

INTRODUCING
ENGLISH
GRAMMAR
THIRD EDITION

KEY TO EXERCISES

Magne Dypedahl and
Hilde Hasselgård



FAGBOKFORLAGET

1

INTRODUCING GRAMMAR

- 1 Test yourself by choosing the correct alternative in the following sentences.
 - a. ~~It~~/**There** is a lot of work left to do.
 - b. They were travelling **by**/~~with~~ train.
 - c. Harry **goes** / ~~is going~~ to Spain every winter.
 - d. She ~~hanged~~/**hung** her new dress in her wardrobe.
 - e. I haven't got **any**/~~no~~/~~some~~ new ideas.
 - f. Go to bed at once, ~~do~~/**will** you!
 - g. Money ~~are~~/**is** the root of all evil.
 - h. The dog had lost **its**/~~it's~~ collar.

- 2 Corpus exercise based on the British National Corpus.
 - a. *Cats* occurs 1550 times, *dogs* 4347 times. (*Cat* occurs 3847 times, *dog* 7846.)
 - b. The most common phrase is *bacon and eggs* (62 occurrences).
 - c. *It's stupid cow*.
 - d. *An arm and a leg* typically occurs after the verbs *cost* and *pay*. There can also be a pronoun, such as *cost him an arm and a leg*. In such contexts, *an arm and a leg* means "a lot of money".
 - e. *Pretty girl* is slightly more common than *beautiful girl*.

- f. The most common in front of *boy* is *pretty* (18), followed by *beautiful* (11), *handsome* (9) and *cute* (0). Note the much lower frequency of these words with *boy* than with *girl*.
- g. The word that tends to occur before *your blessings* is *count*.

2

WORDS AND PHRASES

- 1 Function words: *should, in, the, her, through*
Lexical words: *car, hoping, fun, show, maybe, office, sleep, weekend*

- 2 Word classes of the italicized words and possible clues to arrive at the right alternative.
 - a. 1 We need to *book* our tickets. (*Book* is a verb – it occurs after *to*.)
2 I bought him a *book* about butterflies. (*Book* is a noun – it occurs after the article *a*.)
 - b. 1 They saluted the *American* flag. (*American* is an adjective – it describes *flag*, which is a noun.)
2 They saluted the *Americans*. (*Americans* is a noun – it occurs after *the* and is not followed by (another) noun.)
 - c. 1 She didn't know the *correct* answer. (*Correct* is an adjective – it says something about what kind of answer.)
2 She had to *correct* her mistake. (*Correct* is a verb – it occurs after *to* and is followed by a determiner.)
 - d. 1 I *will* always love you. (*Will* is an auxiliary – it occurs just after the subject and means roughly “want to”).
2 Were you there for the reading of his *will*? (*Will* is a noun – it occurs just after a determiner and is not followed by a main verb.)

- e.
 - 1 It was getting *dark*. (*Dark* is an adjective – it describes a colour.)
 - 2 He was afraid of the *dark*. (*Dark* is a noun – it occurs just after the definite article *the* and is not followed by (another) noun.)
- 3 Words that occur twice have not been repeated.
- a. The lexical verbs in the text: *begin, get, sit, have, do, peep, read, have, be, think*
 - b. The nouns in the text: *Alice, sister, bank, book, pictures, conversations, use*
 - c. The prepositional phrases in the text: *of sitting, by her sister, on the bank, of having nothing to do, into the book her sister was reading, in it, without pictures or conversation*
- 4 The answers are based on the Corpus of Contemporary American English as of spring 2018.
- a. There are slightly more occurrences of *been* as an auxiliary among the first 20 hits.
 - b. *In and out*.
 - c. The most common phrases are *at the end of, at the university of, at the top of, at the time of, at the beginning of*. *End, university, top, time* and *beginning* are all nouns.
 - d. *At the end of the day/year/first/month/season*. It is a prepositional phrase. *Day* is most common.
 - e. Many examples of *the end of the day* have a meaning equivalent to *når alt kommer til alt*, which is obviously not a literal meaning.

3

NOUNS

- 1 Choose the correct alternative in the following sentences. In case both alternatives are acceptable, explain any difference in meaning.
 - a. My teacher gave me a lot of good advice/advices for my exam.
 - b. The house is at the ~~outsirt~~/outskirts of the village.
 - c. For the South Pole Expedition they will have to bring heavy equipment/equipments.
 - d. I was worried about my ~~physic~~/physics test.
 - e. She couldn't sleep, so she tried to count sheep/sheeps.
 - f. We really like chicken/chickens.

Both alternatives are acceptable, but the first alternative refers to eating chicken (uncountable) and the second to the animals (countable).
 - g. I have two ~~bottles openers~~ / bottle openers; would you like one of them?

- 2 Correct what is wrong (or awkward) in the following sentences and explain your corrections.
 - a. Sarah is always getting into ~~troubles~~ trouble with her parents.

The noun “trouble” is uncountable in this context, where it has a rather general meaning. “Trouble” can also be countable (when it means “problem”), as for example “she felt all her troubles were over”.
 - b. Paul had forgotten to set his ~~alarm clock~~ alarm clock and overslept.

This compound noun is written in two words.

- c. I would like a ~~binocular~~ binoculars for Christmas.
This is a plural-only noun.
- d. My new jeans ~~fits~~ fit perfectly.
Jeans is a plural-only noun (like *trousers*).
- e. There were two white ~~mouses~~ mice running around in a cage.
This is an example of an irregular plural: *mouse-mice*.
- f. We made a U-turn at the ~~crossroad~~ crossroads.
The noun *crossroads* has the same form in singular and plural.
- g. Three ~~polices~~ police officers were hurt in the attack.
Police is a plural-only noun and does not combine with plural *-s*. In combination with numbers, it is more common to say, e.g., *police officers*, *policemen* or *police women*.

3 Explain the difference in form and meaning between the members of each pair.

- a. 1 They bought a lot of paper.
2 They bought a lot of papers.
The difference in form between the members of this sentence pair is the singular and plural forms of the noun *paper*. In sentence (a1) the noun is uncountable and refers to the substance of paper in general. In sentence (a2) the noun is countable, and the meaning is most likely that they bought a number of newspapers.
- b. 1 The Government has discussed the matter.
2 The Government have discussed the matter.
The difference in form lies in the verb phrases. The auxiliary *have* has singular form in sentence (b1) and plural form in sentence (b2). The noun *government* is a collective noun, which means that it refers to a group of people. Still, the singular form of the verb is used in (b1) because the focus is on the group of people as a unit, whereas the plural form is used in (b2) because the focus is on the individual members of the group.
- c. 1 The front page showed a picture of the Queen of Denmark.
2 The front page showed a picture of the Queen in Denmark.
On the surface, the difference between sentences (c1) and (c2) is the use of the preposition *of* in the first sentence and the preposition *in* in the second. In (c1) the prepositional phrase *of Denmark* functions as postmodifier in the noun phrase (*the Queen of Denmark*) as a kind of genitive construction (the Queen that belongs to Denmark). In (c2) the prepositional phrase *in Denmark* is similarly a postmodifier of *the Queen*, but here it has no genitive meaning and simply means “who is/was in

Denmark". Sentence (c1) refers to a picture taken of the Danish Queen anywhere in the world, whereas sentence (c2) refers to a picture of the Queen of any monarchy in the world taken in Denmark.

- d. 1 The media are incapable of not exaggerating.
2 The medium is incapable of not exaggerating.

The difference in form between sentences (d1) and (d2) is the nouns *media* and *medium* and the singular/plural form of the lexical verb *be*. In (d1) *media* refers to communications, in which case the noun has the same form in the singular and plural. Here the plural form is used. In (d2) the singular form *medium* is used, which can refer a person who claims to be speaking to people who are dead. The plural form of this noun is *mediums*.

- 4 Read the following text and answer the questions below:

I wish I could head back to UK

By Sarah Passey, Orange, Australia

I can fully understand why Brits are leaving Australia and wish I could be one of them. My family emigrated in 2005 with three young children. Although my husband's job in the Australian healthcare service allows him a much better quality of life than the NHS, for the rest of us life has been very hard. The children struggled to fit into the school system here, the cost of living is more than it used to be and life away from the major cities is so soulless. You would be amazed how much you can end up missing UK things like regional accents, a sense of history and belonging. On a recent trip back, my eight-year-old rolled about laughing in the lush greenness of a local lawn and announced that she loved English grass. (bbc.co.uk)

- a. Identify two proper nouns in this text.
Alternatives: Australia, the NHS, UK
- b. What is the plural form of *eight-year-old*?
eight-year-olds
- c. Are the following nouns countable or uncountable (as used in the present text)?
family (line 2) *countable*, *children* (line 2) *countable*, *job* (line 3) *countable*, *life* (line 4) *uncountable*, *history* (line 7) *uncountable*, *belonging* (line 7) *uncountable*, *lawn* (line 8) *countable*, *grass* (line 9) *uncountable*.

- d. Find three compound nouns of the following three types: (i) spelt as one word: *healthcare*; (ii) spelt with hyphenation between the words: *eight-year-old*; (iii) spelt as two words: *school system, healthcare system*.
- e. Find the following types of noun phrases in the text: (i) head with premodifier realized by an adjective: *young children, English grass*; (ii) head with premodifier realized by a noun: *healthcare service, school system*; (iii) head with a postmodifier realized by a prepositional phrase: *quality of life, sense of history, cost of living*; (iv) head with both a premodifier and a postmodifier: *a much better quality of life, my husband's job in the Australian healthcare service, UK things like regional accents, a recent trip back, the lush greenness of a local lawn*.

5 Findings from the British National Corpus at <http://corpus.byu.edu/>.

- a. The 20 most frequent nouns in the corpus:

TIME, PEOPLE, WAY, YEARS, YEAR, WORK, GOVERNMENT, DAY, MAN, WORLD, LIFE, MR, NUMBER, PART, HOUSE, CHILDREN, SYSTEM, PLACE, CASE, END

- b. Use the “Top 20” list from question (5a) and give the following information on each noun: is it proper or common? Countable or uncountable? Singular or plural? Collective?

TIME: common, uncountable, singular

PEOPLE: common, plural-only (can also be countable, singular when it refers to a particular group of people)

WAY: common, countable, singular

YEARS: common, countable, plural

YEAR: common, countable, singular

WORK: common, uncountable

GOVERNMENT: common, countable, singular, collective

DAY: common, countable, singular

MAN: common, countable, singular OR common, uncountable when it refers to “modern man” or the like

WORLD: proper, uncountable OR common, countable when it refers to different worlds couples live in or the Arab world as compared to the Western world

LIFE: common, uncountable OR common, countable, singular when it refers to the lives we live or the like

MR: common, countable, singular (although plural form is generally out of the question when *Mr* is used as a title)

NUMBER: common, countable, singular

PART: common, countable, singular

HOUSE: common, countable, singular

CHILDREN: common, countable, plural

SYSTEM: common, countable, singular

PLACE: common, countable, singular

CASE: common, countable, singular

END: common, uncountable (the opposite of the beginning) OR common, countable, singular

- c. Above the list of frequent nouns (on the corpus website) click on “COCA” after “COMPARE”. This will give you a similar list of the most frequent nouns in the American corpus. Which words occur among the top 20 in COCA that do not occur in the BNC top 20 list? Do any of them reflect American culture?

SCHOOL, PRESIDENT, THINGS, STATE, WOMEN, PERCENT, STUDENTS, FAMILY

Frequent references to the president of the US and states reflect the political system of the country. Frequent references to words such as *school* and *students* indicate that education is a very important value in American culture. In the same manner *family* may reflect the importance of family values. Note, however, that some of the differences may be due to other things as well, for example the kinds of texts that have gone into the two corpora or spelling conventions: *percent* is more frequent in the American corpus because it is most commonly spelt as two words (*per cent*) in British English. Similarly, *students* may be more frequent than in British English because it has a wider meaning in American English (American *students* = British *pupils* and *students*).

4

DETERMINERS AND PRONOUNS

- 1 Fill in the blanks with the indefinite article, the definite article, or Ø (zero article). Discuss any difference in meaning in case you find that two solutions are equally acceptable. Note that the choice of article should make sense in the context.

When Ø temperatures dropped to one degree Fahrenheit and my pipes froze this week, I was reminded of how lucky we are, under Ø most circumstances, to be able to turn a valve (In this case the definite article could be used. The meaning would then be less general and more specific. It could for instance refer to the main water valve.) and watch copious amounts of Ø clean water flow into our sinks, showers, toilets, and washing machines. In the U.S., we use an average of 100 gallons each day for Ø washing, cooking, cleaning, drinking, and lawn watering. This doesn't account for the water that's required to grow our food, manufacture our computers, or refine the fuels we rely on to drive our cars and keep our homes, and water, warm. In other parts of the world, nearly 900 million people do not have Ø access to the daily minimum water requirement of 5–13 clean and safe gallons, according to the United Nations. (From *National Geographic*)

- 2 Choose the correct alternative in the sentences below. If both alternatives are acceptable, explain any difference in meaning.
 - a. Of course, there will be some/any talk.
 - b. Almost nothing gets built these days without some/any federal support.

The use of “some” indicates some support in addition to other sources, whereas “any” means any support at all.

- c. There are no vegetables ~~some~~where/anywhere.

- d. Hardly ~~somebody~~anybody wants to read only the classics.

- e. Will there be somebody/anybody there with us?

The use of *somebody* might indicate that the speaker expects there to be somebody.

The use of *anybody* makes it a very neutral question.

- f. Peter got him/himself a new laptop.

The first alternative means that somebody else is the receiver of the laptop, while the second means that Peter is the receiver.

- g. I have never met these/those people.

The use of “those” creates much more distance and sounds negative.

- h. He kept his hands in his/(the) pockets.

The first alternative is more natural, as the possessive determiner is generally used with reference to body parts and clothes. However, the definite article is possible, not least to create an impersonal effect, or in the unlikely event that the pockets are not on the clothes he is wearing.

- i. They do not love each other / themselves.

The first alternative, with a reciprocal pronoun, means that individuals do not love each other (mutually) – we may imagine each of them saying “I don’t love you”. The other alternative, with a reflexive pronoun, would mean that some individuals do not love themselves – we may imagine each of them saying “I don’t love myself”.

- j. We are looking for some ~~childrens~~children’s books. (The apostrophe is placed before the s, which marks only the genitive, not the plural, in this word.)

3 Explain the difference in form and meaning between the members of each pair.

- a. 1 We went to church.

- 2 We went to the church.

In sentence (a1) the zero article (no article) is used, whereas in sentence (a2) the definite article is used as a determiner in the noun phrase that functions as adverbial. In sentence (a1) the focus is on the church as an institution. They went to take part in church activities. The definite article in (a2) is used to focus on the building. They went to the church building.

- b. 1 This house is almost 500 years old.
2 That house is almost 500 years old.

The difference in this sentence pair lies in the elements that function as determiners in the noun phrases that function as subjects, namely the demonstrative determiners “this” and “that”. As opposed to “this”, the use of “that” creates distance and could for instance refer to a house somebody is pointing to from a distance.

- c. 1 Did the police ask them any questions?
2 Did the police ask them some questions?

The difference between these sentences is that “any” is used as a quantifying determiner in sentence (c1) and *some* is used as a quantifying determiner in sentence (c2). The question in sentence (c1) is a neutral question because *any* is the neutral choice in an interrogative sentence. The use of *some* in sentence (c2) indicates that the speaker is more inclined to expect a positive answer.

