

Subject: Advanced Structural Grammar
Stage: Third
Course: Second
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Academic Year: (2020-2021)

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4.1 The Basic Noun Phrase

Noun phrases are groups of two or more words within a sentence that function grammatically as nouns. They consist of a noun and other words that modify the noun.

Quirk and Greenbaum (1973: 59) define the term noun phrase "the noun phrase typically functions as subject, object, complement of sentences, and as complement in prepositional phrases". These functions are explained in the table below:

No	Structures	Functions of Noun Phrase
1.	<u>The girl</u> is Mary Smith.	Subject
2.	We gave <u>the pretty girl</u> an apple. (NP= Det + Adj + N)	Indirect object
3.	We gave the girl <u>an apple</u> . (NP= Det + N)	Direct object
4.	She was a <u>pretty girl</u> .	Subject complement
5.	The pretty girl <u>in the corner</u> is Mary Smith.	Prepositional complement

4.2 Noun Classes

1. Proper Nouns

A noun that is used to denote a particular person, place, or thing, as Lincoln, Sarah, Pittsburgh, and Carnegie Hall. Your name is a proper noun. **London** is a proper noun. **United Nations** is a proper noun.

Rule: Proper nouns always start with a capital letter.

Examples: Jane, Thailand, Sunday, James Bond, Einstein, Superman, Game of Thrones, Shakespeare, Bill Clinton, etc.

- Let me introduce you to **Mary**.
- The capital of **Italy** is **Rome**.
- He is the chairman of the **British Broadcasting Corporation**.
- I was born in **November**.

NB: Adjectives that we make from proper nouns also usually start with a capital letter, for example **Shakespearean** Theater, **Orwellian** Community, and **Chomskyan** Theory.

NB: **Orwellian** is related to an adjective describing a situation, idea, or societal condition that **George Orwell** (Famous Writer) identified as being destructive to the welfare of a free and open society.

2. Common Nouns

Most nouns are common nouns. Common nouns refer to people, places and things in general like 'chair' or 'dog'. Any noun that is not a personal name is a common noun.

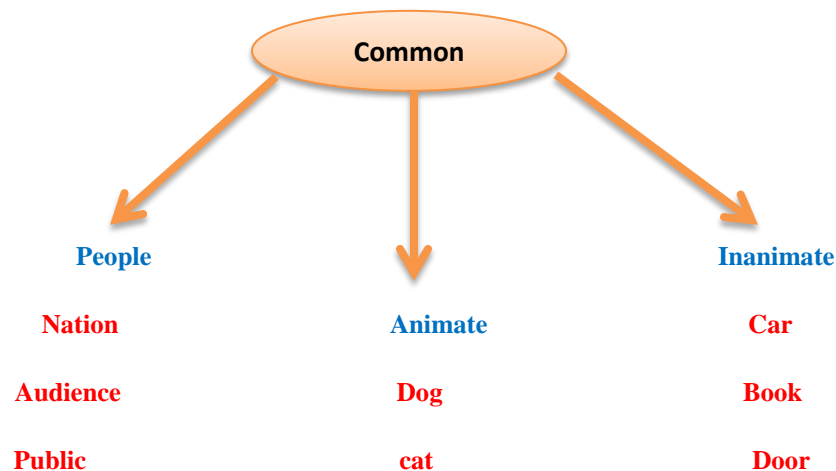


Diagram (1): Subclassification of Common Nouns

Examples: *teacher, car, music, danger, receipt*

- Have you seen my **dog**?
- The **books** are on your **desk**.
- ...the **pursuit** of **happiness**.

3. Concrete Nouns

Concrete noun name people, places, animals, or things that are or were physically tangible—that is, they can or could be seen or touched, or have some physical properties. Examples: *man, rice, head, car, furniture, mobile phone*:

- How many **stars** are there in the **universe**?
- Have you met **James Bond**?
- Pour the **water** down the **drain**.

4. Abstract Nouns

Abstract nouns, as the name implies, name intangible things, such as concepts, ideas, feelings, characteristics, attributes, etc.

Examples: *happiness, courage, danger, truth*

- He has great **strength**.
- Who killed President Kennedy is a real **mystery**.
- Sometimes it takes **courage** to tell the **truth**.
- Their lives were full of **sadness**.

4.2 Noun Classes

5. Countable Nouns (also known as **count nouns**)

Countable nouns are nouns that can be considered individuals as we can count them in terms of numbers (one, two, three, etc.). Countable nouns can be singular or plural, e.g.:

- My **book** is new. (**Singular**)
- My **books** are new. (**Plural**)

Examples: *ball, boy, cat, person:*

- I have only five **dollars**.
- The Earth was formed 4.6 billion **years** ago.
- There are lots of **people** but we don't have a **car**.

6. Uncountable Nouns

(Also called **mass nouns**; **Non-count nouns**)

They cannot be separated or counted in terms of numbers or units.

Rule: We never use uncountable nouns with the indefinite article (*a/an*).

Uncountable nouns are always singular.

- Have you got some **money**?
- Air-conditioners use a lot of **electricity**.
- Do you have any **work** for me to do?
- Many Asians eat **rice**.

Uncountable nouns often refer to:

- **Substances:** paper, wood, plastic, etc.
- **Liquids:** milk, oil, juice, etc.

- **Gases:** air, oxygen, etc.
- **Abstract ideas:** happiness, time, information, etc.
- **Weather Words:** weather, thunder, snow, weather, etc.
- **Collections of Things:** furniture, equipment, rubbish, luggage, etc.

7. Collective Nouns

Collective Nouns are nouns that refer to a collection or group of multiple people, animals, or things. The table below shows the collective nouns used for calling a group or collection of people or animals or common things:

For People	For Animals	For Things
A band of musicians	A flock of birds	A bouquet of flowers
A board of directors	A flock of sheep	A bunch of flowers
A class of students	An army of ants	A galaxy of stars
A crowd of people	A herd of deer	A range of mountains
A panel of experts	A murder of crows	A fleet of ships
A gang of thieves	A pride of lions	A pack of cards

Rule: Collective nouns can be treated as singular **OR** plural which can be noticed in the rule of subject-verb agreement (Concord) with collective nouns.

