**.
Greg and Sarah decided to buy **them**.
- **Reflexive Pronouns:**
- **Reflexive pronouns** are those ending in -self or -selves. Although similar to personal pronouns, they are used conditionally and must agree in person, number and gender with their antecedents. Reflexive pronouns are used when the subject and the object in a sentence refer to the same entity.
E.g. In 'I cut myself', the subject and the object of the sentence 'I' and 'myself' are the same.
- Reflexive pronouns have different functions:
 1. They are used when the subject and the object are the same. Consider the sentence: 'I rewarded myself'. In this sentence, the subject 'I' is the same as the object 'myself' or we can say the object 'myself' refers to the subject 'I'.
 2. They provide contrast or emphasis. In the sentence: 'I myself made the dinner', the reflexive pronoun is used to mean 'alone, without anyone else'. In this case, the reflexive pronoun comes after the noun phrase that it refers to. For this function, the reflexive pronoun may also come at the end of the sentence: 'I made the dinner myself.'
- **Note:** Reflexive pronouns and their antecedent must agree in number and person.

- Table of Reflexive Pronouns:

	Singular	Plural
First person	myself	ourselves
Second person	yourself	yourselves
Third person		
Masculine	himself	
Feminine	herself	themselves
Neuter	itself	

- Reflexive pronouns are mainly formed from a possessive determiner (e.g. my, your, her, our) and 'self' for singular forms or 'selves' for plural forms.
Note: There are two forms that do not follow this pattern: himself and themselves. For these two forms, we use object pronouns (him and them) rather than the possessive determiners (his and their), respectively.
- **Reciprocal Pronouns:**
- **Reciprocal pronouns** are used to describe a two-way action in a single sentence. There are two reciprocal pronouns in English: each other and one another. These two pronouns may be used interchangeably in modern English. However, historically, each other referred to two entities while one another referred to more than two.
- E.g.
 The garages are close to each other. (only 2)
 The garages are close to one another. (2+)
- Reciprocal pronouns always refer to plural subjects; plurality also describes the way the action is distributed from one entity to another.
- E.g.
 The devoted learners help themselves (reflexive)
 The devoted learners help each other (reciprocal)
- **Demonstrative Pronouns:**
- In English, there are four **demonstrative pronouns**, this, these, that and those that indicate location in relation to the speaker as well as number agreement. While demonstrative determiners identify the head noun in a noun phrase, as in 'those cats', they may also replace noun phrases.
- E.g. Those are mine! ('those' may refer to anything: those sheets, those books, etc.)
- **Note:** Demonstrative pronouns are not followed by any nouns. However, demonstrative determiners are followed by head nouns.

Lecture Notes:**- Verbs and Predicates:**

- Verbs are traditionally defined as words that express action, such as eat, speak, run, read, walk. But, nouns can very easily name actions too, such as attack, storm, delivery, departure, lightening, action. Therefore, “action” is not exclusive to verbs, and doesn’t provide us with a reliable diagnostic for identifying them.
- Further, verbs can denote states or conditions.
- E.g.
The cat **lay** before the fire.
Nancy **seems** fine today.
Jun **resembles** his grandfather.
The house **remained** unlocked over the week-end.
I **hate** chocolate.
Chen **believes** in UFOs.

- Verb Forms:

- **Finite verb forms** carry time while **non-finite verb forms** do not carry time themselves.
- Chart of finite and non-finite verbs:

Finiteness	Form	Inflection	Example
Non-finite	Infinitive Present Participle Past Participle Plain	To walk Walk-ing Walk-ed Walk	I like to walk. I am walking. I have walked. He will walk.
Finite	Plain Present 3rd Person Singular Past	Walk Walk-s Walk-ed	I walk. He walks. I walked.

- **Note:** Past participles always come after any form of the word “have”.

- Verb Functions:

1. Main Verbs:

- **Note:** The main verb occurs in their non-finite form when an auxiliary is present.
- E.g.
I have booked the tickets.
Here, the verb “booked” is in the non-finite form because it’s preceded by the auxiliary verb ‘have’.
- Main verbs are always preceded by auxiliary or modal verbs and never followed by auxiliary or modal verbs.
- There can be multiple main verbs in a sentence.
- Here’s how we can tell if a verb is a main verb:
 1. If it’s the only verb in the sentence.
 2. If it’s preceded by an auxiliary verb.

2. Helping Verbs:

a. Auxiliary verbs:

- Includes BE, DO, HAVE.

- Chart of auxiliary verbs

Finiteness	Form	Be	Have	Do
Non-finite	Infinitive Present Participle Past Participle Plain	To be Being Been Be	To have Having Had Have	To do Doing Done Do
Finite	Plain Present 3rd Person Singular Past			

- Auxiliaries either occur with a main verb or act as a replacement for the main verb. If BE, DO, or HAVE is the only verb in the sentence then it's a main verb. If it's followed by a verb, then it's an auxiliary verb.
- Auxiliaries always occur with non-finite forms of the main verb.
- Auxiliaries indicate the tense while main verbs give the main meaning.
- E.g.
I will eat.
I have eaten.
He is eating.
Does he enjoy reading?
I like to read. – I do too.

b. Modal verbs:

- Includes will, would, shall, could, can, may, might, must.
- Carries more semantic meaning than auxiliaries.
- Modals signal condition, probability, obligation, possibility, necessity, ability, advisability, permission, revealing the speaker's attitude about the statement he/she is making.
- Modals have only one form - no finite inflections or non-finite forms.
- Modals never occur alone; another verb always follows (in infinitive form) either explicitly or implicitly.
- E.g.
Bob will work tomorrow but Jim will not (work).

- **Time and Tense:**

- **Time:** Relative to moment of speech - past, present, future.
- **Tense:** The verb form used to express time of event and time relationships.

Tense = Time + Aspect.

When we talk about "time", we refer to whether the action happened in the past, present or future.

When we talk about "aspect", we refer to the completion of the action.

I.e. Whether the action is ongoing or completed.

- English tenses can be either simple or complex.

- Simple English tenses include:
 - **Simple present:**
 - Simple present is not really present.
 - It can be used for general facts. E.g. Plants grow in soil.
 - It can also be used for activities that include now, past (historical present), and/or future meaning.
 - E.g. I walk to work everyday.
 - E.g. The train leaves at 6pm.
 - E.g. He smokes cigarettes everyday.
 - Can also be used for storytelling.
 - **Simple past:**
 - Past simple usually refers to an action that started and finished in the past.
 - E.g. I saw a movie yesterday.
 - E.g. Last year, I travelled to Japan.
 - **Simple future:**
 - It can be used to predict a future event.
 - E.g. It will rain tomorrow.
 - It can be used to express a spontaneous decision.
 - E.g. I'll pay for the tickets by credit card.
 - It can be used to express willingness.
 - E.g. I'll do the washing-up.
- Complex English tenses can be:
 - **Ongoing:**
 - Called progressive or continuous.
 - **Progressive tenses in general:** be (past/present/future) + present participle
 - **Past progressive:** was/were + present participle
Used to show an action that was ongoing in the past.
 - E.g. The dog was eating the bone.
 - **Present progressive:** am/is/are + present participle
Used to show an action that is currently ongoing.
 - E.g. The dog is eating the bone.
 - **Future progressive:** will + be + present participle
Used to show an action will be ongoing in the future.
 - E.g. The dog will be eating the bone.
 - **Completed:**
 - Called perfect.
 - **Perfect tenses in general:** have (past/present/future) + past participle
 - **Past perfect:** had + past participle
Used to show which action happened first, assuming there are multiple actions.
 - E.g. When I arrived, they had eaten lunch.
 - E.g. When the doctor arrived, the patient had recovered.
 - **Present perfect:** has/have + past participle
Used to show an action that started in the past and continued to the present time. It may go into the future.
 - E.g. I have worked at this company for 8 years.

- Used to show an action that started in the past and ended in the recent past, but the results are present.
 - E.g. The car is clean. She has washed it.
 - **Future perfect:** will + have + past participle
Used to show an action will be completed sometime in the future.
 - E.g. I will have finished reading this story by next week.
 - E.g. She will have graduated next semester.
- Chart of verbs:

Modal	Perfect	Progressive	Verb	Tense
			takes	Simple present
		is	taking	Present progressive
	has		taken	Present perfect
	has	been	taking	Present perfect progressive
			took	Simple past
		was	taking	Past progressive
	had		taken	Past perfect
	had	been	taking	Past perfect progressive
will			take	Simple future
will		be	taking	Future progressive
will	have		taken	Future perfect
will	have	been	taking	Future perfect progressive

- **Transitivity:**
- Refers to whether a verb is followed by a noun phrase. This noun phrase is called the **object** or **object complement**.
- E.g.
He fainted. (Intransitive)
They destroyed the evidence. (Transitive)
The plane flew over the mountain. (Intransitive since "over the mountain" isn't a NP.)
The pilot flew the plane. (Transitive since "the plane" is a NP.)
I have been expecting you. (Transitive since "you" is a NP.)
I have had a cold all week. (Transitive since "a cold" is a NP.)
We meet up North every year. (Intransitive since "North every year" isn't a NP.)
Frank began to run. (Intransitive since "to run" isn't a NP.)
- Among the transitive verbs, there are those that take one object, **monotransitives**, and those that take two, **ditransitives**.
- E.g.
She wrote [a novel]. (Monotransitive)
She told [him] [the truth]. (Ditransitive)
- **Note:** If there's no object complement after a transitive verb, the sentence won't make grammatical sense.
- E.g. He made. → He made a sandwich.

- **Intransitive verbs** can stand alone in the verb phrase, but don't have to.
- E.g.
The children laughed.
My heart stopped.
The tree swayed in the breeze.
- **Dual-transitivity verbs** are verbs that have both transitive and intransitive uses.
- E.g.
The door opened. & She opened the door.
She read. & She read the letter.

Textbook Notes:

- **What are verbs:**
- **Verbs** usually indicate the action of the sentence. However, verbs may also express perception, mental states or connecting functions. The first group are called **action verbs** while the second group are called **state verbs**.
- **Types of verbs:**
- Verbs can differ based on their function. Some verbs are **main verbs** and some verbs are **helping verbs** or **auxiliaries**.
- Helping verbs include **regular auxiliaries** and **modal auxiliaries**.
- Main verbs express actions or states of being and may occur independently. Helping verbs support main verbs and cannot occur independently. Therefore, based on their function, verbs are classified as below:
 1. **Main:**
 2. **Helping or auxiliary verbs:**
 - i. **Regular auxiliaries:** (BE, DO, HAVE)
 - ii. **Modal auxiliaries:** (can, could, will, would, shall, should, may, might, must, etc.)
- **Note:** if regular auxiliaries are the only verbs in the sentence, they are considered main verbs.
- Modal auxiliaries are helping verbs that occur in conjunction with a main verb; however, unlike regular auxiliaries, modals carry some meaning.
- If there are more than one auxiliary or helping verb in a sentence, to determine the order of the helping verbs with regards to the main verb look at the following:
 - **First** comes the modal auxiliary.
 - **Next** comes any form of HAVE.
 - **Then** comes a form of BE.
 - **Finally** comes the main verb.
- **Verb Forms:**
- A **bare infinitive verb** (the base form) is one that is used without the word to and is often used with modals auxiliaries (can, could, will, would, shall, should, may, might, must).
- E.g. He might come to the party.
- The second verb form is what we call the **present participle** form of the verb. We form the present participle of the verb by adding the suffix -ing to the base of the verb. Note that present participle forms come after the auxiliary verb be.
- E.g. They will be driving to us.
- The third verb form is the **past participle**. The past participle form of the verb occurs mainly after the auxiliary HAVE and sometimes BE which is often formed by adding the

suffix –ed or –en to the base form of the verb. Note that some past participles do not follow this rule and may have an irregular form which is not usually predictable.

