

## Chapter Five: Adjectives and Adverbs

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### Definition of Adjective:

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

a sweet taste

a red apple

a technical problem

a French woman

### 5.1 Characteristics of Adjectives

1. Some adjectives cannot be predicted from their forms.
2. Others have derivational suffixes, such as disaster → disastrous.
3. Many common adjectives have no identifying shapes, such as good, hot, little, young, fat, etc.
4. Many adjectives inflect for the comparative and superlative degrees, such as great → greater → greatest, but others do not allow inflected forms, such as disastrous, one cannot say \*disasterouser or \*disasterousest.
5. Some adjectives can be changed into adverbs by adding the derivational suffix (-ly), such as happy → happily, others do not allow this suffix to be added to them. For example, one cannot say old → \*oldly.

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

## 5.2 Two Other Features of Adjectives

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

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

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

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

- Ali was (**happy**). = The AP here consists of just the headword "happy".

## 5.3 Syntactic Functions of Adjectives

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

#. Show the distinction between attributive and predicative adjectives (Give briefings with illustrative examples).

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

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

#. Adjectives are attributive when they come before nouns, namely they are placed between the determiner and the headword:

- The **beautiful** painting, his **main** argument.

#### **Predicative adjectives can be:**

- a. Subject complement, e.g.,: Your daughter is **pretty**.
- b. Objective complement, e.g., He made his wife **happy**.
- c. They can be complement to a subject which is a finite clause:
  - Whether he will resign is **uncertain**.
- d. They can be complement to a subject which is a non-finite clause:
  - Driving a bus is not **easy**.
- e. They can be object complement to clauses:

- I consider what he did **foolish**. ("**Foolish**" is a CO to the clause 'what he did')

f. They occur immediately after a linking verb:

- My friend looks **tired**. ("**Tired**" came after the linking verb 'look')

**NB:** an adjective functioning as object complement often expresses the result of the process denoted by the verb:

- He pushed the window **open**. (Co) (As a result, the window was open).

## 5.4 Postpositive Adjectives

**Postpositive adjectives** are adjectives that follow the nouns they modify.

Examples:

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

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

#.Indefinite pronouns ending in (-body, -one, -thing, -where) can be modified only postpositively:

- I want to try something **larger**. (**Larger** is a postpositive adjective).

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

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

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

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

## 5.9 Verbless Adjective Clause

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

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

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

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

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

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

#. Always inserted with verbless adjective clause indicating permanence:

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

## 5.10 Contingent Adjective Clause

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

- **Enthusiastic**, they make good students (= When enthusiastic, ....)
- **Whether right or wrong**, his decision is adopted.
- **When ripe**, these apples are sweet.

## 5.10 Intensifying Adjectives

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

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

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

(**B**). Amplifiers scale upwards from an assumed norm, denoting the upper extreme of the scale or a high point on the scale, such as a 'complete victory', 'a close friend', 'the very end'. They are subclassified into two types:

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

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

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

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

## 5.15 Limiter Adjectives

Limiter Adjectives particularize the reference of the noun including:

- The **main** reason , the **precise** reason, the **only** reason, the **only** occasion, the **same** student.

#. There is a difference in meaning between saying "a **certain** person" and "a **certain** winner".

To say a certain person, the adjective "certain" here is a limiter adjective, which means (a particular person), but the adjective 'certain' in the noun phrase "a certain winner" is an intensifying adjective which means " a sure winner".

## 5.15 Denominal Adjectives

Denominal Adjectives are the adjectives derived from nouns and they are attributive only including:

- **Criminal** law ≈ law concerning crime.
- An **atomic** scientist ≈ a scientist specializing in atomic science.
- A **medical** school ≈ a school for students of medicine.

## Definition of Adverb:

An **adverb** is a word or phrase that modifies or qualifies an adjective, verb, or other adverb or a word group, expressing a relation of place, time, circumstance, manner, cause, degree, etc. Examples of adverbs include **gently, quite, then, there.**

## 5. 21 Characteristics of Adverbs

Morphologically, the most common feature of adverbs is the majority of adverbs have the derivational suffix (-ly), such as **quickly, slowly, barely**, etc. Syntactically, there are two types of syntactic functions that characterize verbs:

(1). **Adverbial** which modifies or tells us something about the sentence or the verb. It may be a single adverb, a phrase, or a prepositional phrase, or clause element:

- **Surprisingly**, I passed all of my exams.

(2). **Modifier** of adjective and adverb. Let us consider the following example:

- far more easily intelligible.



**Comment.** Intelligible is modified by the adverb phrase "far more easily", 'easily' is modified by the adverb phrase 'far more', and 'more' is modified by the adverb phrase "far". Therefore, the adverb phrase is a group of words that serves the same purpose as an adverb. Like an adverb, an adverb phrase can also modify an adjective or another adverb.