- His **family** **live** in different countries. (Members)
- An average **family** **consists** of four people. (A Unit; identity)
- The new **company** **is** the result of a merger.
- The **board of directors** **will** meet tomorrow.

8. Compound Nouns

A **compound noun** is a noun that is made with two or more words. Most compound nouns are [noun + noun] or [adjective + noun]. Each compound noun acts as a single unit and can be modified by adjectives and other nouns.

Compound nouns have three different forms:

1. **Open or spaced** means there is a space between words (**bus stop**)
2. **Hyphenated** means there is a hyphen between words (**mother-in-law**)
3. **Closed or solid** means there is no space or hyphen between words (**football**)

Examples: cat food, blackboard, breakfast, full moon, washing machine, software

- Can we use the **swimming pool**?
- They stop work at **sunset**.
- Don't forget that **check-out** is at 12 noon.

4.5 Determiners

A **determiner** is used to modify a noun. It refers to something specific or something of a particular type. This function is usually performed by articles, demonstratives, possessive pronouns, or quantifiers.

A. Articles function as determiners before nouns (**the, a, and an**)

B. Demonstratives (**this, these, that, and those**).

C. Possessive Pronouns (**my, our, his, her, their** etc.)

D. Quantifiers (**half, both, all, some**, etc.)

E. Numbers (**two, three, four**, etc.)

1. Close **the** door, please. (The is a determiner; it's an article)
2. I like **this** camera. (**Demonstrative** used as a pronoun).
3. This is **my** house. (**My** is a possessive determiner. It is followed by the noun house which it modifies).
4. He knows **many** people. (A **quantifier** modifying the noun 'people').
5. I have **two** books only.

4.6 Closed-system Premodifiers

A **premodifier** is a word, especially an adjective or a noun, that is placed before a noun and describes it or restricts its meaning in some way. There is a large number of other closed- system items that occur before the head of the noun phrase. These form three classes which are explained next sections directly.

4.7 Predeterminers

Predeterminers come before an article or other determiner and are used to give even more information about the noun that comes after and they include **all, both, and half**.

All, both, and half have of-constructions, which are optional with nouns and obligatory with personal pronouns:

No	Optional with Nouns	Obligatory with Personal Pronouns
1.	All (of) the meat	All of it
2.	Both (of) the students	Both of them
3.	Half (of) the time	Half of it

General Notes about the **All**, **both**, and **half**:

A. With a quantifier following it, the of-construction is acceptable:

- All of the **many** boys.

B. All the three predeterminers can be used pronominally (can be used as nouns functioning as subjects).

- **All** passed their exams, **Both** passed their exams, **Half** passed their exams.

C. **All** and **both** can occur after the head, either immediately or within the predication:

1-The students **all** passed their exams. (**It occurs after the noun the students**)

-They **both** passed their exams.

2- The students **all** were hungry. (**It occurs within the predication**)

D. The predeterminer "both" does not refer to plural form, rather it refers to dual form (i.e., two things)

- **Both** (the) students were excellent. OR: **The two** students were excellent.

E. "All" is used with "zero article" before adjunct phrases:

- I have not seen him **all** day.

4.10 Postdeterminers

This item handles the types of postdeterminers which includes (4.11 Cardinal Numerals, 4.12 Ordinal Numerals, 4.13. Ordinal Numerals and General Numerals):

Postdeterminer refers to the function of a phrase that follows a determiner in a noun phrase and modifies the head noun. **Postdeterminers consist of:**

1. Cardinal Number is a number that says how many of something there are, such as one, two, three, four, five. The cardinal number ONE occurs only with singular count nouns, and the rest cardinal numbers occur with plural count nouns:

- The two children.

2. Ordinal Number is a number that tells the position of something in a list, such as 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th etc. Except 'first', Second, Third, Fourth occur with plural count nouns:

- His fourth birthday.

NB: When a sentence contains two numerals; cardinal and ordinal, the ordinal comes first followed by the cardinal as shown in the example below:

- The **first** **three** books were bulky.

NB: items like *next*, *last*, *another* and *other* are called general ordinals, which may be used freely before or after cardinals according to the meaning denoted by the speaker:

His last two books were novels. (**Before** cardinal)

His two last books were novels. (**After** cardinal)

3. Quantifiers are words or phrases which are used before a noun to indicate the amount or quantity including 'some', 'many', 'a lot of', 'a few', little, etc. Consider the following examples of quantifiers:

- There are **some** books on the desk. (Countable Noun)

- There is **little** sugar in my coffee. (Uncountable Noun)

4.13 Quantifiers

See the definition above. There are two small groups of closed-system quantifiers.

1. **Many**, (a) **few**, and **several** co-occur only with plural count nouns,

- The **few** words he spoke were well chosen.

2. **Much** and (a) **little** co-occur only with non-count nouns,

- There has not been **much** good weather recently.

The meanings of these quantifiers are explained in the examples below:

1. He took a few biscuits = (**several**)

2. He took few biscuits = (**not many**)

3. He took a little butter = (**some**)

4. He took little butter = (**not much**)

4.15. Phrasal Quantifiers: Definition and Groups

Phrasal quantifier consists of a quantifier preceding a noun, usually used in an *of*-structure. However, there are three groups of phrasal quantifiers:

A. The first group occurs with non-count nouns and plural count nouns,

e.g.:

-The room contained **plenty of students/ furniture**. (**Students** = countable)

- The room contained **a lot of students/ furniture**. (**Furniture** = uncountable)

- The room contained **lots of students/ furniture**.

B. The second group of phrasal quantifiers occur with non-count nouns,

e.g.:

- The room contained **a great deal of money**. (**Money** = uncountable)

- The room contained **a good deal of money**.

- The room contained **a large quantity of money**.

- The room contained a small quantity of [money](#).

C. The third group occurs with plural count nouns, e.g.:

- The class contained a great number of [students](#). ([Students](#) = countable)
- The class contained a large number of [students](#).
- The class contained a good number of [students](#).