- E.g.
We have eaten lunch.
The house should be sold.
- And the last form of the verb that we are going to discuss here is the **infinitive form** of the verb that occurs with the word “to” as in to go, to run, to sleep.
- **Subjects and Predicates:**
- Every complete sentence is made up of two main phrases: a subject and a predicate. The subject is what or whom the sentence is about. The predicate tells us something about the subject. To identify the subject of a sentence, first find the main verb in the sentence. Then make a question by placing ‘who’ or ‘what’ before it.
- E.g.
John and Sarah run on the beach every morning.
“John and Sarah” is the subject of this sentence. The remaining part of the sentence ‘run on the beach every morning’ is called predicate. Notice that subjects are noun phrases and predicates are verb phrases. Therefore, a sentence contains two main phrases: Noun phrase (subject) + Verb Phrase (predicate)
- A **predicate** is the part of the sentence that contains the verb and tells us something about the subject. Predicates are also called verb phrases. A predicate may be one or more words. If a predicate is just a single word, that word must be the verb.
- **Note:** A sentence may have a compound subject. A compound subject is a simple subject made up of more than one noun or pronoun.
- **Transitive and Intransitive verbs:**
- Verbs based on whether they can take an object or not are grouped into transitive and intransitive verbs.
- **Transitive verbs** are followed by a noun phrase. This noun phrase is called the **object** or **object complement**.
- **Intransitive verbs** are not followed by a noun phrase.
- **Dual-transitivity verbs** are verbs that can be both transitive and intransitive verbs.
- E.g. She sang. & She sang a song.
- **Main Verbs & Regular Auxiliaries:**
- Different verb forms for main verbs:
 1. **Bare form:** This is the form where the verb is in its basic form with no inflection or the infinitive “to”. Bare forms are non-finite and usually come after modals as in could, go, will, sit, should.
 2. **Infinitive form (to + verb):** This is when the verb is preceded by “to” as in “I like to go”.
 3. **Past Participle form:** This form comes after auxiliaries “be” (passive verb) and “have” (perfect aspect). Some examples include gone, eaten, written, been, had, taken, sat.
 4. **Gerund (V-ing):** This is a form which is used to replace a noun phrase. Gerunds are usually the subject, object, or subject complement. This is shown in the following examples:
 - a. Smoking is harmful. Here, smoking is the subject.
 - b. I like swimming. Here, swimming is the object.
 - c. My hobby is dancing. Here, dancing is the subject complement.

5. **Past form:** This is the past form of the verb. Some examples include ate, drank, hated, was, did, etc.

6. **Present participle form (V-ing):** This is the form that is used in progressive tenses. In this case, the present participle is preceded by the auxiliary “be”.

7. **Present form:** Some examples of this form include eat/eats dance/dances bite/bites take/takes lay/lays is/am/are has/have.

- **Modal Auxiliaries vs Regular Auxiliaries:**

- Modal auxiliaries are slightly different from regular auxiliaries (do, have, be). Regular auxiliaries show inflection just like main verbs. For instance, there are different forms of “be” depending on tense (am, is, are, was, were, been, being) or “have” (has, have, had) or “do” (do, does, did). They can follow modals (will be, could have, should do) and take the infinitive to (to do, to have, to be). They can also be negated with not. All of these properties suggest that regular auxiliaries are more like verbs.

- Unlike auxiliaries, modals cannot show inflection. They do not follow other modals. They cannot also be preceded by the infinitive marker “to”.

- Note that when regular auxiliaries are preceded by modals, they cannot be inflected for tense. That is the regular auxiliary “be” and “have” should be in their non-finite form or default form.

- E.g.

He should have gone.

He should be gone.

- **Note:** Most speakers of English only allow one modal in a sentence. However, speakers, especially from South Eastern United States, often allow a combination of might and could.

E.g. Judie might could go.

- Unlike regular auxiliary verbs which do not carry much meaning, modals are auxiliaries that are used with the main verb to express ideas such as possibility, probability, necessity, obligation, permission, etc. Let’s look at these modals in more detail:

1. **can/could** (physical ability, skill, etc.)

a. He can play the piano.

b. He could ride a bike when he was seven years old.

2. **may, can, could** (permission)

a. You can leave.

b. You may leave.

c. You could leave.

3. **have to** (necessity)

a. I have to finish my assignment.

b. I have to clean my room.

4. **don’t have to** (lack of necessity)

a. You don’t have to leave.

b. You don’t have to stay.

5. **must** (obligation/law)

a. You must start at the red light

b. You had to follow the rules. (had to is used as the past form of must)

6. **must not** (prohibition)

a. You must not smoke here.

b. You must not leave your trash outside.

7. **may, might, could** (possibility)

- a. It may rain.
- b. It might rain.
- c. It could rain.

8. must/can't/couldn't + HAVE + Past Participle (logical deduction in the past).

- a. The ground is wet. It must have rained.
- b. He looks very tired. He can't have had enough sleep last night.

9. should/ought to (giving advice)

- a. You should see a doctor.
- b. You ought to study harder.

10. should (expectation)

- a. You should respect your parents.
- b. You should be on time.

11. will (promise, certainty, command, future time)

- a. I'll buy you some toys (promise)
- b. It will rain tomorrow (certainty)
- c. Sit down, will you? (command)
- d. I will leave in the afternoon (future time)

12. would (past habit)

- a. My grandma would tell us stories before bed.
- b. I would smoke every day.

- **Time, Aspect and Tense:**

- English has three different **times**: present, past, and future.

- E.g.

They **eat** their food everyday.

They **ate** their food yesterday.

They **will eat** their food tomorrow.

- **Aspect** is a grammatical category that is associated with verbs. The aspect of a verb is determined by whether the action is **on-going** or **completed**. Aspect is often indicated by the use of auxiliary verbs. Certain auxiliaries are used to indicate that the action is on-going while others including 'have' may signal a completion of the action. There are 3 main aspects:

1. Simple

2. Progressive/Continuous

- Shows that action is/was in progress/on-going.
- This type of aspect is indicated by the auxiliary "be" and the present participle form (verb + ing).

3. Perfect

- Shows that the action is/was completed.
- This type of aspect is indicated by the auxiliary "have" and the past participle form (verb + en).

- **Tense** = Time + Aspect

- **Simple Tenses:**

- The **simple present tense** can express a variety of times. The simple present tense has different uses.

1. For habits and repeated actions.
E.g. He drinks coffee at breakfast.
2. For general truth.
E.g. His father is American.

- The **simple past tense** form expresses past time.
- The simple past is used to express the idea that an action started and finished at a specific time in the past. Sometimes, the speaker may not actually mention the specific time, but they do have one specific time in their mind. Therefore, the actions that are in the past tense are finished events in the past with no connection to the present.
- E.g. We saw a good movie last week.
- The **simple future tense** refers to a time later than now and expresses facts and certainty. The simple future tense is expressed by other words (usually the modal auxiliary 'will') rather than the main verb in the sentence.
- The simple future tense is used to:
 1. To predict a future event.
E.g. It will rain tonight.
 2. Decision at the time speaking (spontaneous decision).
E.g. I will pay the bill (you are telling your friend when the server brings you the bill.)
 3. To express willingness.
E.g. I will help you with the move.
- The simple future tense is composed of two parts: will/shall + bare infinitive (the infinitive without to).
- **Present Progressive:**
- The present progressive is mainly used to express an on-going action or state in the present time.
- Present progressive is formed with: Regular auxiliary (am/is/are) + Present Participle form (verb + ing)
- E.g.
He is leaving now.
The students are taking their test now.
- **Past Progressive:**
- We use the past progressive tense to indicate that a longer action in the past was interrupted by another action. The second action is usually a shorter action in the simple past.
- Past progressive is formed with: Regular auxiliary (was/were) + Present Participle (verb + ing)
- E.g.
They were watching TV when their mom called.
While we were having the picnic, it started to rain.
- **Future Progressive:**
- One of the uses of the future progressive tense is to indicate an on-going action at a specific time in the future.
- This tense is formed with: Modal auxiliary 'will'/'shall'+ "be" + Present Participle (verb + ing)
- E.g. Next Thursday, I will be working in my new job.
- **Present Perfect:**
- We use the present perfect tense to show that an action happened at an unspecified time before now. The exact time is not important. This can be an action that was completed in the immediate past or one that began in the past and continued to the present.

- This makes the present perfect different from the simple past. With the simple past tense, you can use specific time expressions such as: yesterday, one year ago, last week, when I was a child, when I lived in Toronto, that day, one day, etc. However, we can use the present perfect tense with unspecific expressions such as: ever, never, once, many times, several times, before, so far, already, yet, for X years, since X, etc.
- E.g.
I went to Japan last year. (past simple-specific time)
I have been to Japan. (present perfect-unspecific time)
- Present perfect is formed with: Regular auxiliary (have/has) + Past Participle
- Main uses of present perfect:
 1. You can use present perfect to talk about your/an experience in the past. We do not say when the experience happened.
E.g.
I have learned two foreign languages.
I have been to New York.
 2. We often use the present perfect tense to talk about a change that has happened over a period of time.
E.g. My English has improved since I came to Canada.
 3. We use the present perfect tense to show that something started in the past and has continued up until now.
E.g.
I have lived in Canada for 9 years.
I have worked at UofT since 2008.
 4. Sometimes, we use the present perfect tense to talk about an action which happened in the past and finished in the past, but the results are present. Here, the focus is on the result.
E.g.
I can't get into my house. I have lost my keys. (result: cannot get into my house)
She cannot play basketball today. She has hurt her leg. (result: cannot play basketball)
The car is clean. She has washed it. (result: clean car)
- **Past Perfect:**
- The past perfect tense mainly expresses the idea that an action happened before another action in the past. It can also show that something occurred before a specific time in the past.
- Past perfect is formed with: Regular auxiliary (had) + Past Participle
- E.g.
I had studied French before I moved to France.
We had never seen a deer before we came to Toronto.
- **Future Perfect:**
- The future perfect tense expresses the idea that an action will be completed before another action in future. It can also show that something will happen before a specific time in the future.

- The future perfect tense is formed with: Modal Auxiliary 'will'+ Regular Auxiliary (have) + Past Participle
- E.g.
By next August, I will have received my diploma.
I will have learned enough German before I move to Hamburg.

Finite Verb:

- A **finite verb** is a form of a verb that shows agreement with a subject and is marked for tense.
- If there is just one verb in a sentence, that verb is finite.
Put another way, a finite verb can stand by itself in a sentence.
- Finite verbs are sometimes called **main verbs** or **tensed verbs**.

Nonfinite Verb:

- **Nonfinite verbs** are not marked for tense and do not show agreement with a subject. In other words, you cannot tell if a sentence is in the past tense, present tense, or future tense by looking at a non-finite verb. Therefore, a nonfinite verb is never the main verb in a sentence
- The main difference between finite verbs and nonfinite verbs is that the former can act as the root of an independent clause, or a full sentence, while the latter cannot.
- There are three types of non-finite verbs:
 1. Gerunds
 2. Infinitives
 3. Participles
- Non-finite verbs function as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs or combine with a finite verb for verb tense.
- E.g. Consider the sentence "The man runs to the store to get a gallon of milk."
"Runs" is a finite verb because it agrees with the subject (man) and because it marks the tense (present tense). "Get" is a nonfinite verb because it does not agree with the subject or mark the tense. Rather, it is an infinitive and depends on the main verb "runs."
By simplifying this sentence, we can see that "runs" has the ability to act as the root of an independent clause: "The man runs to the store."

Infinitive Form:

- The **infinitive form** of a verb is a verb in its basic form with the word "to" in front of it.
- E.g.
I need to run every day.
- **Bare infinitives** are the plain forms of the verb after a modal.
- E.g.
I will go.

Gerund:

- **Gerunds** are words that are formed with verbs but act as nouns. Gerunds are used as "things" or "ideas". Furthermore, we can replace gerunds with pronouns.
- Gerunds always end in "ing".
- To find gerunds in sentences, just look for a verb + ing that is used as a noun.
- E.g.
Swimming in the ocean has been Sharon's passion since she was five years old.
Let's go dancing at the club tonight.
I delayed telling Jerry the bad news.
I enjoy cooking.
Watching tv does not burn many calories.
Mark likes playing on the team.

