



Instructor's Manual  
to Accompany  
**Understanding English Grammar**







Instructor's Manual  
to Accompany  
Understanding English  
Grammar  
*A Linguistic Approach*

Second Edition

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# Instructor's Manual

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*Understanding English Grammar: A Linguistic Approach* is designed to familiarize students with the basic concepts they need in order to achieve an understanding of English grammar. It does this within a framework of modern linguistic ideas about the nature of language. The book also provides students with an opportunity to try out their knowledge as it develops in the exercises that are found at the end of each chapter. This manual is designed to help instructors use the book by providing further information about its contents, additional suggestions about some of the issues that are addressed, and answers of varying completeness to the exercises found at the end of each chapter.

## Preface

The preface indicates the scope of the book, which is not designed to cover all aspects of English grammar, clearly an impossibility. The main goals are to provide a linguistic orientation to the English language and to do this largely within the current Chomskyan paradigm without subscribing to one narrow doctrine within that paradigm. Instructors should therefore feel free to adapt and modify the contents to suit their own theoretical inclinations. Grammatical study is an open-ended pursuit; instructors – and students – will benefit most from using this book if they keep that idea in mind at all times.

## 1 Preliminaries

This brief chapter is designed to raise the basic issue of descriptivism vs prescriptivism in language study. It also offers the opportunity to discuss the fundamental relationship between speech and writing. The rest of the book is concerned with a standard variety of the language, but not one that is hypercorrect. For example, in the first exercises for this chapter it may be useful to indicate that a number of people hold very strong opinions about the undesirability of all the examples given there; however, the examples themselves show a whole range of acceptability in educated speech where items like (d), (g), (m), (n), and (s) are likely to occur frequently but (h), (v), and (z) not at all.

## Exercises

- 1 The following are the points of contention: (d) me/I; (e) one another/each other; (f) most unique/unique; (g) me/I; (h) nothing/anything; (i) those/that;



- (j) was/were; (k) their/his or her; (l) have/has; (m) only had it/had it only; (n) who . . . to/whom . . . to or to whom, (o) Rewrite to avoid the dangling *Finding* . . . ; (p) like/as; (q) than/from; (r) I/me; (s) and/to; (t) When boarding/When you board; (u) whom/who; (v) irregardless/regardless; (w) whom/who; (x) less/fewer; (y) badly/bad; (z) disinterested/uninterested.
- 2 Some common pronunciation variants, indicated here in a variety of ways: diphthong, diffthong; *tomato* with the vowel of *bad*, *baa*, or *bay*; *film*, *fil[ə]m*; *secretary*, *secretry*; *bath* with the vowel of *bad* or *baa*; *clerk* to rhyme with *work* or *dark*; *shone* to rhyme with *gone* or *bone*; *Arctic*, *Artic*; *comely* with the vowel of *home* or *come*; *often*, *offen*; *herb*, *erb*; *athlete*, *ath[ə]lete*; *ate* to rhyme with *get* or *gate*; *défence*, *defénce*; *dance* with the vowel of *bad* or *baa*; *butter*, *budder*; *soot* with the vowel of *boot*, *good*, or *but*; *news*, *nyews*.
- 3 We could not speak to each other in English if we did not somehow know the grammar of the language. However, it is unlikely that we can describe that grammar; that is what this book does, provide a description of part of it. For many people, however, knowing the grammar of English means knowing the traditional Latinate rules, many of which are rules of “good” linguistic behavior rather than rules that people follow in their actual use of the language.

## 2 Word Classes

Everybody knows something about nouns, verbs, etc. and about nouns being “naming words” and verbs being “action words.” So that is where the book really begins. We also begin with language in its written form.

The aim of this chapter is to introduce the idea that form and distribution rather than meaning are what we should look at when we try to classify words as parts of speech. Formal and distributional criteria often go hand in hand, so many words are unambiguously nouns, verbs, etc. Sometimes they conflict so we end up with classes, or sub-classes, like gerund and conjunctive adverb. The point in this chapter is not to find out how many parts of speech there are in English. Who knows? The point is to question the traditional definitions, e.g., the traditional “garbage can” class of adverbs, show that classification is interestingly problematic but still necessary, and demonstrate, mainly in the chapters that follow, that equating grammatical study almost entirely with the assignment of words to a part-of-speech category is a very unenlightened pursuit.

### Exercises

- 1 (b) *they* is a personal pronoun, *very* is an intensifier, *quickly* is an adverb, *ate* is a verb, *up* is a particle, *the* is a determiner, and *food* is a noun.

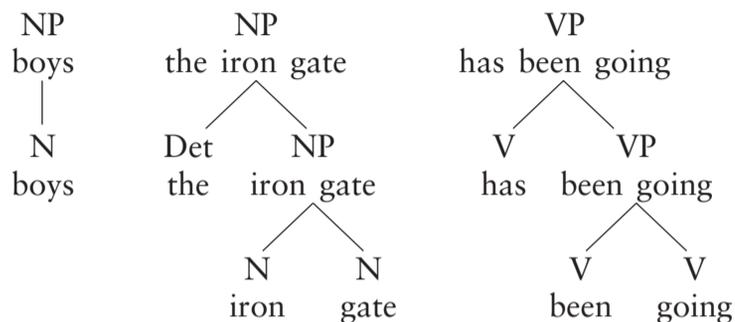
- (c) *what* is unique, *a* is a determiner, *horrible*, *old*, and *red* are adjectives, *decaying* is a verb, and *brick* is a noun.
- (d) The important point here is that while *sparks* and *bang* are “action” words and should by traditional definitions, be verbs, they are quite clearly nouns. They could be said to “name” actions, but their forms and distributions are surely the clearest guide here to what kind of word each is, not their “meanings.”
- (e) The possibility of parsing *brillig*, *slithy*, *wabe*, etc. arises from the forms they have and where these forms are found, i.e., their distributions. *Mome raths outgrabe*: possible noun noun verb; that is they are mome raths (like home bodies) and *outgrabe* is an irregular past tense (of *outgribe* perhaps?).
- 2 They are all formed like regular English plurals.
- 3 All are nouns though some more obviously so than others, e.g., *reds* and *females* with their plural marking and their occurrence after *these* and *two* respectively.
- 4 Noun: *brug* is like *trick* in its possibilities.
- 5 In (b), (c), and (d) *it* can be omitted and in each case appears to refer to a following phrase or clause. In (e) the first *it* refers to *that you did it for him* and the second *it* to something known to both the speaker and listener. In (f) and (g) we have the weather or time use of *it*.
- 6 A possible solution but well worth discussing is as follows: gerunds: boating, (first) laughing; nouns: wedding, surfing; adjectives: promising, enterprising, exciting; participle: (second) laughing; *prevailing* is clearly problematic.
- 7 *Ever* appears to function like no other word in the language; therefore, it could be said to be a unique part of speech. To describe it as an “adverb” is clearly to ignore all that is grammatically interesting about the word.
- 8 Some of the meaning relationships are not at all clear. The point to be made is that “possessive” is just one of numerous relationships expressed by means of either genitive.
- 9 The -s ending in (a) provides for subject-verb agreement in a statement, which can be either true or false. The absence of the -s ending in (b) makes for something other than a statement; (b) can be neither true nor false. The verb in (b) is an example of the so-called subjunctive in English.

### 3 Constituents and Phrases

The major focus of this chapter is on constructions and constituents, specifically on phrase-building. Clauses are built out of phrases of different kinds, each of which has a head word, which in some cases may indeed be the only constituent of that phrase. We must once again confront the issue that form and distribution do not always work hand in hand. One way of doing this is described on pages 47, 53, and 55 with the use of labels such as Adj(N),

PrepP(NP), etc. Instructors can choose either to ignore this idea or to develop it further.