4.15 Phrasal Quantifiers: Partitive Expressions

The phrasal quantifiers provide a means of imposing countability on non-count nouns as the following partitive expressions illustrate that:

No.	General Partitives	Typical Partitives	Measures
1.	Two pieces of news	A slice of cake	A pint of beer
2.	A bit of information	A roast of meat	A spoonful of medicine
3.	An item of furniture	A few loaves of bread	A pound of butter
4.		A bowl of soup	
5.		A bottle of wine	

4.16 Specific vs. Generic Reference

Generic reference is used to refer to something in general without making any specification to the type or class, whereas **specific reference** refers to a **particular** class or type of a given object, which is usually specified by the definite article. Consider the examples below:

- **The Bengal tiger** is very dangerous. (Specific Reference)
- **Tigers** are dangerous animals. (Generic Reference)
- The Lebanese apples are delicious.
- Apples are delicious.

Singular or plural, definite or indefinite can sometimes be used without change in the generic meaning, though plural definite occurs basically with nationality names, such as:

- The German is a good musician. (Singular & Definite (the): Generic Meaning)
- A German is a good musician. (Singular & Indefinite (a): Generic Meaning)
- The Germans are good musicians = **good musicians**. (Plural & Definite (the): Generic Meaning)
- Germans are good musicians. (Singular & Indefinite: Generic Meaning)

4. 18. Nationality Words and Adjectives as Heads

There are two kinds of adjectives that can act as noun-phrase head with generic reference:

(A). Plural Personal: National adjectives and specific adjectives function as subjects:

- **The French** produce wine. (The French people/ The French producers)
- **The rich helped** many people. (The rich people / The rich men)

(B). Singular non-personal Abstract: Common abstract adjectives are used as subjects or objects:








- **The evil** ruined the society. (**The evil = the evil act/behavior**)
- **The bad** is harmful.



Plural Invariable Nouns

4.33 Summation Plurals

Summation Plural refers to the tools and articles of dress that consist of two equal or similar parts. Countability can be imposed by means of *a pair of*, including: Two pairs of scissors, Three pairs of trousers.

No	Tools	Articles of Clothes
1.	Bellows 	Pants 
2.	Binoculars 	Shorts
3.	Pliers 	Suspenders 
4.	Scales 	Glasses 
5.	Scissors	



4.34. Other Pluralia Tantum Nouns Ending in (-s):

Pluralia Tantum (Literally means “**Plural Only**”) refers to the nouns that only occur in the plural, such as:

- The Middle Ages
- Amends
- Annals
- The Antipodes
- Archives
- Arms (weapons)
- Arrears
- The Commons
- Customs (Customs Duty/Office)
- Clothes
- Contents
- The Lords (The House of Lords)
- Fireworks

4.35 Unmarked Plurals

The nouns whose singular forms are identical to the plural forms. They are also called zero plural which means the nouns are fixed and they do not accept any addition or change in their forms. They include **folk, cattle, deer, fish, people, police, youth, clergy, cod, gentry** and **vermin**.

These nouns can be used as singular or plural depending on the central determiner that precedes the noun. Let us consider the following forms in the pair of sentences:

- (1). **All** the **cattle** are grazing in the field. (Plural)
- (2). **This** **sheep** looks small. (Singular)
- (3). **These** **sheep** are mine. (Plural)

(4). He bought several sheep last week. (Plural)

4.40 Mutation: Plural

There is one way to make the singular noun as plural without adding any suffix through making a change in the vowel of the noun, and this is called mutation. Mutation means a change of vowel in the following seven nouns:

Foot = feet, tooth = teeth, goose = geese

Man = men, louse = lice, mouse = mice

Woman = women

In morphology, this process is called infix or intervocalic change, which is abbreviated as IVC.

4.48. Latin Plural: Nouns in (-us)

Latin plural refers to the Latin words that end with the letters (-us) which are replaced by the letter (-i) when they are pluralized, such as stimulus = stimuli, alumnus = alumni, radius = radii, cactus = cacti.

4.50. Latin Plural: Nouns in (-um)

Latin plural refers to the Latin words that end with the letters (-um) which are replaced by the letter (-a) or with (-s), and both of them are acceptable when they are pluralized. These include the words: curriculum = curricula (curriculum**s**), stratum = strata (stratum**s**), addendum = addenda, aquarium = aquaria, memorandum = memoranda, referendum = referenda.

4.52. Greek Plural: Nouns in (-is)

Greek nouns are pluralized simply by changing the vowel (is) to (es), such as analysis = analyses, crisis = crises, basis = bases, oasis = oases, thesis = theses, axis = axes, synopsis = synopses, diagnosis = diagnoses.

4.43 Animal Names and Plurals

When we deal with animals, we have to bear in mind that there two types of plural of the animals that have unmarked plurals:

(1). **Zero plural** which is the most common form in contexts of hunting, e.g.:

- We caught only **a few fish**. (**Hunting or Gaming**)

(2). **Regular plural** which is used with animals when there is a reference to different individuals or species, e.g.,:

- **The fishes** of the Mediterranean. (**Species**)



4.58. Gender

Gender (grammatical gender) is a specific form of noun-class system in which the division of noun classes forms an agreement system with another aspect of the language, such as adjectives, articles, pronouns, or verbs. Neither English suffixes nor articles are used to mark gender distinctions. Some pronouns are gender-sensitive, for example, the personal pronouns **he**, **she**, **it**, and the relatives **who**, **which**, **whom** are used to mark the distinction

between masculine nouns and feminine nouns. Thus, *she* is used for female, whereas *he* is used for male only (masculine). On the other hand, the relative *who* is used with personal nouns like Jack or Doris, while the relative *which* is used with inanimate objects. Let's consider the following practical examples about gender-distinction:

- **John** has been to London, but **he** came back home two days ago. (*Masculine Pronoun*)
- **Daisy** attended the birthday party, but **she** soon went out. (*Feminine Pronoun*)
- I found the **book** **which** I lost last week. (**Book** is **inanimate**)
- I met the **doctor** **who** treated me yesterday. (**Doctor** is **human**)

The pattern of pronoun substitutions for singular nouns give us a set of ten gender classes as shown below:

1. **Animate** is subclassified into **personal** pronoun substitutions for singular nouns, and **non-personal** pronoun substitutions for singular nouns.