Participles:

- A **participle** is a verb form that can be used as an adjective and as parts of verb phrases to create verb tenses.
- There are 2 types of participles:
 - 1. Present Participle:**
 - Is formed from a verb and ends in “ing”.
I.e. Adding -ing to the base form of a verb creates the present participle.
 - It is used as an adjective and modifies nouns or to form verb tense.
 - E.g.
Here's the present participle: laughing
Here it is used as an adjective: The laughing gnome.
Here it is used to form a verb tense: The gnome was laughing.
 - The difference between present participle and gerunds is that gerunds act as nouns while present participles act as verbs or adjectives. Furthermore, present participles can be preceded by an auxiliary verb while gerunds can't.
 - 2. Past Participle:**
 - For regular verbs, adding -ed to the base form creates the past participle.
 - Past participles formed from irregular verbs may have endings like -en, -t, -d, and -n. Examples include swollen, burnt, hoped, and broken. Some past participles remain the same as the base forms of irregular verbs, like set and cut.
 - Past participles can also function as adjectives that modify nouns.
 - The difference between past participles and past tense form of verbs is that past participles can be preceded by auxiliaries while the past tense form of verbs can't.
 - E.g.
In the sentence “She placed the cut flowers in the vase,” the past participle “cut” modifies the noun “flowers”.

Examples:

Write the type of each non-finite verb underlined in the sentence below.

1. They will be expecting us tonight.
Be → bare infinitive after the modal “will”.
Expecting → Present Participle
2. Having been informed of the results, Mary regretted her actions.
Been → Past participle after “have”.
Informed → Past participle after “been”.
3. Sitting in my living room, I can see his parked car.
Sitting → Present participle
See → Bare infinitive after modal “can”
4. By next week, we will have been living here for a year.
Have → Bare infinitive after modal “will”.
Been → Past Participle
Living → Present Participle

Time, Aspect and Tense:

- English has three different **times**: present, past, and future.
- E.g.
They **eat** their food everyday.
They **ate** their food yesterday.
They **will eat** their food tomorrow.
- **Aspect** is a grammatical category that is associated with verbs. The aspect of a verb is determined by whether the action is **on-going** or **completed**. Aspect is often indicated by the use of auxiliary verbs. Certain auxiliaries are used to indicate that the action is on-going while others including 'have' may signal a completion of the action. There are 3 main aspects:
 1. Simple
 2. Progressive/Continuous
 - Shows that action is/was in progress/on-going.
 - This type of aspect is indicated by the auxiliary “be” and the present participle form (verb + ing).
 3. Perfect
 - Shows that the action is/was completed.
 - This type of aspect is indicated by the auxiliary “have” and the past participle form (verb + en).
- **Tense** = Time + Aspect

Simple Tense:

	Past	Present	Future
Expression	Expresses past time.	For habits and repeated actions. For general truth.	Refers to a time later than now and expresses facts and certainty. To predict a future event. Decision at the time speaking (spontaneous decision). To express willingness. Note: The future tense is made up of “will/shall” + verb.
Example	He <u>lived</u> in China last year.	I <u>live</u> in Canada.	I <u>will live</u> in Canada.

Progressive/Continuous Tense:

- Shows that action is/was in progress/on-going.
- Is formed with the auxiliary “be” and the present participle form (verb + ing).

	Past	Present	Future
Expression	We use the past progressive tense to indicate that a longer action in the past was interrupted by another action. The second action is usually a shorter action in the simple past.	Mainly used to express an on-going action or state in the present time.	One of the uses of the future progressive tense is to indicate an on-going action at a specific time in the future.
Formation	was/were + Present Participle	am/is/are + Present Participle	will/shall + be + Present Participle
Example	They <u>were watching</u> TV when their mom called. While we <u>were having</u> the picnic, it started to rain.	He <u>is leaving</u> now. The students <u>are taking</u> their test now.	Next Thursday, I <u>will be working</u> in my new job.

Perfect:

- Shows that an action has been completed.

	Past	Present	Future
Expression	The past perfect tense mainly expresses the idea that an action happened before another action in the past. It can also show that something occurred before a specific time in the past.	We use the present perfect tense to show that an action happened at an unspecified time before now. The exact time is not important. This can be an action that was completed in the immediate past or one that began in the past and continued to the present.	The future perfect tense expresses the idea that an action will be completed before another action in future. It can also show that something will happen before a specific time in the future.
Formation	had + Past Participle	has/have + Past Participle	will + have + Past Participle
Example	I <u>had read</u> so many books I can't keep count.	I <u>have read</u> at least 100 books by the time I was twelve.	I <u>will have read</u> at least 500 books by the end of the year.

Summary:

	Past	Present	Future
Simple	verb + ed	verb	will/shall + verb
Progressive/ Continuous	was/were + present participle	am/is/are + present participle	will/shall + be + present participle
Perfect	had + past participle	has/have + past participle	will/shall + have + past participle

Examples:

- List the tense of the underlined word(s) in the sentences below:
 - I was washing the dishes when you called.
Was washing → past progressive
Called → Simple past
 - We had eaten dinner before the children got here.
Had eaten → Past perfect
Got → Simple past
 - Why were you complaining?
Were complaining → Past progressive

- d. I will have learned every tense by the time I finish school.
Will have learned → Future perfect
Finish → Simple present
2. Change the sentence "She lies on the beach" to its future perfect tense form.
Answer: She will have lain on the beach.
3. Change the sentence "He lies to his mother" to its past perfect tense.
Answer: He has lied to his mother.

Lecture Notes:

- **Adjectives:**
- Characteristic function: modifying nouns
- Typically denote properties (e.g. colour, size, shape, worth, age, etc.)
- E.g.
A huge blue German car.
John is bored.
- There are 3 main functions:
 1. **Attributive:** Attributive adjectives come before nouns and they modify nouns. Attributive adjectives are always in a NP and come before the noun.
E.g. The happy people.
 2. **Predicative:** Predicative adjectives occur inside the verb phrase.
I.e. It's part of the predicate.
E.g. They are happy.
 3. **Postpositive:** Postpositive adjectives are not very common. They usually occur after the words: "something", "someone", "anything", "anyone".
I.e. They are less frequent than attributive and predicative uses and are only possible in certain constructions (e.g. after something, anyone, nobody, etc.)
E.g. I want something delicious.
- We can identify adjectives based on their **shape**, because they take a variety of affixes/endings:
 1. Some adjectives end in 'y'.
E.g. happy, silly, nasty
 2. There are suffixes that change nouns into adjectives. The suffixes -ful, -ish, -al change a noun into an adjective.
E.g.
beauty → beautiful
regret → regretful
faith → faithful
self → selfish
girl → girlish
yellow → yellowish
form → formal
globe → global
parent → parental
 3. There are suffixes that change verbs into adjectives. The suffixes -able, -ive change a verb into an adjective.
E.g.
depend → dependable
move → movable
break → breakable
abuse → abusive
support → supportive
assert → assertive
 4. There are prefixes that attach to adjectives to make new adjectives. The prefixes un-, dis-, in- can attach to adjectives to make new adjectives.

E.g.

faithful → unfaithful

honest → dishonest

complete → incomplete

- An **adjective phrase (Adj P)** contains a mandatory adjective and an optional **intensifier**.
- An **intensifier** is a modifier, usually an adverb, that comes before adjectives or adverbs to strengthen the meaning of the adjective or adverb. Most of the time, they're just used for emphasis.
Some intensifiers are: so, really, extremely, very, etc
- Adj P = [(Intensifier) + adjective]
Note: Anything in these brackets, (), means that it's optional.
- Therefore, an Adj P can just be an adjective by itself.
- E.g. of Adj P
beautiful
extremely dry
very tired
pretty bored
really funny
so upset
Note: The bolded black words are the intensifiers and the bolded red words are the adjectives.
- **Adverbs:**
- The functions of adverbs are:
 1. Modify verbs. Answers questions such as: where, when, how.
Adverbs that answer where are called **adverbs of place**.
Adverbs that answer when are called **adverbs of time**.
Adverbs that answer how are called **adverbs of manner**.
E.g. We ran the race quickly.
 2. Intensifiers for adjectives/adverbs.
E.g. The very hungry dog ate quite quickly.
 3. Sentence adverbs. These adverbs modify the entire sentence.
E.g.
Unfortunately, he didn't attend the meeting.
Obviously, this work needs editing.
Hopefully, it won't rain tonight.
Note: Not all adverbs that are at the beginning of a sentence are sentence adverbs.
E.g. Carefully, we walked along the highway.
Here, carefully is an adverb of how as it describes how they walked along the highway.
- You can identify adverbs in this way:
Shape: Adding the suffix -ly changed adjectives to adverbs.
Note: Some adverbs are flat and have the same form as adjectives.
I.e. Flat adverbs take the same form as their adjectives.
E.g. slow, fast, hard, loud
- An **adverb phrase (AdvP)** contains an adverb and an optional intensifier.
- E.g. rather lazily → rather is the intensifier, lazily is the adverb.

- **Note:** An adverb on its own can be an AdvP.
- Adverb phrases are usually inside a verb phrase, after the verb.
- E.g.
AdvP in VP: the rat [**eats very quickly**]
VP → V + AdvP
Here, the verb is eats and the adverb phrase is very quickly.
- Sentence adverbs modify the whole sentence, at the beginning.
S → AdvP + NP + VP
- E.g.
Hopefully, she can attend the meeting.
- **Adj vs Adv:**
- Adjectives can modify nouns.
- Adverbs can modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.
- E.g.

Adjective	Adverb
<i>a <u>rapid</u> improvement_N</i>	<i>It <u>rapidly</u> improved_V</i>
<i>a <u>surprising</u> depth_N</i>	<i><u>surprisingly</u> deep/deeply</i>
<i>Progress was <u>rapid</u></i>	<i>We progressed_V <u>rapidly</u>.</i>

- However, some adjectives and adverbs share the same form. In situations like these, we still distinguish between adjectives and adverbs based on their position in the structure.
- E.g.

Adjective	Adverb
<i>an <u>early</u> departure_N</i>	<i>they departed_V <u>early</u></i>
<i>her song was <u>better</u></i>	<i>she sang_V <u>better</u></i>

- Adjectives vs Adverbs: good/bad vs. well/badly

	Base	Comparative	Superlative
Adj	good	better	best
Adv	well	better	best
Adj	bad	worse	worst
Adv	badly	worse	worst

- **Gradability:**
- Prototypical adjectives are **gradable**. They can be instantiated in varying degrees and can show that something can have different degrees.
- Some gradable adjectives are: good, bad, young, serious, tall, expensive.

- However, some are non-gradable and are interpreted more categorically.
- Some non-gradable adjectives are: alphabetical, chief, equine, federal, glandular, latter, left, marine, medical, obtainable, orthogonal, phonological, residual, syllabic, tenth, utter
- Adjectives often have both gradable and non-gradable uses.
- E.g.

NON-GRADABLE SENSE	GRADABLE SENSE
the <u>public</u> highway	a very <u>public</u> quarrel
a <u>British</u> passport	He sounds very <u>British</u>
The door was <u>open</u> .	They haven't been very <u>open</u> .

Notice that the non-gradable uses don't readily allow degree modifiers.

- Gradability also applies to adverbs.
- E.g.
very soon; too soon
very quickly; too quickly
- Notice that among adverbs as well, there are both gradable and non-gradable adverbs.
- Since some adverbs are gradable, gradability is not a good test to distinguish adjectives and adverbs.
- **Comparative and Superlative Forms:**
- Some short adjectives, as well as some short adverbs, also inflect for grade.
- E.g.
flat; flatter; flattest [Adj]
soon; sooner; soonest [Adv]
- The -er forms are called **comparative**.
- The -est forms are called **superlative**.
- **Qualifiers/Adverbs of degree/Intensifiers:**
- A **qualifier** is a word that precedes gradable adjectives and adverbs, increasing or decreasing the quality signified by the word it modifies.
- Some of the most common qualifiers in English are 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, etc.
- If any of these qualifiers comes before an adjective or an adverb, they'll tell us about the intensity of the degree of an adjective or an adverb. These words are also called **intensifiers**.