In the approach outlined here we have constructions of the following kind:

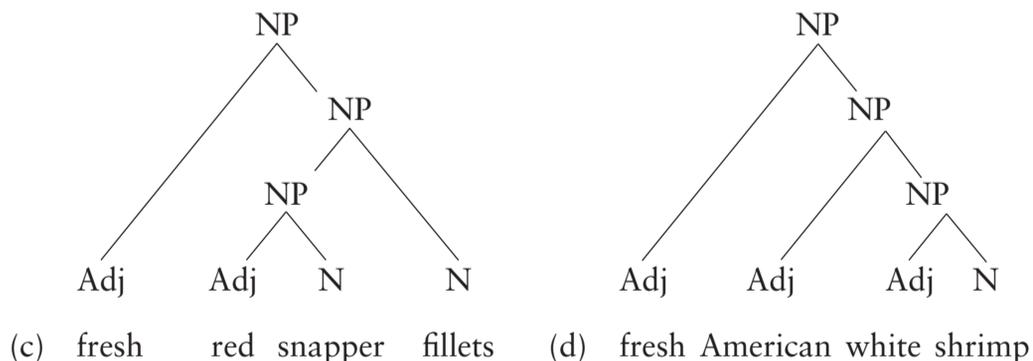


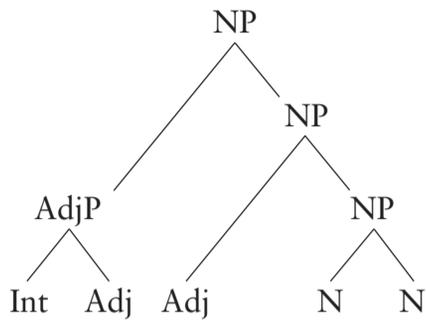
In such constructions NPs can be components of NPs and VPs can be components of VPs. Ns and Vs are also NPs and VPs. This kind of description is used in order to avoid the kinds of labels typical of Chomskyan X-bar syntax in which there are different levels of Ns, Vs, etc. Instructors who are familiar with X-bar theory may wish to introduce some of its ideas at this point (with all its complications and abstractions); others should be aware that the description offered in the text is designed to handle in as simple a way as possible an issue that may not be so simple after all.

A very important goal of this chapter is to familiarize students with the idea that it is possible to draw constituency trees for constructions of all kinds. Consequently, most of the exercises concentrate on developing this skill.

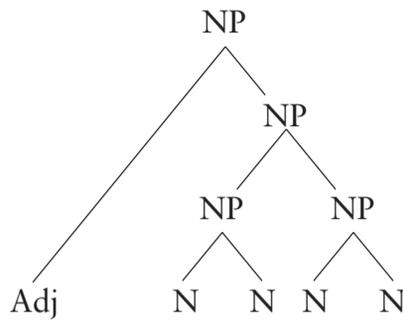
## Exercises

- (d) past may be+-ing come; (e) present be; (f) past do; (g) present have; (h) present/past must have+-en be+-en tell; (i) present have+-en see; (j) past go; (k) present have+-en be+-ing go; (l) past have+-en tell; (m) past can have+-en leave; (n) present be+-ing be+-en count; (o) past shall be+-ing write; (p) present/past must be; (q) past will; (r) past shall be; (s) present have+-en be+-en inform.
- The following trees provide labeled nodes only:

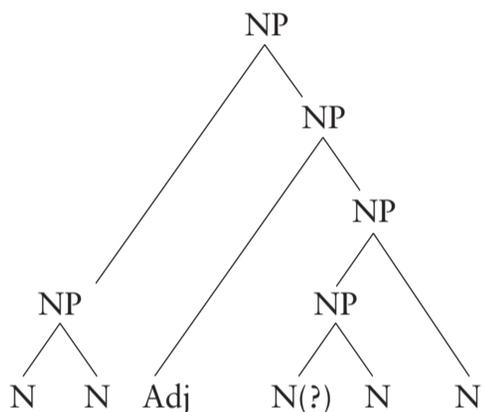




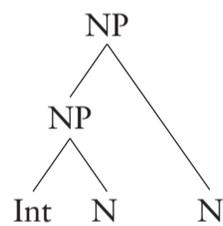
(e) extra lean fresh pork tenderloin



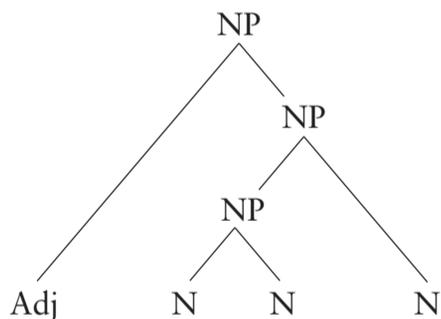
(f) fresh Ontario pork back spareribs



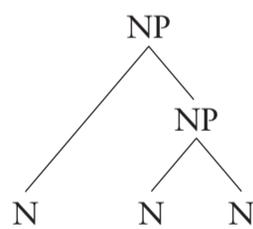
(g) BBQ time boneless top sirloin steak



(h) extra jumbo shrimps



(i) fresh Atlantic salmon fillets

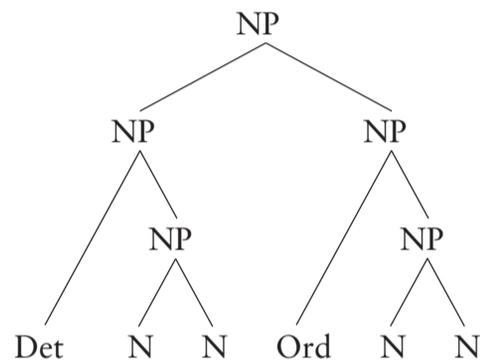


(j) baby tiger shrimps

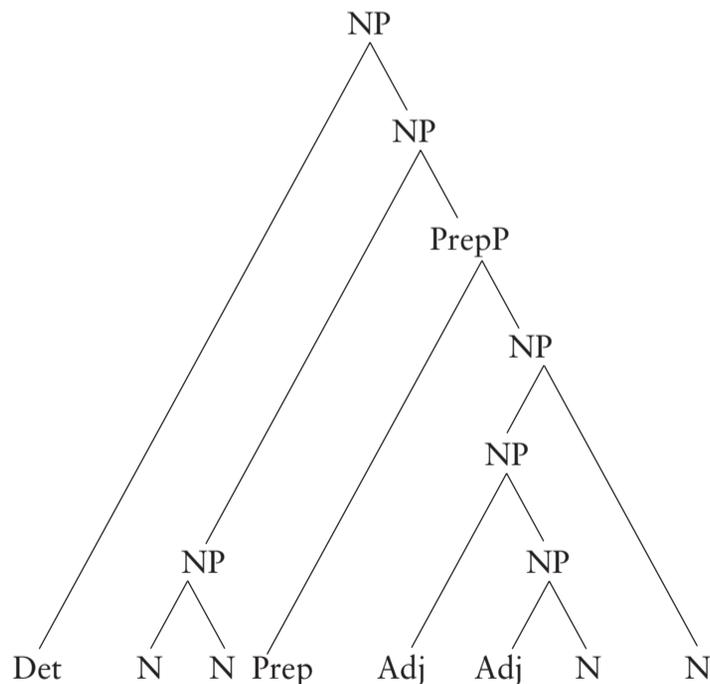
- 3 Some of the issues to be resolved are indicated: (c) *rambling* is an adjective – the house is not walking!; (d) in *ice-cold* *ice* modifies *cold* in an AdjP; (e) *Lucille Ball* and *America's first lady of comedy* are coordinated, i.e., appositive NPs; (f) one constituent; (g) there could be two constituents *seat the boys* and *at the back of the room* or *seat* could be in construction with *the boys at the back of the room*; (h) *rather sad* is an AdjP; (i) *long* is coordinated with *ultimately unsuccessful* in an AdjP; (j) *his friend's* is a constituent; (k) like (e); (l) *free* is in construction with *week of television*;

(m) *cool* is coordinated with *dry* in an AdjP; (n) *where they are standing* is in construction with *to* in a PrepP, but is itself rather hard to break down because of the discontinuity created by the position that *where* has; (o) *from*, a Prep, is in construction with *behind his back*, itself a PrepP; (p) the NP *the night* modifies the PrepP *before the battle*, the part of the whole construction that cannot be omitted here; (q) either *right up* and *into the attic* are separate constituents or they unite in a larger construction; (r) the NP *six feet* modifies the Adj *tall*; (s) the NP *ten foot* modifies the N *drop*; (t) the Adv *immediately* modifies the PrepP *after lunch*; (u) PrepP (NP); (v) *threw out* is a VP in which *out* is a particle, not an adverb; (w) *a bagel with cheese* is coordinated with *coffee* in an NP.