A. Personal nouns are also subclassified into:

1. **Masculine** refers to male noun, such as **uncle** which is substituted by (he-who).
2. **Feminine** refers to the female noun, such as **aunt** which is substituted by he-who.
3. **Dual** refers to the noun that can be used by both males and females, such as Dorian, Kelly, Jordan, Kimberly, Marion, Noel, Auden August, etc. In

Arabic we have also neutral names, such as Noor, Sabah, Suaad, Istabraq, Farah, etc. A gender-neutral name is unisex, meaning you can give it to a girl or a boy. However, you can use both pronouns, but it depends on whether the person is male or female, but the relative *who* goes with both.

4. **Common** refers to using the word baby to name a very small child or animal. As we can use (who-she/he/it or which-it).

B. Non-personal pronouns are also subclassified into:

1. **Masculine Higher Animal** refers to the basic class of a given animal, which should be male (masculine), such as **bull**, and for which we can use the pronouns (which – it).

2. **Feminine Higher Animal** refers to the basic class of a given animal which should be female (feminine), such as **cow**, and for which we can use the pronouns (which – it, something).

3. **Higher Organism** refers to using the names of countries, like France and England. We can substitute these nouns with the pronouns (which – it- she).

4. **Lower Animal** refers to small-sized animals like **ant** and for which the pair of pronouns (which-it) can be used only.

2. **Inanimate** class refers to using common nouns, such as box or door or car, and substituted by the pronoun (it as being subject or object,) and (which for questions).

4.59. Personal Masculine and Feminine Nouns

These nouns have two types:

1. The first type has no overt marking that suggests morphological correspondence between masculine and feminine:

No.	<u>Masculine Forms</u>	<u>Feminine Forms</u>
1.	Bachelor	Spinster
2.	Brother	Sister
3.	Father	Mother
4.	Gentleman	Lady
5.	King	Queen
6.	Man	Woman
7.	Monk	Nun
8.	Uncle	Aunt

The second type is different because its nouns have two gender forms that are marked by the derivational relationships, as shown in the table below

	<u>Masculine Forms</u>	<u>Feminine Forms</u>
1.	Brideg <u>room</u>	Bride
2.	Duke	Duch <u>ess</u>
3.	Emperor	Emp <u>ress</u>
4.	god	god <u>dess</u>
5.	Hero	Hero <u>ine</u>
6.	Host	Host <u>ess</u>

7.	Steward	Steward <u>ess</u>
8.	Waiter	Waitr <u>ess</u>
9.	Widow <u>er</u>	Widow
10.	Usher	Usher <u>ette</u>

Some masculine/feminine pairs denoting kinship have common (dual) generic terms, for example, parent for father/mother, and child for son/daughter as well as for boy/girl. Some optional feminine forms (poetess, authoress, etc.) are now rarely used or never used, and replaced by the dual gender forms (poet, author, etc.).



4.60. Personal Dual Gender

Personal dual-gender nouns refer to the nouns that indicate both males and females, and whether the noun is male or female will be determined by the context. This class contains a large set of dual nouns:

List 1

List 2

- | | |
|----------|------------|
| Artist | fool |
| Chairman | foreigner |
| Cook | friend |
| Criminal | guest |
| Doctor | inhabitant |
| Enemy | librarian |

Musician	servant
Neighbor	speaker
Novelist	student
Parent	teacher
Person	writer
Professor	doctor

Some speakers use gender marker, which means using gender title male or female or boy or girl before the dual noun, such as:

Boy friend, girl friend, woman student, man student

Male doctor, female doctor; male lawyer, female lawyer

NB:

When such nouns are used generically, there is no need to use gender marker:

If **any** student (whether male or female) calls my name, tell him I will be back sooner.

But when there is a specific reference, each noun should be marked by something indicating whether the noun is masculine or feminine. For example, the adjective preceding the noun will determine the gender of the noun, e.g.,:

I met a (**handsome**) student and he was very happy for meeting me.

I met a (**beautiful**) student and she was very happy for meeting me.

Syntactically, the adjective ‘handsome’ describes the **boy/man** who is good-looking, whereas the adjective ‘beautiful’ describes the **girl/woman** who is good-looking.

4.61. Common Gender

Common gender nouns are intermediate in use between personal and non-personal nouns. For example, the word ‘baby’ can be used to refer to a child or animal because the small newly born creatures – being human or animal are called babies. Therefore, one can say:

Jane got a nice baby, but **it** was very slim. (Human)

The black cow gave birth to a pretty baby, and **it** was black too.(Animal)

4. 62 Collective Nouns

Collective Nouns are nouns that refer to a collection or group of multiple people, animals, or things. However, even though collective nouns refer to multiple individuals, they still usually function as singular nouns in the English sentence. This is because they still technically refer to one thing: the group as a whole. Here are some examples of collective nouns:

- **Tribe** – A tribe is a single unit that is made up of a group of tribe members.
- **Fleet** – A fleet is a single unit that is made up of several vehicles or vessels, such as ships.

In British English, the collective nouns are used with singular or plural verbs, whereas in American English the collective nouns are used with singular verbs:

His family **is/are** visiting Iraq now. (UK English: Sing +PL)

His family **is** visiting Iraq now. (US English: Sing only)

NB: The word 'police' is treated as a plural noun in both UK English and US English:

The **police are** looking for the criminal.

The word army is a collective noun, which can be used as a singular noun or a plural noun, depending on the situation:

The Iraqi **army** is brave. (**One Unit**)

The Iraqi **army** are brave. (**Troops; individuals**)

The **armies** are brave. (**Types of Different Countries**)

@. **The verb may be in the plural after a singular noun:**

1

- The committee [**has**] met and [**it has**] rejected the proposal.
[**have**] [**they have**]

2

In case (1), the sentence is singular in that the speaker uses (**has**) in the first clause, and in the second clause he also uses singular subject (**it**) and singular auxiliary (**has**). This means that the speaker indicates one unit.

In case (2), the sentence is plural in that the speaker uses (**have**) in the first clause, and in the second clause he also uses plural subject (**they**) and plural auxiliary (**have**). This means that the speaker indicates the different members of the committee.