- E.g.

He talks <u>extremely</u> <u>fast</u> .
qualifier Adverb
He is <u>extremely</u> <u>talkative</u> .
qualifier adjective

- **Note:** Non-gradable adjectives and adverbs do not have different degrees in standard English.
- **Modification:**
- While adjectives modify nouns, adverbs modify adjectives, verbs, and other adverbs.
- E.g.

Example	Head	Modifier
They were subjected to [<u>excessive</u> force].	N	Adj
She [worries <u>excessively</u>].	V	Adv
He was [<u>excessively</u> persistent].	Adj	Adv
They had been driving [<u>excessively</u> fast].	Adv	Adv

- **Adjective versus Nouns:**
- Prototypically:
 - Nouns can act as subjects, objects, etc.
 - Count nouns inflect for number (e.g. dog/dogs).
 - Nouns take adjectives as pre-head modifiers.
 - Nouns can take determiner dependents.
- Adjectives on the other hand:
 - Cannot normally be subjects or objects.
 - Don't inflect for number in English.
 - Cannot be modified by other adjectives.
 - Don't require determiners (except in fused-head constructions, e.g. the rich).
- However, both adjectives and nouns can function as a **predicative complement**. A **predicative complement**, also called a **subject complement**, is a phrase that can follow a linking verb. If the phrase is a noun phrase, we call it a **predicative nominal** and if it is an adjective phrase, we call it a **predicative adjective**. Note that these phrases that come after the verb are different from objects since they are not affected by any action of the verb. **Linking verbs** are verbs that express states rather than actions. They are called linking because they link the subject of the clause to a phrase (adjective or noun) that gives information about the subject. Linking verbs include be, appear, seem, look, become, smell, turn, get, act, go, etc. If you can replace the verb with is/am/are, then, it's a linking verb.

E.g.

The garden looks **beautiful**.

Parliament is **closed** on Fridays.

Kyle is a **policeman**.

The bread tastes **delicious**.

In the above sentences, beautiful(AdjP), closed(AdjP), policeman(NP) and delicious(AdjP) are subject complements as they either rename or describe our subjects, the garden, Parliament, Kyle and the bread. Here, the verbs look, be, and taste are linking verbs.

- **Note:** Linking verbs are followed by nouns or adjectives while action verbs are followed by adverbs.
- **Note:** Action and linking verbs must be main verbs. They cannot be auxiliary verbs.
- Like adjectives, nouns can modify other nouns. When a noun modifies another noun, we say 'a noun is functioning adjectively'.
- **Note:** When asked to list all the adjectives in a given paragraph, we include nouns that function as adjectives.

E.g.

It is an office **chair**. Office is a noun that modifies another noun, chair.

A government **inquiry**.

The Obama **administration**.

Water **bottle**.

- **Adjectives with Restricted Functions:**
 1. **Attributive-only adjectives:** These adjectives can only be used attributively. When we try to use attributive-only adjectives as predicative complements, we get ungrammaticality.

E.g.

*the maiden voyage; *the voyage is maiden*
*this damn computer; *this computer is damn*
*utter nonsense; *the nonsense is utter*
*the main problem; *this problem is main*
*the lone soldier; *the soldier is lone*

Utter and main are attributive only adjectives.

2. **Never-attributive adjectives:** These adjectives can never be used attributively.

E.g.

*the barn is ablaze; *the ablaze barn*
*the raft is afloat; *the afloat raft*
*the chicken is alive; *the alive chicken*
*his mother is well; *his well mother*

- Notice the contrast between the never-attributive adjective “alive” and the attributive-only adjective “live”.

Attributive	Predicative
<i>the live chicken</i>	<i>*the chicken is live</i>
<i>*the alive chicken</i>	<i>the chicken is alive</i>

- **Meaning differences between uses:**
- Some adjectives show meaning differences depending on their function.
- E.g.

Attributive use	Predicative use
<i>the <u>late</u> queen</i> (=recently deceased)	<i>the queen is <u>late</u></i> (=behind schedule)
<i>my <u>old</u> school</i> (=former)	<i>the house is <u>old</u></i> (=has existed a long time)
<i>a <u>hard</u> worker</i> (=diligent/energetic)	<i>the work is <u>hard</u></i> (=difficult)
<i><u>complete</u> nonsense</i> (=absolute)	<i>the work is <u>complete</u></i> (=finished)

- **Adverbs:**
- As we saw earlier, adverbs modify adjectives, verbs, and other adverbs, but not nouns.

Example	Head	Modifier
<i>They were subjected to [<u>excessive</u> force].</i>	N	Adj
<i>She [<u>worries</u> <u>excessively</u>].</i>	V	Adv
<i>He was [<u>excessively</u> persistent].</i>	Adj	Adv
<i>They had been driving [<u>excessively</u> fast].</i>	Adv	Adv

- Many adverbs are formed by attaching the suffix –ly to adjectives.
- E.g. sufficient (ADJ) → sufficiently (ADV)
- **Adverbs versus adjectives:**
- Both adverbs and adjectives are gradable, but –ly adverbs can’t take the comparative and superlative suffixes –er and –est.

- E.g.

<i>very quickly; too quickly</i>	[Adv]
<i>very tall; too tall</i>	[Adj]
<i>more quickly; most quickly</i>	[Adv]
<i>more beautiful; most beautiful</i>	[Adj]
<i>*quicklier; *quickliest</i>	[Adv]
<i>quicker; quickest</i>	[Adj]

- **Adverb/Adjective confusion:**
- Note that some adverbs and adjectives share the same form.
- E.g.
The early departure. A hard worker. [Adj]
They departed early. She works hard. [Adv]
- Note that not all words ending in -ly are adverbs.
- E.g. cowardly, deathly, friendly, etc.

Textbook Notes:

- **Adjectives:**
- Normally, adjectives modify nouns and typically denote properties such as colour, size, shape, worth, age, etc. However, adjectives may have other properties as well.
- Adjectives have three main functions:
 1. **Attributive:** These adjectives come before nouns and modify them in a noun phrase. In this case, we call them **pre-head modifiers** since they precede the head noun.
E.g.
The happy people.
The indecisive students.
A very tasty soup.
 2. **Predicative:** These adjectives follow linking verbs. In this case, they are called **predicative adjectives** or **subject complements** since they modify the subject of the sentence.
E.g.
They are happy.
The students are indecisive.
This soup is very tasty.
 3. **Postpositive:** These adjectives are less frequent than attributive and predicative ones. They usually follow the head of a noun phrase.
E.g.
someone happy
something delicious
Note: They are only possible in certain constructions (e.g. after something, anyone, nobody, etc.)

- Based on their properties, adjectives can be:
 1. **Gradable:** Gradable adjectives can occur in varying degrees. You can use them in comparative/superlative forms and/or It can be graded using degree modifiers or intensifiers.
 E.g.
 Happier (comparative)
 Happiest (superlative)
Somewhat happy
 Happy enough
Very happy
 2. **Non-gradable:** Very few adjectives are non-gradable. They cannot occur in varying degrees. You cannot use them in comparative/superlative forms and they cannot be graded using degree modifiers or intensifiers.
 Here is a list of some non-gradable adjectives: alphabetical; chief; equine; federal; glandular; latter; left; marine; medical; obtainable; orthogonal; phonological; residual; syllabic; tenth; utter.
 Notice that the non-gradable uses don't readily allow degree modifiers like "very".
- **Note:** Some short adjectives (as well as some short adverbs) also inflect for grade.
 E.g.
 flat; flatter; flattest [Adj]
 soon; sooner; soonest [Adv]
 The -er forms are called **comparative**.
 The -est forms are called **superlative**.
- Adjectives often have both gradable and non-gradable uses.

NON-GRADABLE SENSE	GRADABLE SENSE
<i>the <u>public</u> highway</i>	<i>a very <u>public</u> quarrel</i>
<i>a <u>British</u> passport</i>	<i>He sounds very <u>British</u>.</i>
<i>The door was <u>open</u>.</i>	<i>They haven't been very <u>open</u>.</i>

- Note: Adverbs, nouns and verbs can also be graded.

E.g. for adverbs

Very soon; Too soon

Very quickly; Too quickly

E.g. for nouns

much success; little success

major problem; minor problem

E.g. for verbs

They enjoyed it very much; they enjoyed it very little

Here, "very much" and "very little" are modifying the verb "enjoy".

Notice that nouns and verbs cannot use the same degree modifiers (e.g. very and too) to express gradation as adjectives and adverbs do. Therefore, the degree adverbs "very" and "too" can only modify adjectives/adverbs.

E.g.

Very success, very problem, too success, too problem, very enjoy, too enjoy don't make grammatical sense.

- An **adjective phrase (AdjP)** has an adjective as its head. The head of an adjective phrase can be preceded by modifying elements called **intensifiers**. Intensifiers are also known as **adverbs of degree** or **qualifiers**.

E.g.

Extremely hot

Very delicious

So selfish

Quite interesting

Fairly easy

- As mentioned before, an adjective can function as an attributive, predicative or postpositive adjective. Note that from this point, we will consider all adjectives as adjective phrases. This means that adjectives form their own phrases. Therefore, an adjective phrase can function:

1. **As a modifier within a noun phrase (attributive adjective).**

E.g.

The sad man.

Here, "the sad man" is a noun phrase, and the adjective phrase 'sad' is modifying the noun 'man' attributively.

2. **As a predicative complement in a verb phrase (predicative adjective).**

E.g. The man is sad.

Here, the adjective phrase 'sad' is modifying the noun phrase 'the man'. This is a predicative adjective since it follows the linking verb 'be' and, therefore, modifies the subject of the sentence. These types of adjectives are called **predicative adjectives** or **subject complements**.

3. **As post-head modifiers (postpositive adjectives).**

E.g. We are looking for someone cheerful.

- **Note:** If adjective phrases occur in the NP, they are attributive.
- **Note:** If they occur as complements after linking verbs, they are predicative.
- **Adjectives vs Nouns:**
- Prototypically:
 - Nouns can act as subjects, objects, indirect objects, and predicative complements.
 - Count nouns inflect for number (e.g. dog/dogs).
 - Nouns take adjectives as pre-head modifiers.
 - Nouns can take determiner dependents.
- However, like adjectives, nouns can also modify nouns attributively. In the following examples, the first noun is modifying the second noun. In this case, we say, the first noun functions as an adjective and modifies the second noun.

A government inquiry

A London park

The Obama administration

The biology syllabus

A computer error

- **Adjectives on the other hand:**
 - Cannot normally be subjects or objects, but can act as predicative complements (subject complement or object complement).
 - Don't inflect for number in English.
 - Cannot be modified by other adjectives.
 - Don't require determiners except in fused-head constructions.
- **Linking verbs versus action verbs:**
- Verbs in English are divided into two basic categories based on their function:
 1. **Linking verbs:** Also known as **being verbs** since they express state of being.
 2. **Action verbs:** Describe an action.
- Linking verbs link two ideas and say that they are the same.
E.g.
Susan will be disappointed after she hears about the truth.
The fish in your kitchen smells disgusting.
- Verbs that refer to the five senses are linking verbs only if they act as an equal sign in the sentence. If they aren't equating two ideas, they are not linking verbs. In the above example sentences, we saw how the phrase that followed the verb (adjective phrases disappointed and disgusting) refers to the subject of the sentence. That is, the subject of the sentence and the phrase that follows the linking verb are the same. In this case, we call these phrases **subject complement** since they refer to the subject and complete the meaning of the sentence. Complement refers to the fact that these phrases complete the meaning of the sentence. Linking verbs unlike action verbs take complements rather than direct objects.
- As for adjectives, they can also be called **predicative adjectives** since they follow the linking verb, which itself is the head of the predicate.
- **Note:** Some verbs including appear, become, feel, grow, look, remain, seem, smell, sound, stay, taste, and turn can act either as linking verbs or action verbs. You have to understand the relationships in the sentence.
- Everything that is not 'being' is an action verb. Action verbs do not necessarily involve physical activity. This includes verbs such as think, have, dream, sleep, sit, etc. Therefore, action verbs can describe both physical and mental actions. They tell us what the subject of the clause is doing physically or mentally.
E.g.
I **want** a horse for my birthday.
They **walk** on the beach on weekends.
I **think** it will rain.
- **Adverbs:**
- Just the way an adjective is the head of an adjective phrase, an adverb phrase takes an adverb as its head. Adverb phrases typically modify a verb within a predicate/verb phrase. Adverb phrases may occur in many different types. The majority of adverbs can occur in several positions within a clause.
- **Note:** The normal position of an adverb phrase is immediately following the verb or at the end of a sentence. Sometimes, for emphasis, we move adverbs around within a clause. This is one of their most distinctive characteristics. Also, compared to nouns and verbs, adverbs and adjectives are not essential to the clause. They are mainly optional modifiers.