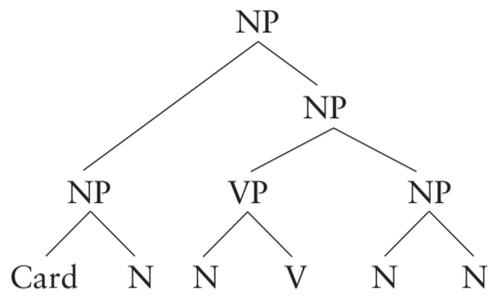
4



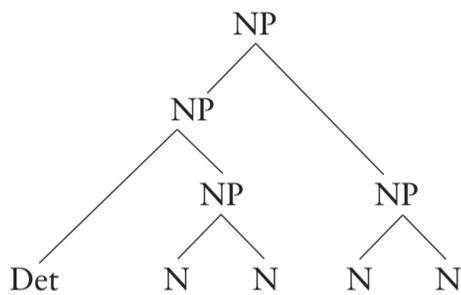
(b) your lawyer friend's first court appearance



(c) a fashion buyer for young contemporary women's wear

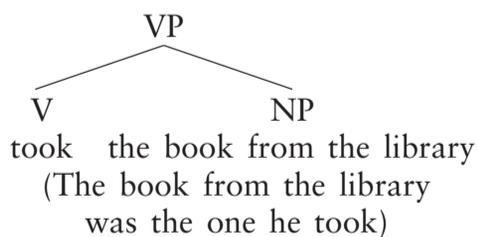
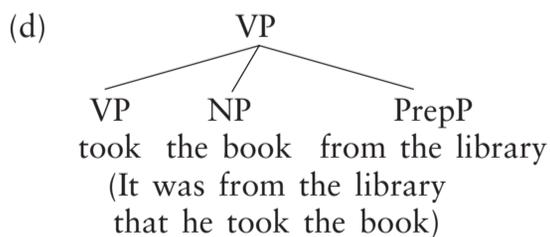
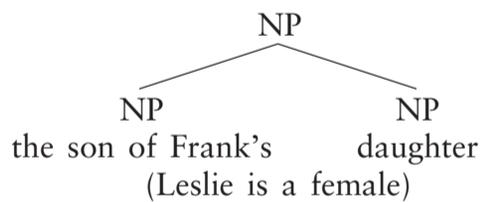
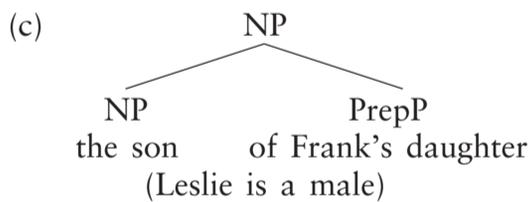
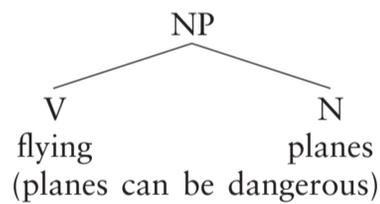
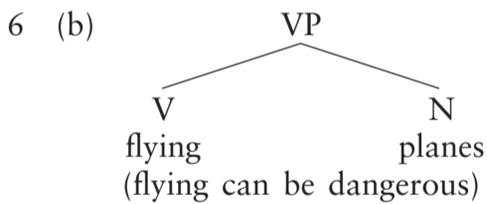


(d) two dozen fire hardened floor tiles



(e) my cousin Fred's restaurant business

5 (c) [about ten] is not, about [ten minutes]; (d) [inch nails] is not, [three inch] nails; (e) [give me] is not, [to give] me; (f) [friend's dogs] is not, [his friend's] dogs; (g) [her new] is not, her [new coat], [large leather] is not, large [leather buttons]; (h) [wife's cousin] is not, [my wife's] cousin.

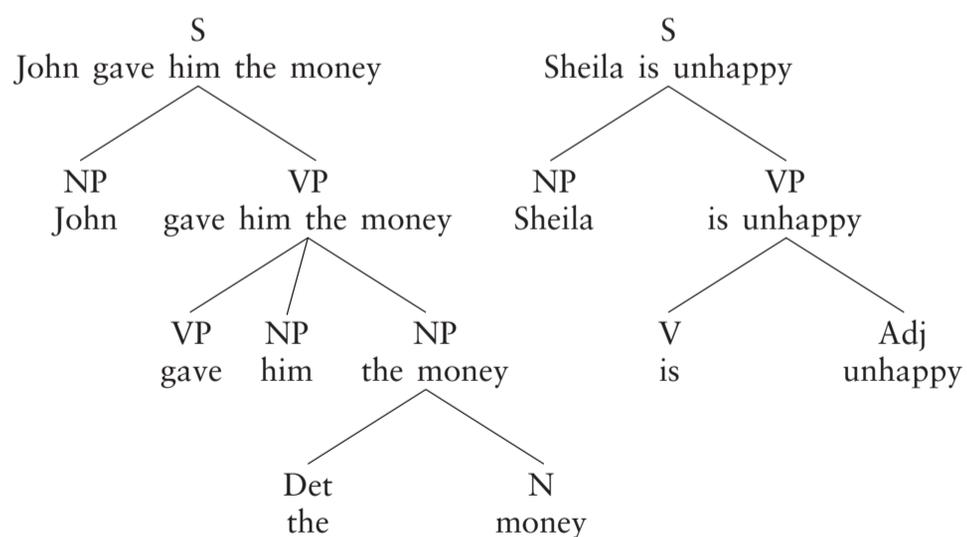


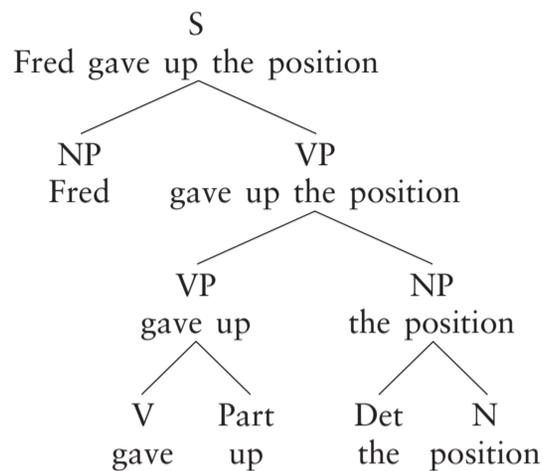
- 7 Try to distinguish between “factual” matters and matters of obligation, probability, necessity, etc.
- 8 These are dangling modifiers, so explicit subjects are needed throughout, e.g., (h) Angry at the accusation, she formed a plan in her mind.
- 9 There are too many prepositional phrases strung together, so it becomes somewhat unclear how they relate or do not relate to each other. Begin the sentence with *In his first article of a series*.

## 4 Basic Clauses

Understanding how clauses are constructed is a key issue in understanding how English works. The initial principle discussed shows how the verb, or predicate, may be regarded as the key element in a clause because of the various possible relationships that the nouns in the clause have to that verb. The linguistic literature contains numerous discussions of such role relationships, but the accounts differ widely. The account given here should be sufficient to instill the basic idea, and instructors who wish to do so can further develop it. The main thrust of the chapter, following a discussion of subjects and of subject-verb agreement, is on the different kinds of predicates that are possible in English clauses: without objects, with objects, and linking. The clauses dealt with in this chapter are also finite clauses. Non-finite clauses exhibit the same kinds of predicates, e.g., in *I want to tell him* the verb *to tell* (a marked infinitive) is transitive and in *Giving him the book, I congratulated him on his success* the verb *giving* (a present participle) is ditransitive.