- d. 1 We are all members of society.
2 We are all members of the society.

In sentence (d1) the zero article is used in the postmodifier in the noun phrase that functions as subject predicative. “Society” is here an uncountable and abstract noun that refers to society in general. In sentence (d2) the definite article is used as a determiner, which makes “society” countable. It then refers to a specific society, for instance the society for Estonian plastic surgeons.

- e. 1 Sarah broke her leg.
2 Sarah broke the leg.

In sentence (e1) the possessive determiner “her” functions as determiner in the noun phrase that functions as direct object in the clause. In sentence (e2) the definite article fills the same slot. The use of the possessive determiner is the neutral and natural choice to indicate that it was her own leg she broke. The use of the definite article can also refer to her leg, but the use of the definite article creates distance and becomes more clinical. The use of the article can also be used to indicate that it was the leg of the coffee table she broke, or another person’s leg.

- f. 1 Paul’s brother is younger than John.
2 Paul’s brother is younger than John’s.

The difference between these sentences is that the *s*-genitive is used twice in sentence (f2) and only once in sentence (f1). In sentence (f2) the possessive determiner

“John’s” is used even if the head noun (“brother”) is omitted. The use of the second s-genitive in sentence (f2) changes the meaning of the sentence. The first sentence is a comparison of Paul’s brother and John, while the second sentence is a comparison between Paul’s brother and John’s brother.

4 Read the following text and answer the questions below:

There was a table set out under a tree in front of the house, and the March Hare and the Hatter were having tea at it: a Dormouse was sitting between them, fast asleep, and the other two were using it as a cushion, resting their elbows on it, and talking over its head. ‘Very uncomfortable for the Dormouse,’ thought Alice; ‘only, as it’s asleep, I suppose it doesn’t mind.’

The table was a large one, but the three were all crowded together at one corner of it: ‘No room! No room!’ they cried out when they saw Alice coming. ‘There’s plenty of room!’ said Alice indignantly, and she sat down in a large arm-chair at one end of the table.

‘Have some wine,’ the March Hare said in an encouraging tone.

Alice looked all round the table, but there was nothing on it but tea. ‘I don’t see any wine,’ she remarked.

‘There isn’t any,’ said the March Hare.

‘Then it wasn’t very civil of you to offer it,’ said Alice angrily.

‘It wasn’t very civil of you to sit down without being invited,’ said the March Hare.

(From *Alice in Wonderland* by Lewis Carroll)

- a. Identify all the determiners in the text and group them according to their category (see Table 4.1).

There was a (article) table set out under a (article) tree in front of the (article) house, and the (article) March Hare and the (article) Hatter were having tea at it: a (article) Dormouse was sitting between them, fast asleep, and the (article) other two* were using it as a (article) cushion, resting their (possessive determiner) elbows on it, and talking over its (possessive determiner) head. ‘Very uncomfortable for the (article) Dormouse,’ thought Alice; ‘only, as it’s asleep, I suppose it doesn’t mind.’

The table was a (article) large one, but the (article) three* were all crowded together at one (quantifying determiner) corner of it: ‘No (quantifying determiner) room! No (quantifying determiner) room!’ they cried out when they saw Alice coming. ‘There’s

plenty of room!’ said Alice indignantly, and she sat down in a (article) large arm-chair at one (quantifying determiner) end of the (article) table.

‘Have some (quantifying determiner) wine,’ the March Hare said in an (article) encouraging tone.

Alice looked all* round the (article) table, but there was nothing on it but tea. ‘I don’t see any (quantifying determiner) wine,’ she remarked.

‘There isn’t any,’ said the (article) March Hare.

‘Then it wasn’t very civil of you to offer it,’ said Alice angrily.

‘It wasn’t very civil of you to sit down without being invited,’ said the (article) March Hare.

Notes on the words marked with asterisk (*):

- *Two* and *three*: these are numerals, and could function as quantifying determiners. But here they function as head of the noun phrase, that is, there is no following noun.
- *All*: since *round* is not a noun, *all* is not a determiner. (Instead we might analyse *all* as an intensifying adverb in this case.)

- b. Identify all the pronouns in the text and group them according to their category (see Table 4.2).

There was a table set out under a tree in front of the house, and the March Hare and the Hatter were having tea at it (personal): a Dormouse was sitting between them (personal), fast asleep, and the other two (indefinite) were using it (personal) as a cushion, resting their elbows on it (personal), and talking over its head. ‘Very uncomfortable for the Dormouse,’ thought Alice; ‘only, as it (personal)’s asleep, I suppose it (personal) doesn’t mind.’

The table was a large one (indefinite), but the three (indefinite) were all (indefinite) crowded together at one corner of it (personal): ‘No room! No room!’ they (personal) cried out when they (personal) saw Alice coming. ‘There’s plenty of room!’ said Alice indignantly, and she (personal) sat down in a large arm-chair at one end of the table.

‘Have some wine,’ the March Hare said in an encouraging tone.

Alice looked all round the table, but there was nothing (indefinite) on it (personal) but tea. ‘I don’t see any wine,’ she (personal) remarked.

‘There isn’t any (indefinite),’ said the March Hare.

‘Then it (personal) wasn’t very civil of you (personal) to offer it (personal),’ said Alice angrily.

‘It (personal) wasn’t very civil of you (personal) to sit down without being invited,’ said the March Hare.

- c. Why is the pronoun *it* used to refer to the Dormouse, rather than *he*?
The effect is that the Dormouse is made less human.
- d. Explain the choice of pronoun/determiner every time *some* or *any* occurs in the text.
The determiner “some” is used in the sentence “have some wine” because it is an offer, and the speaker indicates that there is wine to be had. The indefinite pronoun “any” is used on the clause “There isn’t any, ...” because “any” is the neutral choice in negative sentences.
- e. Translate the clause *and talking over its head* (line 3) into Norwegian and comment on the grammatical changes you need to make.
It can be translated into “og snakket over hodet på den” or “mens de snakket over hodet på den”. In English a possessive determiner is used in the noun phrase “its head”, whereas in Norwegian the same type of possession is expressed through a prepositional phrase with an indefinite pronoun as complement: “på den”.
- 5 Findings from the Corpus of Contemporary American English at <http://corpus.byu.edu/>:
- a. In COCA “to the hospital” is far more frequent. In the BNC “to hospital” is more frequent.
- b. Double negation occurs in the COCA corpus, but it is very infrequent in academic texts. It is more frequent in newspapers and magazines and most frequent in fiction and in spoken language.
- c. Most examples of “you got any” occur in interrogative sentences (*Have you got any...*). Often *have* is omitted, so we get what looks like declarative sentences that function as questions, for example *You got any tips?* Indirect questions also occur, e.g. *So I wondered if you got any viewpoints on that this morning.*
- d. Search for “you got some”. Is it more or less frequent than “you got any”? Does it occur in interrogative or declarative sentences, or both? Positive or negative? If “you got some” occurs in a question (in the top 15–20 hits), why do you think the speaker/writer chose *some* instead of *any*?
You got some is slightly less frequent than *you got any* (292 vs 340 hits, June 2018). It occurs mostly in positive declarative sentences, but interrogative sentences occur. “Some” is then selected because a positive answer is anticipated or expected. *You got some* is also found in *that*-clauses, for example *I read that that you got some culinary training.*

- e. Search for “the leg”. Note how many times it occurs. Look at the first ten examples that appear when you click on “the leg”. What is the effect of using the definite article instead of a possessive determiner?

It occurs 2122 times (as per June 2018 – the number may increase as the corpus is added to). The use of the definite article creates some distance between the person and the leg, which makes it more neutral and impersonal, as in a *compound fracture of the leg*... The definite article is the normal choice if there is also a reflexive pronoun in the sentence, as in *shooting themselves in the leg*.

- f. Possessive determiner + leg occurs 6036 times, which is nearly three times as often as *the leg*. The findings confirm the observations in section 4.5.

5

ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

- 1 Choose the correct alternative in the sentences below. If you find both alternatives acceptable, explain any difference in meaning.
 - a. All the venues are easy/easily accessible.
 - b. There's a possible/possibly financial problem.
 - c. We admired the wonderful/wonderfully panorama.
 - d. Our neighbours are (simple)/simply people who live near us.

Although less likely in this case, the adjective “simple” could be used as a premodifier to describe the noun (that is, the neighbours are not sophisticated people). Since the sentence seems to be a more general description of neighbours, however, the adverb “simply” is the more likely choice. The adverb serves as a comment on the part of the speaker.
 - e. They seemed happy/happily about George's victory.
 - f. Similar/Similarly teams of medical advisers were called upon.
 - g. Something in here smells horrible/horribly.

Normally an adjective will follow a linking verb to describe a quality of the subject referent. However, the adverb “horribly” can be used to refer to the intensity of the smell.
 - h. This cream will give you a beautiful/beautifully smooth complexion.
 - i. Particular/Particularly groups such as recent immigrants felt their needs were being overlooked.

The adjective “particular” premodifies or describes the noun “groups”, whereas the use of the adverb “particularly” functions as a comment on the part of the speaker.

2 Explain the difference in form and meaning between the members of each pair.

- a. 1 She is a natural blonde.
2 She is naturally a blonde.

The difference between these sentences is that the adjective “natural” is used in sentence (a1) and the adverb “naturally” in sentence (a2). The adjective in sentence (a1) functions as premodifier in the noun phrase. The adjective classifies or describes what kind of blonde she is, namely one who does not need to dye her hair to be blonde. In sentence (a2) the adverb “naturally” means that it is obvious to the speaker that she is a blonde.

- b. 1 I prefer blue.
2 I prefer the blue one.

In sentence (b1), “blue” is used as a nominalized adjective and refers to the colour in general, and it behaves as an uncountable noun. In sentence (b2) the adjective “blue” is used to identify a concrete object and functions as a premodifier in the noun phrase “the blue one”, premodifying the pronoun “one”. The meaning of (b1) is roughly “My favourite colour is blue”, while (b2) means “I choose the blue thing over those that have other colours”.

- c. 1 The English can be fairly strange and peculiar.
2 The Englishman can be fairly strange and peculiar.

The difference lies in the noun phrases that function as subjects. In sentence (c1) the nominalized adjective “English” functions as head. In sentence (c2) the countable noun “Englishman” functions as head. The difference in meaning is that the nominalized adjective refers to a group of people (English people in general), whereas the countable noun “Englishman” in the singular refers to one specific person.

- d. 1 They all work hard at it.
2 They hardly work at all.

In this sentence pair there is a difference in word order in addition to lexical differences. In sentence (d1) the pronoun “all” functions as part of the subject. The prepositional phrase “at it” describes what they work with. In sentence (d2) the adverb “hardly” denotes how much (or how little) they work. The prepositional phrase “at all” is

used to draw attention to another element in the clause, namely “hardly”. Sentence (d1) means that everybody works intensively with some project. The pronoun “all” is used to emphasize that everybody is involved. Sentence (d2) means that they do very little work indeed.

- e. 1 The Americans will see this as a hopeful and optimistic sign.
2 The Americans will hopefully see this as an optimistic sign.

In sentence (e1) we find the adjective “hopeful”, whereas in sentence (e2) we find the adverb “hopefully”. Sentence (e1) also includes the coordinating conjunction “and”. In (e2) the indefinite article is “an” rather than “a” because the following word begins with a vowel sound. In (e1) the adjective “hopeful” (along with “optimistic”) premodifies the noun “sign”. In (e2) the adverb “hopefully” is used as an evaluation of the situation on the part of the speaker. Sentence (e1) states that the Americans will see this as a positive sign. In sentence (e2) we get the speaker’s comment (“hopefully”) on his or her wish that the Americans will see this as a positive sign.

3 Read the following text and answer the questions below:

For Christmas shoppers watching their pennies closely, the offer of a half-price frozen turkey sounds too good to miss. Unfortunately, Tesco’s heavily promoted deal is not all that it seems. Rival supermarkets are selling their own frozen turkeys for around the same price – without the supposed 50 per cent discount. A Tesco half-price, extra-large frozen turkey is reduced to £25 from £50, while the equivalent bird sold by Asda is available at the full price of £24.

In theory, stores are supposed to advertise a product at the higher price for at least 28 days before using it as a benchmark for any price cut promotions. Tesco insists that it complied with this rule because they sold the turkeys at their full original price during the summer months of August and September – when very few shoppers would want a frozen turkey. The Tesco offer reinforces the view that supermarkets try to pull the wool over customers’ eyes with bogus deals. Some 42 per cent of shoppers do not believe that all offers are genuine, according to an Ipsos MORI survey.

(From the *Daily Mail*, slightly adapted)

- a. The adjectives in the text that function as premodifiers of nouns have been marked in **blue**.

For Christmas shoppers watching their pennies closely, the offer of a **half-price frozen** turkey sounds too good to miss. Unfortunately, Tesco's heavily **promoted** deal is not all that it seems. **Rival** supermarkets are selling their own **frozen** turkeys for around the **same** price – without the **supposed** 50 per cent discount. A Tesco **half-price, extra-large frozen** turkey is reduced to £25 from £50, while the **equivalent** bird sold by Asda is available at the **full** price of £24.

In theory, stores are supposed to advertise a product at the **higher** price for at least 28 days before using it as a benchmark for any price cut promotions. Tesco insists that it complied with this rule because they sold the turkeys at their **full original** price during the summer months of August and September – when very few shoppers would want a **frozen** turkey. The Tesco offer reinforces the view that supermarkets try to pull the wool over customers' eyes with **bogus** deals. Some 42 per cent of shoppers do not believe that all offers are genuine, according to an Ipsos MORI survey.

- b. Find an adjective in the text that is not followed by a noun, but describes the subject. In the last line of the text the adjective “genuine” describes the subject “offers”. In line 6 “available” functions as head of the adjective phrase (“available at the full price of £24”) that describes the subject (“the equivalent bird sold by Asda”).
 - c. Analyse the structure of the adjective phrase *too good to miss* (line 2). It is a split modifier with “good” as head, “too” as first part and “to miss” as second part.
 - d. Why is the form *heavily* preferable to *heavy* in the second sentence? The adjective “heavy” would describe or premodify “deal”. In this case the purpose is to modify the adjective “promoted”. The adverb “heavily” says something about how the deal is promoted.
- 4 Use the Corpus of Contemporary American English at <http://corpus.byu.edu/> to find answers to the following questions. (See instructions for how to use the corpus at the end of Chapter 1.)
- a. Search for *the rich* and go through the first 20 hits on the list. Decide in each case whether *rich* is a nominalized adjective or a premodifier. In a search (June 2018), *the rich* occurred as a nominalized adjective (functioning as head of a noun phrase) in 17 of the first 20 cases, but this may vary. An example is ... *while cutting taxes for the rich*. The adjective is a premodifier of another noun in the remaining 3 cases, e.g. *The rich wood frame was scarred...*

- b. The more common comparative form in each of the following pairs has been set in **blue and bold**: **Crazier** – more crazy; **cleverer** – more clever; **slower** – more slow; **slowlier** – more slowly; **earlier** – more early.

- c. Search for the word *likely* and study the first fifteen occurrences of it. Does it function as an adjective or an adverb? How can you tell in each case?