There are three subclasses of collective nouns:

- 1. **Specific Nouns:** army, clan, class, club, committee, crew, crowd, family, flock, gang, government, group, herd, jury, majority, and minority.
- 2. **Generic Nouns:** the aristocracy, the bourgeoisie, the clergy, the elite, the public, the gentry, the laity, and the proletariat.
- 3. **Unique Nouns:** the Arab League, (the) Congress, the Kremlin, the Papacy, Parliament, the United Nations, the United States, and the Vatican.



4. 63 Higher Animals

Some higher-class animals have gender distinction in terms of masculine and feminine:

No.	Masculine	Feminine
1.	Buck	Doe
2.	Bull	Cow
3.	Cock	Hen

4.	Dog	Bitch
5.	Gander	Goose
6.	Lion	Lioness
7.	Stallion	Mare
8.	Tiger	Tigress
9.	Leopard	Leopardess

Also, there is another class which is called **common higher animals**, and for which pronoun patternings are used like (which-it) (who-she/he) including horse, cat, bird, turtle, crocodile, etc. Since no sex distinction is made or known for the speaker, the pronoun 'he' is more usual than she. Suppose that someone saw a horse, be he is not expert or familiar with its gender, he will use 'he', to say:

This horse is energetic as a proof **he** can run 88 km/h.

4. 64 Higher Organisms (Country Nouns)

The names of countries have different genders, but this difference is determined by the use:

1. When the names of countries denote **geographical units**, they are treated as inanimate, .g.,:

Looking at the European map, we see **France** here. **It** is the largest country in Europe.



2. When the names of countries are used as **political or economic units**, they are treated as feminine, .g.,:



France has been able to increase **her** exports by 10 per cent over the last sixth months.

England is proud of **her** poets.

3. Sports teams, particularly in UK English, that represent countries can be referred to as personal collective nouns, .g.,:



France have improved their chance of winning the cup.

4. The word 'ship' is substituted by a feminine pronoun 'she' to express an affectionate attitude:

What a lovely ship! What is **she** called? Well, she is called **Ashton Brown**.

4. 65 Lower Animals and Inanimate Nouns

Lower animals do not differ from inanimate nouns in terms of our present linguistic criteria. This means both the animal 'snake' and the inanimate 'box' are replaced by the pronouns (which) and (it). However, sex differences can be indicated by a range of gender markers for any animate noun when they are felt to be relevant:

She-goat, **he**-goat, **male** frog, **female** frog, **hen**-pleasant, **she**-camel, **he**-camel.

4. 66 Common/Genitive Case

English nouns have a two-case system:

A. The unmarked Common Case: It refers to the ordinary form of a noun as being ‘cat’ or ‘mouse’ or ‘car’ or ‘moon’.

B. The Marked Genitive Case: It refers to the grammatical case that marks a noun. It designates a grammatical case, typically indicating possession, measure, origin, or other close association, as in *The Door's Key*.

4. 67 The Forms of the Genitive Inflection

The (-s) genitive of regular nouns is realized in verbal contexts where it takes one of the forms /iz/, /z/, and /s/. The pronunciation of each is submitted to phonetic rules. However, the noun ‘spy’, which is transcribed phonetically /spaɪz/, has three forms:

1. The **spies** were arrested. (Plural form)
2. The **spy's** companion was a woman. (Singular Possession)
3. The **spies'** companions were women in each case. (Plural Possession)
4. He **spies** on the behalf of an industrial firm. (3rd personal Sing –s)

The forms of the irregular nouns are different from the regular ones fore-mentioned:

The town **men** are really helpful.

The **man's coat** is totally ragged. (Singular Possession)

The **men's coats** are totally ragged. (Plural Possession)

He **wears** his coat elegantly.

4. 69 Two Genitives

The case of genitive has two structures when its case indicates possessiveness or belongingness:

A. The s-genitive structure with inflection:

It means using the genitive inflected (-s) with two nouns and the inflectional suffix is placed over the first noun, e.g.,:

What is the *ship's name*?

Rule: Noun's + Noun

B. The of-genitive structure with a prepositional phrase:

It consists of the preposition of + the noun indicating possessiveness, e.g.:

The name *of the ship* is Ashton Brown.

Rule: Noun + of + Noun

4. 70 Genitive Meanings: Semantic Classification

The meanings of the genitive can be best shown by sentential or phrasal analogues, as shown in the table below:

Item	Genitives	Structural Analogues
1.	<u>Possessive Genitive:</u> My son's wife.	My son has a wife.
2.	<u>Subjective Genitive:</u> The boy's application	The boy applied.
3.	<u>Objective Genitive:</u>	(...) released the boy.

	The boy's release	
4.	<u>Genitive of Origin:</u> The girl's story	The girl told a story.
5.	<u>Descriptive Genitive:</u> A women's college	A college for women
6.	<u>Genitive of Measure and Partitive Genitive:</u> Ten day's absence Part of the problem	The absence lasted ten days. The problem is divisible into parts.
7.	<u>Appositive Genitive:</u> The city of York	York is a city.

4.71 The Choice of Genitives

The semantic classification of genitives in the unit (4.70) is partially arbitrary because classifying genitives in terms of meanings and their analogues cannot give us full help of which type of genitive the speaker should choose – the s-genitive or of-genitive. For example, the cow's milk is not a genitive of origin; rather it is a descriptive genitive (the kind of milk obtained from a cow) or even a subjective genitive (the cow provided the milk). The choice can be more securely related to the gender classes represented by the noun which is to be genitive. Linguistically speaking, the (-s genitive) is favored by the classes that are highest on the gender scale, namely animate nouns including in particular persons and animals with personal gender characteristics. Now, the use of (-s) genitive or of-structure

genitive, in fact, causes interpretation confusion or lexical ambiguity as shown in the two cases.