The material in this chapter can easily be supplemented with the addition of constituency-tree diagramming:





## Exercises

- 1 The important point of this exercise is not that there should be unanimous agreement about the labels, but that students come to realize how varied are the roles played by nouns, or NPs, in English clauses. Why, for example, can you not coordinate *John struck the wall* and *The car struck the wall* to give *\*John and the car struck the wall*? The answer is that *John* and *the car* are in different role relationships to *strike* and the coordinate construction constraint disallows such coordination.
- 2 (c) nearness; (d) grammatical; (e) nearness; (f) nearness; (g) nearness.
- 3 (d) phrasal-prepositional; (e) phrasal transitive; (f) object complement; (g) linking; (h) monotransitive; (i) linking; (j) monotransitive; (k) intransitive; (l) object complement; (m) object complement; (n) monotransitive; (o) linking; (p) ditransitive; (q) phrasal-prepositional; (r) prepositional.
- 4 They are all different: (b) *\*He waited for a house and a taxi*; (c) *\*She appears every night and angry*; (d) ditransitive and object complement; (e) phrasal (*She looked the word up*) and intransitive; (f) pseudo-transitive and transitive; (g) linking (*hard* is an adjective) and intransitive.
- 5 (b) *her money* is either an indirect object plus direct object or a determiner and noun; (c) either *have wounded* is a verb phrase or *wounded men* is a noun phrase; (d) *bank* has two quite different meanings; (e) *rabbit* is either an agent or a patient; (f) *the wall in the house* is either one or two constructions; (g) *that he proposed* is either a relative clause and part of the NP *the idea that he proposed* (he proposed the idea) or it is itself an NP coordinate with *the idea* (Where did you get the idea that he had proposed to her?); (h) *a close friend* is either conjoined with *a loyal supporter* and both are in construction with *of the Prime Minister*, or *a close friend* is coordinated with *a loyal supporter of the Prime Minister* (who may not even know him); (i) *violent* is in construction with either *how* or *women*;



- (j) *the boy in the bus* is either one or two constructions; (k) *cheating students* is either a VP (in which someone cheats students) or an NP (in which students do the cheating); (l) *comment* is either an intransitive verb or a prepositional verb; (m) *harder* is either an adjective or an adverb; (n) *look* is either an intransitive verb or a prepositional verb.
- 6 (a) *found* is either a ditransitive verb or an object complement verb; (b) *found* is a ditransitive verb (She found a good wife for him); (c) *found* is an object complement verb (He was a good husband).
- 7 The construction employs one of a small set of frequently used verbs and turns an original intransitive verb into a noun following one of those verbs, e.g., *She looked at it* becomes *She took a look at it*. Note that a passive is possible but not at all likely, e.g., *A look was taken at it by her*.

## 5 Coordination and Embedding

This chapter expands the material of the previous chapter by showing how clauses can be conjoined and how one clause can be embedded within another clause. It deals with finite clauses and the concluding section explains the traditional views of a “simple” sentence, a “complex” sentence, and so on. Students can gain much from a mastery of this classification: they learn how to pick out clauses and relate the various clauses in sentences to each other.

### Exercises

- 1 (d) *who did it* is object noun; (e) *than we expected it to be* is adverb; (f) *when the party was over* is adverb; (g) *you went there* is restrictive relative; (h) *that he's brilliant* is restrictive noun; (i) *whose woods these are* is object noun; (j) *I'm looking for* is restrictive relative; (k) *which surprised all who knew him* is sentential relative, *who knew him* is restrictive relative; (l) *what she wrote* is subject noun; (m) *he's borrowed from you* is restrictive relative; (n) *he says* is restrictive relative; (o) *that you'll do it* is object noun; (p) *where we were going to spend our vacation* is object noun; (q) *where I'd been* is object noun; (r) *who is a fine pianist* is non-restrictive relative; (s) *we reached that night* is restrictive relative; (t) *when you please* is adverb; (u) *where Sally lives now* is non-restrictive relative; (v) *whose tail was caught* is restrictive relative; (w) *that John is worthy of such an honor* is non-restrictive noun; (x) *that occurred that day* is restrictive relative; (y) *that you spoke up about it* is adverb; (z) *that she already knew about it* is subject noun.



- 2 (e) *where she's always wanted to be* is adverb; (f) *he would do it* is object noun; (g) *that he's quite competent* is restrictive noun; (h) *what he is today* is object complement noun; (i) *what he's wearing today* is object noun; (j) *I was looking for* is restrictive relative; (k) *what your country can do for you* and *what you can do for your country* are object noun clauses; (l) *when it was all over* is adverb; (m) *who will be chosen next* is object noun; (n) *which never came to anything* is non-restrictive relative; (o) *which one was broken* is object noun; (p) *he's in* is restrictive relative; (q) *you bought at the sale* is restrictive relative; (r) *who hesitates* is restrictive relative; (s) *what I want to know* is subject noun and *why you did it* is subject complement noun; (t) *if you do that* is adverb; (u) *where I've just been* is adverb; (v) *where I've just been* is object noun; (w) *what mattered then* is subject complement noun; (x) *that you wrote* is restrictive relative; (y) *that you should believe such a thing* is extraposed noun.
- 3 (c) complex; (d) complex; (e) compound; (f) simple; (g) complex; (h) simple; (i) compound-complex; (j) complex; (k) compound; (l) complex; (m) complex; (n) simple.
- 4 No. In (a) *that he came* is a restrictive noun clause. In (b) *that he mentioned* is a restrictive relative clause. In (c) *that he mentioned that he came* is a restrictive noun clause containing within it *that he came*, which is an object noun clause.
- 5 The phrases following *left* cannot be coordinated: \**Sally left the house, this morning, and this painting*. Both *Sally left this painting this morning* and *Sally left the house this morning* are good, but both \**Sally left this morning this painting* and \**Sally left this morning the house* are bad. *Sally left the house* and *Sally left this painting* are also both good and have possible passives; however, *leave* must have the sense of "bequeath" and *house* and *painting* must be patients. If *house* is a location, i.e., a place Sally moved away from rather than an object she left someone in a will, then \**The house was left by Sally* is not possible.
- 6 In one reading *John believed Mary* is coordinated with *Fred trusted Sally* and in the other reading *Mary and Fred trusted Sally* is an object noun clause, being what John believed.

## 6 Clausal Variation

This chapter introduces descriptions of some of the basic clauses and variations that we will focus on in the chapters that follow, in which a transformational framework is employed. Here it is the essential structural characteristics of such structures as passives and yes-no questions that is our concern. It is important to emphasize such matters as inversion, the use of *do* in a support role, and the placement of interrogative words, i.e., *wh*-words, in questions.



## Exercises

- 1 (b) Did John and his brother take it? John and his brother took it, didn't they? (c) Did the story she told turn out to be true? The story she told turned out to be true, didn't it? (d) Does yellow go with green? Yellow goes with green, doesn't it? (e) Did they buy new shoes for their children? They bought new shoes for their children, didn't they? (f) Hasn't John any money with him? John hasn't any money with him, has he? (Note that in some varieties of English the original sentence would have to be that given in (g), i.e. *John doesn't have any money with him*; the two answers would then be *Doesn't John have any money with him?* and *John doesn't have any money with him, does he?*) (h) Should he be told about it? He should be told about it, shouldn't he?
- 2 (b) Sally was given the brush by Peter. (Note that *The brush was given to Sally by Peter* is the passive of *Peter gave the brush to Sally*.) (c) A house was being built for him by government workers. (d) His bed was being made up for him by a maid. (e) I was taken to the movies by Sally and her friend. (f) They were provided with the necessary clothing by the agency. (g) The port they needed to supply themselves was captured by the invading army.
- 3 (b) Which school did Sally go to last year? (c) Where is he going for his holidays this year? (d) Which book did you borrow last week? (e) How big was the fish you caught yesterday? (f) Which instrument does he play quite well? (g) How much can you lend me? (h) Why did he do it?
- 4 The problem has to do with indefinite pronouns, or quantifiers, like *none*, *everyone*, etc. In (b) through (e) *they* is the tag for such a pronoun and, as we can see from (e), the verb in the tag is the form that occurs with a plural subject pronoun. In (a) with *none* followed by *of us* the tag is *we*. (*None of you can go* would be tagged *can you?*) The positive-negative polarity change holds for all the examples with the first three tags positive and the final two negative. However, the polarity resides in the sense of the initial clause rather than in the actual negation of the verb in that clause. For example, it is the negatives *none*, *not everyone*, and *nobody* which produce the negative polarity of the first three clauses. If we had *Everyone knows that*, the tag would also have *do*, show polarity change, and almost certainly contain *they* to give us *Everyone knows that, don't they?*

## 7 Underlying Relationships

This chapter presents much of the material of the previous chapters within a different framework, one derived from Chomsky's work. It uses the idea that sentences are generated from a finite set of rules, base rules and transformational



rules. The base rules are able to generate an infinite set of d(eep) structures which the transformational rules then convert into s(urface) structures.