- Sometimes, adverbs are preceded by an adverb of degree/intensifier/qualifier. We saw this property for adjectives as well. Therefore, an adverb phrase consists of an adverb as its head and optional modifiers that are called adverbs of degree/intensifier/qualifier.

E.g.

Very forcefully (AdvP)

More surprisingly (AdvP)

So carefully (AdvP)

- Adverbs can carry different functions based on the kind of information they provide:
 1. **Sentence adverbs** modify the whole clause. Sentence adverb phrases express the speaker's or the writer's attitude to the content of the sentence. They are normally placed at the beginning of the sentence and are separated from the rest of the sentence with a comma.
E.g.
Most surprisingly, she passed the test!
Obviously, she is not happy with the results.
 2. **Adverbs of degree** (modify adjectives and other adverbs). These are also known as intensifiers or qualifiers.
E.g.
Incredibly fast
 3. **Adverbs of manner** (how). Tell us about the way something happens or is done.
E.g.
The children ran **reluctantly**. **How? Reluctantly.**
She waited **anxiously**. **How? Anxiously.**
 4. **Adverbs of time** (when). Tell us when something happens.
E.g.
The teachers arrived **yesterday**. **When? Yesterday.**
 5. **Adverbs of place** (where). Tell us where something happens or where something is.
E.g.
Your neighbour is waiting **outside**. **Where? Outside.**
 6. **Adverb of frequency** (how often). Tell us how often something happens.
E.g. always, usually, often, sometimes, rarely, barely, never, etc.
E.g.
Him and I meet **frequently** at the station. **How often? Frequently.**

- **Distinctions between adjectives and adverbs:**
- Adjectives can modify nouns and act as predicative complements. Adverbs, conversely, modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.
- However, some adjectives and adverbs share the same form.

Adjective	Adverb
An early departure.	They departed early .
Her song was better .	She sang better .

- In situations like these, we still distinguish between adjectives and adverbs based on their position in the structure. Again, only adjectives modify nouns and act as predicative complements. While adjectives modify nouns, adverbs modify adjectives, verbs, and other adverbs.

Examples of adjective phrases:

1. The below sentences have its adjective phrase underlined and denoted as attributive or predicative.
 - a. I found a small glass bottle.
Small: attributive
Glass: attributive
 - b. These results are interestingly deceptive.
Deceptive: predicative
 - c. You should be kind to others.
Kind: predicative
2. The below sentences have its adjective phrase underlined and denoted as attributive or predicative and gradable or non-gradable.
 - a. The strong boxer toppled his weaker opponent.

Adjective Phrase	Attributive/Predicative	Gradable/Non-gradable
strong	attributive	gradable
weaker	attributive	gradable

- b. The foundation of his incredible structure is not stable.

Adjective Phrase	Attributive/Predicative	Gradable/Non-gradable
incredible	attributive	gradable
stable	predicative	gradable

- c. We sell frames that are circular, square, and rectangular.

Adjective Phrase	Attributive/Predicative	Gradable/Non-gradable
circular	predicative	gradable
square	predicative	gradable
rectangle	predicative	gradable

Examples of adverb phrases:

1. The below sentences have its adverbs underlined and told what kind they are.
 - a. Amazingly, we got all the answers right.
Amazingly: Sentence adverb
 - b. Betty searched laboriously through the manuscripts.
Laboriously: Adverb of manner
 - c. You are being very silly.
Very: Intensifier

- d. I'll see you tomorrow.
Tomorrow: Adverb of time
Note: Tomorrow is a noun which functions as an adverb when it is the answer to question when?.
 - e. Stay here for the night.
Here: Adverb of place.
 - f. Slowly, Arleen approached the bobcat.
Slowly: Adverb of manner as it modifies "approached".
2. The below sentences have its adverb phrases underlined and the head of the adverb phrase bolded.
- a. Her cat rather **quickly** learned to catch mice.
 - b. The deer runs **faster** than the antelope.
 - c. **Fortunately** for him, the meter reader **never** returned.

Adjectives vs Adverbs:

1. Linking verbs are followed by adjectives while action verbs are followed by adverbs.
The below examples show this.
 - a. The choir sings too loud. (Adv because sings is an action verb)
The band sounds too loud. (Adj because sounds is a linking verb)
 - b. The men work hard. (Adv because works is an action verb)
The rock feels hard. (Adj because feels is a linking verb)
 - c. The race car is fast. (Adj because is is a linking verb)
The athlete runs fast. (Adv because runs is an action verb)
 - d. The turtle seems slow. (Adj because seems is a linking verb)
The turtle walks slow. (Adv because walks is an action verb)

Lecture Notes:

- Prepositions are words that indicate the relationship of a noun phrase to the rest of the sentence. They allow noun phrases to relate to the rest of the sentence in different ways.
- Traditional grammar also classified prepositions as words that are normally followed by NPs including pronouns.

E.g.

at the store; to the bank; by noon

- If a preposition is not followed by anything, then they are frequently classified as adverbs.

E.g.

He went out/outside.

She has been there before.

- Some prepositions:
 - In the clock
 - On the clock
 - Over the clock
 - Under the clock
 - Beside the clock
 - Below the clock
 - Behind the clock
 - After lunch
 - Before lunch
 - Since lunch
 - Until lunch
 - Of the house
 - Regarding the house
- Relations described by prepositions:

Relation	Preposition	Example of a Prepositional Phrase
Spatial	Behind	Behind the door
Temporal	After	After the party
Instrumental	With	With a pen
Accompaniment	With	With my friend
Attitude	With	With enthusiasm
Means	By	By watching
Agent	By	By the wind

- Some phrasal prepositions:
 - According to Albert
 - Because of Albert
 - By way of Albert
 - In reference to Albert
 - In connection to Albert

- Regardless of Albert
- Together with Albert
- Short of losing
- For the sake of winning
- Except for me
- Up to the top
- Due to his generosity
- The NP preceded by a preposition is called the **object of the preposition**.
PREposition = the position BEFORE the noun phrase.
Only NPs can be the object of a preposition, even though prepositions can take adverb phrases, adjective phrases, and even other prepositional phrases as complements.
E.g.
in the box → “in” is the preposition and “the box” is the NP
until Tuesday → “until” is the preposition and “Tuesday” is the NP
- Prepositions signal a relation between a noun phrase and another phrase like another NP, an ADJP, or a VP.
E.g.
The documents **on** my computer are corrupted.
The door **of** the house is red.
Jing is happy **for** me.
We danced **around** the kitchen.

The bolded words are the prepositions and the underlined words are the NP, ADJP or VPs.

- While many prepositions can take NP complements, some can take adverb phrases, adjective phrases, and even other prepositional phrases as complements.
E.g.
I didn't know until [recently]. [AdvP]
They took him for [dead]. [AdjP]
He emerged from [behind the curtain]. [PP]
- Some sentences are ambiguous because the prepositional phrase can either modify an NP or the predicate.
E.g. Can you explain the ambiguity in this sentence?
He ate the cookies on the counter.

The 2 meanings of the sentence are:

1. He ate the cookies that were placed on the counter.
 2. He ate the cookies while he was on the counter.
- A prepositional phrase (PP) must contain a preposition and a noun phrase.
E.g.
With my friend → With (P) + my friend (NP)
 - Many words that function as prepositions can function as adverbs as well. Remember that prepositions are always followed by their object (an NP). Adverbs occur alone.
E.g.
They were running around **the house**. (P)
They were running around. (Adv)
The plane flew over **the trees**. (P)
The plane flew over. (Adv)

- English has many **phrasal verbs** formed through the combination of a verb and a **verb particle**.

E.g.

Bob **looked** up the definition.

Mary **turned** in early.

They **blackened** out for a few minutes.

Note: The bolded words are the verbs and the underlined words are the verb particles.

Note: When asked to list the verb particles, we just list “up” from “looked up” or “in” from “turn in” or “out” from “blackened out”.

- The meaning of the phrasal verb usually isn’t entirely predictable based on the individual meanings of the verb and the particle.
- The differences between prepositions and verb particles:
 1. **Meaning.** The verb particle and the verb form a unit of meaning while the preposition forms a unit of meaning with its object.

E.g.

He [ran up] the bill = to increase the cost (In this case, “up” is a verb particle.)

He ran [up the hill] = to the top (In this case, “up” is a preposition.)

2. **Mobility.** If the phrasal verb takes an object (it is followed by an NP), the particle can be moved to a position following the pronoun form of the object. However, you cannot do this with prepositions.

E.g.

He **ran up** the bill = He **ran** it **up**. (Phrasal verb)

He ran **up the hill** ≠ He ran **it up**. (Preposition)

- Some verb particles are identical in form to adverbs. Here’s how we can tell the difference between the two:
 1. **Omission.** Adverbs can be optional in a sentence, while verb particles never are. If the word can be omitted and the sentence still preserves its main meaning, then the word is an adverb.

E.g.

At the lights, we should turn **in** = At the lights we should turn. (Here, “in” is an adv)

At 10pm, we should turn **in** ≠ At 10pm we should turn. (Here, “in” is a verb particle)

2. **Question.** We can often ask a question about an adverbial modifier (where, when, why, how, how many, how long, how much...?) but we can never ask questions about particles.

E.g.

Tom went **down** to see what all the noise was about. → Where did Tom go? Down.

Tom wouldn’t back **down**. → You can’t ask “Where wouldn’t Tom back?”

- Identify Between Prepositions, Verb Particles and Adverbs:

	Preposition	Particle	Adverb
Meaningful unit with NP?	Yes	No	No
Meaningful unit with V?	No	Yes	No
Mobility?	No	Yes (Pronoun)	Yes (Beginning/End)
Omission?	No	No	Yes
Question?	No	No	Yes

Textbook Notes:

- **Prepositions:**
- A **preposition** is a word that signals the grammatical relationship between words and phrases within a clause. Prepositions relate a noun phrase to other phrases in the clause. Prepositions may add information of the kind provided by adverbs (time, place and manner).
- The presence of a preposition signals the fact that a noun phrase is coming. This means that prepositions occur before noun phrases. The preposition and the noun phrase that follows form a phrase that is called a **prepositional phrase (PP)**. The head of a prepositional phrase is a preposition. The noun phrase that comes after a preposition is called **object of the preposition**.
- Prepositions can be followed by an entire sentence or clause. When followed by a clause, they are called **subordinating conjunctions**, and they are not prepositions anymore.
E.g.
She left **after** [you promised to help].
Here, 'after' is not a preposition since it is followed by the clause [you promised to help].
- Prepositions are invariant. That is they do not take different inflectional forms.
- While many prepositions can take NP complements, some can take adverbs, adjectives, and even other PPs as their complement.
E.g.
I didn't know **until** [recently]. [recently: AdvP]
They took him **for** [dead]. [dead: AdjP]
He emerged **from** [behind the curtain]. [behind the curtain: PP]
- Prepositional phrases can also be the complements of verbs.
E.g.
I put it [in the drawer].
He gave them [to the office].
- While many prepositions denote relationships in space and time, some prepositions have special grammatical uses.
"By" introduces the agent in a passive clause.
E.g.
The book was written by the author.
"Of" expresses possession or relatedness.