A. The reference to the existence of something within something else is expressed by the of-structure genitive:

1. *The door's knob



Here it does not refer to the origin; rather it refers to the availability of something, i.e., something found in something. Thus, it should be:

The knob of the door. (Denoting Partitive Form)

B. The reference to possessiveness or belongingness is expressed by the (-s) genitive. Hence, it's wrong to say:

2. *The hat of John



It does not refer to the hat found on John's head existentially; rather it refers to the hat possessed or owned by John (denoting possessiveness)

John's hat (indicating possession)

C. The other factor that influences our choice of genitive is the information focus. The genitive (-s) enables us to focus on noun, whereas the of-structure genitive makes us focus on another noun, as illustrated in the examples below:



1. The explosion damaged the **ship's** funnel.

2. Having looked at all the funnels, he considered that the most handsome was the **funnel of the Orion**.

In sentence (1), the speaker focuses on the first noun 'ship', and he wants to bring the attention of the listeners or readers to the noun ship only. On the other hand, the speaker in sentence (2) focuses on the funnel in the sense

that he captivated the attention of the listeners or readers on the word ‘funnel’, and mentioned it at the beginning of the sentence. As he did not care about the ship itself called Orion.

The factor of information focus is congruent with the preference for using the of-genitive structure with partitives.

4.72 Choice of -s Genitive

The following four animate noun classes normally take the (-s genitive):

(a). Personal Names: George Washington's Statue



Personal Name

(b). Personal Nouns: The boy's new shirt



Personal Noun

(c). Collective Nouns: The government's conviction



Collective Noun

(d). Higher Animals: The horse's tail



Higher Animal

The inflected (-s) genitive is also used with certain kinds of inanimate nouns:

(a). Geographical and Institutional Names:

Europe's Future (Geographic)

The **school's** history (Institution)

(b). Temporal Nouns:

A **moment's** thought

(c). Nouns of Special Interest to Human Activity:

The **game's** history

4. 76 Ellipsis

Ellipsis means the deliberate omission of a word from a sentence or an utterance of material which is logically necessary but is recoverable from the context. Etymologically, the term comes from the Greek 'elleipsis', meaning "to leave out" or "fall short." Sometimes a group of words are left out of a sentence. It is used to shorten the sentence in written and verbal forms of speech. As it is used to pausing in a sentence in order to leave an effect.

Ellipsis can be used in expressions related to premises or establishments:

- I shall be at **Bill's**.

Here the word **Bill's** would normally mean 'where Bill lives' which could mean a house or a flat or an apartment, etc.

Also, ellipsis can be applied to proper names when they denote commercial firms or corporations.

I will be at **Ford's** (= I will be at Ford's corporation of producing cars)

John went to **MacDonald's**. (=MacDonald's Restaurant)

Types of Ellipsis:

Textual ellipsis leaving out an element which does not affect the meaning or context, e.g.,:

I knew (that) something terrible had happened. (**That-Clause**)
We went for a walk and (we) took some lovely photographs. (**Pronoun**)

Situational ellipsis: Situational ellipsis often means we do not need to use the subject pronoun I, especially at the beginning of a clause. This is quite informal:

[I] Hope you have a nice holiday.

[Do you] Want some coffee?

[Have] You finished your essay yet?

4.75 The Genitive with Ellipsis

The noun modified by the –s genitive may be omitted if the context makes its identity clear:

My car is faster than John's (= **than John's car**)

His memory is like an elephant's (= **than elephant's memory**)

John's is a nice car, too. (= **John's car: informal**)

With the **of-genitive** in comparable environments, a pronoun is normally necessary:

The population of New York is greater than the **Chicago's**.

The population of New York is greater than **that of Chicago**.

4.77 Double Genitive

The genitive case is predominantly used for showing possession. With nouns, it is usually created by adding (-'s) to the word or by preceding it with *of-construction*. Double genitive is also called a double possessive.

In brief, double genitive means an *of-construction* is combined with an (-s) genitive where the noun with the (-s) genitive inflection must be definite and personal:

Examples: An opera **of** Verdi's , An opera **of** my friend's

The rule of double genitive can be: **Double genitive = preposition 'of' + possessive noun or possessive pronoun.**

He is a friend **of** my **Boss's**. (= he's one of many friends of the Boss)

Jack is a friend **of mine**. (Jack is one of my friends).

Consequently, we use 'double genitive' to describe one of many things. It is another way to indicate possession.

4.78 Pronouns

Pronouns constitute a heterogeneous class of items with numerous subclass. Despite their variety, there are several features that pronouns have in common that distinguish them from nouns:

(1). They do not admit determiners.

The boy = ***the he**

(2). They often have an objective case.

I like **him**.

(3). They often have person distinction.

He , she, it = they , he, you

(4). They often have overt gender contrast.

He is **masculine**, she is **feminine** , it is **inanimate**.

(5). Singular and plural forms are often not morphologically related.

4.79 Case

Pronouns like nouns have cases, and the cases that pronouns have are two: common that includes (somebody; indefinite) and genitive that includes my preceding nouns and mine follows be. Six pronouns have subjective, objective and genitive grammatical cases.

Subjective	I	we	he	she	they	who
Objective	me	us	him	her	them	Who(m)
Genitive	my	our	his	her	their	whose

4.80 Person

Personal, possessive, and reflexive pronouns have distinctions of person:

First Speaker (1st) refers to the speaker (I) and the plural speakers (we).

Second Speaker (2nd) refers to the person (s) being addressed (you).

Third Speaker (3rd) refers to one or more other persons or things , such as he, she, it, they).

The distribution of pronouns is illustrated in the table below:

Subject Case	Object Case	Determiner Adjective Poss.	Nominal Possessive	Reflexive
I	me	my	mine	myself
We	us	our	ours	ourselves
You	you	your	yours	yourself(s)
He	him	his	his	himself
She	her	her	hers	herself
They	them	their	theirs	themselves
It	it	its	its	itself

Jack likes **his** car, but **he** prefers riding a bike.

We saw **her** in the park yesterday.

She wants to join the Master Program, but **her** average is low.

They met **him** in Syria ten years ago.

Whose book is this? **It's mine.**

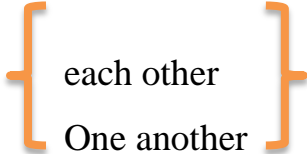
You told **us** about the truth, but **it** was not clear because **we** missed **its** final part.

She saw **herself** in the mirror.

The dog bit **its** tail.

4.80 Reciprocal Pronouns

We use the reciprocal pronouns each other and one another when two or more people do the same thing. Therefore, we can bring together two sentences, such as:

John likes Mary + Mary likes John = John and Mary like 
each other
One another

4.91 Universal Pronouns: Indefinite

Universal pronouns are any pronouns that are all-encompassing, such as all, each, and every– followed by a word like –thing or –body. Two of them take genitive ('s), everyone's and everybody's.