It is possible to create constituency-tree diagrams for all the structures described in this chapter (and in the chapters that follow) and it may be desirable to do so for some examples. However, the problems inherent in such a task can be quite formidable because of the complex theoretical issues that must be confronted. Some students may want to pursue such matters but their desires should be met with a degree of caution and only by an instructor who is thoroughly familiar with this kind of linguistic analysis. (Sentence diagramming can also too easily become an end in itself with the wood becoming lost sight of because of the trees!) For the vast majority of students it will be the basic ideas that are important, the ideas of sentence generation, of transformation, and of rule application, all applying to structures that can be mapped as was done in previous chapters. (Note that the  $\Delta$  introduced on page 157 is a particularly useful device in that it allows unimportant structural matters to be disregarded.)

The passive transformation is here formulated specifically to keep the d(eep) subject in subject position. It does require two movements in many cases, of that subject into the *by* phrase and of the direct object into the vacant subject position to create a new subject. However, for the reasons stated on page 149 that solution is preferred. The alternative solution mentioned there requires writing a very different kind of grammar.

## Exercises

In these sets of answers, which provide the initial d(eep) structure for each example, the transformations are abbreviated as follows: af for affix hopping, do for *do* support, imp for imperative, pass for passive, qu for question, rel for relative, wh- for *wh*-movement; (2) means that there are two applications of this transformation; (3) that there are three. The transformations are best applied in the order that is given. Embedded clauses should also be attended to before matrix clauses. Each sentence should be laid out as on pages 161–2 of the text so that the result of the application of each transformation can be seen.

- 1 (b) he pres have -en be -ing go (af)
- (c) she pres like the car (af)
- (d) she pres will buy a new car (af)
- (e) she pres have a good job (af)
- (g) question she pres have a good job (qu, af)
- (h) [ ] pres have -en be -en make the decision by [ ] (pass, af)
- (i) a stranger past be -en approach her by [ ] in the park (pass, af)
- (j) [ ] past be -en recapture him by [ ] last week (pass, af)



- (k) imp you pres will stand up (imp)  
(l) [ ] past be -en steal it by [ ] (pass, af)  
(m) [ ] past be -en send Bill away by [ ] (pass, af)  
(n) [ ] past be -en elect Sally treasurer by [ ] at the meeting (pass, af)  
(o) [ ] pres have -en be -en dismiss John by [ ] (pass, af)  
(p) question Bill and Tom pres be -ing come tonight (qu, af)
- 2 (b) the girl past be -en take the cake by [ ] (pass, af)  
(c) the girl past take the cake and the books (af)  
(d) the girl past be -en take the cake and the books by [ ] (pass, af)  
(f) Sally and George past take the cake (af)  
(g) Sally and George past be -en take the cake by [ ] (pass, af)  
(h) John pres be -ing be -en eat the grapes by [ ] (pass, af)  
(i) question [ ] past be -en tell her about it by [ ] (pass, qu, af)  
(j) Mary past send a letter to Bill (af)  
(k) [ ] past be -en send a letter to Bill by [ ] (pass, af)  
(l) the boy with red hair past take it (af)  
(m) the boy with red hair past be -en take it by [ ] (pass, af)
- 3 (b) the car<sup>1</sup> [that he past buy the car<sup>1</sup>] pres be a lemon (rel, af(2))  
(c) the employee<sup>1</sup> [that [ ] past be -en dismiss the employee<sup>1</sup>] by [ ] past sue the firm (pass, rel, af(2))  
(d) the dog<sup>1</sup> [that the dog<sup>1</sup> past bite me] pres be usually friendly (rel, af(2))  
(f) the place<sup>1</sup> [that they pres be -ing go to the place<sup>1</sup>] pres be cold in winter (rel, af(2))  
(g) the boy at the back<sup>1</sup> [that the boy at the back<sup>1</sup> past speak up] pres be correct (rel, af(2))  
(h) Smith<sup>1</sup> [that Smith<sup>1</sup> pres be a friend of mine] pres be correct (rel, af(2))  
(i) the boy at the back<sup>1</sup> [that the boy at the back<sup>1</sup> past speak up and the boy at the back<sup>1</sup> pres be a friend of mine] pres be correct (rel(2), af(3)). In this example both instances of *who* refer to *the boy at the back*.  
(j) the boy at the back<sup>1</sup> [that the boy at the back<sup>1</sup> past speak up]<sup>2</sup> [[that the boy at the back<sup>1</sup> [that the boy at the back<sup>1</sup> past speak up]]<sup>2</sup> pres be a friend of mine] pres be correct (rel(2), af(3)). In this example the first *who* refers to *the boy at the back* and the second *who* refers to *the boy at the back who spoke up*.  
(k) she pres be the teacher<sup>1</sup> [that I past attend the teacher<sup>1</sup>'s classes last year] (rel, af(2))  
(l) the dress<sup>1</sup> [that [ ] past have -en be -en weave specially the material of the dress<sup>1</sup> by [ ]] past cause a sensation (pass, rel, af(2))  
(m) question [ ] past be -en evacuate the soldiers<sup>1</sup> [that [ ] past be -en wound the soldiers<sup>1</sup> by [ ]] quickly by [ ] (pass(2), rel, af(2))
- 4 (b) question they pres be -ing go where (qu, wh-, af)  
(c) question who past say that (qu, wh-, af)  
(d) he pres be -ing go where (af)  
(e) question he pres be -ing go where (qu, wh-, af)



- (g) he pres want to do what (af)
- (h) question these pres be whose shoes (qu, wh-, af)
- (i) question they past advance along which road (qu, wh-, do, af)
- (j) she pres want to know [question they pres be -ing go] (qu, af(2))
- (k) she pres want to know [question they pres be -ing go where] (qu, wh-, af(2))
- (l) he past give it to the man<sup>1</sup> [that the man<sup>1</sup> past take what] (rel, af(2))
- (m) he past left [when John past say what] (af(2))
- (n) question he past say what [when John past drink the wine] (qu, wh-, do, af(2))
- (o) he past say [that I past know whom] (af(2))
- (p) question he past say [I past know whom] (qu, wh-, do, af(2))
- (q) question what past be -ing happen at the time (qu, wh-, af)
- (r) question you pres can do what about it (qu, wh-, af)
- (s) he past ask [question I past do for a living] (qu, wh-, af(2))
- (t) question you pres do what for a living (qu, wh-, do, af)
- (u) question [ ] past be -en give John all the help<sup>1</sup> [that he past need the help<sup>1</sup>] by [ ] (rel, pass, qu, af(2))
- (v) question [ ] past be -en recapture them where by [ ] (pass, qu, wh-, af)
- (w) he past ask [question his laundry-past be ready] (qu, af(2))

(Note that in (c), (q), and (r) the *wh-* movement undoes the effects of the inversion of the question transformation. In (i) the *wh-* movement moves all of *along which road*.)

## 8 Rules and Principles

This chapter further develops the material of the previous chapter as it moves into more complex structures. However, the basic principle is unchanged: each sentence has a d(eep) structure that requires the application of certain transformations in order to produce a s(urface) structure. In some cases, e.g., reflexives and equi deletion, some indication is given of a possible alternative treatment through the government-binding approach. An instructor can downplay that alternative or exploit it if (s)he wishes.

### Exercises

In these sets of answers the transformations are abbreviated as follows: af for affix, dm for dative movement, do for *do* support, equi for equi deletion, extra for extrapositioning, f-to for *for to* complementation, imp for imperative, it

for *it* insertion, neg for negative, pass for passive, pro for pronominalization, qu for question, raise for raising, refl for reflexive, rel for relative, there for *there* insertion, and wh- for *wh*- movement.