In the sample studied here, seven cases were adjectives in the constructions “be likely to do something” or “it is likely that”, e.g. *agencies are most likely to modify rules; it is far more likely culpable behavior will be uncovered*. Thus, as an adjective, *likely* functions as a subject predicative in these sentences; it gives a description of the subject. (In addition it can be a premodifier as a noun, but this function was not found in our sample.) *Likely* is an adverb (and an adverbial) in the remaining nine cases, where it is placed between an auxiliary and a main verb, as in *it would likely be unacceptable*, between the main verb and a following obligatory clause element, as in *there are likely far stronger proxies*, or before an adjective that it modifies, as in *Posner’s theory would only apply to the, likely rare, individual*. As an adverb, *likely* either modifies an adjective (or another adverb) or gives the speaker’s evaluation of the content of a sentence, in which case it can often be paraphrased as “I think”.

- d. Here are the three most frequent adverbs modifying the adjectives *nice*, *smart*, *beautiful*, *unkind*, *stupid* and *ugly* in the COCA corpus (as of June 2018).

very/really/so nice
very/so/too smart
most/so/very beautiful
so/very/too unkind
so/how/too stupid
very/so/as ugly

- e. Here are the three most frequent adjectives premodifying the nouns *man*, *woman*, *boy*, *girl*, *child* in the COCA corpus.

young/old/unidentified man
unidentified/young/old woman
little/young/good boy
little/young/good girl
only/young/small child

6

CLAUSES AND SENTENCES

- 1 Main clauses are marked with an M and dependent clauses with a D.
 - a. everyone went together – M
 - b. I didn't know – M
 - c. if you are rich – D
 - d. in order to celebrate – D
 - e. you can do what you like – M
 - f. that more people can move into the area – D
 - g. they sell fruit and vegetables – M
 - h. which they have grown themselves – D

The most obvious combinations are a+d, b+f, c+e, g+h, but others may be possible too.

- 2 Explain the difference in form and meaning between the members of each pair.
 - a. 1 She screamed and they ran away.
2 She screamed that they ran away.

Sentence (a1) is a compound sentence: *she screamed* and *they ran away* are both main clauses. Sentence (a2) is a complex sentence: *that they ran away* is a dependent clause. It describes what she screamed, while the second main clause in (a1) describes an action that happened in addition to (possibly as a result of) her screaming.

b. 1 Because he is smart, Peter reads a lot.

2 Peter is smart because he reads a lot.

Both sentences are complex sentences. Sentence (b1) starts with a dependent clause and (b2) starts with the main clause. There is a possible meaning difference: in sentence (b1) Peter's reading is a consequence of his smartness. In (b2) it may be the other way round; the reading makes him smart.

c. 1 Mary did the laundry and went out.

2 Mary did the laundry and Sarah went out.

Both sentences are compound sentences. In the second part of (c1) there is no subject. This means that Mary is the subject for this second clause as well as the first. She did the laundry before she went out. The second main clause in (c2) has Sarah as subject. Thus two different people were involved in two different activities.

d. 1 It was sunny when he wore his new suit.

2 It was sunny, but he wore his new suit.

Sentence (d1) is complex and contains the dependent clause *when he wore his new suit*. Sentence (d2) is compound. The second main clause is introduced by the coordinating conjunction *but*. The meaning of (d1) is that the sun was shining at the time when he wore his new suit. Sentence (d2) means that he wore his new suit in spite of the sun – maybe the suit would normally be considered too warm in sunny weather.

3 Read the following text and answer the questions below:

(i) **The Mondana “school bus”** picks up dozens of children every morning along the banks of the River Napo. (ii) **The Napo** flows from Ecuador into the Amazon. (iii) It's one of the Amazon's greatest tributaries, and in Mondana it's also the local highway. (iv) There are very few roads deep in the rainforest. (v) Without the school canoe, most of these children would miss out on an education altogether because the journey to school would be too difficult. (vi) But last year a road was built across the river from the school, through the village. (vii) **Lizbeth, age 17, lives** next to the new road with her mother Rosa. (viii) Now **Lizbeth and her family can catch** the bus to the local market town, which has changed their lives.

a. Subjects are marked with **green** and verbals with **red** in sentences (i), (ii), (vii) and (viii).

b. Only sentence (iii) is a *compound sentence*.

c. *Dependent clauses* in the text have been underlined.

- 4 Answers based on the British National Corpus at <http://corpus.byu.edu/>.
- a. *Because* seems to occur most often later in the sentence, but is not uncommon in the beginning of sentences either.
 - b. Especially some of the sentences that start with *because* are incomplete sentences, such as *Because I like it*. This is a dependent clause that occurs on its own, and is thus an incomplete sentence.
 - c. Seventeen instances of the word *sentence* probably refer to its grammar/linguistics sense (one or two are a bit unclear in their meaning). Three refer to prison sentences.
 - d. The great majority of occurrences of the phrase *main clause* are in texts about grammar/linguistics. But there is at least one from a legal text, where *clause* means “part of a legal document or law that officially states that something must be done” (definition from *Macmillan Dictionary*).

7

CLAUSE ELEMENTS

- 1 Identify the syntactic function of the underlined element in each of the following sentences.
 - a. Alice was getting very tired.
subject predicative
 - b. She was sitting beside her sister on the bank.
verbal
 - c. Her sister was reading a book.
direct object
 - d. Once or twice she had peeped into the book.
adverbial (circumstantial)
 - e. The book had no pictures or conversation.
direct object
 - f. The hot day made her very sleepy.
object predicative
 - g. Suddenly a White Rabbit with pink eyes ran close by her.
subject
 - h. At the time it all seemed quite natural.
subject predicative
 - i. If you drink much from a bottle marked 'poison', it is almost certain to disagree with you, sooner or later.
adverbial (circumstantial)

j. However, this bottle was *not* marked ‘poison’.

adverbial (linking)

k. She generally gave herself very good advice.

indirect object

2 Explain the difference in form and meaning between the members of each pair.

a. 1 The cat was teasing the magpie.

2 The magpie was teasing the cat.

There is a difference of word order in the two sentences. In sentence (a1) the noun “cat” is the head of the noun phrase that functions as subject, whereas the noun “magpie” is the head of the noun phrase that functions as direct object. In sentence (a2) it is the noun “magpie” that functions as the head noun in the subject, whereas “cat” is the head noun in the direct object. Sentence (a1) means that the magpie was the target of the teasing, while the opposite was the case in sentence (a2).

b. 1 Tom bought her a canoe.

2 Tom bought her canoe.

The most obvious difference in form between these sentences is that we find the indefinite article “a” in sentence (b1), whereas in sentence (b2) we do not. This leads to a difference in clause pattern. In sentence (b1) the clause pattern is S (Tom), V (bought), iO (her) and dO (a canoe). In sentence (b2) the clause pattern is S (Tom), V (bought) and dO (her canoe). “Her” is a personal pronoun in (b1) and a possessive determiner in (b2). Sentence (b1) means that Tom gave her the canoe that he had purchased. Sentence (b2) means that he bought a canoe that belonged to her.

c. 1 The problem has an obvious solution.

2 The problem obviously has a solution.

In these two sentences there is a difference in clause pattern. In sentence (c1) the clause pattern is S-V-dO, whereas the clause pattern in sentence (c2) is S-A-V-dO. There is also a lexical difference between the adjective “obvious” and the adverb “obviously”. The adjective is part of the noun phrase that functions as direct object in sentence (c1), while the adverb in sentence (c2) functions as a stance adverbial. This makes the elements that function as direct objects different. In sentence (c1) the direct object is realized by a noun phrase that consists of the determiner “an” (“-n” because of the initial vowel sound in the next word), the premodifier “obvious” and the head “solution”. In sentence (c2) the direct object is realized by a noun phrase

that consists of the determiner “a” and the head “solution”. Sentence (c1) indicates that there is a self-evident way this problem can be solved. Sentence (c2) basically means the same thing, but the difference is that it clearly involves the judgment or opinion of the speaker/writer (stance adverbial).

- d. 1 The bridge was closed by then.
2 The bridge was closed by the police.

The difference between these sentences lies in the prepositional phrases that function as adverbials. There is no difference in clause pattern (S-V-A). In sentence (d1) the adverbial is realized by a prepositional phrase in which the adverb “then” functions as the complement of the preposition “by”. In sentence (d2) the noun phrase “the police” is the complement of the preposition “by”. Sentence (d1) focuses on the fact that bridge was closed by the time they came or checked (circumstantial time adverbial), while sentence (d2) focuses on the doers or agents of the action (circumstantial participant adverbial).

- e. 1 We are not best friends yet.
2 Yet, we are not best friends.

There is a word order difference between these sentences. There is also a comma in sentence (e2), which we do not find in sentence (e1). In sentence (e1) the clause pattern is S-V-sP-A (“not” may also be regarded as a separate adverbial), and the adverb “yet” functions as a circumstantial time adverbial. In sentence (e2) the clause pattern is A-S-V-sP (“not” can also be regarded as a separate adverbial), and the adverb “yet” here functions as a linking adverbial. In sentence (e1) the use of the adverb “yet” indicates that they may very well become best friends soon, whereas the use of the adverb “yet” in sentence (e2) is used to contrast something stated before to the fact that they are not best friends.

- 3 Determine whether the underlined adverbial in each sentence is a circumstantial adverbial, a stance adverbial or a linking adverbial.
- a. You know how to behave nicely.
circumstantial
- b. Anyway, I enjoyed these relaxed performances.
stance
- c. I’m better off most weeks.
circumstantial

- d. If the plant is still green, then it is probably alive.
stance
- e. If the plant is still green, then it is probably alive.
circumstantial
- f. Comsat also sold meteorological information.
linking
- g. We took him to the Castle Inn.
circumstantial
- h. They sold information to a competing firm.
circumstantial
- i. I'm not really worried about it to be honest.
stance
- j. For that reason he volunteered to look after Ray Marsh.
circumstantial

4 Read the following text and answer the questions below:

Detectives investigating a drive-by style shotgun attack in Leeds have arrested a man on suspicion of attempted murder. Two men were injured when a shotgun was fired from one car at another in Maud Avenue, Beeston. Police said it was fired twice from a black BMW after it pulled alongside a Toyota Yaris at around 11pm on Wednesday. The two victims suffered minor injuries, including a pellet wound to the hand, in the shooting. A 24-year-old man was arrested as part of a planned firearms operation at an address in Beeston at 3.30am today. West Yorkshire Police's Firearms Prevent Team are continuing to carry out extensive enquiries into the shooting.

- a. What is the subject of the first sentence of the text?
Detectives investigating a drive-by style shotgun attack in Leeds
- b. Find two adverbs in the text and state their syntactic function.
twice : circumstantial time adverbial.
today : circumstantial time adverbial.
- c. Identify circumstantial adverbials of the following types in the text: time, place, reason.
in Leeds (place); *on suspicion of attempted murder* (reason); *when a shotgun was fired from one car at another in Maud Avenue, Beeston* (time); *from one car at another* (place); *in Maud Avenue, Beeston* (place); *twice* (time); *from a black BMW* (place); *after it pulled alongside a Toyota Yaris at around 11pm on Wednesday* (time); *alongside a Toyota Yaris* (place); *at around 11pm on Wednesday* (time); *in the shooting*

(place); as part of a planned firearms operation at an address in Beeston (reason); at 3.30am today (time).

- d. What is the syntactic function of the last phrase of the text (underlined)?
direct object

5 Notes based on searches in the Corpus of Contemporary American English at <http://corpus.byu.edu/> as per June 2018.

- a. One example where *considered* is followed only by a direct object: ...they considered canceling the project... (*canceling the project* is dO)
- b. One example where *considered* is followed by a direct object and an object predicative: ...because they considered him a lowly hairdresser (*him* = dO, a *lowly hairdresser* = oP)
- c. The verb *send* can occur with either an indirect object or a prepositional phrase with *to* functioning as an adverbial. *Sent a message to* is much more common than *sent * a message* in the corpus.
- d. The adverb *negatively* could have been used instead of *in a negative manner* in most cases, with no difference in meaning. However, there are some cases in which *negatively* would seem unidiomatic, e.g. *to behave in a negative manner*; *They listen for a heart beat and shake their heads in a negative manner*. As regards *certainly* and *in a certain manner*, the adverb tends to be interpreted as a stance adverbial, so in order to emphasize the circumstantial meaning of manner, the phrase *in a certain manner* may be a better option.
- e. The phrase *during the ** occurs with both adjectives and nouns in the place of the asterisk. The five most frequent nouns in the pattern *during the ** are *day, war, summer, course, campaign*. Some of these are also frequent after the adjectives following *during the (first, past, last, early)*.
- f. *Furthermore* occurs 14459 times in the corpus. It is most frequent in academic English (judged by frequency per million words), and least frequent in spoken English and fiction. The adverb typically functions as a linking adverbial.

8

SYNTACTIC ANALYSIS

- 1 Analyse the following sentences syntactically. The clause elements that contain more than one word have been bracketed.
 - a. [Until he was four year old,] [James Henry Trotter] had [a happy life]. A- S-V-dO
 - b. He lived peacefully [with his mother and father]. S-V-A-A
 - c. There were [plenty of other children] there. aS-V-S-A
 - d. [Roald Dahl] was born [in 1916]. S-V-A
 - e. [His parents] were Norwegian. S-V-sP
 - f. [Roald Dahl's many books] [are read] [by children all over the world]. S-V-A
 - g. [Quentin Blake] is [a well-known illustrator]. S-V-sP
 - h. He illustrated [a number of Roald Dahl's books] [during the author's lifetime]. S-V-dO-A

- 2 Analyse the following sentences and explain the difference in form and meaning between the members of each pair.
 - a.
 - 1 The plane left early.
 - 2 The early plane left.

The clause structure of sentence (a1) is subject-verbal-adverbial, whereas the clause structure of sentence (a2) is subject-verbal. The adverb “early” functions as adverbial in (a1). In (a2) “early” is an adjective that functions as a premodifier in the noun phrase

that functions as subject. Sentence (a1) focuses on the time the plane left. Sentence (a2) focuses on the fact that the plane departed.

- b. 1 Sandra was a vegetarian.

- 2 Sandra married a vegetarian.

The difference lies in the elements that function as verbals, namely the verbs “was” (linking verb) and “married”. The clause elements in (b1) are subject-verbal-subject predicative. In (b2) the clause elements are subject-verbal-direct object. In other words, the noun phrase “a vegetarian” functions as subject predicative in (b1) and direct object in (b2). This means that “a vegetarian” is a description of Sandra in sentence (b1) and a description of the person she married in sentence (b2).

- c. 1 They found Mma Ramotswe a rather colourful woman.

- 2 They found Mma Ramotswe a rather colourful outfit.

In these sentences there is a lexical difference between the nouns “woman” and “outfit”. The most likely interpretation of sentence (c1) is that their impression of Mma Ramotswe was that she was a rather colourful woman, in which case the clause structure is subject-verbal-direct object-object predicative. Sentence (c2) means that they helped Mma Ramotswe finding something to wear. The sentence structure of (c2) is subject-verbal-indirect object-direct object. Sentence (c1) could have the same clause structure as (c2) if the meaning is that Mma Ramotswe was looking for a worker, housemaid, girlfriend or the like, and they found one for her.

- d. 1 I used to open the door with a key card.

- 2 I used a key card to open the door.

In sentence (d1) the verbal is “used to open”. This is followed by a direct object (“the door”) and a circumstantial adverbial (“with a key card”). In (d2) the verbal in the main clause is “used”. The infinitive clause “to open the door” functions as a circumstantial adverbial (purpose). Sentence (d1) means that a key card was regularly used in the past, while (d2) can be about a specific occasion.

- e. 1 These people are now running the country.

- 2 These people are now running around the country.