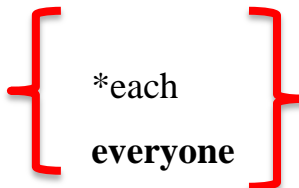
Each of you should attend the lecture.

Each student will get a chance to sing in the festival.

All girls want to leave the classroom.

All are welcome.

There is a difference in meaning between each and everybody. Each refers to individuals which are already specified, whereas everybody does not:

I walked into the room and gave an apple to  *each
everyone

Singular noun ending in –s:

This depends...

A. Most names: add 's (apostrophe S)

They had a really good time at James's barbecue last Friday.

We spent the day admiring Frances's new car.

B. Classical or religious names: add ' (only the apostrophe)

Jesus' disciples carried out the teachings of Jesus.

Sophocles' plays are still performed today.



Adjective is a word that describes, identifies or further defines a noun, and gives extra information about it. For example:

a sweet taste

a red apple

a technical problem

a French woman

Morphologically, adjectives are classified into source and derived. Source adjectives refer to the dictionary adjectives that are originally adjectives, such as ‘good’ and ‘bad’. On the other hand, the derived adjectives are those that are derived from adding suffixes to verbs in order to form adjectives that give the same denotations implemented by the verbs, such as ‘amaze’ → **amazing**, and ‘interest’ → **interesting**. Derived adjectives are classified:

A. Inflectional Adjectives are formed by adding inflectional suffixes to the verbs in order to form new adjectives, such as interest = interested or interesting or amazing and amazed.

B. Derivational Adjectives are formed by adding derivational suffixes to the nouns or verbs so as to create new adjectives, such as wonder = wonderful, act = active.

5.1 Characteristics of Adjectives

1. Some adjectives cannot be predicted from their forms unless they are used in a real context in which the word is determined as an adjective or adverb. For instance, consider the word ‘tender’, which can be used as a noun meaning ‘bid’ or an adjective meaning ‘kind or gentle or (of food) easy to bite through and cut’.
2. Others have derivational suffixes, and they are formed through adding either derivational or inflectional suffixes, such as disaster → disastrous.
3. Many common adjectives have no identifying shapes, such as good, hot, little, young, fat, etc.

4. Many adjectives inflect for the comparative and superlative degrees, such as great → greater → greatest, but others do not allow inflected forms, such as disastrous, one cannot say *disasterouser or *disasterousest.

5. Some adjectives can be changed into adverbs by adding the derivational suffix (-ly), such as happy → happily, others do not allow this suffix to be added to them. For example, one cannot say old → *oldly.

6. Adverbs of manners can be derived from adjectives by adding (-ly) to them; therefore, 'kind becomes 'kindly', quick becomes 'quickly' and formal becomes 'formally'.

5.2 Two Other Features of Adjectives

1. Syntactically, most adjectives can be premodified by the intensifier 'very' and 'so', such as "The boys are very happy".

2. Morphologically, most adjectives can take comparative and superlative forms. The comparison may be by means of inflections, e.g., "The children are happier now". Or they are the happiest people I know".

Adjective Phrase (AP) is a phrase that consists of an adjective (headword) and could be preceded by an intensifier, e.g.,:

- Ali was (**very happy**). = The AP here consists of Intensifier + Adjective as a headword.
- Ali was (**happy**). = The AP here consists of just the headword "happy".

@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@

5.3 Syntactic Functions of Adjectives

The major syntactic functions of adjectives are **attributive** and **predicative**

Adjectives can be divided into two categories based on their position in a sentence. Adjectives can occur both before and after a noun. These two positions are called attributive position and predicative position. When an adjective occurs before a noun, it is in the attributive position and that adjective is called an **attributive** adjective. When an adjective occurs after a noun, it is in the predicative position and the adjective is called a **predicative** adjective. Therefore, the main difference between attributive and predicative adjectives is that attributive adjectives occur before the noun whereas predicative adjectives occur after the noun:

- The **pretty** girl smiled at me. (**Attributive adjective preceding the noun 'girl'**).
- The girl is **pretty**.
- This area is **dangerous**. (**Predicative adjective following the noun**)

Postpositive Adjectives

Postpositive adjectives are adjectives that follow the nouns they modify.

Examples:

-Matters **unknown** (The word 'matters' is a noun followed by the adjective 'unknown').

Other examples "attorneys **general**", "words **unspoken**", and "things **innumerable**".

The postpositive adjectives occur in the following cases:

1. Legal, Financial, and important positions of individuals, such as body **politic**, court-**martial**, pound **sterling**, accounts **payable**, and heir **apparent**. The other set is concerned with important positions including secretary-**general**, poet **laureate**, attorney **general**, princess **royal**, and professor **emeritus**.

2. After indefinite pronouns **Attributive** adjectives almost always appear postpositively when they modify indefinite pronouns, such as someone, anyone, nobody, anyone, etc.

I wish I could find **somebody perfect** for the job.

We can give these jeans to **anybody tall**.

Is **anyone talented** at math here?

Postposition is obligatory for the two adjectives "elect" and "proper", knowing that they have a different sense when they are postposed:

-The president **elect** (which means soon to take the office).

-The City of London **proper** (as strictly defined).

In several legal or quasi-legal compounds, the adjective is postposed, such as "attorney **general**", "body **politic**", "court **martial**", "notary **public**", and "postmaster **general**".

3. After superlative attributive adjectives

When a superlative adjective is used attributively before a noun, we can use other attributive adjectives in a postpositive position for emphasis:

Let's find the **best** hotel possible.

She's the **worst** singer present.

4. Some adjectives ending in (-able/-ible)

Often, attributive adjectives ending in "-able/-ible" are placed in the postpositive position:

It's the only **time** available.

It's the only **option** imaginable.

5. After expressions of measurement

Nouns are often used in combination with numbers and adjectives to give measurements of height, depth, age, etc. For example:

He's only one **year** old.

She's five **feet tall**.

The river is five **miles long**.

The lake is one **kilometer deep**.