- 1 (d) question negation they past can tell the answer to him (neg, dm, qu, af)
- (e) imp you<sup>1</sup> pres will please you<sup>1</sup> (imp, refl)
- (f) she<sup>1</sup> past hurt she<sup>1</sup> [when she past fall] (refl, af (2))
- (g) she<sup>1</sup> pres talk to she<sup>2</sup> every day (af)
- (h) she<sup>1</sup> pres talk to she<sup>1</sup> every day (refl, af)
- (i) negation he past will give the book<sup>1</sup> [that I past want the book<sup>1</sup>] to me (rel, neg, dm, af)
- (j) imp negation you<sup>1</sup> pres will hurt you<sup>1</sup> (refl, neg, imp, do)
- (k) the shed [[ ] past be -en store it in the shed by [ ]] past burn down (pass, rel, af(2))
- (l) a man pres be at the door (there, af)
- (m) a pen pres/past must be around here somewhere (there, af)
- (n) he<sup>1</sup> pres like [for he<sup>1</sup> to party] (f-to, equi, af)
- (o) I pres consider [for you to be a friend] (f-to, af)
- (p) I past believe [for Mary to be innocent] (f-to, af)
- (q) I<sup>1</sup> pres want [for I<sup>1</sup> to go] (f-to, equi, af)
- (r) I pres want [for he to go] (f-to, af)
- (s) he<sup>1</sup> pres wants [for he<sup>2</sup> to go] (f-to, af)
- (t) I<sup>1</sup> pres be happy [for I<sup>1</sup> to oblige] (f-to, equi, af)
- (u) negation some time pres be for it (neg, there, af)
- (v) they<sup>1</sup> pres be anxious [for they<sup>1</sup> to help they<sup>2</sup>] (f-to, equi, af)
- (w) they<sup>1</sup> pres be anxious [for they<sup>1</sup> to help they<sup>1</sup>] (refl, f-to, equi, af)
- 2 (d) [ ] pres be certain [for he to please them] (f-to, raise, af)
- (e) [ ] pres be difficult [for [ ] to please him] (f-to, raise, af)
- (f) he<sup>1</sup> pres be eager [for he<sup>1</sup> to please] (f-to, equi, af)
- (g) [ ] pres appear [for no reason to be for it] (there, f-to, raise, af)
- (h) I pres think [that negation he pres will do it] (raise, neg, do, af(2))
- (i) [ ] past be -en agree [that John past will do it] by [ ] (pass, extra, af(2))
- (j) [ ] pres seem [that he pres be ready for it] (it, af(2))
- (k) [ ] pres seem [for negation he to be ready for it] (f-to, raise(2), neg, do, af)
- (l) [ ] pres seem [for John to like Mary] (f-to, raise, af)
- (m) [ ] pres seem [that John pres like Mary] (it, af(2))
- (n) I pres believe [for [that it pres will fail] to be inevitable] (f-to, extra, af(2))
- (o) they<sup>1</sup> past consider [for [they<sup>1</sup> to press on] to be foolish] (f-to, equi, extra, af)
- (p) he<sup>1</sup> past consider [for [he<sup>1</sup> to quit] to be wise] (f-to, equi, extra, af)
- (q) John past imagine [for he to be -ing kiss Sally] (f-to, af(2))

- (r) John<sup>1</sup> past imagine [for John<sup>1</sup> to be -ing kiss Sally] (f-to, refl, af(2))
- (s) John past imagine [for he<sup>1</sup> to be -ing kiss he<sup>1</sup>] (refl, f-to, af(2))
- (t) John past imagine [for John<sup>1</sup> to be -ing kiss John<sup>1</sup>] (refl, f-to, refl, af(2))
- (u) [ ] pres be too crazy [for [ ] to live with John] (f-to, raise, af)
- (v) Fred<sup>1</sup> pres need someone<sup>2</sup> [for Fred<sup>1</sup> to work for someone<sup>2</sup>] (f-to, equi(2), af)
- (w) Fred<sup>1</sup> pres need someone<sup>2</sup> [for someone<sup>2</sup> to work for Fred<sup>1</sup>] (f-to, equi, pro, af)
- (x) [[[for pigs to fly] pres be impossible] pres be clear] (extra(2), af(2))
- (y) question John past think [that Fred past believe [that I past have won which prize]] (qu, wh-, do, af(3))
- (z) This is a very complicated sentence but it is possible to come up with a possible d(eep) structure and work systematically to the s(urface) structure.

question past you hear [that [ ] pres be -en rumor [that [ ] pres be -en allege [for [ ] to have -en be -en see I<sup>1</sup> [for I<sup>1</sup> to be -ing go into what hotel] by [ ]] by [ ]] by [ ]]

The final three by phrases are for the three passives, and there are no subjects for the verbs *rumor*, *allege*, and *see*, which are the verbs that are in the passive. The transformational process requires f-to and equi (the two instances of *I*), three instances of passive, extraposition to produce the *it*, question, *wh*-movement, *do* support, and considerable affix hopping. It does work and it is worth the effort to work it all out. This sentence also comes from a well-known American humorist; it was not made up for this book!

- 3 (a) [for the firm to rehire the complainant]; (b) [for [ ] to be -en rehire the complainant by [ ]]; (c) [for the complainant to reapply for the position]
- 4 (a) question he past say [question who past do it]  
question he past say [who past do it]  
The first sentence contains an embedded question, but the second sentence does not.
- (b) he<sup>1</sup> pres want a song<sup>2</sup> [for he<sup>1</sup> to sing a song<sup>2</sup>]  
he<sup>1</sup> pres want [for he<sup>1</sup> to sing a song]
- (c) question who pres have -en see your friend  
question your friend pres have -en see who
- 5 Use the following d(eep) structures and transformations such as equi, pronominalization, and reflexive to derive the surface forms.
  - (a) I<sup>1</sup> past want [for I<sup>1</sup> to shave I<sup>1</sup>]
  - (b) I past want [ for he<sup>1</sup> to shave he<sup>1</sup>]
  - (c) I<sup>1</sup> past want [for he to shave I<sup>1</sup>]
  - (d) I<sup>1</sup> past want [for I<sup>1</sup> to shave he]
  - (e) I past want [for [ ] to be -en shave he by [ ]]
  - (f) I<sup>1</sup> past want [for [ ] to be -en shave I<sup>1</sup> by [ ]]



## 9 Sounds and Systems

This chapter presents a “traditional” phonemic analysis of the sounds of English for a rhotic dialect. (The treatment of vowels in non-rhotic dialects is not at all easy. In the chapter that follows they are in effect treated as variants of rhotic dialects, a treatment that some theoreticians may decry but one that has considerable pedagogical merit.) Minimal pairs and the principle of contrast are therefore important. However, not everyone pronounces certain words in the same way, so particular choices given here may not apply in certain cases. For example, some speakers of English do not distinguish the vowels of *cot* and *caught*, others may have considerable neutralization of vowels before *r*, and others may have /ɪ/ in many unstressed vowels rather than /ə/. Any differences that are noted should be used to reinforce the understanding that variety does indeed exist in the way we use the language and that on the whole it is to be welcomed as showing language to be a living thing and not something hidebound by arbitrary rules and decrees.

### Exercises

Answers are provided for the first exercise but not for the second and third where the interest is in the variation that we can find in the language. This variation may also be an issue in the first exercise. The pronunciations given for the examples in the exercise exist in one variety of English; other pronunciations exist for some of the words.

- 1 /jɒkt/, /dələd/, /pʰæʃənət/, /pʰɔːlɪŋ/, /rəpʰeɪʃəs/, /plɛzənt/, /lɪmɪtləs/, /ətámæk/, /bárgənɪŋ/, /ɪlnəs/, /əprɛntəʃɪp/, /grɪdɪ/, /dələʃ/, /pɪs/, /jɔːsɪz/, /təmɛtoz/, /táksək/, /prɛzəns/, /wʊlən/, /əlaʊəns/, /lɔːpənd/, /ákypaɪd/, /frɛdɪ/, /pɪ stɔks/, /əraʊzd/, /tɪtʃər/, /pɪs tɔks/, /wʊmən/, /kəmóʃən/, /tɪðd/, /stɪpəlz/, /snæçt/, /sɪʒər/, /ɪnstɪŋktəv/, /bɔːndəl/, /lɛsən/, /fɪtʃər/, /wɪmən/, /sɛtəl/, /lɛsən/, /frɪkətəvz/, /wʊlvz/, /tɛnθ/, /tʃózən/, /rɪpəld/, /ekt/, /kənú/, /sələkʃənəl/, /sɛptər/, /kənstrénd/, /ɛmfəsaɪzd/, /sɪŋər/, /ɪnəsənt/, /rɪəlɪzəm/, /jɔsəfɪn/, /fɪŋgər/, /prɛzədənt/, /trɪŋkət/, /gɔːrgəlz/, /prɛsədənt/, /əprɔr/, /dákliŋ/, /fɪksçər/, /búlət/, /sɪmpəθi/, /rɪáɪlɪti/, /fækʃənəl/, /vərbɪs/, /rɛpədli/, /bákwərdz/, /æstrənáməkəl/, /trɪzənəs/, /fɪŋgərd/, /bəláŋgd/
- 4 /dáiəl/, /nían/, /məriəl/, or /məráiəl/, /flúəd/, /rúən/, /báiəs/, /súəsəɪd/, /póəm/, /póətri/, /nóəl/, /krúəl/, /wíərd/
- 5 *dens/dense* is voiced–voiceless, *wren/Len* is retroflex–lateral, *pin/bin* is voiced–voiceless, *peel/pool* is frontness–backness, *batter/backer* is alveolar–velar, *sin/sing* is alveolar–velar, and *me/may* is high–mid.
- 9 These spellings are correct.