## 5.23 Adverb as Modifier

**Modifier of Adjective** means an adverb may premodify an adjective:

- That was a **very** funny film. (Very is an adverb premodifying the adjective funny)
- It is **extremely** good of you. (Extremely is an adverb premodifying the adjective good)
- She has a **really** beautiful face). (Really is an adverb premodifying the adjective beautiful)

## 5.24 Modifier of Adverb

An adverb may premodify another adverb and function as intensifier:

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

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

- He knocked the man **right** out. (Right is an adverb premodifying the particle "out")

- They left him **well** behind. (**Well** is an adverb premodifying the particle "behind")

## 5.45 Nouns Functioning as Premodifiers

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

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

#. Prepositional phrases with the noun as complement:

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

#. Some nouns can function both attributively and predicatively:

- **Worcester** Porcelain ( $\approx$  **this porcelain is Worcester**)

## Chapter Seven: The Simple Sentence

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### Clause Patterns

#### 7.1 Simple and Complex Sentences

##### -Defining Simple Sentence:

It is a sentence consisting of only one clause, with a single subject and predicate, e.g.,

- Jack studied hard.

### **-Defining Complex Sentence:**

**Complex sentence** is a sentence that contains an independent clause (or main clause) and at least one dependent clause. It consists of a main clause and at least one subordinate clause. , e.g.,

-Although Mary had some doubts, she found the courses very useful.

The above example is a complex sentence: it has a dependent clause (a subject 'Mary' and a verb 'had'), followed by an independent clause (subject 'she' and a verb 'found') and forms a complete thought.

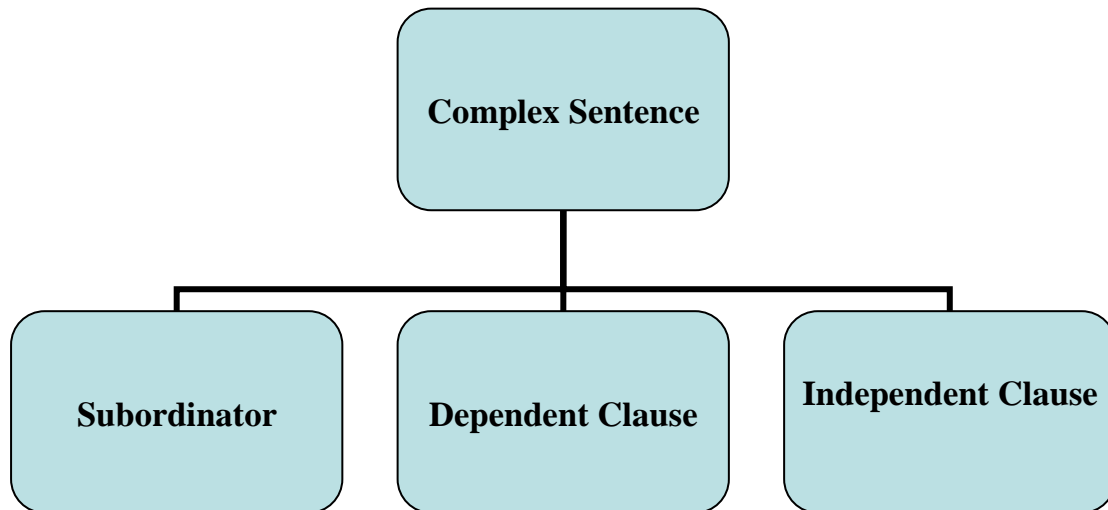
A **clause** is a group of words that has both a subject and a verb.

An **independent** clause forms a complete thought. e.g.,

-Mary had some doubts.

A **dependent clause**, also called a **subordinating clause**, does not form a complete thought and is dependent upon an independent clause for meaning.

### **Hierarchy of the Complex Sentence**



<u>Subordinator</u>	<u>Dependent Clause</u>	<u>Independent Clause</u>
<i>Although</i>	<i>She is hungry</i>	<i>she will give him some of her food</i>

**Subordinator** is a conjunction that introduces a dependent clause, joining it to a main clause. Also, it is called a subordinating conjunction. They include when, after, before, since, until, as soon as, while, although, etc.

## 7.2 Clause Types

Syntactically, there are seven basic types of clauses:

1. **S + V + A** → Mary is in the house.

(Mary > Subject of the clause + is > intensive verb + in the house > Adverb of Place)

2. **S + V + C** → Mary is { nice }  
a student

( is > intensive verb + nice and a student > subject complement)

3. **S + V + O** → I kicked the bucket.

( kicked > monotransitive verb + bucket > Od)

4. **S + V + O + A** → I found the ring in the garden.

( found > monotransitive verb + ring > Od + in the garden > Adverb of Place )

5. **S + V + O + C** → We made him happy.

( made > complex verb + him > Od + happy > object complement )

6. **S + V + O + O** → I gave him my book.

( gave > ditransitive verb + him > Oi + my book > Od)

7. **S + V** → Alice smiled.

(smiled > intransitive verb)

### 7.3 Complementation

The elements Od, Cs or Co or A are obligatory elements in the clause because they are required for the complementation of the verb. Therefore, if the verb lacks one of these elements, the sentence will be incomplete and it will be unacceptable grammatically and semantically, for example, I say:

- I kicked.