On the surface the difference between the sentences is the preposition “around”, which occurs only in sentence (e2). The verb “run” is a transitive verb in (e1), which gives the clause pattern S-V-dO. In sentence (e2) the verb “run” is intransitive, and the clause pattern of sentence (e2) is S-V-A. Sentence (e1) means that these people

are now governing the country, whereas sentence (e2) refers to some people that are now taking part in marathon races or the like at different places around the country.

3 Read the following text and answer the questions below:

An unfinished self-portrait by the Dutch master Rembrandt has been discovered under another painting using advanced scientific techniques. No detail is visible in the face, but experts say it matches a reproductive print from 1633 that has an inscription saying it is by Rembrandt. X-ray scanning was used to detect the pigments in hidden layers of paint. A leading expert on Rembrandt said he was convinced of its authenticity based on similarities in painting style. The unfinished self-portrait was discovered under another panel said to be by the master – “Old Man with a Beard”.

- a. Identify the phrase that functions as verbal in the first sentence (line 1–2).
has been discovered
 - b. Analyse the underlined part of the second sentence.
subject (No detail) – verbal (is) – subject predicative (visible) – adverbial (in the face).
 - c. What is the syntactic function of the underlined clause *to detect ... paint*?
adverbial (circumstantial)
 - d. Analyse the underlined part of the last sentence.
subject (The unfinished self-portrait) – verbal (was discovered) – adverbial (under another panel).
- 4 Notes based on searches in the Corpus of Contemporary American English at <http://corpus.byu.edu/> as per June 2018, after clicking on “sample” to get examples from a broader variety of text types than we would get simply by looking at those hits that occurred first.
- a. Look up the word *told*. Among the first 25–30 hits, find two sentences where *told* is followed by an indirect object, and two where *been told* has a subject that refers to the recipient of the message.

For instance:

Bandar told him (iO) his partner was still up on the Monument.

I'd told myself (iO) something that sounded good at the time.

...**they** were told which condition would be operative.

I mean **he** hasn't been talked to by everyone and told what to say...

- b. Search for *told a **. Among the phrases listed for this pattern, are there any where *a** does not seem to represent an indirect object? If so, which ones?

For instance *told a story, told a lie, told a joke*. Also phrases such as *told a little..., told a long..., told a good..., told a sad..., etc.*

- c. Search for *keeping*. Study the first 20 hits closely. What are the grammatical patterns *keeping* occurs in? (Compare your findings to the examples in section 8.5.)

For instance:

S-V-dO (*keeping those mittens*)

S-V-dO-A (*keeping global warming below 1.5 degrees Celsius*)

S-V-sP (*keeping trim*)

S-V-do-oP (*keeping his mouth shut*)

- d. Look at the two expressions *subject to* and *object of*. Which one is more common in COCA? How would you translate the two expressions into Norwegian based on the first 10 examples of each in the corpus?

The expression *subject to* is more common.

Examples of translations of *subject to*:

utsatt for, rammet av, gjenstand for, under forutsetning av, ...

Examples of translations of *object of*:

Hensikt med, gjenstand for, mål for, årsak til ...

9

IT AND THERE

- 1 Identify and correct any errors in the sentences below. Explain your corrections. (NB: not all the sentences contain errors!)
- a. ~~There~~ It is no mean feat to be 13 years of age and a world-class skier.
It is wrong to use the existential *there* here because existence is not an issue. The anticipatory *it* is correct because it functions as an anticipatory subject with a dependent clause as real subject (*to be 13 years and a world-class skier*). Since the real subject is a fairly long and heavy element (dependent clause), end position in the sentence is preferable.
 - b. There is broad political consensus that the hospital needs a new children's ward. (existential *there*)
 - c. It was high time she stopped procrastinating. (anticipatory *it*)
 - d. ~~It~~ There is light at the end of the tunnel.
The existential *there* is correct because light exists (metaphorically) at the end of the tunnel.
 - e. It is not the time between Christmas and New Year that makes you gain weight. (cleft *it*)
 - f. ~~It~~ There has not come more information about the accident.
The existential *there* is correct because no more information exists.
 - g. There are many races left this season. (existential *there*)
 - h. The higher we go, the more snow ~~it~~ there is.
The existential *there* is correct because more snow exists.

- 2 Fill in either *it* or *there* in the blanks in the text below. If you find that either alternative is acceptable in the context, explain any difference in meaning.

There are many kinds of changes that you can make in your home to make **it** the kind of home that you are looking for. Starting with your bedroom, we suggest you install sliding wardrobe doors to get instant and easy access to your clothing. **There** is a choice of everything from contemporary designer doors to the traditional-looking Japanese looking doors. When planning to install closet entryways, **it** is a good idea to think about what look you are going for. In addition, **it** is important to think about the function of the wardrobe bypass entry. Considering these things makes **it** possible for you to find the greatest solution **there** is. If **it/there** is a completely unique look that you are after, **there** are custom-fitted wardrobes in a range of materials from different suppliers.

In the one case where both *it* and *there* can be used, *there* creates an existential sentence (such a unique look exists, and “you” are looking for it), while *it* is part of a cleft sentence, giving extra focus to *unique look*, and possibly contrasting it with e.g. an ordinary look. (The original text had *it*.)

- 3 Translate the following sentences into English.

- a. Det er jo hundre år siden.
It/That was a hundred years ago, you know.
- b. Det er ikke rart at de er bekymret.
No wonder they are worried.
- c. Det er jeg helt sikker på.
I am quite sure of that.
- d. Det var et egyptisk flagg som vaiet fra flaggstangen.
There was an Egyptian flag flying from the flagstaff. (existential sentence)
OR: It was an Egyptian flag that was flying from the flagstaff. (cleft sentence)
- e. Det er klart det er dyrt.
Of course it is expensive.
- f. Det er bare det at bussen kommer fra den andre kanten.
It's only that the bus will arrive from the other direction.
- g. Det er derfor vi har droppet seniorklassene.
That is why we have dropped the senior classes.

4 Explain the difference in form and meaning between the members of each pair.

a. 1 There is time for dessert.

2 It is time for dessert.

The difference between these sentences is the use of *it* and *there*. The use of the existential *there* in sentence (a1) means that it is possible to have dessert because the schedule allows it. The use of the empty *it* in (a2) means that the time has come for dessert.

b. 1 He saw it as a great opportunity.

2 He saw there was a great opportunity.

In sentence (b1) the use of the reference *it* means that something concrete that has been mentioned previously or that is understood from the context is seen as a good opportunity. *It* functions as direct object in the sentence and as a *great opportunity* as circumstantial adverbial. In (b2) *there was a great opportunity* is a dependent clause which functions as direct object. In this dependent clause the existential *there* functions as anticipatory subject and signals the existence of a great opportunity.

c. 1 It was a good thing that the missionary was doing.

2 It was a good thing that the missionary was doing that work.

The difference between these sentences is two different *it*-constructions. In (c1) we have a cleft construction, which also includes the relative pronoun *that*. The purpose is to underline or emphasize that it was a good thing the missionary did, not a bad thing. In (c2) the use of an anticipatory *it* could be motivated by the long element that functions as the real subject, namely the *that*-clause, which is a dependent clause with the subordinating conjunction *that*. The dependent clause also contains the noun phrase *that work*, in which *that* functions as demonstrative determiner. Sentence (c2) praises the fact that the missionary did the work, not the work itself.

d. 1 There were some sandwiches that he wanted.

2 It was some sandwiches that he wanted.

The difference between these two sentences is the use of the existential *there* followed by the lexical verb *to be* in the plural (simple past verb form) in (d1) and a cleft-*it* in combination with the verb *to be* in the singular in (d2). Sentence (d1) means that he wanted some sandwiches that existed or were to be found somewhere. In (d2) the cleft construction is used to emphasize that it was sandwiches he wanted, not something else.

- e. 1 (The phone rang.) It was my boyfriend.
 2 (The doorbell rang.) There was my boyfriend.

In (e1) the referential *it* is used because the sentence gives information about the phone call and *it* refers to the person who called. In (e2) the locative *there* is used, which means that the boyfriend was located right there at the door, perhaps somewhat unexpectedly. The syntactic function of *my boyfriend* is subject predicative in (e1) and subject in (e2).

5 Read the following text and answer the questions below:

As a long-time supporter of cricket *it* has been wonderful to see some great Test matches played in good spirit by up and coming young players and legends alike. However, I hope the snarling and bullying aggressiveness shown by James Pattinson is not a sign that the Australian team is going to return to the bad old days when *it* might have been the best team in the world but not very popular. At the conclusion of the game, *it* looked likely that the team was not going to shake hands with the two Indian batsmen remaining. *There* is no need for such displays. In the old days, *it* was the “best and fairest” that received the award rather than the “Man of the Match”. *It* might be a good idea to restore this tradition. Play the game hard, fast and aggressive but above all respect the opposition, respect the rules and respect the game itself. That’s what cricket and, indeed, life is all about. (From the *Sydney Morning Herald*, adapted.)

- a. Study all uses of *it* in the text and classify them according to their type.

As a long-time supporter of cricket *it* (anticipatory *it*) has been wonderful to see some great Test matches played in good spirit by up and coming young players and legends alike. However, I hope the snarling and bullying aggressiveness shown by James Pattinson is not a sign that the Australian team is going to return to the bad old days when it (referential *it*) might have been the best team in the world but not very popular. At the conclusion of the game, it (anticipatory *it*) looked likely that the team was not going to shake hands with the two Indian batsmen remaining. There is no need for such displays. In the old days, it (cleft-*it*) was the “best and fairest” that received the award rather than the “Man of the Match”. It (anticipatory *it*) might be a good idea to restore this tradition. Play the game hard, fast and aggressive but above all respect the opposition, respect the rules and respect the game itself. That’s what cricket and, indeed, life is all about.

- b. Analyse the sentence with *there* syntactically. Is *there* existential or locative? Could *it* have been used in the same sentence?

The clause structure is aS-V-S. *There* is existential. *It* would not work in this case.

- c. In the last sentence of the text, *that* would correspond to Norwegian *det*. Could *it* have been used instead of *that*? If so, would there be any difference in meaning or stylistic effect?

It could have been used with a very similar meaning. However, the referential *it* would refer back to the previous text in a neutral way, without special emphasis on *it*. The use of the demonstrative pronoun *that* underscores the statement more because it will naturally be pronounced with extra stress, thus making it a good way to end the text.

6 Findings from the British National Corpus at <http://corpus.byu.edu/>:

- a. Examples of *it* constructions found among the first 20 hits for *it is*.

Cleft *it*: *It is then that fame, honour, chastity and glory have no longer their due estimation.*

Referential *it*: *When love truly seizes the heart it is like a malignant fever...*

Anticipatory *it* with to-infinitive as real subject: *for it is not for me to hold an argument with your honour.*

Anticipatory *it* with *that*-clause as real subject: *and it is my opinion that he finds he can't and that vexes his proud heart. Yet it is impossible (∅) I should love him; for his vices all ugly him over.*

- b. Examples of *there* constructions among the first 20 hits for *there is*.

Existential *there*: *Now I begin to fear **there** is something in it. **There** isn't any wind.*

In a couple of instances, *there* and *is* do not belong to the same construction, and *there* is locative, for instance in *That great baby you see **there** is not yet out of his swaddling clouts...*

- c. Write *there's* in the search box (note the space before the apostrophe) and study the first 30 hits. Do any of the sentence have a real subject that is a plural noun phrase? NOTE: we clicked on the word "sample" to get hits from a variety of texts for this pattern.

There were sentences with *there's* + plural noun phrase, such as *there's three races worth five hundred pounds each; There's four eggs; Listen there's been developments.*

These hits were found either in spoken English or in dialogue parts of fiction.

- d. In Norwegian it is fairly common to use verbs other than *være* in existential constructions, for example *Det står et tre i gården*. Search for *there* [*stand*] and consider the following: Does *stand* seem to be frequent after *there*? Go through the examples of *there stood*. Are they all examples of the existential *there*?

Compared to *there is*, *there + stand* is very infrequent.

Among the examples of *there stood*, most seem to involve the locative *there*, for example *He opened it and there stood Santa in his doorway*. Here is one example of existential *there* with *stood* from the corpus: *Suddenly, there stood beside me a very tall figure...*

10

CONCORD BETWEEN SUBJECT AND VERBAL

1 Pets and fireworks

I (i) **am** glad that Taronga Zoo's and Sydney Wildlife animals (ii) **are** not affected by the firework displays on New Year's Eve. It's a pity our pets (iii) **do** not have the opportunity to get prepared for all the firework displays which (iv) **happen** all year round with no warnings. We (v) **know** to keep our pets in on New Year's and Queen's Birthday; as a wildlife carer with young animals in care, I (vi) **make** sure they (vii) **are** kept inside and in a darkened area so as not to get stressed, but I can't do much about fireworks that (viii) **go** off at private parties all year round. I would like to know who (ix) **gives** out permits for these private firework displays and why neighbours (x) **are** not given any warnings so as to prepare their pets.

2 Identify and correct any concord errors in the text below. Explain your corrections. (NB: not all the sentences contain errors!)

Everyone ~~know~~ **knows** that literary festivals are big business. The festival at Hay turns over £9m–£10m; Edinburgh ~~approach~~ **approaches** £2m; and, my favourite, Bath, £1.3m. But – and here's the catch – this quasi-literary bonanza ~~rely~~ **relies** on the goodwill of the authors who, in exchange for vital publicity, ~~appears~~ **appear** for nothing, as in “free” or “gratis”. Well, not quite. At Hay, the author ~~get~~ **gets** half a case of Spanish fizz and a red rose. It's hardly a living wage. Most people acknowledge that the creative artist must be

able to earn a living. But how on earth, in the age of “free content”, ~~are~~ *is* that “living” to be defined? Worse, where ~~are~~ *is* the money going to come from?

Explanation of corrections :

Everyone is an indefinite pronoun that counts as third person singular, so the verb should have the *s*-form.

Edinburgh is singular and third person.

This quasi-literary bonanza is singular and third person.

The subject of *appear* is *who*, a relative pronoun with a plural noun phrase, *the authors*, as antecedent.

The author is singular and third person.

The subject of the clause is that *living*, which is third person and singular.

Money is an uncountable noun that behaves as third person singular.

3 Explain the difference in form and meaning between the members of each pair.

a. 1 Gin and tonic is very expensive here.

2 Gin and tonic are very expensive here.

In sentence (a1) the verbal is realized by a singular verb phrase, so the subject is regarded as singular. This means that we are talking about *gin and tonic* as a drink. The verb gets the singular form because of notional concord. In sentence (a2) the verbal is realized by a plural verb phrase. This means that the two co-ordinated nouns in the subject noun phrase are seen as two entities, which means that *both* gin and tonic are expensive. That is, we are not talking about the drink, but its main ingredients.

b. 1 Entertaining people is more of a challenge.

2 Entertaining people are more of a challenge.

The visible difference between the sentences is the form of the verb, which is singular in sentence (b1) and plural in (b2). This means that the subjects must be interpreted differently. The singular form indicates that *entertaining people* in (b1) is a clause (equivalent to “to entertain people”), while in (b2), *entertaining people* refer to “people who are entertaining/funny”. The sentences can thus be paraphrased as *It is more of a challenge to entertain people* and *People who are funny represent a greater challenge*.

c. 1 The number of plants is growing fast.