## 10 Phonetic Realization

The first part of this chapter deals with the major allophones of English within the traditional phonemic analysis that was presented in the previous chapter. The second part of the chapter discusses a number of issues related to regional and social pronunciation variants. Just as speakers differ in their phonemic choices so they differ in their allophonic choices; that is why we have different accents but speak the same language.

### Exercises

The second exercise should be done just like the first exercise for which answers are provided. The answers may vary according to the variety of the language that is spoken.

- 1 /livz/ [li·vz], /gəlf/ [gʌlf], /yɛlp/ [yɛtp̚] or [ɛtp̚], /mɪsəlto/ ['mɪs|to], /ɛmfætək/ [ɛm'færək], /bɛti/ ['bɛri], /slo/ [slo:], /fæsən/ [fæsən], /slɪp/ [slɪp̚], /tɪm/ [t̚ɪ·m], /kɪst/ [k̚ɪst̚], /krɪmi/ ['k̚rɪmi], /fli/ [fli:], /most/ [most̚], /sparkəl/ [sparkl̚], /θɪrld/ [θ̚rɪld̚], /hɪst/ [hɪst̚], /kæst/ [k̚æst̚], /splæšt/ [spl̚æšt̚], /rɪpəl/ [rɪpl̚], /pɛnd/ [p̚ɛnd̚], /jus/ [jus], /krækəld/ [k̚rækld̚], /kɒlz/ [k̚ɒlz], /wókən/ [wɒkən] or [ʊɒkən], /ɪŋkt/ [ɪŋkt̚], /θæčəz/ ['θæčəz], /snæp/ [snæp̚], /prɪti/ ['p̚rɪti]
- 3 All the differences are phonemic except for those in *bad–man*, *face–phase*, *lose–loose*, *bed–Ben*, *play–plate*, and *plain–plaint* where the differences are allophonic.
- 5 In these words *igh* is a low central front-rising diphthong, *tt* is a flap, *oa* is a mid back round tense vowel, *en* is a syllabic nasal, *c* is a voiceless aspirated velar stop, *t* is a voiceless aspirated alveolar stop, *s* is a voiced alveolar fricative, *l* is a light voiced lateral, *a* is a low front unround vowel, *ai* is a mid front unround tense vowel, *r* is a voiceless retroflex, *r* is a voiced retroflex, *ch* is a voiceless palatal affricate, and *n* is a voiceless alveolar nasal.

## 11 Word Formation

This chapter introduces the basic concepts of English morphology and returns to some of the issues dealt with in chapter 2. It approaches them this time with the knowledge of phonology acquired in chapter 9. We may expect some disagreement about certain morphological matters because not everyone agrees about certain analyses or even methods of analysis, particularly when morphology shades into etymology. A person with an extensive knowledge of



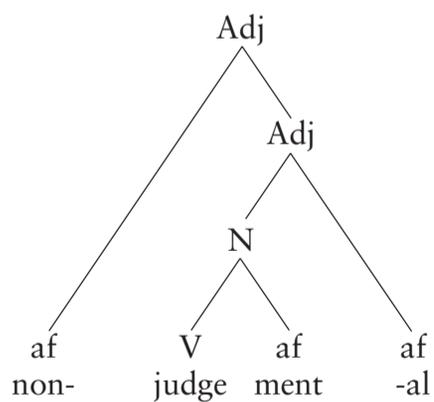
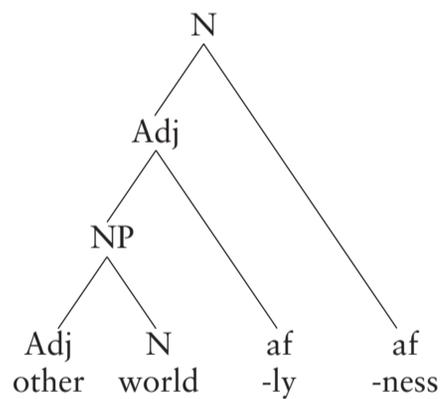
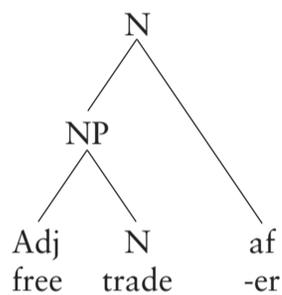
languages such as Latin, Greek, and French, the source languages for a considerable part of our English vocabulary, may indeed have a very different morphology for the language than a “naive” native speaker.

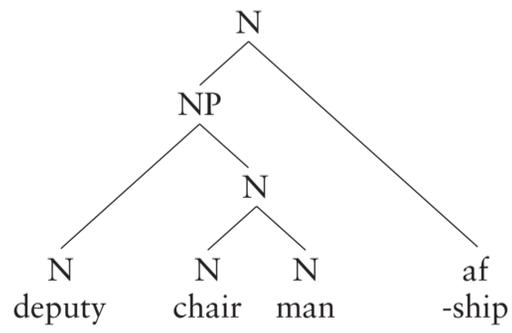
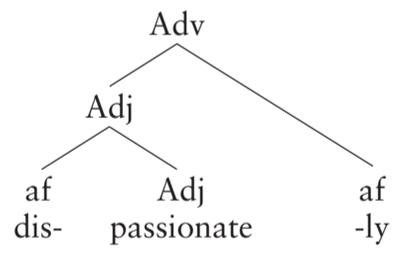
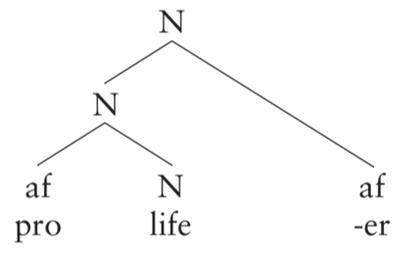
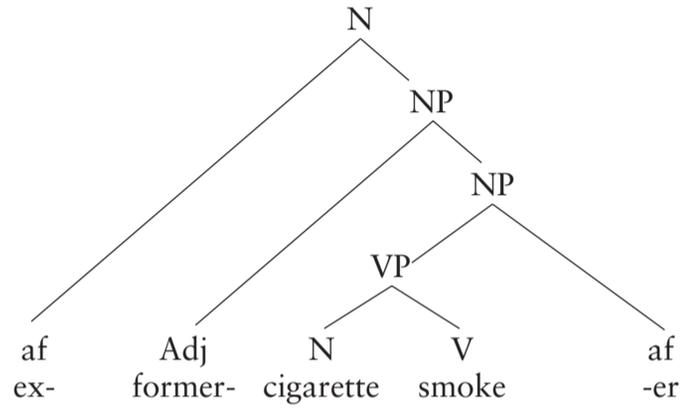
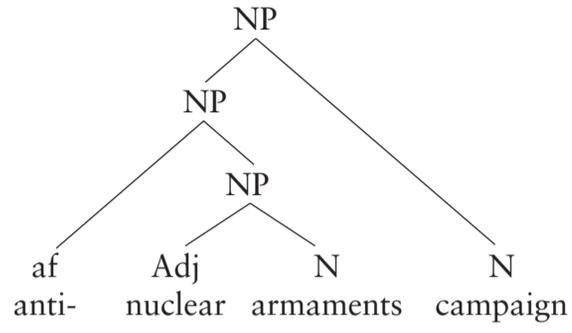
## Exercises