E.g.

The top of the mountain. = The mountain's top.

- Traditional grammarians often criticize sentences like the following, which end in a preposition.

E.g.

Incorrect Version	Correct Version
What was she referring to?	To what was she referring?
Who did they vote for?	For whom did they vote?

This is a prescriptive rule that some grammarians follow. However, this is a prescriptive rule which may not be followed in informal speech.

- **Prepositional Phrases:**

- Prepositional phrases may:

1. Function adverbially (modify the verb of the clause).
2. Function adjectively (modify a noun phrase).

Note: Prepositional phrases that function adjectively immediately follow the NP they modify.

- As mentioned above, prepositions may function adverbially. I.e. They add information about time, place and manner the way adverbs do.

E.g.

1. The kid stuck his gum **under the desk**. (place: modifying the verb 'stuck')
2. The party starts **after midnight**. (time: modifying the verb 'start')
3. You are reading this section **with enthusiasm**. (manner: modifying the verb 'reading')

Note: In the above examples, the underlined word(s) are the verb phrases and the bolded words are the prepositional phrases.

In this case, they are similar to adverbs. As a result, they are called **adverbial modifiers**.

- Prepositional phrases may also function adjectively. I.e. They modify noun phrases the way adjectives modify nouns.

E.g.

The car **with the broken window** is mine.

Here, the prepositional phrase 'with the broken window' is modifying/describing the noun phrase 'the car'. Therefore, we say, this prepositional phrase functions adjectively or is an **adjectival modifier**.

- **Ambiguous Sentences:**

- Consider the sentence:

Did you eat the cookies **on the counter**?

There are 2 possible meanings to this sentence:

1. 'on the counter' is modifying or describing the noun phrase 'the cookies'. Therefore, we say this prepositional phrase functions adjectively or is an adjectival modifier. In this case, the sentence means: Did you eat the cookies that were placed on the counter?
2. 'on the counter' is modifying or describing the verb 'eat'. Therefore, we say this prepositional phrase functions adverbially or is an adverbial modifier. In this case,

the cookies were not placed on the counter. The action of eating happened on the counter.

- **Prepositions versus Verb Particles:**

- Some prepositions function as verb particles. This means that they form a meaningful unit with the verb.

E.g.

He **looked** the number **up**.

He **looked up** the number.

In the above example, 'up' is not a preposition but a verb particle which forms a unit with the verb 'look'. The verb and its particle 'look up' mean 'search'.

- Notice that the same isn't possible with non-particle prepositions.

E.g.

He went [up the road]. (Correct)

*He went the road up. (Incorrect)

In the above example, 'up' is a preposition and forms a unit with the noun phrase 'the road' instead. It does not form a meaningful unit with the verb 'go'.

- One important restriction on particles is that they can't occur between the verb and an object when the object of the verb is a pronoun. They can only occur between the verb and an object when the object is a full NP.

E.g.

With a full NP:

She **took off** [her hat].

She **took** [her hat] **off**.

With a pronoun:

*She took off it. (Incorrect)

She took it off. (Correct) → If the NP is a pronoun, then it must be verb + pronoun + verb particle

- **Summary:**

- Sometimes a word can be a preposition in one context but an adverb in another context. To distinguish between the two, we need to look for a noun phrase. If there is a noun phrase, that word is a preposition. If not, it **may** be an adverb.
- Some verbs are two-part verbs. They consist of a verb and an element which is called a **verb particle**.

E.g.

Turn in=turn + particle 'in'

Give up= give + particle 'up'

Turn on= turn + particle 'on'

We call a two-part verb a **phrasal verb**. The verb and its particle form a meaningful unit.

- Verb particles and adverbs are sometimes identical. We need to find a way to distinguish between them. Previously, you learned that adverbs are optional and can be omitted. This does not hold true for verb particles. Verb particles are obligatory as they are essential to the meaning of the phrasal verb.

E.g.

Please turn on the radio.

Please turn the radio.

When we omit the particle 'on', the meaning of the sentence changes. Therefore, 'on' is a verb particle.

- One of the main characteristics of the verb particles is their **mobility**. Verb particles are mobile.

E.g.

I looked up the address. → I looked it up (particle movement).

Here, we have replaced the object noun phrase 'the address' with the pronoun 'it'. Then we have moved the particle after the object pronoun 'it'. This process is called **particle movement**.

Note: Particle movement is optional.

Optional particle movement: I looked up the address. OR I looked it up.

Optional particle movement: They put out the fire. OR They put it out.

Particle movement becomes obligatory when the object of the sentence is a pronoun as in I looked it up. We cannot say *I looked up it. In this case, we need to shift away the verb particle from the verb to a position after the personal pronoun 'it'. It is optional when the object of the verb is a noun phrase. However, it is obligatory when the object is a pronoun.

Note: With particle movement, we must change the NP to it/them.

E.g.

1. Linda took out the trash. → Linda took it out.

2. I brought in the mail. → I brought it in.

- **To test prepositions, verb particles, and adverbs, ask yourself:**

1. Does it form a meaningful unit with NP? **Yes** → **It's a preposition**.

2. Does it form a meaningful unit with the verb? **Yes** → **It's a verb particle**.

3. Is it mobile? **Yes** → **Verb particle**. Remember how particles are mobile when we replace the object of the sentence with a pronoun or when the object of the sentence is a pronoun. See above.

4. **Adverbs** can be mobile in specific contexts. You can move them to the beginning or the end of the sentence.

5. Can it be omitted? **Yes** → **It's an adverb**.

6. Can you ask a question? **Where? When? How?** → **It's an adverb**.

Lecture Notes:

- A **clause** is a grammatical unit that can express a complete thought.
- A clause contains a subject (NP) and a predicate (VP).
I.e. Clause = [[subject (NP)] + [predicate (VP)]]
- **Note:** The subject can either be explicit or implied.
- There are many different clause types:
 - Declarative
 - Interrogative
 - Exclamative
 - Imperative
- **Declarative/Indicative/Canonical Clauses:**
 - Typically, declaratives are used to make statements or report facts.
 - They are the default clause type. Other clause types can be described by how they are different from declaratives.
 - Declaratives cannot start with a wh-word (What, Who, Where, When, Why, How, etc)
 - Basic declaratives have the structure: SUBJECT + PREDICATE.
E.g.
The children [bought a pet].
"The children" is the subject.
"Bought a pet" is the predicate.
 - **Note:** Declarative clauses can be questions.
E.g.
These are the only seats left?
(If the sentence is "Are these the only seats left?", then it would be an interrogative clause.)
- **Interrogative Clauses:**
 - There are 2 types of interrogative clauses, closed and open.
 - **Closed interrogative clauses**, also known as **yes-no questions**, are questions with a limited set of answers.
E.g.
Did they leave?(Answer: yes/no).
Did she eat an apple or a banana?(Answer: apple/banana)
 - Structurally, closed interrogative clauses are different from basic declaratives in that the subject and an auxiliary have been inverted. This process is called **subject-auxiliary inversion**.
I.e. The auxiliary comes before the subject.
 - E.g.
He can eat. (Declarative) → Can he eat?(Closed interrogative)
 - If no auxiliary is available, "do" is inserted in order to allow inversion.
 - E.g.
She ate the apple. (Declarative) → Did she eat the apple? (Close interrogative)
 - **Open interrogative clauses** have virtually an unlimited set of answers. They usually ask **wh-questions** (who, whom, whose, what, when, where, why, how). They are used to seek specific information.
 - E.g.
What did you eat?
Where did you go?

When should I arrive?

Who have you seen?

- Open interrogatives differ from declaratives in that they contain a fronted **wh-word** (who, whom, whose, what, when, where, why, how).
- When the wh-word is not the subject, open interrogatives also show inversion, just like closed interrogatives.
- E.g.
He has eaten an apple. (Declarative) → What has he eaten? (Open interrogative)
- If you're asking a question about the subject of the sentence, simply replace the subject with the word "who".
- E.g.
Sarah left the party. → Who left the party?
- If you're asking a question about the object of the sentence and there's an auxiliary in the sentence, you replace the object with the word "what", move "what" to the front of the sentence and then have subject-auxiliary inversion.
- E.g.
He has eaten the apple. → What has he eaten?
- If you're asking a question about the object of the sentence and there's no auxiliary in the sentence, you replace the object with the word "what", move "what" to the front of the sentence, and insert the word "do".
- E.g. He ate the apple. → What did he eat?
- **Note:** For subject-auxiliary inversion, if there are multiple auxiliaries, we only change the position of the first one.
E.g. She could have lied. → Could she have lied?
There are 2 auxiliaries in the sentence above, could and have. We changed the position of could.
- **Tag questions** are also classified under interrogative clauses. They turn a statement into a question and are often used for checking information that we think we know is true.
- There are 2 types of tag questions:
 1. **Reverse Polarity Tags:**
 - The polarity of the tag is opposite to the polarity of the clause.
 - If your clause is positive, then your tag is negative, and vice versa.
 - E.g.
She doesn't like fish, does she?
Here, the clause "She doesn't like fish" is negative, while the tag "does she" is positive.

She's Italian, isn't she?
Here, the clause "She's Italian" is positive while the tag "isn't she" is negative.
 2. **Constant Polarity Tags:**
 - Are usually used to ask questions or ask for agreement.
 - The polarity of the tag and the polarity of the clause are the same.
 - If your clause is positive, so is your tag, and vice versa.
 - E.g.
She hates fish, does she?
Here, the clause, "She hates fish" is positive and the tag "does she" is also positive.

- Are usually used to express surprise.
- **Exclamative Clauses:**
- Used to express exclamations.
- They usually start with “what” or “how”.
- E.g.
What luck.
How lucky.
What a disaster that was.
- However, there are other alternatives used to express exclamations.
- E.g.
Such a nasty comment.
How nice.
- **Imperative Clauses:**
- Are used to tell people to do or not do certain things.
- Can be used to give advice, suggestions, commands, requests, orders, instructions, offers, or invitations.
- E.g.
Don't be late. (Command/order)
Please read the document. (Request)
Prepare yourself before the quiz. (Instruction)
Make sure to take your medication. (Advice)
Feel free to ask questions. (Invitation)
- They contain the plain form of the verb and allow the 2nd person subject (you) to be eliminated.
- E.g.
Stand up.
Clean your room.
- Must use the word “do” with negative polarity.
- E.g.
Don't be late.

Textbook Notes:

- A **clause** is made up of a subject and a predicate.
- There are many types of clauses:
 1. **Declarative/Indicative/Canonical:**
 - Basic declaratives are the simplest type of clause and have the structure: SUBJECT + PREDICATE.
 - Declaratives are the default clause type. Other clause types can be described by how they are different from declaratives.
 - Typically, declaratives are used to make statements or report facts.
 2. **Interrogative:**
 - Are used to ask questions. There are two main types of interrogative clauses:
 - a. **Closed interrogatives:**
 - **Closed interrogative** clauses are questions with a limited set of answers.
 - E.g.
Did they leave? (Answer: yes/no).
Did she eat an apple or a banana? (Answer: apple/banana)
 - Structurally, closed interrogative clauses are different from basic declaratives in that the subject and an auxiliary have been inverted.