2 A number of plants are growing fast.

The sentences differ as regards the definite vs. the indefinite article in the subject noun phrase and in the form of the verb. The singular form combined with the definite noun phrase in (c1) indicates that *The number* is what is growing fast, that is, we have more and more plants. In (c2), *a number of* means *many*. The plural form of the verb agrees with *plants*. So the sentence can be paraphrased as *Many plants are growing fast*.

d. 1 Their family are very musical.

2 Their family is very musical.

Family is a collective noun which can occur with either a singular or a plural verbal (especially in British English). When the plural form is used, as in (d1), the emphasis is on each individual family member; they are all musical. The singular form emphasizes the family as a whole without singling out any individual members. So the collective noun has distributive reading in (d1) and unit reading in (d2).

e. 1 All is quiet this morning.

2 All are quiet this morning.

The indefinite pronoun *all* can mean either *everything*, in which case it counts as third person singular, as in sentence (e1), or *everybody*, in which case it behaves as a plural subject, as in (e2). So the sentences mean, respectively, *Everything/Everybody is quiet*.

4 Read the following text and answer the questions below:

The ad that follows me

We all know *what's* at stake here. I'm not paranoid. A paranoid person *is* someone *who* *thinks* he's being followed. I KNOW I'm being followed.

The other day I visited a website to check out a piece of jewelry for my wife. I liked one particular product so I found my way to that link. But I wasn't really sure about it. So I didn't buy it. A couple of minutes later, I logged on to my Yahoo e-mail account. And there, on the right side of the screen, **was** a little advertisement for the product I had just visited. I am being followed by a piece of jewelry.

I'm told the company that **sells** the jewelry **doesn't** know my name. To them, I'm just a series of computer codes which **allow** a piece of software to follow me.

a. *That follows*: the *s*-form is used because the relative pronoun *that* has a singular antecedent. *What's*: *what* is a pronoun that behaves as third person singular. *Is*: the

subject is a *paranoid person*, which is singular. *Who thinks*: the relative pronoun *who* has a third person singular antecedent (*someone*).

- b. *Was* has been used because the head of the subject noun phrase (which comes after the verbal in this sentence) has singular form (*advertisement*).
- c. The plural verb forms *sell* and *don't* could have been used, at least in British English, because *company* can be a collective noun. If the plural form of the verbs had been used, this would have referred to the people who make up the company.
- d. The plural form *allow* has been used because the subject, *which*, is a relative pronoun with a plural noun phrase as its antecedent (*computer codes*).

5 Findings from the British National Corpus at <http://corpus.byu.edu/>:

- a. *Government is* is more common (1501 hits) than *government are* (444 hits). The two different verb forms can both be used because *government* is a collective noun. The use of a singular verb phrase gives the noun a unit reading, while the use of the plural gives it a distributive reading.
- b. There are 9 instances of *everybody have* in the corpus. In most cases *have* is the infinitive form, for example in *does everybody have...* In one case *have* is an imperative: *everybody (please) have a yawn*. This is probably also the case in *So everybody have document and hit shift F ten*.
- c. The search for *most of the * is* and *most of the * are* shows that the noun following *most of the* determines the form of the verb. *Most of the* + a singular noun combines with a singular verb phrase (e.g. *is*), and *most of the* + a plural noun combines with a plural verb phrase (e.g. *are*). An apparent exception seems to be *most of the time are*. But in each of these cases *most of the time* is an adverbial and not the subject of *are*. Another apparent exception is *most of the staff are*, but *staff* is a collective noun that tends to get distributive reading.
- d. The nouns occurring in the phrase *a million * is* are mostly units and measurements (*pounds, tonnes, ...*). The nouns occurring in the phrase *a million * are* have various references (e.g. *people, copies, children*). The “units and measurement” nouns thus indicate notional concord along the lines of *a sum of money, a distance...*, while *a million* in front of other types of plural nouns does not indicate any kind of unit reading.

11

VERBS, TENSE AND ASPECT

- 1 Choose between the progressive and the non-progressive verb form in each of these sentences. In case both alternatives seem acceptable, explain any difference in meaning between them.
 - a. That evening Mr. Peterson came / ~~was coming~~ home to his bachelor house in sombre spirits. (The progressive *was coming* would imply that he was on his way home, which is not a likely interpretation here.)
 - b. He sat / ~~was sitting~~ down to dinner without relish. (The simple past form *sat* implies completed action, that is, he took a seat.)
 - c. Six o'clock struck / was striking on the bells of the church, and still he ~~dug~~ / was digging at the problem. (In the first case both the simple past and the past progressive are possible. *Struck* implies that the action is seen as completed, while *was striking* implies that the church bells had not finished ringing yet at the time we are looking at. In the second case the progressive is natural as the process of digging at the problem is still ongoing.)
 - d. "I see you ~~go~~ / are going in," said the lawyer. (The progressive must be used because the action is ongoing at the moment of speaking.)
 - e. "How did you know / ~~were you knowing~~ me?" he asked. (Only the non-progressive form can be used with a stative verb like *know*.)
 - f. The problem he debated / was debating as he walked / was walking was one of a class that is rarely solved. (Both verb forms are possible in both cases, but the progressive

is more likely, since the sentence describes ongoing activities. The simple past would indicate that the actions of debating and walking are seen as completed. Note that the same verb form must be chosen for both verb phrases here.)

- 2 Describe the structure of the italicized verb phrase in each of the sentences below in terms of auxiliaries, tense, aspect and voice.
 - a. For my generation, the word “austerity” *is associated* (simple present + passive voice + lexical verb; passive auxiliary *be* in the present tense + past participle) with the rationing regulations that *were introduced* (simple past + passive voice + lexical verb; passive auxiliary *be* in the past tense + past participle) during World War II.
 - b. Sweet rationing *did not end* (simple past; grammatical auxiliary *do* + negative + lexical verb) until 1953.
 - c. My mother *used to count out* (marginal modal in past tense + infinitive marker + lexical verb) our scanty sweet allocation once a week.
 - d. In 1942 the Making of Civilian Clothing (restriction order) *was passed* (simple past + passive voice + lexical verb; passive auxiliary *be* in the past tense + past participle).
 - e. Dresses *could have* (modal + lexical verb) no more than two pockets and five buttons.
 - f. The recent financial crisis *has brought on* (present perfect; present tense + past participle form of lexical verb) a new sense of austerity.
 - g. We *are all feeling* (present progressive; present tense + progressive aspect + lexical verb) a little bit less well off.
 - h. Things *have been going* (present perfect progressive; present tense + perfect aspect + progressive aspect + lexical verb) in the wrong direction.
 - i. Let’s hope that the situation *will have improved* (modal perfect; modal auxiliary + perfect aspect + lexical verb in past participle form) by next year.

- 3 Explain the difference in form and meaning between the members of each pair.

- a.
 - 1 She walks the dog every night.
 - 2 She is walking the dog tonight.

Sentence (a1) has the simple present tense and sentence (a2) has the present progressive. In addition the time adverbials are different: in (a1), *every night* describes how often the action takes place, while in (a2) *tonight* refers to “this evening”. Similarly, the simple present tense is used to describe habitual activity, while the present progressive describes ongoing, incomplete activity. Sentence (a1) thus means that

it is her habit to walk the dog every night. Sentence (a2) indicates that she is not at home at the moment because she is walking the dog.

- b. 1 Do you speak Chinese?
2 Are you speaking Chinese?

Sentence (b1) is a question about the addressee's ability to speak Chinese. Sentence (b2) is a question about what language the addressee is speaking at the moment. The reason for the difference is that the simple present tense refers to permanent states and habitual actions, while the progressive refers to ongoing activity.

- c. 1 Mr Jones has been to New York.
2 Mr Jones was in New York.

Sentence (c1) means that Mr Jones has visited New York at some point, and this is relevant at the moment of speaking. Sentence (c2) means that Mr Jones was in New York at some specific time in the past. The meaning difference is due to the verb phrases: Sentence (c1) uses the present perfect, which refers to a past event at some unspecified time, while (c2) has the simple past tense, which refers to an event at a specific (or specifiable) time.

- d. 1 I was going for a walk when the sun came out.
2 I went for a walk when the sun came out.

Sentence (d1) contains a verb phrase with the past progressive (*was going*). This refers to incomplete action. So the person was just about to go out when the sun started shining. He or she may or may not have taken the walk in the end. In (d2) the simple past tense has been used (*went*). The combination of a simple past verb phrase in the main clause with a simple past verb phrase in the dependent clause is interpreted as two actions following each other, in this case: then sun came out and so I went for a walk.

- e. 1 Sue was starting up a business.
2 Sue had started up a business.

As in sentence (d1), the past progressive in (e1) contains a past progressive verb phrase which refers to an incomplete action. Sue was in the process of starting up a new business. The verb phrase in (e2) combines past tense with the perfect aspect (past perfect) and thus refers to an action that was completed in the past, before the time of the "main story". So Sue had already started up a business, and maybe she was now ready to take on a new project.

4 Read the following text and answer the questions below:

In a village near Lyon in south-east France, a couple *have become* local celebrities by virtue of their adopted “child”. Digit, as she is known, *has been living* in the same room as Pierre and Elaine Thivillon for nearly 13 years. Their relationship *began* in 1999, when the young primate *came* into the care of the couple, who *manage* the zoo at Saint Martin la Plaine where she *was born*. Within three days of her birth, it was clear that Digit’s mother Pamela *was refusing* to feed her. The Thivillons took her into their care, bottle-feeding her during the day and returning her to her enclosure at night.

By 18 months old, the baby gorilla had begun to show a deep attachment to her foster parents. After an illness left her requiring 24-hour care, Pierre and Elaine took her into their bedroom at night, where she has slept ever since. For the first 10 years, she *snuggled* up between the couple, but now at 130 kg she *has to have* a bed of her own. (From bbc.co.uk)

- a. *Have become* is in the present perfect form. The past tense form *became* would be possible if the sentence was taken out of its context. But since the following sentence has the present tense, the present perfect is a much better choice. The notion of present relevance associated with the present perfect gives the first two sentences of the text a sense of news value.
- b. *Has been living* consists of a grammatical auxiliary in the present tense, which marks the perfect aspect together with the following past participle. *Been* is the past participle form of the progressive auxiliary *be*, which is followed by an *-ing* participle. The verb phrase can be characterized as present perfect progressive. The meaning of this verb form is that the action started in the past, but continues into the present. That is, Digit still lives with Pierre and Elaine.
- c. The text switches to the past tense to recount events that are further back in time.
- d. Since *refuse* denotes an action that cannot stretch out in time, the past progressive aspect (*was refusing*) implies that the event was repeated over a period of time. The simple past (*refused*) would indicate that it was a one-time event.
- e. The perfect aspect (present or past) would not have been appropriate in this context because *snuggled* refers to an activity that took place over a specific period of time in the past.
- f. There is a comparison between the past and the present. The shift to the present time reference is marked by the time adverb *now*, which makes the use of the present tense natural.

5 Findings from the Corpus of Contemporary American English at <http://corpus.byu.edu/>:

- a. The first ten hits that come up for *was being* in the COCA corpus will vary (because the corpus keeps being added to), so you may not get the same hits as we did. However, many of our examples of *was being* are part of a passive construction (for instance *was being done*), indicating duration over time in the past. Sentences where *being* is the main verb (for instance *he was being grumpy*) indicate that the subject was behaving in a certain way (in this case being grumpy on purpose) over a limited period of time. That is, in contrast to *he was grumpy*, the progressive form of *be* refers to a situation which is not permanent.
- b. One corpus example of the framing effect of the progressive is the following: ***As they were leaving***, *Teo spoke to Furad*. ...The leaving was in progress, and the speaking occurred in the middle of it.
- c. We found (at least) two examples of *had left* which was not a past perfect verb phrase, namely *It was the only thing of monetary value he **had left** from his past* and *...he'd clung to them as all he **had left** of his brother*. In both cases *left* is part of the phrase “to have something left”, meaning “to still have something that has not disappeared or been used (yet)”. Two examples that illustrate how the past perfect refers to a time prior to another point of time in the past are the following: (i) *Mom motioned to the young Amish woman who **had left** their table after filling the glasses with fresh iced tea*. (ii) *...he turned and looked once more at the bridge and the figure they **had left** there...*
- d. In our hits, most examples of *she works* occur in sentences that contain an adverbial referring to “her workplace”, for example, *She works in a restaurant*, or to her employer, as in *And she works for the company now*. Some sentences describe the way in which she works as a rule (the habitual simple present), for example, *She works hard* is a manner adverbial. Some of the examples of the present progressive, such as *she is working on a new book...*, refer to ongoing activity (rather than regular activity). Another example that suggests activity that is not habitual or permanent is *Seven months before the Summer Olympics, she is working hard to find her stride*. This is due to the time adverbial, which limits the period in which she is working hard.

12

MODALITY AND FUTURE TIME REFERENCE

- 1 Note that there may be acceptable alternatives to the following suggested translations.
 - a. Du skulle ikke ha gjort det. → You shouldn't have done it.
 - b. Får jeg ta en titt? → Can/May I have a look?
 - c. Det kan ikke ha vært lett for deg. → It can't have been easy for you.
 - d. De har villet gjøre noe med det lenge. → They have wanted (have been wanting) to do something about it for a long time.
 - e. Du skal ikke tro på alt folk sier. → You shouldn't believe everything (that) people say.
 - f. Det kommer til å bli kjempegøy. → It will be great fun / It's going to be great fun.
 - g. De ville ikke ha forandret på noe selv om de hadde kunnet. → They wouldn't have changed anything even if they had been able to.
 - h. Jeg tror det blir regn snart. → I think it is going to rain soon.
 - i. Flyet til Madrid går om en time. → The plane for Madrid leaves in an hour.
 - j. Om en uke er jeg i London. → In a week I'll be in London.
 - k. Skal du også til England? → Are you going to England too?

- 2 The expressions that have been marked in **red and bold** are the ones that occurred in the original text.

Thousands of fundamentalist Christians across the US are readying themselves for the world to end tomorrow, after a fringe Biblical scholar, Harry Camping, made the prediction several years ago. According to Mr Camping's calculations, tomorrow **is** / **will be*** exactly the 7,000th anniversary of Noah's flood and God is angry again. He warns that huge earthquakes **will strike** / **are to strike** tomorrow as the saved are lifted up to heaven. Everyone else **will get** / **is going to get*** another five months of life before being consigned to eternal damnation on October 21. Gary Daniels, a disciple of Camping's, said his last farewells to relatives on Monday. He told the New York Times: "I know I **don't see** / **am not going to see** them again, but they are very certain they **will see*** / **are going to see** me, and that's where I feel so sad," he said. "I weep to know that they don't have any idea that this overwhelming thing **is coming** / **shall come** right at them like a meteor." (from thedailyedge.com, adapted)

Notes on the phrases marked with an asterisk (*):

- *Tomorrow will be* is possible, as the *will*-future is relatively neutral. But the simple present implies a much greater degree of certainty on the part of the speaker; the anniversary is part of a fixed schedule.
- *Everyone else is going to get* is possible, although the *will*-future is a better match with the verb phrase in the previous sentence. *Going to* suggests that this will happen according to someone's planning.
- *Certain they will see* is possible, again because the *will*-future works as a multi-purpose future marker. The *going to*-future denotes something like "according to present evidence".

3 Explain the difference in form and meaning between the members of each pair.

- a. 1 She must walk in the other direction.
2 She must be walking in the other direction.

The verb phrase in sentence (a2) contains the progressive aspect. This suggests that the modal is epistemic. With the non-progressive in (a1) we have root modality (obligation). Thus (a1) means that her only option is to walk in the other direction. Sentence (a2) conveys the speaker's belief about where she is walking.