5.9 Verbless Adjective Clause

Verbless Adjective Clause means an adjective which can function as a verbless clause. It takes three positions:

- **Nervous**, the man opened the letter.
- The man, **nervous**, opened the letter.
- The man opened the letter, **nervous**.

NB: The implied subject of the adjective clause can be the whole of the superordinate clause. For example:

- **Strange**, it was she who initiated divorce proceedings. (*This sentence is semantically equivalent to:* That it was she who initiated divorce proceedings is **strange**.)

An adverb may sometimes replace with little difference in meaning, an adjective which functions as a verbless clause:

- **Nervously**, the man opened the letter. (**Nervously is an adverb functioning as a verbless clause**)

Always inserted with verbless adjective clause indicating permanence:

- **Always nervous**, he opened the letter.

5.10 Contingent Adjective Clause

A contingent adjective clause expresses the circumstance or condition under which what is said in the superordinate clause is true. A subordinator is often present but can be omitted:

Enthusiastic, they make good students (= When enthusiastic,)

Whether right or wrong, his decision is adopted.

When ripe, these apples are sweet.

5.10 Intensifying Adjectives

Intensifying Adjectives modify the nouns they precede. They have a heightening or lowering effect on the noun they modify. Semantically, there are two types of intensifying adjectives:

(A). **Emphasizers** have a general heightening effect. They are attributive only. They include the following examples:

a **certain** (sure) winner , **pure** (sheer) fabrications, an **outright** lie, a **real** (undoubted) hero.

(B). **Amplifiers** scale upwards from an assumed norm, denoting the upper extreme of the scale or a high point on the scale, such as a

'complete victory', 'a close friend', 'the very end'. They are subclassified into two types:

(1). **Central inherent Amplifiers** which can be predicative, e.g.,:

- A **complete** victory (It's possible to say: The victory was complete)
- His **great** folly (It's possible to say: His folly was great)

(2). **Non-inherent Amplifiers** are only attributive and cannot be predicative:

- A **complete** fool (It's wrong to say: *The fool is complete)
- A **perfect** idiot (It's wrong to say: * The idiot is perfect)

5.11 Exclamatory Adjective Sentence

Exclamatory Adjective means the adjective which is used as the head of an adjective phrase or as its sole realization can be an exclamation:

How good! How wonderful! Excellent! Amazing! How nice!

Structural Rules of Exclamatory Adjectives

1. Wh-word + Adjective +! What **pretty**!
2. Adjective +! **Nice**!

5.19 Semantic Sub-classification of Adjectives

(A). Stative vs. Dynamic Adjectives

Adjectives are characteristically stative, but many can be seen as dynamic. Most adjectives that are susceptible to subjective measurement are capable

of being dynamic. Stative and dynamic adjectives differ in two ways. For example, a stative adjective such as ‘tall’ cannot be used with progressive aspect or with the imperative structures, thus one cannot say:

*He is being **tall**. (Wrong)

*Be **tall**. (Wrong)

Conversely, we can use ‘careful’ as a dynamic adjective, thus we can say:

He is being **careful**.

Be **careful**.

Adjectives that can be used dynamically include awkward, brave, calm, careless, careful, cruel, extravagant, foolish, funny, good, greedy, etc.

(B). Gradable vs. Non-gradable Adjectives

Most adjectives are gradable, namely can be modified by adverbs which convey the degree of intensity of adjective. Gradability includes:

Tall taller tallest

Beautiful more **beautiful** most **beautiful**

There are other forms of intensification:

Very **young** so **plain** extremely **useful**

All dynamic adjectives are gradable. Most Stative adjectives (like tall and old) are gradable; some are non-gradable, principally technical adjectives like atomic (scientists) and hydrochloric (acid) and adjectives denoting provenance, such as British. So do not say:

*He is very **British**. (**Wrong**)

* Jack is more **American** than me. (**Wrong**)

* He is extremely **French**. (**Wrong**)

5.23 Adverb as Modifier

Modifier of Adjective means an adverb may premodify an adjective:

- That was a **very** funny film. (**Very** is an adverb premodifying the adjective funny)

- It is **extremely** good of you. (**Extremely** is an adverb premodifying the adjective good)

- She has a **really** beautiful face). (**Really** is an adverb premodifying the adjective beautiful)

5.24 Modifier of Adverb

An adverb may premodify another adverb and function as intensifier:

- They are smoking **very heavily**. (**Very** (adverb) modifies the adverb **heavily**)

A few intensifying adverbs particularly right and well, premodify particles in phrasal verbs:

- He knocked the man **right** out. (**Right** is an adverb premodifying the particle "out")
- They left him **well** behind. (**Well** is an adverb premodifying the particle "behind")

5.22 Adverb as Adverbials

Adverb may function as an adverbial, which is different from subject, verb, object and complement. There are three classes of adverbials established: adjuncts, disjuncts, and conjuncts.

A. Adjunct is a word, a phrase, or a clause that can be removed from a sentence without making the sentence grammatically wrong, e.g.:

I can **now** understand it. (= I can understand it)

He sent her a message **quickly**. (= He sent her a message)

B. Disjunct expresses the speaker or writer's attitude to what is being described in the sentence.

Fortunately, we managed to get there on time. (**Fortunately** shows us that the speaker was pleased about the result of the action.)

C. Conjunct is the adverbial word, phrase or clauses which have a **cohesive function**, connecting different sections of a text. It is commonly used at or near the beginning of a sentence, hence it links between two sentences:

I saw him in the park; **therefore**, I went to greet him.

He is an unemployed person **yet** he has enough money to live. (= He is an unemployed person. **However**, he has enough money to live.)

5.45 Nouns Functioning as Premodifiers

Nouns function as premodifiers of other nouns, e.g.:

- The city council (**City** is a noun premodifying the headword noun **council**)
- August weather (**August** is a noun premodifying the headword noun **weather**)

Prepositional phrases with the noun as complement:

- The council **of the city**. (**Council** is a complement to the Prep Phrase **city**)
- A poem **about love**. (**Poem** is a complement to the Prep Phrase **love**)

Some nouns can function both attributively and predicatively:

- **Worcester** Porcelain (≈ **this porcelain is Worcester**)