- E.g.
He can eat. (Declarative) Can he eat? (Closed interrogative)
 - Therefore, if there's an auxiliary present in the sentence, a yes-no question is formed by moving the auxiliary to the beginning of the sentence. This process is called **Subject-Auxiliary Inversion**.
 - E.g.
He has been working hard. Has he been working hard?
She could arrive on time. Could she arrive on time?
They are returning home. Are they returning home?
Note: if there is more than one auxiliary, the first auxiliary is moved to the front of the sentence.
 - If there's no auxiliary present in the sentence:
 - If the main verb is "be", simply move "be" to the front of the sentence.
E.g.
He is my favourite student. → Is he my/your favourite student?
Here the verb be appears at the beginning of the sentence where we would expect an auxiliary.
 - If the main verb is not "be", "do" is inserted as an auxiliary to allow inversion. Depending on the tense of the sentence and the person, we use do, does, and did.
E.g.
Sandy reads the book. Does Sandy read the book?
Sandy read the book. Did Sandy read the book?
They read the book. Do/Did they read the book?
 - To change from a declarative clause to a closed interrogative clause, move the first auxiliary verb or the main verb "be" in the declarative clause to the front of the sentence. If there is no auxiliary, insert do as an auxiliary. This process is called **do-Insertion**.
- b. Open interrogatives:**
- Open interrogative clauses, on the other hand, have a virtually unlimited set of answers.
 - Open interrogatives differ from declaratives in that they contain a fronted **wh-word** (who, whom, whose, what where, when, why, how). When the wh-word is not the subject, open interrogatives also show inversion, just like closed interrogatives.
 - E.g.
He has eaten an apple. **What** has he eaten?
He arrived at noon. **When** did he arrive?
 - Wh-questions are different from yes-no questions in two ways:
 1. They ask for missing information rather than confirmation or denial.
 2. They start with a wh-word (who, whom, which, why, when, where, what, whose, etc.)
 - If you're asking a question about the subject of the sentence, simply replace the subject with the word "who".
 - E.g.
Sarah left the party. → Who left the party?

- If you're asking a question about the object of the sentence and there's an auxiliary in the sentence, you replace the object with the word "what", move "what" to the front of the sentence and then have subject-auxiliary inversion.
- E.g.
He has eaten the apple. → What has he eaten?
- If you're asking a question about the object of the sentence and there's no auxiliary in the sentence, you replace the object with the word "what", move "what" to the front of the sentence, and insert the word "do".
- E.g. He ate the apple. → What did he eat?

3. **Exclamative:**

- Exclamative clauses begin with an exclamative phrase containing either "what" or "how".
- E.g.
What a deal that was!
How lucky they were!
What a disaster it was!
- They differ from open interrogatives in that they usually don't require inversion.
- E.g.
How lucky were they? (Open Interrogative)
How lucky they were! (Exclamative)

4. **Imperative:**

- Are used to tell people to do or not do certain things.
- Can be used to give advice, suggestions, commands, requests, orders, instructions, offers, or invitations.
- E.g.
Don't be late. (Command/order)
Please read the document. (Request)
Prepare yourself before the quiz. (Instruction)
Make sure to take your medication. (Advice)
Feel free to ask questions. (Invitation)
- They contain the plain form of the verb and allow the 2nd person subject (you) to be eliminated.
- E.g.
Stand up.
Clean your room.
- Must use the word "do" with negative polarity.
- E.g.
Don't be late.
- **Tag questions:**
- **Tag questions** are mainly used in informal/spoken English rather than written English.
- Tag questions can be used:
 1. To ask real questions.
 2. To confirm whether something is true or not.

- To make a tag question:
 1. Use the auxiliary if there is an auxiliary or if the main verb is "be".
 - E.g.
 - It hasn't rained, has it? (there is an auxiliary present)
 - It can't be true, can it? (there is an auxiliary present)
 - He's a smart kind, isn't he? (the main verb is be)
 - You won't do it, will you? (there is an auxiliary present)
 2. If there is no auxiliary present, use do, does, did.
 - E.g.
 - You know them, don't you?
 - She finished it, didn't she?
 - Sam doesn't like her, does he?

Lecture Notes:

- **Polarity:**
- **Polarity** refers to the grammatical systems associated with distinguishing between positive and negative clauses.
- Basic clauses in English are positive while negative clauses carry explicit marking using words such as “not” and “no”. The positive polarity clauses are the default clauses. Clauses with positive polarity are simpler, meaning that they contain fewer items, while clauses with negative polarity usually need extra material.
E.g.
He is a nice person. → Positive polarity, default clause
He is not a nice person. → Negative polarity
- **Negation:**
- **Negation** is the process of turning a declarative sentence to its opposite.
- Negation in English is marked by words such as “no”, “not”, “never”, etc and affixes such as “-n’t”, “un-”, “non-”, etc.
E.g.
He has not arrived.
He didn’t receive the letter.
You were unhappy with the wallpaper.
- **Note:** A negative element is an affix like “dis-”, “un-”, “mis-”, “-less” or words like no, not or never.
- **Note:**
Not + verb (Not precedes a verb.)
No + noun (No precedes a noun.)
- In terms of meaning, negation indicates that some part of the sentence is false.
E.g.
The sentence “Billy didn’t break the vase.” means that something about the positive equivalent “Billy broke the vase.” is false.
- Note that negation doesn’t indicate that the opposite is true.
E.g.
The sentence “The red team didn’t beat the blue team.” does not mean the red team lost to the blue team. They could have tied.
- There are 2 types of negation:
 1. **Clausal Negation:**
 - a. **Verbal:**
 - Insert a negator “not” between the auxiliary and the verb.
Note: We insert “not” after the first auxiliary.
E.g.
John could not hand in his assignment.
Auxiliary: could
Negator: not
Main verb: hand in
 - If there is no auxiliary, insert the dummy “do”.
E.g.
John did not hand in his assignment.
 - b. **Non-verbal:**
 - Does not use “not” to negate the sentence. Instead, it uses absolute negators or approximate negators.

- **Absolute negators:** no one, nobody, nothing, nowhere
E.g.
I got nothing in the fridge.
- **Approximate negators:** few, little, rarely, barely, hardly, scarcely
E.g.
I rarely eat fish.
I hardly go to the movies.

2. Non-clausal Negation/Sub-clausal Negation:

- Occurs when the negation fails to make the entire sentence negative.
- Usually negates an adjective or adverb.
- Uses affixes such as “dis-”, “in-”, “un-”, “non-”, “im-”.
E.g.
Impossible
Unlikely
Non-standard
- E.g.
He was unfaithful.

- Polarity Tests:

- Having a negative element inside a clause does not always give the clause negative polarity, so there are 3 tests for polarity, listed below. Positive and negative clauses behave differently with respect to these 3 tests.

1. Test 1 “Not even”:

- While negative clauses can be followed by constituents introduced by “not even”, this is not possible with positive clauses.
- E.g.
Bill didn’t eat his dinner, not even his dessert. → Negative clause. Adding “not even his dessert” makes grammatical sense.
Bill ate his dinner, not even his dessert. → Positive clause. Adding “not even his dessert” doesn’t make grammatical sense.
- **Note:** A constituent introduced by “not even” cannot follow a positive clause.

2. Test 2 “So, neither, nor”:

- Two positive clauses can be connected with the connective “so”.
- Two negative clauses can be connected with the connectives “neither” or “nor”.
- E.g.
She ate an apple and so did he. (Positive clauses)
She didn’t eat an apple and neither did he. (Negative clauses)
She didn’t eat an apple; nor did he. (Negative clauses)
- If we try connecting two positive clauses with “neither” or “nor”, we get an ungrammatical sentence.
E.g.
She ate an apple and neither did he. (Doesn’t make sense.)
- Similarly, trying to connect two negative clauses with “so” is ungrammatical.
E.g.
She didn’t eat an apple and so did he. (Doesn’t make sense.)

3. Test 3 “Reversed polarity tags”:

- Another way of distinguishing positive clauses from negative clauses is to look at whether they take positive tags or negative tags.
- Positive clauses take negative tags.

- Negative clauses take positive tags.

E.g.

Clause Polarity	Clause	Tag	Tag Polarity
+	She left	didn't she?	-
-	She didn't leave	did she?	+

- So, clauses want tags of the opposite polarity.
- Notice that if we try to put a negative tag on a negative clause, it's ungrammatical.

E.g.

Maria didn't send the letter, didn't she?

- Similarly, positive tags on positive clauses are ungrammatical.

E.g.

Maria sent the letter, did she?

- **Polarity Sensitive Items:**

- Some words or expressions are sensitive to the polarity of the clause they're in.
- Some such items prefer to be in positive clauses and have restrictions on how they're used in negative clauses.
- Others prefer to be in negative clauses and have restrictions on how they're used in positive clauses.
- Both types of items are said to be **polarity-sensitive**.
- For instance, "some" has a positive orientation, preferring to be in positive clauses while "any" has a negative orientation.

E.g.

	Positive Clause	Negative Clause
some	We have <u>some</u> suggestions.	We don't have <u>some</u> suggestions. (Ungrammatical)
any	We have <u>any</u> suggestions. (Ungrammatical)	We don't have <u>any</u> suggestions.

- However, "any" can also occur in interrogative clauses that are not negative.

E.g.

Have you seen any birds?

- Words like "any" that occur in either negative polarity clauses or in interrogative clauses but not in positive declaratives are called **non-affirmative items**.
- **Note:** "One" is not polarity sensitive while "ever", "anyone" and "somewhat" are polarity sensitive.

Textbook Notes:

- **Polarity:**
- The term **polarity** refers to the grammatical systems associated with distinguishing between positive and negative clauses.
- In English, basic clauses are positive while negative clauses contain an overt marker using negative elements including not and no; The first one is used to negate a verb, and the second one is mainly used to negate a noun.

- Moreover, there are other ways to make particular categories such as adjectives and adverbs negative. One of the strategies is to add a negative prefix such as in-, ir-, im-, non-, dis-, un-, etc. to an adjective or an adverb to create the opposite meaning. Some examples include satisfied (dissatisfied), ethical (unethical), etc.
- There are two main types of negation in English
 1. **clausal negation**
 2. **non-clausal/sub-clausal negation.**
- **Clausal Negation:**
- There are two types of clausal negation:
 1. **Verbal negation**
 2. **Non-verbal negation**
- The difference between the two types of clausal negation is related to the place in the clause where negation occurs. For **verbal negation**, if there is a helping verb or auxiliary in the sentence, you simply insert the negation marker, not, between the helping verb and the main verb.
E.g.
He has not finished his meal yet.
Here the verbal negation marker 'not' is placed between "has", the auxiliary, and "finished", the main verb.
- If there is no auxiliary, you need to insert dummy "do" to make the sentence negative.
E.g.
He finished his meal. (affirmative)
He did not finish his meal. (negative)
E.g. The same holds true for imperatives:
Leave early! (affirmative)
Don't leave early! (negative)
- **Note:** The only verb that does not need "do" when it occurs without an auxiliary is the verb "be".
E.g.
He is intelligent. → He is not intelligent.
- **Non-Verbal negation** does not require the insertion of the negation marker "not". There are two types of non-verbal negation markers that make a clause negative:
 1. **Absolute negation markers:** no, none, nobody, no one, nothing, nowhere
 2. **Approximate negation markers:** few, little, rarely, seldom, barely, hardly
 These two groups of negation markers change a clause polarity from positive to negative. However, they are non-verbal.
E.g.
I cooked nothing for dinner.
I have no one to talk to.
He barely visits us.
There is none in the basket.

All of the above clauses are considered negative. However, we do not use 'not' to make these clauses negative. We use other negative markers to negate the clause. Remember, 'not' is used to negate the verb, and that's why it is called verbal negation.

- **Non-Clausal Negation:**
- Unlike clausal negation, both verbal and non-verbal, non-clausal negation does not render the clause negative. This means that with non-clausal negation, the sentence

remains positive. As a result, the clause is said to be an example of 'sub-clausal' negation. Examples of this type include the use of negative prefixes such as dis- (dissatisfied), non- (non-existent), un- (unfaithful), in- (intolerant), etc and suffixes such as -less (ruthless) which attach to adjectives and adverbs. Note that these prefixes or suffixes make the adjective or the adverb negative and not the entire clause.

- **Distinguishing Negative and Positive Clauses:**

- As mentioned above, only clausal negation can change the polarity of a clause from positive to negative. Therefore, we need tests to distinguish between negative and positive clauses. There are 3 tests that can help us distinguish between negative and positive clauses:

1. Tag Question Test:

- Rule: If the tag is positive then the clause is negative and vice versa.
- E.g.
Cathy likes fish, doesn't she? (Requires a negative tag → clause is positive)
Cathy doesn't like fish, does she? (Requires a positive tag → clause is negative)
- **Note:** Positive clauses may take positive tags, but negative clauses can ONLY take positive tags.