- b. 1 I can fix the computer.
2 I'll fix the computer.

In sentence (b1) the modal is *can*, which denotes ability (root modality). The meaning is "I am able to fix the computer". In (b2), the modal is the contracted form of *will*,

denoting either willingness or future. This sentence can function as an offer to fix the computer or as a statement about the subject's future activity.

- c. 1 Peter is supposed to give a presentation.
2 Peter is going to give a presentation.

The difference between *is supposed to* and *is going to* has to do with the planning of the action. *Supposed to* indicates that somebody other than Peter made the plans, and implies a possibility that the presentation may not be given. *Going to* indicates that the subject (Peter) has made the plans and implies a high degree of certainty that the action will take place.

- d. 1 The train will arrive at platform 2.
2 The train is arriving at platform 2.

The *will*-future in (d1) denotes a neutral prediction of a future event. The present progressive in (d2) refers to an action in progress; the train is already on its way into the station.

- e. 1 They can't have made each other very happy.
2 They couldn't make each other very happy.

Sentence (e1) contains the modal *can* followed by *not* and a perfect verb phrase. The perfect means that the action took place in the past and also that the modality is epistemic. The speaker thinks it is unlikely that they made each other happy. In (e2) the modal *could* is followed by *not* and the bare infinitive. This is root modality (ability), meaning that they were unable to make each other happy.

- 4 Read the following text and answer the questions below:

You can't live off a view – but nothing feeds the soul like the wilderness

You *might* (epistemic) think that after 30 years in one of Britain's most isolated homes, Mike and Joyce Simpson, who have just announced their intention to sell up and move nearer civilisation, are about to put their trials behind them. Their house, overlooking the Isle of Skye, is nine miles from the nearest village. There is no road; to get to the village they *have to* (root, obligation) embark on either a three-hour trek or a journey by quad bike and 4x4. A visit to the post office requires an hour-long boat trip.

Mr Simpson, 62, talked about weeks at the mercy of the weather, and the recurring nightmare of gales. But although the comforts of the 21st century *must* (epistemic) come

as a relief, the Simpsons *may* (epistemic) be about to confront the hardest thing about a life in the wild – leaving it.

“Every morning after we left, we woke up and listened to the silence,” I was told by Mike Alexander, an ex-warden of Skomer Island, off south-west Wales. He and his wife missed it terribly. “We would (habitual *would*) lie there and think about the island, and all the birds.” You *can* (root, ability) hear the same story from anyone who has been lucky enough to live in nature’s embrace. Coming down from the hill or off the island is a kind of bereavement.

Of course there are compensations. The Simpsons *will* (root, prediction) never be so cold again. They *need* (root, obligation) not worry about access to doctors; helpful neighbours *will* (root, prediction) be a blessing. They *will* (root, prediction) not be scared again in the way that shrieking wind *can* (root, ability) make you scared. Life is going to seem easy, if rather tame. (From *The Telegraph*, adapted)

- a. The expression *are about to* suggests immediate future. If it were replaced by *are going to*, this immediacy would disappear, and the focus would be on their intention of moving.
- b. The meanings of the italicized modal auxiliaries have been added in brackets in the text.
- c. The implication of *be going to* is that the “easy but tame life” seems a likely outcome of the present evidence.

5. Findings from the Corpus of Contemporary American English at <http://corpus.buy.edu>:

- a. As per June 2018, the numbers are as follows (they may increase as the corpus is being expanded):

<i>will</i>	293793
<i>would</i>	232441
<i>may</i>	89283
<i>should</i>	73212
<i>might</i>	49396
<i>shall</i>	1470

- b. The first ten hits for *should*, in the sample studied, were the following (there may be other acceptable translations as well)

the change should be delayed until 2022 → endringen bør utsettes til 2022
and the county should have a mechanism to stop the increase → og fylkeskommunen
burde ha en mekanisme for å stanse økningen.

the county should focus on creating jobs → fylkeskommunen burde fokusere på å
skape arbeidsplasser.

Park should be removed from the presidency → Park burde fjernes fra presidentjobben.
to decide if Park should be removed or reinstated → å bestemme om Park bør/
burde fjernes eller gjeninnsettes.

...any brand should be proud to dress the first lady of the United States. → ethvert
merke burde være stolt av å lage klær til USAs førstedame.

and prosecutors should investigate. → og påtalemyndigheten bør/må undersøke.

Dang has said he built the house exactly where the city said he should... → Dang har
sagt at han bygde huset akkurat der kommunen sa han skulle gjøre det.

We shouldn't be proud of the city just for following a law... → Vi trenger ikke være
stolt av byen bare fordi den følger en lov...

The Hall of Fame should be for celebrating great baseball players, not necessarily
great men... → Hall of Fame bør være for å feire de beste baseballspillerne, ikke
nødvendigvis de beste menneskene...

- c. Of the first ten occurrences of *must* in the newspaper sample studied, nine convey root modality. The only one that is clearly epistemic has the perfect aspect: *How weird must it have been for Plumlee to hear those late-game Nurkic chants?*
All the first ten occurrences of *ought to* have root modality.
- d. Some of the instances of *was going to* are preceded by for instance *I thought*, which reveals that the speaker is uncertain, as in *I really thought I was going to change the world*. Here the word *really* also indicates some degree of subjectivity. We infer that the world was not changed.
- e. *Will see* occurs 1497 times in the newspaper section of the COCA corpus (June 2018). The first five do not seem to imply any planning; they are neutral predictions of future events. *Will be seeing* occurs only 25 times. The first five are predictions of future activities, not involving any planning, but indicating that the activities are fairly certain to happen and will have some duration.

13

THE PASSIVE

- 1 Active – passive paraphrases with comments on potential difficulties or differences in meaning.
 - a. Very soon the Rabbit noticed Alice. → *Very soon Alice was noticed by the Rabbit.*
 - b. Alice was just going to leave the room. → *The room was just going to be left by Alice.*
The passive is awkward here, because the room does not seem to be a suitable subject; it is not affected by the action.
 - c. She hastily put the bottle down. → *The bottle was hastily put down (by her).*
The agent phrase seems superfluous when the agent is realized by a pronoun (i.e. it is given information).
 - d. The Rabbit ordered Alice about. → *Alice was ordered about by the Rabbit.*
 - e. After a few minutes she heard a voice outside. → *After a few minutes a voice was heard from the outside (by her).*
Again the agent seems superfluous. In addition the passive would be more idiomatic with an added modal (could be heard), so as to imply that there was a voice that anyone could hear.
 - f. They heard the sound of broken glass. → *The sound of broken glass was / could be heard (by them).*
The agent can be omitted, and a modal should be added to the verb phrase (see above).
 - g. They could not hear anything else. → *Nothing else could be heard (by them).*
The agent can be omitted.

2 Passive – active paraphrases with comments on potential difficulties or differences in meaning.

- a. The Web site was created by the people behind Kodak Gallery. → *The people behind Kodak Gallery created the Web site.*
- b. Tuesday's power failure was caused by heavy rain, lightning and strong winds. → *Heavy rain, lightning and strong winds caused Tuesday's power failure.*
- c. Each offer was accompanied by whooping laughter. → *Whooping laughter accompanied each offer.* (The active sentence sounds a bit awkward because it seems to violate the information principle.)
- d. She was surrounded by her friends and family. → *Her friends and family surrounded her.*
- e. Teague was found hiding under a porch of a house. → *Somebody found Teague hiding under a porch of a house.* Since the passive is short, a subject needs to be added in the active version.
- f. The victim was taken to the hospital. → *Somebody / the ambulance drivers took the victim to the hospital.* Since the passive is short, a subject needs to be added in the active version. Note that in British English the definite article *the* would be omitted.
- g. His red hair could be seen from quite a distance. → *We/people could see his red hair from quite a distance.* Since the passive is short, a subject needs to be added in the active version.

3 Explain the difference in form and meaning between the members of each pair.

- a. 1 Michael was instantly taken with Anna.
2 Michael was instantly taken by Anna.
The visible difference between the sentences is the choice of preposition. To be taken with something means to like something very much. This use of taken is best analysed as an adjective, which is postmodified by the prepositional phrase with Anna. The whole adjective functions as subject predicative. In sentence (a2), taken is the main verb in a passive verb phrase, and by Anna is the agent (adverbial). Sentence (a1) means "Michael immediately liked Anna very much", while (a2) means "Anna quickly took/caught/chose Michael".
- b. 1 He was paid by the hour.
2 He was paid by the company.
To be paid by the hour means that you get a certain sum of money per hour. By the hour is a manner adverbial, saying something about how he was paid. On the other hand, by the company is an agent adverbial, so (b2) means "The company paid him".

c. 1 The film is not going to be appreciated by everybody.

2 Nobody is going to appreciate the film.

Sentence (c1) has the passive voice and (c2) has the active voice. Besides, the impersonal pronoun in (c1) is *everybody* (used in an agent phrase with *by*), while in (c2), *nobody* is used as subject. Sentence (c1) means that there will be some people who will not like the film and others who will. In sentence (c2), however, everybody is going to dislike it.

d. 1 Everybody in class speaks two languages.

2 Two languages are spoken by everybody in class.

Sentence (d1) has the active voice and *everybody in class* as subject and *two languages* as direct object. Sentence (d2) has the passive voice, with *two languages* as subject and *by everybody in class* as agent adverbial. Sentence (d1) says that all the students know two languages each, but they may not know the *same* two languages. In (d2), the subject position of *two languages* suggests that the same two languages are known by all the students.

e. 1 She couldn't trust John.

2 John couldn't be trusted.

Sentence (e1) has the active voice with *she* as *subject* and *John* as direct object. Sentence (e2) has the passive voice with *John* as subject and no agent phrase (= a short passive). Since no agent is specified in (e2), the implication is that nobody could trust John; he was not trustworthy. With (e1), however, it is possible that other people might trust John even if she could not.

4 Read the following text and answer the questions below:

An email asking people to reconsider their cancellation of home delivery from The New York Times accidentally *was sent* to some eight million people on Wednesday, but *was intended* to reach only a few hundred.

Robert Christie, a Times spokesman, initially tweeted that the emails appeared to be spam. But minutes later, that *was recanted* in a tweet from Amy Chozick, a corporate media reporter for the paper. Her tweet said the emails **were, in fact, sent by the newspaper**, but they were supposed to only reach about 300 people. Instead, they *were errantly delivered* to more than eight million.

The paper issued a statement: "An email *was sent* earlier today from The New York Times in error," it said. "This email *should have been sent* to a very small number of

subscribers, but instead was *sent* to a vast distribution list.” A screenshot of the email, **received by SC Magazine**, is below. (from www.scmagazine.com, abbreviated)

- a. The short passives that occur in the first paragraph do not have an identified agent, so a long passive (or an active sentence) would have been hard to produce. The second sentence in the second paragraph could have had the active voice (*But minutes later, Amy Chozick, a corporate media reporter for the paper recanted that in a tweet*) or a long passive (*But minutes later, that was recanted by Amy Chozick, a corporate media reporter for the paper, in a tweet*). The active version gets a very long subject that violates the principle of end weight, while the long passive seems a bit awkward if the phrase “in a tweet” is to be retained in the sentence. However, an agent is easily found, in the postmodifier to *tweet*. For the passive *they were delivered* an agent is hard to find, as emails are hardly delivered by people. In the rest of the short passive, the speaker (= the *New York Times*) has probably avoided mentioning the agent, which is the paper itself, because of the embarrassment associated with the unintentional sending of emails.
 - b. The two long passives in the text are marked in **red and bold**. Their active counterparts might be, respectively, “In fact, the newspaper sent the emails” and “the email, which the SC Magazine received”. The passive versions are better suited to their context because the information in the agent phrases is new in both cases, while *email* is given information. In addition the text is structured in such a way that *email* occurs in subject position in many of the sentences.
- 5 Findings from the British National Corpus at <http://corpus.byu.edu/>.
- a. In the case of *was made* there are only two long passives among the first 15. *Was said* and *was sold* occur only with the short passive. *Was found* has one example of the long passive among the first 15. This suggests that the short passive is vastly more frequent than the long passive. It also suggests that the passive voice is often chosen when the speaker cannot or does not want to mention the agent of the action.
 - b. The top ten verbs to occur in the passive are: *used, made, seen, taken, found, done, given, born, considered, held*. Note that some of the lexical verbs occur several times on the list because they occur with different forms of the auxiliary *be*.
 - c. The passive is most frequent in the text type called “Academic” and least frequent in the spoken part of the corpus.

14

WORD ORDER

1

- a. Chocolate did she really love. → *Chocolate she really loved* (*She really loved chocolate.*)
There is no inversion after a fronted direct object in English.
- b. They went never further north than the Scottish border. → *They never went further north than the Scottish border*. The verb comes after the adverb *never*.
- c. Never once did they consider giving up. → Correct (inversion after negative sentence opener).
- d. Why on earth you have bought that very expensive outfit? → *Why on earth have you bought that very expensive outfit?* An interrogative sentence has the finite auxiliary before the subject.
- e. After several hours of walking came they to a pub in a small village. → *After several hours of walking they came to a pub in a small village*. No inversion after an optional adverbial in initial position.
- f. The authorities have because of a shortage of nurses been unable to implement the health reform. → *Because of a shortage of nurses the authorities have been unable to implement the health reform*. The adverbial is too long and heavy to be placed in medial position and must be moved either to the beginning or to the end of the sentence.
- g. “Keep calm and carry on,” said the policeman. → Correct (inversion is normal in reporting clauses with a simple verb phrase and a full noun phrase as subject).
- h. “So you’re back again,” said she. → *“So you’re back again,” she said*. No inversion in reporting clauses where the subject is realized by a pronoun.

- 2 The following sentences should agree better with the principle of end weight.
- a. A 30-year-old man from Lanarkshire who had participated in the race three years in a row was the winner. → *The winner was a 30-year-old man from Lanarkshire who had participated in the race three years in a row.*
 - b. Why they could not solve the riddle even after hours of trying was difficult to understand. → *It was difficult to understand why they could not solve the riddle even after hours of trying.*
 - c. To be out on one's own during dark and stormy nights can be scary. → *It can be scary to be out on one's own during dark and stormy nights.*
 - d. The leading contemporary philosopher, Professor Jerry Fodor, wrote the article. → *The article was written by the leading contemporary philosopher, Professor Jerry Fodor.*
 - e. The question of what cause there is for celebration was asked. → *The question was asked of what cause there is for celebration. (Somebody asked the question of what cause there is for celebration.)*
 - f. We sent a letter explaining the details of the investigation to him. → *We sent him a letter explaining the details of the investigation.*

3 Explain the difference in form and meaning between the members of each pair.

- a. 1 Peter couldn't see Paul.
2 Paul couldn't see Peter.

The sentences differ as to which name is mentioned first and last. The placement of a noun phrase usually signals syntactic function in English, so in (a1) Peter is the subject (= the person who could not see) and in (a2) Paul is the subject.

- b. 1 You don't mess with me.
2 Don't you mess with me.

Sentence (b1) has declarative form, with a subject before the verb phrase, while (b2) has imperative form, with an implied subject after the auxiliary (but before the main verb). Sentence (b1) is a statement or a warning; i.e. information of the fact that people in general don't, or shouldn't, mess with the speaker. Sentence (b2) is a command for the hearer not to mess with the speaker.

- c. 1 There is a difference in cost.
2 Is there a difference in cost?