- 1 *case* and *race* are homonyms; *range*, *free*, *rare*, and *light* are almost certainly polysemous.
- 2 feet /i/ replaces /ʊ/; children /ɪ/ replaces /aɪ/ and /-rən/ is suffixed; deer zero; data /ə/ replaces /əm/; theses /i/ replaces /ə/; wives /v/ replaces /f/ and the regular /-z/ is suffixed.
- 3 both put zero; went suppletion to /wɛnt/, and gone /a/ replaces /o/ and /-n/ is suffixed; broke /o/ replaces /e/, and broken /o/ replaces /e/ and /-ən/ is suffixed; got /a/ replaces /ɛ/, and gotten /a/ replaces /ɛ/ and /-ən/ is suffixed; both read /ɛ/ replaces /i/; drove /o/ replaces /aɪ/, and driven /ɪ/ replaces /aɪ/ and /-ən/ is suffixed; suppletion to was and were /wɔz/ or /wɒz/ and /wɔr/, and been /ɪ/ replaces /i/ and /-n/ is suffixed; both sold /o/ replaces /ɛ/ and /-d/ is suffixed; both sought /ɔt/ replaces /ɪk/; both spent /d/ replaces /t/; both kept /ɛ/ replaces /i/ and /-t/ is suffixed; took /ʊ/ replaces /e/, and taken /-ən/ is suffixed; began /æ/ replaces /ɪ/, and begun /ə/ replaces /ɪ/; sank /æ/ replaces /ɪ/, and sunk /ə/ replaces /ɪ/; did /ɪd/ replaces /u/, and done /ən/ replaces /u/; bit /ɪ/ replaces /aɪ/, and bitten /ɪ/ replaces /aɪ/ and /-ən/ is suffixed; lay /e/ replaces /aɪ/, and lain /e/ replaces /aɪ/ and /-n/ is suffixed; saw /ɔ/ replaces /i/, and seen /-n/ is suffixed; wove /o/ replaces /i/, and woven /o/ replaces /i/ and /-ən/ is suffixed.
- 4 In a traditional analysis you expect to find other instances of each morpheme, i.e., other instances of the *-ter* of *laughter*, the *luke-* of *lukewarm*, etc. The example of *cranberry* points to one solution if you do not find any other such instances, the postulation of a unique “cranberry” morpheme, i.e., to say that *cran-* is a separate morpheme in *cranberry* because a cranberry is a “cran” kind of berry. But how many such cranberry-type morphemes should we postulate? Particular problems are also posed here by folk etymologies such as a possible *bell* in *belfry* and the possible *musk* and *rat* in *muskrat*.
- 5 There are existing words like *wisdom*, *savagery*, *strength*, *severity*, *cyclist*, *typist*, *rapist*, *thief*, and *shop assistant*. They mean what these words would mean so we do not need these words. However, the meaning of each of these words is quite transparent.
- 6 the comparative *-er*: bigger, friendlier  
the agent *-er*: baker, diner, worker, player, painter  
the product(?) *-er*: trailer, slipper, planter, rubber  
the unique *-er* of widower  
no *-er* at all in brother, order, and cylinder

- 7 There are four possible different negative prefixes here: *un-*, *non-*, *in-* (with variants), and *dis-*. They attach to forms which vary in their interpretability in isolation, from *-ept* (the isolated form seems to be *apt*) and *-scrutable* to *-sipid*, *-plussed*, and *-trepid*. What would it be to be sipid, plussed, and trepid?
- 9 Note the various vowel changes and reductions, and the stress shifts, e.g., /ælkəhal/ but /ælkəhálək/ and /kətəstrəfi/ but /kətəstráfək/.
- 10 These compounds have equal parts; no one part can be said to be a head.
- 11 The issue here has to do with the second part of each of these words. Does that second part behave like a derivational affix or like the second part of a compound? Compare *gentleman* /jéntəlmən/ with *Batman* /bætəmən/.

12







## 12 Words and Sounds

There are different views of how the English system of stress works, and the issues involved are really much too complicated for a beginning book on English. Here two views are presented: the “traditional” view that English has four stresses (with one of these actually being lack of stress) and another view that stress is assigned to words and phrases through a set of rules. Either of these views can be developed. They cannot both be correct, but that observation can be used as a good teaching point.

The second issue dealt with in the chapter is the various alternations that we find in words that are obviously related. This observation can be used to pull together some of the ideas found in chapters 9 and 11 in order to show that just as there was a d(eep) level of syntax there may also be a d(eep) level of phonology, i.e., a morphophonology. An instructor may wish to develop this idea further.

### Exercises

- 1 The first example in the text is based on a pronunciation in which *Mental Health* serves as a modifier of *Awareness* but *Mental Health Awareness* and *Week* are compounded much like *Business Week*, the name of a publication. The week of course is national in scope so *National* here modifies all of *Mental Health Awareness Week*. A similar approach is indicated for the remaining examples. What is a spaceship center maintenance coordinator? Someone who coordinates maintenance for a spaceship center. So we have a committee of the Research Council for the Social Sciences, literatures written in African languages, and someone who takes tickets at a railroad station. The stress assignments and reductions would work according to these meanings.
- 2 English nouns of two-syllable duration are typically stressed on the first syllable. Such first syllable pronunciations are sometimes found on these words with accompanying changes in the vowels, e.g., /dítɹɔɪt/ rather than /dətrɔɪt/. *Cement* is sometimes therefore pronounced just like *semen* in those dialects which exhibit both this stress shift and the reduction of certain final clusters ending in stops.
- 3 It may be interesting to try to find out how many of these words are native English words and how many are of foreign origin. Most should be of foreign origin.
- 4 There are good examples here of many of the phonological relationships discussed earlier in the chapter. However, trying to specify a single underlying form for the similar parts in *bone* and *bonfire*, and *throat* and *throttle*, for example, together with the conditions that bring about the



variation would lead to an inordinately complex phonological analysis for the language, one that also seems to be counter-intuitive.

- 5 [gōs], [bɛd], [rīd], [drɪŋk], [nām], [stɔ̃n], [hɛlp], [sʊn], [fʊl], [fæst].

### 13 Sounds in Context

The syllable as an organizational unit is the focus of the first part of this chapter. It is presented as a unit with its own structural characteristics. The possibility of each syllable being a discrete unit is addressed. Note that this possibility rests on classifying vowels as being either free or checked so it is essentially circular in nature. That is why the ambisyllabic possibility is also mentioned. There are still other views of the syllable that refer to the quality of the vowel and the kinds of clusters that occur with them. These views are not mentioned but again an instructor could do so. The essential point to remember is that one major focus of the book is to show how problematic, i.e., difficult, it actually is to provide definitions for “sound,” “syllable,” “word,” and “sentence.” In one sense that is what a grammar of English is all about: an attempt to figure out what these things are. This, therefore, is the last opportunity to emphasize this important point.

### Exercises

- 1 (These answers are given in a modified version of English spelling.) loss**\$**es, fiks**\$**chure, an**\$**swered, fac**\$**sim#i**\$**le, no**\$**ble, i**\$**dle, en**\$**gin**\$**eer, scam**\$**ble, a**\$**rise, e**\$**squa**\$**lized, e**\$**vade, re**\$**store, tenn**\$**is, bi**\$**op**\$**sy, pit**\$**y, de**\$**tail, du**\$**ty, pet**\$**rol, prac**\$**tice, crack**\$**le, pe**\$**tro**\$**le**\$**um, par**\$**ents, pa**\$**rade, eg**\$**zist, po**\$**stal. Possible ambisyllabic consonants are boldfaced.
- 2 /mæst/ to /mésənt/, /du/ to /dɒnt/, /wɪl/ to /wɒnt/, /kæn/ to /kænt/ or /kant/, /ʃæl/ to /ʃænt/ or /ʃant/, /æm/ to /arnt/ or sometimes /ent/.
- 3 These are good examples of how certain kinds of spellings are used to represent allegro speech, either deliberately as in the milk advertisement or through a not infrequent spelling error, as in the *of* of *I could of done it*.

### 14 Further Reading

This chapter and the bibliography point out some essential reading for those who wish to go further into matters discussed in the text.



## Indexed Glossary

The glossary offers brief definitions and an example or two in most cases for terms used in the text. The indexing also allows students quick reference to the text for further information.