2. Not Even Test:

- Rule: Add a phrase introduced by "not even" to the clause. If it makes sense, then the clause is negative. If it doesn't, most probably, it's a positive clause. Only negative clauses can take this type of phrase.
- E.g.
There is no chance of us winning, not even a bit. (makes sense → clause is negative)
He didn't buy anything for my birthday, not even a rose. (makes sense → clause is negative)
He dislikes mice, *not even the small ones. (doesn't make sense → clause is positive)

3. Neither/Nor Test:

- If a clause can be linked by "neither/nor" phrases, we can say it is a negative clause. However, for positive clauses, only the use of 'so' makes sense.
- E.g.
I don't like fish, neither does he (makes sense → clause is negative)
They don't want to talk about the issue, nor do I. (makes sense → clause is negative)
She doesn't believe in ghosts, *so do I (doesn't make sense → clause is positive)
- **Note:** Neither/nor are used with negative clauses while so is used with positive clauses.
- E.g.
The students are tired, so am I. (makes sense → clause is positive)

Lecture Notes:**- Grammatical Voice:**

- In grammar, the **voice** of a verb describes the relationship between the action or state that the verb expresses and the participants identified by its arguments (subject, object, etc).

I.e. Voice is the term used to describe whether a verb is active or passive.

- When the subject is the agent or doer of the action, the verb is in the **active voice**.
- We use the passive verb when:

- The speaker/writer wants to avoid identifying the agent (doer) which is the subject of the sentence in most cases.
- The subject is the patient, target or undergoer of the action.
- We are talking about a general truth.
- The agent (doer) is unknown.
- The agent (doer) is irrelevant.
- We want to emphasize the person or thing acted on.

- E.g.

The cat ate the mouse. → Active

The mouse was eaten by the cat. → Passive

- E.g.

I accidentally spilled the milk. → Active

The milk was spilled. → Passive

- Passivation:

- To change a sentence from the active voice to the passive voice, we need to do these 3 steps:

1. Move the object to the subject position.
2. Move the subject to an optional prepositional phrase that starts with "by".
I.e. "by + subject NP".
3. Add "a form of be" + Past Participle of the main verb

Note: The "form of be" must carry the same tense as the main verb of the active sentence.

- E.g.

The mouse ate the cheese. → Active Voice

The cheese was eaten by the mouse. → Passive Voice

- E.g.

She cooks the turkey. → Active Voice

The turkey is cooked by her. → Passive Voice

They will report the incident. → Active Voice

The incident will be reported by them. → Passive Voice

Many students have completed the assignment. → Active Voice

The assignment has been completed by many students. → Passive Voice

- **Note:** Intransitive verbs (verbs that do not take an object) cannot be passive.

Furthermore, some verbs cannot be used in the passive even if they are transitive.

Examples of such verbs are: belong, have (own), lack, resemble, suit.

- E.g. These sentences cannot undergo passivation.

We arrived home late at night.

Did you sleep well?

He was running too fast.

Joanne has two brothers.

Does this bag belong to you?

Unfortunately, Friday doesn't suit me.

- **Passive Clauses:**

- Passives can either be

1. **Short passives/Truncated passives**

- There's no prepositional phrase of the form ("by" + subject).
I.e. "By" + subject is not stated in the clause.
- E.g.
My car was hit in the car park. (It doesn't say who hit the car.)
A decision was made. (It doesn't say who made the decision.)

2. **Long passives**

- There is a prepositional phrase of the form ("by" + subject).
- **Be-passives** are passives that use "Be" + Past Participle of the main verb.
- E.g. The cheese was eaten by the mouse.
- **Get-passives** are passives that use the lexical verb "get" and are used in an informal manner.
Note: There's a restriction with get-passives. The subject must be actively involved in causing the event/state or be affected positively/negatively.
- E.g.
My car got smashed.
The trees got damaged in the wind.
- **Bare passives** are passives such that the past participles occur without "be" or "get".
- E.g.
I had my car cleaned by a professional.
- **Adjectival-passives** are verb phrases that contain the verb "be" + an adjective formed from a past participle.
Sometimes, past participles have the same form as adjectives, leading to ambiguities.
- E.g.
Her leg is broken.

Here, the word "broken" can be an adjective describing the state of her leg. In this case, we call "broken" an adjectival passive.

Alternatively, "broken" can be the past participle of "break", making the whole clause a passive clause. This alternative describes an event.

Textbook Notes:

- **Active vs Passive Clauses:**
- Consider the sentences:
Bill shot the caribou.
The caribou was shot by Bill.

The first sentence is an active clause while the second sentence is a passive clause.

Active clauses are the default. In active clauses, the actor or experiencer in the event is usually assigned to the subject position while the entity undergoing the event described by the verb is assigned to the object position.

In **passive clauses**, this is reversed. The entity undergoing the event is assigned to the subject position. The actor in the event can optionally be introduced by the preposition 'by'.

To create a passive clause from an active clause, you need to do the following things:

1. Move the object to the subject position.
 2. Move the subject to an optional prepositional phrase that starts with “by”.
I.e. “by + subject NP”.
 3. Add “a form of be” + Past Participle of the main verb
- **Long Passive vs Short Passive:**
 - In a **short passive**, the optional prepositional phrase that starts with “by” is omitted, while in a **long passive**, it is kept.
 - E.g.
The manuscript was completed by the author. → Long
The manuscript was completed. → Short
 - **Function of Passive Clauses:**
 - The passive voice is mainly used to emphasize the person or entity that has been affected by the action (object of the active sentence) rather than the person or the entity that performs that action (subject of the active sentence). For this reason, the object of the active sentence is fronted in a passive sentence to show it is the more important information.
 - Remember that you can only passivize a transitive clause. Intransitive clauses cannot be passivized since there is no object present in the sentence.
 - **When To Use The Passive Voice:**
 - You may use the passive voice in any of the following cases:
 1. **The actor is unknown.**
E.g. The famous painting was stolen. (We don't know by who.)
 2. **The actor is irrelevant.**
E.g. A new solar power plant will be built. (We are not interested in who is building it.)
 3. **You want to be vague about who is responsible.**
E.g. Some mistakes were made during the process.
 4. **You want to emphasize the person or thing acted on.**
E.g. Insulin was first discovered by researchers at the University of Toronto.
 5. **You are writing in an academic/scientific genre that traditionally relies on passive voice.** The passive voice is often preferred in formal writing and research papers.

- **Different Forms of Passives with Different Tenses:**

Tense	Example
Simple Present	The house is cleaned weekly.
Present continuous	The house is being cleaned now.
Simple past	The house was cleaned this morning.
Past Continuous	The house was being cleaned yesterday.
Present Perfect	The house has been cleaned since this morning.

Past Perfect	The house had been cleaned before you got in.
Future	The house will be cleaned tomorrow.
Future continuous	The house will be being cleaned next week.
Present conditional	The house would be cleaned if they had visitors.
Past conditional	The house would have been cleaned if it had been dirty.
Modals	The house should be cleaned before they leave.

- **Get Passives:**
- **Get passives** are an informal type of passive that uses the lexical verb get.
- We form this type of passive by the use of the verb 'get' followed by the past participle form of the main verb.
- This type of passive has an additional restriction: the subject must be actively involved in causing the event/state or be affected negatively or positively.
- E.g.
The caribou got shot by a hunter.
My bike got smashed by a car.
- **Bare Passives:**
- Sometimes past participles occur with passive meanings without the verbs 'be' or 'get'. These are called **bare passives**.
- E.g. I had my car cleaned by a professional.
- **Adjectival Passives:**
- Sometimes past participles have the same forms as adjectives, leading to ambiguities.
E.g.
Her leg was broken.

Here 'broken' can be an adjective describing the state of her leg.

In this case, we call just 'broken' an **adjectival passive**.

Alternatively, 'broken' can be the past participle of the verb 'break', making the whole clause a passive clause. This alternative describes an event and not as a state.

1. Which of the following clauses are in the active voice and which are in the passive voice? The answers are bolded.

- | | |
|--|----------------|
| a. The announcer reported the results of the election. | active |
| b. A small child started the fire. | active |
| c. He was frightened by the loud noise. | passive |
| d. The deer was killed by the hunter. | passive |
| e. My sister won the contest. | active |
| f. The secretary shredded the documents. | active |
| g. Basketball is enjoyed by everyone. | passive |
| h. My sister ordered this package. | active |
| i. The game was stopped by the referee. | passive |
| j. The detective discovered the evidence. | active |

2. Turn each of the following active clauses into their passive equivalents. The answers are bolded.

Note: To retain the same meaning from active to passive, the verb “to be” must carry the same tense as the main verb of the active sentence.

- | | |
|--|---|
| a. The little dog buried the dirty old bone. | The old bone was buried by the little dog. |
| b. My nasty uncle Pete fired the servant. | The servant was fired by my nasty uncle Pete. |
| c. The archaeologist on the dig uncovered the ruins of the ancient city. | The ruins of the ancient city were uncovered by the archaeologist on the dig. |
| d. Sailors consume large quantities of fish. | Large quantities of fish are consumed by sailors. |
| e. Good music soothes our souls. | Our souls are soothed by good music. |
| f. That teacher taught chemistry and physics. | Chemistry and physics were taught by that teacher. |
| g. The local newspaper published my letter complaining about trash collection. | My letter complaining about trash collection was published by the local newspaper. |
| h. The cat cornered the terrified mouse. | The terrified mouse was cornered by the cat. |
| i. An honest stranger returned my lost wallet. | My lost wallet was returned by an honest stranger. |
| j. Your attitude surprises me. | I am surprised by your attitude. |

- k. The proctor has administered the test.
The test has been administered by the proctor.
 - l. The whole town will remember you.
You will be remembered by the whole town.
 - m. The post office will have delivered the package by then.
The package will have been delivered by the post office by then.
 - n. The researchers had expected those results.
Those results had been expected by the researchers.
 - o. My cousin is building this house.
This house is being built by my cousin.
 - p. The assistant was grading the exams.
The exams were being graded by the assistant.
3. Turn each of the following active clauses into their passive equivalents by using “to get”. The answers are bolded.
- Note:** The verb “to get” may serve as the auxiliary instead of to be in the passive voice, usually in less formal contexts.
- a. The little dog buried the dirty old bone.
The dirty old bone got buried by the little dog.
 - b. My nasty uncle Pete fired the servant.
The servant got fired by my nasty uncle Pete.
 - c. Sailors consume large quantities of fish.
Large quantities of fish got consumed by sailors.
 - d. That teacher taught chemistry and physics.
Chemistry and physics got taught by that teacher.
4. Turn the following active clauses into truncated passives. The answers are bolded.
- a. Someone left that dog out all night.
That dog was left out all night.
 - b. A thief stole all my jewels.
All my jewels were stolen.
 - c. I ruined your valuable painting.
Your valuable painting was ruined.
 - d. Everyone respects my family.
My family is respected.

- e. The treasurer gave the treasurer's report at the end of the meeting.
The treasurer's report was given to me at the end of the meeting.
- 5. Turn the following truncated passives into full passives by supplying a doer. The answers are bolded.
 - a. He was arrested and searched.
He was arrested and searched by the police.
 - b. The books were read to the children.
The books were read to the children by their parents.
 - c. Your car got wrecked.
Your car got wrecked by him.
 - d. The show was cancelled.
The show was cancelled by the organizers.
 - e. The land got developed.
The land got developed by that company.
- 6. What are the two meanings of "The contestant was withdrawn"?
 - a. "Withdrawn" can function as a past participle. In this case, the sentence is passive and 'was' is an auxiliary.
The contestant withdrew. → The contestant was withdrawn.
 - b. "Withdrawn" can function as an adjective. In this case, the sentence is active and 'was' is the main verb.
The withdrawn contestant.