Sentence (c1) is a declarative and (c2) is a *yes/no*-interrogative. This is shown by the placement of the finite verb, which is after the subject in (c1) and before it in (c2). Sentence (c1) means that a difference in cost exists, while (c2) asks whether the assessments of cost are similar or different.

- d. 1 Naturally, you must behave.
2 You must behave naturally.

The difference is the placement of *naturally*. The placement carries with it a difference in meaning: In (d1) the adverb is placed clause-initially and is followed by a comma. It modifies the whole sentence and is a stance adverbial expressing the speaker's view ("of course you must behave"). In (d2) the final placement of the adverb suggests that it modifies *behave*. Thus it is a circumstantial adverbial of manner: The speaker urges "you" to behave in a natural manner.

- e. 1 On no account must you speak to him.
2 You must not speak to him on any account.

Sentence (e1) has a negative adverbial in initial position and therefore also inversion of auxiliary and subject. Sentence (e2) has the corresponding adverbial in initial position, so no inversion is required. In (e1) the negation is provided by the determiner *no* in the adverbial phrase. In (e2) the negation is provided by the negator *not*, which triggers the use of the determiner *any* in the adverbial. The meaning of the two sentences is much the same, but there is more emphasis on the adverbial in (e1) because it represents an unusual (marked) word order.

4 Read the following text and answer the questions below:

The current issue of the magazine Psychologies has attracted a lot of attention from tweeters, readers and, funnily enough, newsagents. The reason? It features an Indian cover star, British-born actress Archie Panjabi.

It seems odd that such a cover choice should elicit much attention. Magazines, not just in the UK but globally, tend to be incredibly conservative (i.e. white) about their choice of covers, yet recently there have been signs of change. In the past few months, Kelly Rowland, Rihanna and Thandie Newton have appeared on the covers of Marie Claire, Cosmo and InStyle respectively, while Red magazine's January cover featured chef Lorraine Pascale.

Despite the current vogue for magazines using more racially diverse stars, Asian faces on the newsstand are still a rarity. "We've seen in the past how publishers were reluctant

to feature ethnic faces on their magazine covers because they felt it might affect sales,” says Anjana Gosai, an expert on Asian beauty. “It’s encouraging to see more black and Asian women on mainstream magazines. However, we have a long way to go before this becomes the norm.”

But why does the ethnicity of the faces that greet us on the newsstand matter anyway? Because if, like me and like countless others, you grew up avidly consuming magazines but rarely seeing anyone of the same race or colour, it has a corrosive effect. The pleasure of magazines has always been about a certain deluded aspiration – the “you, but better” philosophy. If we are finally moving away from “you, but white...”, that really will give women cause for celebration. (From *The Guardian*, abridged)

- a. The first sentence of the text is declarative; it starts with the subject, which is followed by the verbal (*has attracted*).
- b. *That such a cover choice should elicit much attention seems odd.* The original sentence agrees better with the principle of end weight, since the notional subject is so much longer than the verbal. The other sentence with the anticipatory *it* is *It’s encouraging to see more black and Asian women on mainstream magazines.*
- c. The current trend for “racially diverse stars” to feature on the cover of magazines has already been described, so it is given information. The fact that Asian faces are still a rarity on the newsstand seems to contradict what has just been said, so it is new information (which is also elaborated on in the next sentences).
- d. Initial position: ... **yet recently** *there have been signs of change.*
Medial position: *The pleasure of magazines has **always** been about a certain deluded aspiration...*
End position: *However, we have a long way to go **before this becomes the norm.***
- e. The adverbial *in the past* occurs in medial position (between the main verb and the direct object). If it had been moved to end position, it would lose contact with the main verb *seen* and instead seem to modify *affect sales*. It could have been placed in initial position; however, the speaker probably wanted to start the sentence with the subject rather than focusing on the past from the outset.
- f. The sentence is a *wh*-interrogative. Its subject contains a relative clause.

c A v |-----S-----| V A
But why does the ethnicity of the faces that greet us on the newsstand matter anyway?

S V dO |-----A-----|
that greet us on the newsstand

5 Findings from the British National Corpus at <http://corpus.byu.edu/>:

- a. The sentences starting with *not until* have subject-auxiliary inversion, as in *Not until 1918 was universal manhood suffrage introduced*.
- b. Most examples of *then came* represent subject-verbal inversion. We give two examples of *then came* which do not represent inversion; there are more examples of both types in the corpus: (i) *The young chap then came down stairs*; here *then* is in medial position after the subject. (ii) *we went to see my cousins at West Suffolk and and, and then came home again*; the subject has been omitted in a coordinated clause.
- c. *Of course* occurs in all three adverbial positions, but seems most common in initial position.
- d. Three among the first 20 occurrences of *maybe* in our sample are misspellings of *may be*. Some of the positions are difficult to classify, particularly when *maybe* does not occur in a complete clause structure. Of those that can safely be classified, we found 7 in initial position and 5 in medial position. *Perhaps* occurs initially in 11 cases, 3 times in medial position and twice in end position, in addition to a few that are hard to classify as clause elements.

In our sample, it was more difficult to classify *maybe* because almost half of them occurred in unplanned speech with a less clear sentence structure than we usually find in writing. The first 20 examples of *perhaps*, on the other hand, all occurred in writing. Note, however, that if the search is restricted to the written genres of newspapers and magazines, initial position is clearly preferred for both adverbs, but *perhaps* is medial more often than *maybe* is.

15

DEPENDENT CLAUSES

- 1 Note that other alternatives than those shown here may be possible:
 - a. I sat awake at night reading biographies of famous grammarians.
 - b. I'll ask Marcel *if/whether* they are here.
 - c. When we dined with Taylor the following Tuesday we turned out to be the only guests.
 - d. Mark didn't care since he was confident he could face anything.
 - e. They were waiting for their bags at the airport when Chris felt a tap on his shoulder.
 - f. "I wouldn't dream of it," said Sarah, who was struggling with a huge suitcase.
 - g. When they arrived at the quayside the boat was already half-way across the bay.

- 2 A real-life Robinson Crusoe (a) **who** has spent 20 years on a desert island says he's glad he doesn't have to worry about terrorist attacks. Former millionaire David Glasheen moved to the idyllic Restoration Island, (b) **which** is located off North East Australia, after losing his fortune in 1997. The ex-gold mining tycoon and property magnate, (c) **who** at his most successful was worth about \$27 million, now lives in a wooden beach shack with his loyal dog Polly (d) **who/which** keeps him company. Self-sufficient David added there is nowhere (e) **that/Ø** he'd rather be than on his "heaven on earth" natural paradise. "When I came here I was sick of money – (f) **which** is what makes people sick – and my marriage had broken apart."

When David first arrived he swapped his former luxury home for his a wooden beach shack (g) **which/that** dates back to pre-WWII. He has a limited supply of electricity, (h) **which** relies on solar panels and a backup generator – and limited running water, (i) **which** was only installed a few years ago. There is an internet connection (j) **which/that**

allows him to follow the news, keep in touch with the outside world and watch Britain's Got Talent videos on YouTube, (k) **which** is his guilty pleasure. He travels to Cairns once a year to do his grocery shopping, (l) **which** includes essentials like olive oil and rice and luxuries like gummy bears and mars bars. But aside from that annual trip to the civilization, the castaway survives on vegetables (m) **which/that** he grows himself and fish, crabs and shrimp (n) **which/that** he catches from the ocean.

Reasons for choices: in each case where *who* is chosen, the antecedent is personal, except in (d), where it is a dog, thus allowing the choice between *who* and *which*. Some of the relative clauses with *who* and *which* are non-restrictive, as marked with commas or dashes, so *that* and Zero are not alternatives. In the cases where both *which* and *that* are possible, we have restrictive relative clauses with non-personal antecedents.

3 The type and syntactic function of the italicized dependent clauses:

- a. The great oak door was opened *before we had a chance to knock*. → finite adverbial clause functioning as a circumstantial adverbial (time).
- b. The door was opened by a tall elegant man *dressed in a tail coat and black tie*. → non-finite -ed participle clause functioning as postmodifier of *man*.
- c. He informed us *that he was Adams, the butler*. → finite nominal *that*-clause functioning as direct object.
- d. He then escorted us to the morning room, *where we were greeted by a large log fire*. → finite relative clause functioning as postmodifier of *morning room*.
- e. Above the fireplace was a picture of a man *who I presumed was Hamilton's grandfather*. → finite restrictive relative clause functioning as postmodifier of *man*.
- f. The one sculpture on display was of a Greek figure *throwing a discus*. → non-finite -ing participle clause functioning as postmodifier of *figure*.
- g. *Looking around*, I reflected *that only the telephone belonged to the present century*. → (i) non-finite -ing participle functioning as circumstantial adverbial (time); (ii) finite nominal *that*-clause functioning as direct object.
- h. Hamilton entered the room as a *gale might hit an unhappy seaside town*. → finite adverbial clause functioning as circumstantial adverbial (manner).
- i. We took our places around an oak table *that could comfortably have seated twenty*. → finite restrictive relative clause functioning as postmodifier of *table*.
- j. Hamilton waited for *the butler to go round the table and fill the glasses*. → non-finite infinitive clause functioning as direct object of the prepositional verb *wait for*.

- k. He looked round at the butler *to confirm his statement*. → non-finite infinitive clause functioning as circumstantial adverbial (purpose).

4 Explain the difference in form and meaning between the members of each pair.

- a. 1 I had a visit from my brother, who surprised me.
2 I had a visit from my brother, which surprised me.

The relative pronouns differ: *who* refers back to *brother*, so it introduces a non-restrictive relative clause that postmodifies *brother*. *Which* has the preceding clause as its antecedent, so it introduces a sentential relative clause that functions as a stance adverbial. Sentence (a1) means that “my brother surprised me” and (a2) means “the fact that my brother visited surprised me”.

- b. 1 She didn't know that they had left.
2 She didn't know whether they had left.

Both sentences contain nominal dependent clauses functioning as direct object, but the subordinating conjunctions are different. *That* introduces a nominal *that*-clause, while *whether* introduces an indirect question. Sentence (b1) means that “they had left, and she was not aware of it”; in (b2) it is uncertain whether they had left or not, because she did not know.

- c. 1 You should tell us if we are meeting your needs.
2 If we are meeting your needs, you should tell us.

In sentence (c1) the clause starting with *if* functions as direct object. It is an indirect question (nominal dependent clause), where *if* might be replaced by *whether*. In (c2) *if* introduces an adverbial clause functioning as circumstantial adverbial (condition). The meaning of (c1) is “you ought to inform us whether or not we are meeting your needs”. Sentence (c2) means “in case we are meeting your needs, you can tell us so”.

- d. 1 They know that the neighbour was here earlier.
2 They know because the neighbour was here earlier.

The dependent clause in sentence (d1) is a nominal *that*-clause functioning as direct object. The dependent clause in (d2) is an adverbial clause functioning as adverbial (reason). Thus there is no direct object in (d2); *know* is used intransitively. Sentence (d1) means “the neighbour was here earlier, and they know that”. Sentence (d2) means “the reason why they know something is that their neighbour was here earlier; maybe he told them something”.

- e. 1 Sitting on the lawn, he saw a rare bird.
2 He saw a rare bird sitting on the lawn.

Both sentences contain a non-finite *-ing* clause: In (e1) it is placed before the main clause and in (e2) it is placed after the main clause. In initial position it functions as an adverbial: “While he was sitting on the lawn he saw a rare bird”. In end position it functions as a postmodifier of *bird*: “He saw a rare bird which was sitting on the lawn”. Thus in (e1) *he was sitting on the lawn* (because an adverbial *-ing* clause shares the subject with the main clause), and in (e2) the *bird was sitting on the lawn*.

- 5 Read the following text and answer the questions below:

It’s nice *to have a friendly work environment*. But in some cases, “work friends” shouldn’t be Facebook friends. Why not? A status update *published on a Tuesday night* can easily turn into office gossip on Wednesday morning. Even worse: Co-workers and managers could take you less seriously, you could be skipped over for promotions, and you might find yourself first in line *when layoffs occur*, all based on your activity on Facebook.

In a new report conducted by my company, Millennial Branding, and Identified.com, we gathered information from 4 million Gen-Y Facebook profiles *to see how their personal and professional online identities overlap*. We discovered *that, to some degree, most users limit what details of their professional lives get onto Facebook*. Nearly two-thirds (64%) of Gen-Y Facebook users don’t list their employer in their profiles, some likely out of worries *that they could be easily searchable by co-workers* – a situation *they’d prefer to avoid*.

There’s even reason to be careful about *friending people you don’t work with right now*. The data shows that young people are job hoppers. They spend just over two years at their first corporate job before moving on. The Bureau of Labor Statistics reports that the average American will have about nine jobs between the ages of 18 and 32. All of this job hopping increases the likelihood that a Facebook friend will someday be a colleague at work – perhaps even an in-office rival, or the person who decides *whether you get a promotion*. (*Time Magazine*, excerpts)

- a. *To have a friendly work environment*: non-finite, infinitive clause. *Published on a Tuesday night*: non-finite, past participle clause. *When lay-offs occur*: finite adverbial clause.
- b. *To see how their personal and professional online identities overlap*: infinitive clause functioning as circumstantial adverbial (purpose). *That, to some degree, most users limit what details of their professional lives get onto Facebook*: nominal *that*-clause,

direct object. *that they could be easily searchable by co-workers*: nominal *that*-clause functioning as apposition (of *worries*). *They'd prefer to avoid*: restrictive relative clause functioning as postmodifier of *situation*.

- c. The *-ing* form must be used because it comes after a preposition (*about*).
- d. The dependent clause could be introduced by *who* or *that*, since it is a restrictive relative clause with a personal antecedent (*people*) where the pronoun functions as direct object in the relative clause. *Whom* is also an alternative, although the style of the text makes this formal choice less likely.
- e. *That young people are job hoppers*: nominal clause, direct object. *That the average...32*: nominal clause, direct object. *That a Facebook friend ... work*: nominal clause, apposition (and thus part of the direct object along with *the likelihood*).
- f. A nominal clause, indirect question, which functions as direct object (in the relative clause starting with *who*).

6 Findings from the Corpus of Contemporary American English at <http://corpus.byu.edu/>:

- a. Most of the examples of *whom* follow a preposition; the two that do not follow a preposition function as direct object in the relative clause. This is in line with the rules given in 15.3.1B. *Whom* is most frequent in the academic part of the corpus and least in the spoken.
- b. *Because* is more than twice as frequent as *since* in COCA. *Because* could have been used in the following example: *But the opening of the Erie Canal changed that, **since** goods from Europe no longer needed to go through Pittsburgh, but not when *since* has temporal meaning, as in *It probably hadn't been more than seven or eight years **since** this man had been in high school himself*. Furthermore, *since* does not seem to be a good alternative to *because* as the answer to a *why*-question, as in *The next year, an election year, it was fifty-six percent. Why? **Because** Republicans in Congress changed their behavior*. (Besides, *since* cannot replace *because* in the complex preposition *because of*, but *because of* does not introduce clauses.)*
- c. *Start *ing* is much more common in this corpus. The five most common verbs following *start to* are *finish, get, see, feel, think* (and since *finish* probably functions as a noun in most of the examples of *start to finish*, we add the sixth: *look*). The five most common *-ing* verbs following *start* are *talking, thinking, looking, getting, making*.
- d. There are many hits for the word *that* following a preposition. In most of the cases *that* is a demonstrative determiner or pronoun (and thus does not introduce a *that*-clause).

An exception is *in that* meaning “because”, as in *These data are most often rather bland **in that** not all analytical persons are good students.* Another is *except that*, as in *The number would be far higher **except that** up to 60 percent of sports concussions go unreported.*

16

TEXT GRAMMAR

- 1 The original text is as follows:

Though many people dream of becoming self-employed, there are a number of advantages to working for an employer. **In many ways**, it is simpler and much less stressful to have a job working for an employer than it is to be self-employed. **However**, there are **also** disadvantages to working for an employer. Before making the decision to be an employee or self-employed, a person should **thus** carefully consider the differences.

With regard to taxes, there are two clear advantages of being employed. **First**, the employer takes care of making a tax withholding for an employee through payroll deductions while self-employed person must make quarterly tax payments. **Secondly**, an employer pays a percentage of the employee's Social Security tax, while a self-employed person pays all of it himself. **For example**, in 2011 the Social Security tax rate was 10.4 percent. The employer paid 6.2 percent **and** the employee paid 4.2 percent of the employee's income.

- 2 The original order is as follows:

1. A volcano beneath the Red Sea has given Earth a New Year's gift: a new island about 40 miles (60 kilometers) off the coast of Yemen.
2. The currently unnamed landmass first appeared in NASA satellite photos taken on December 23.
3. By January 7, it had grown to a size of 1,730 by 2,300 feet (530 by 710 meters).
4. By January 15, the volcano had stopped erupting, NASA's Earth Observatory reported.

5. The new island is the first permanent island to be formed since an eruption in Iceland created the island of Surtsey in 1963.
6. But while Iceland is a known volcanic zone, the eruption in the Red Sea was more of a surprise, experts say.
7. “We tend to forget that the entire floor of the Red Sea is a plate boundary, and that submarine volcanism here is probably very frequent,” said Haraldur Sigurdsson, a volcanologist at the University of Rhode Island.
8. The volcano is part of the Zubair island group, a chain of volcanoes whose last known eruption was more than a hundred years ago, Sigurdsson said.

In the second sentence *the currently unnamed landmass* refers back to the *new island* from sentence 1. Sentences (3) and (4) start with dates that follow on from *December 23* in sentence (2). Sentence (5) starts with *the new island* – it could thus have been suitable as a second sentence as well. But it is better placed as number (5) because the new island is formed only *after* the volcano has stopped erupting, which we know from sentence (4). Sentence (6) continues the topic of *Iceland* but sets up a contrast (*but*) to return to the new island in the Red Sea. Sentences (7) and (8) represent “what the experts say” (= the end of sentence 6); (8) fits better as the last sentence because the speaker is presented more fully in (7) and is thus given information in (8) where he is referred to only by his last name.

- 3 The members of the following sentence pairs differ in terms of vocabulary. Describe the difference in terms of synonymy, hyponymy or lexical opposite.
 - a. *Flowers* is a superordinate term and *roses* is a hyponym. Sentence (a2) thus gives more specific information about the flowers.
 - b. *Very ill* and *quite healthy* are lexical opposites (antonyms), thus the sentences contradict each other.
 - c. *Police* and *cops* are synonyms, but they differ in style. The second sentence is thus more informal than the first (which is neutral in style).
 - d. *Withhold* and *give out* are lexical opposites (antonyms). Thus the sentences contradict each other.
 - e. *Criticism* and *condemnation* both convey negative judgements, but to different degrees, so they are only near-synonyms. *Condemnation* is much stronger than *criticism*.

4 Read the following text and answer the questions below:

Will first saw Angie – or, as it turned out, **he** didn't see **her** – in Championship Vinyl, a little record shop off the Holloway Road. **He** was browsing, filling up the time, vaguely trying to hunt down an old R & B anthology **he** used to own when **he** was younger, one of **those** **he** had loved and lost; **he** heard **her** tell the surly and depressive assistant that **she** was looking for a Pinky and Perky record for her niece. **He** was trawling through the racks while **she** was being served, so **he** never caught a glimpse of her face, but **he** saw a lot of honey-blond hair, and **he** heard the kind of vaguely husky voice that **he** and **everyone else** thought of as sexy, so **he** listened while **she** explained that her niece didn't even know who Pinky and Perky were. (From *About a Boy* by Nick Hornby)

- a. The personal pronouns in the text have been marked with **red and bold**. All the instances of *he* refer back to *Will* and all those of *she/her* refer to Angie. Two instances of *her* have not been marked because they are possessive determiners rather than personal pronouns. Similarly, *it* in the first line has not been marked, as it is an example of a dummy *it*, and part of the construction *it turned out*.
- b. Examples of lexical repetition in the text include *record* and forms of the verb *see*.
- c. Words in the text that belong to the lexical field of “record shop” include: *Championship Vinyl, record, R & B anthology, racks, assistant, browse, serve*. The last three (or even four) are more general, i.e. typical of more kinds of shops than just “record shops”.
- d. The definite article is natural with *the shop assistant* because people know that shops have shop assistants, and so the presence of the assistant is a given, even if he/she has not been mentioned earlier.
- e. An example (though not a whole sentence): *He was trawling through the racks while she was being served, so he never caught a glimpse of her face...* The subject (*he*) is given information from the previous sentence, what he was doing is new information, and also what Angie was doing (*being served*). After *so*, the subject *he* is still given information, *never caught a glimpse of* echoes *didn't see* in the first sentence, but *her face* is new information. These clauses thus agree well with the information principle, with given information first and new information last.
- f. The conjunctions that connect clauses or sentences in the text have been underlined. *Or* expresses addition (i.e. an added alternative); *as* is a subordinating conjunction expressing comparison; *when* signals a temporal relationship; *that* (occurring twice) is a subordinating conjunction introducing a nominal clause; *while* (occurring twice) is a subordinating conjunction signaling a temporal relationship; *so* (occurring twice)

is a conjunction signaling that what follows is an effect of what has gone before; *but* signals a contrast; *and* signals addition.

- 5 The passages given under questions 5b–5d are just a few of the possible examples found in the British National Corpus. You may have found others that illustrate the patterns equally well.
- a. In general, those connectors that occur most in spoken English are informal, particularly as the spoken English of the BNC contains a lot of informal conversation. Academic language and newspaper language are considered more formal.

connector	most frequent in	least frequent in	notes on formality level
<i>however</i>	academic	spoken	relatively formal
<i>cos</i>	spoken	newspaper	very informal, not common in writing
<i>thus</i>	academic	spoken	formal
<i>for a start</i>	spoken (+ fiction)	academic	informal, frequent also in fiction, so acceptable in writing (though possibly in fictional dialogue)
<i>in the end</i>	fiction	academic	non-academic: possibly used for structuring narratives
<i>finally</i>	fiction (+magazine)	spoken	also probably used for structuring written narrative, not much a feature of speech
<i>therefore</i>	academic	fiction	formal
<i>anyway</i>	spoken	academic	informal

- b. The phrase *the question is* most typically brings out the question-answer pattern, but problem-solution can also be found:

The problem-solution pattern:

[PROBLEM – i.e. grammar is not learned in an effective manner] **The question is** how should grammar be learned so that its intrinsic communicative character is understood and acted upon. [NOT RIGHT SOLUTION] This cannot be done by restricting attention to its formal properties, the relations and regularities which make up the internal mechanism of the device. No matter how legitimate it might be to define the

scope of linguistics in this way (and this is currently a controversial matter), it will not do for language pedagogy. [SOLUTION] Learners need to realize the function of the device as a way of mediating between words and contexts...

[PROBLEM – stated as a series of questions] **the question is**, how exactly should they be interpreted? What is it that makes them intelligible? What kind of facts do the propositions communicating such claims express? [OUTLINE OF SOLUTION] One well-known and well-publicised attempt in recent philosophy to address this problem in a “non-reductivist” spirit has gone under the name of Existentialism, and I shall now comment briefly on what I take to be the main features of the existentialist approach before outlining my own position.

The question-answer pattern:

And we do, **the question is** can we afford it [ANSWER] and we think we can.

...and **the question is** are we to express that reality or must we continue to obscure it. [ANSWER] We must express it for the world to see and to believe.

The question is, what constitutes wild salmon at its best? [ANSWER 1] Not the sexually played-out kelt, nor a fish that has undergone an exhausting twenty minutes or so battling with a master angler. Fighting for its life causes chemical changes in the flesh. That does not render it inedible if you cook it within a few hours – or freeze it immediately. [ANSWER 2] If you want to eat a salmon at its best, try to find one that has been netted at the river mouth or offshore early in the spring..

- c. Note that most examples of the cause-effect structure have the effect before the cause, as shown in the following:

Those readers who like the gossip found in “Heard on my Rounds” will have noticed [EFFECT] that the column has not appeared in this issue. [CAUSE] **The reason is** that there is nothing to put in.

Though commercial banks have lent the majority of the capital, [EFFECT] the debt-servicing burden is lower. [CAUSE] **The reason is** that Malaysia’s exports have been much stronger.

- d. In the first example below *the fact is* introduces an elaboration of the statement preceding it; in the second it introduces a correction to a false statement (the true-false pattern).

Some manufacturers now charge little or nothing extra for diesel. But at the other extreme some manufacturers impose what seems an incredible loading against diesel versions. **The fact is** that diesel engines are produced in huge volume compared with a few years ago, reducing costs considerably, while petrol engines have grown ever more complex.

Some shops are offering old squarials at knock-down prices and implying that [FALSE] they're a good buy because they can be converted to receive Sky next year. But that's all pie in the sky. [TRUE] **The fact is**, they'll only give you BSkyB until December.

17

GENRE AND STYLE

- 1 The following sentences are suggestions – other alternatives will also be acceptable.
 - a. Please refrain from smoking. → (Please) don't smoke.
 - b. We must adhere to these rules. → We must follow the rules.
 - c. Offenders will be prosecuted. → You'll be punished for breaking the rules.
 - d. We apologize for any inconvenience caused. → We are sorry if this makes things difficult for you.
 - e. Their principal arguments so far are without foundation. → They don't have any good arguments.
 - f. The company put \$4 million of new capital in for the development of new technologies. → The company has paid \$4 million for developing new technologies.

- 2 The following words/phrases are suggestions – other alternatives will also be acceptable.
 - a. If past or extant life is discovered on Mars, two possible outcomes follow, both profoundly cool. → interesting
 - b. Three-ply Bristol board has a surface *kind of like* illustration board. → reminiscent of
 - c. The undersigned hereby acknowledges receipt of the *stuff* described on the annexed invoice. → goods
 - d. Every author who has ever *eyeballed* a blank page knows the primary difficulty in telling a story. → beheld, contemplated
 - e. The success of the program is directly related to the presence of highly motivated, savvy teachers. → insightful, knowledgeable

- f. Combine a morning of exploring the historic city of York with an evening enjoying an *awesome* performance of the York Mystery Plays in the city's Museum Gardens. → *enthraling* (a wonderful)

3 In what way(s) do the members of each of the following pairs differ in terms of topic, target group, purpose and/or wording?

- a. 1 Please take a seat.
2 Sit down, will you!

The differences in wording concern the presence/absence of the politeness marker *please* and the tag *will you*. This makes the speaker of sentence (a1) sound more polite than the speaker of (a2). The topic and purpose are the same = get hearer to sit down. The differences in wording and politeness suggest that the speaker of (a2) either has clear authority over the hearer or that the speaker is angry. The speaker of (a1) treats the hearer as equal.

- b. 1 Documented trends in increasing prevalence of overweight and inactivity mean that pediatricians must focus preventive efforts on childhood obesity.
2 It has been well documented that more and more people are overweight, often because they are inactive. Therefore paediatricians need to find out how they can help children avoid becoming overweight or obese.

The topic is the same, but the target group probably is not. Sentence (b1) is formal, with heavy noun phrases. The style would indicate that both the writer and the reader are specialists. In (b2) the same information is given as in (b1), with a less heavy style. The target group could be interested non-specialists, such as readers of a magazine or a newspaper.

- c. 1 Steel is an alloy of iron and carbon in which the carbon content ranges up to 2 percent (with a higher carbon content, the material is defined as cast iron). By far the most widely used material for building the world's infrastructure and industries, it is used to fabricate everything from sewing needles to oil tankers.
2 Steel is a hard metal that people use to make many different products. Car bodies, bridges, building frames, and containers are just a few of the things made from steel.

The topic of passages (c1) and (c2) is roughly the same, and the purpose of both is to inform about steel. However, (c1) contains much more information and uses a much more specialized vocabulary, while (c2) uses everyday words. This suggests that the

target groups are different. In fact both passages are taken from encyclopedias, of which the second is specifically for children.

- d. 1 The new Prius offers something for everyone. An EPA-estimated combined 50 mpg rating for those who'd like to spend less on gas.
- 2 The current Prius is rated at 72.4 mpg based on European mileage testing, though it registers 50 mpg in combined city/highway driving based on U.S. testing.

The topic of passages (d1) and (d2) is the same, namely a car called Prius. However, (d1) contains more everyday language and makes reference to users of the car. Passage (d2) has more specialized vocabulary and refers to *testing* of the car. While (d1) seems to offer the car and its features to a potential user, (d2) is merely informative. This makes it likely that the purpose of d1 is to sell the Prius, while the purpose of (d2) is to give information about the car to a relatively knowledgeable readership.

- 4 Newspaper-style versions of this text will vary greatly, so we make no attempt here at producing a model text. However, the kinds of changes that would be required (even for a local newspaper) include the following:

- The text must have a title that is likely to arouse interest, such as “Dead Duck Drama in Regent’s Park” or “Local lad (11) kills duck with sandwich”.
- The text should start with an introduction of the incident and the people in it (and since this is for a local newspaper, probably also their approximate addresses).
- The free indirect speech style of the fiction text will have to be changed, with more focus on facts. Some of Marcus’s thoughts might be converted to statements from him to the journalist, though.
- The dialogue cannot be kept in its original form: it can either be omitted altogether, or just summarized. One or two of the utterances can be kept as statements to the journalist, but possibly in a less colloquial style. For instance “That’s not a sandwich, that’s a bloody French loaf. No wonder it keeled over. That would have killed me.” might be turned into: Will Freeman (36), who witnessed the incident, says “It wasn’t a sandwich, it was a French loaf which could have killed anyone”.

- 5 Findings from the British National Corpus:

- a. *I* and *you* are most frequent in spoken English (and least in the academic genre) while *me* is most frequent in fiction. So we may conclude that spoken (conversational)

English are interactive and use a lot of first- and second-person pronouns. These are also common in fiction, which may contain dialogue and/or be first-person narratives.

- b. The pattern for pron. ALL is the same as those for *I/me/you*: the highest number is found in spoken English, closely followed by fiction. Academic English contains the lowest number.
- c. The pattern for noun. ALL is almost the opposite of that for pronouns: Academic English has the highest number, very closely followed by all the other written genres except fiction. Spoken English has the lowest number. This indicates that more formal written genres have more full noun phrases while spoken English relies more on pronouns.
- d. Nouns ending in *-ization* are most common in academic English. However, they do not have the lowest number in spoken English. A look at 100 random examples of **ization* words in speech indicates that these words occur most in more formal settings, such as meetings and speeches. Newspapers are somewhat surprisingly at the bottom of the list. [The search should actually be repeated with **isation*, which seems to be the spelling variety favoured by most of the British newspapers and magazines. This changes the picture quite a lot: academic English is still the genre that uses the highest number of **isation* words, but the lowest number is found in fiction (followed by spoken English). The use of such words seems to be closely connected with formality level.]