In fact, this structure consists of (S V ) which should be ( S V O) because the verb 'kick' is transitive not intransitive; therefore, we say that this sentence is

incomplete which is considered grammatically and semantically unacceptable because the element (O<sub>d</sub>) is missing.

In considering the complementation of the English sentence, three factors should be taken into account:

### 1. **Obligatory Elements**

Obligatory elements are certain parts of speech whose existence in the sentence is obligatory because missing a certain element will make the sentence incomplete, e.g.,:

- I put the book → this clause is unacceptable and should be (S VO A):
- I put the book on the table.

### 1. **Optional Elements**

Direct object and object complements can be considered optional in some cases:

- (a). He is eating ( S V ) → He is eating an **apple** ( S V O )
- (b). He made his career ( S V O ) → He made his career a **success** ( S V O A ).

### 3. **Verb Conversion:**

Verb conversion is an approach used to transform a verb from transitive category to intransitive category, eg.,:

- He is eating an apple ( S V O ) = (Eating is transitive verb)
- He is eating ( S V ) = (Eating is intransitive)

## 7.4 Optional Adverbials

Some adverbials are optional in certain positions of clause types and their existence or their deletion will not affect the structure of the clause:

1. **S V** = She sings →

(**Sometimes**) she sings (**beautifully**).

(A) optional + S + V + (A) optional

2. **S V A** = Most students are on vacation →

(**In America**) most students are (**now**) on vacation.

(A) optional + S + V + (A) optional + A

3. **S V OO** = She sent us some photographs →

She (**kindly**) sent us some photographs.

S + (A) + V + Oi + Od

## 7.5 Transformational Relations

**Transformational Relations or Relations of Grammatical Paraphrase** mean that the noun phrase that functions as an object in the active sentence can be converted to the subject of the sentence when changing it into a passive form:

- Many critics disliked the play →

S                      V              O

- The play was disliked.

S                      V

There is sometimes equivalence between types S V, S V C and S V A as shown by occasional equivalence of the following kind:

1. **S + V ↔ S + V + C**

-The baby is **sleeping** → The baby is **asleep**.

2. **S + V ↔ S + V + A**

- He hurried → He went **fast**.

3. **S + V + Cs ↔ S + V + A**

- He is **jobless** → He is **without a job**.

## 7.6 Intensive Relationship

An S V O C clause is often equivalent to a clause with an infinitive or that-clause:

- I imagined her beautiful { - I imagined her to be beautiful }  
- I imagined that she was beautiful

The equivalence relationship shows that the object (her) and the complement (beautiful) in the structure **SVOC**. This relation is expressed by the intensive verb (imagine).

SVOO clauses can be transformed into SVOA clauses by the substitution of a prepositional phrase for the indirect object with a change of order:

- She sent Jim **a card** → She sent a card **for Jim**.



## 7.9 Clause Elements Semantically Considered (Semantic Roles of Subjects)

Agentive, Affected, Recipient, Attribute, Instrumental represent the semantic roles indicating the underlying relationship that the subject (participant) has with the main verb of the sentence. They are also called semantic cases or thematic roles. They include:

1. **Agentive** means the subject of the sentence is an animate which is being instigating or causing the happening denoted by the verb:

- **John** opened the letter.

(Agentive Role)

2. **Affected** means that the direct object is participant; i.e., a participant (animate or inanimate) which does not cause the happening denoted by the verb, but is directly involved in some other way:

- Many MPs criticized the **prime minister**.

( Affected Role)

3. **Recipient** means that the function of the indirect object is recipient which means an animate participant being passively implicated by the happening or state:

- I gave **you** a book.

↓

(Recipient Role)

4. **Attribute** means that the role of the subject complement is an attribute of the subject of the sentence whether a current or existing attribute. Attributes have two types depending on the type of the verb:

(a). **Current Attribute** which has a stative verb, e.g.,:

- He seems **happy**. (Happy (Adj) → current attribute)

CS

(b). **Resulting Attribute** which has a dynamic verb, e.g.,:

- He turned **traitor**. (Traitor (N) → resulting attribute)

CS

5. **Instrumental** is the semantic role of an inanimate which causes the event, e.g.,:

- The **avalanche** destroyed several houses.  
(Instrumental)

## 7.12 Second Set of Subject Semantic Roles

(Locative, Temporal and Eventive Subjects)

1. **Locative Subject** indicates the function of the place,

- This **path** is swarming.  
(Location)

2. **Temporal Subject** indicates time,

- Tomorrow is my birthday.  
(Time)

3. **Eventive Subject** indicates arrangements and activities. It permits time adverbial,

- The **concert** is on Tuesday.  
(Eventive)

## 7.13 Empty It Subject

It is a kind of subjects that lacks semantic content and consists only of the meaningless prop word (it), which is used especially with climate predications,

- **It's** raining.      **It's** snowing.      **It's** getting dark.

## 7.18. Concord

It refers to a formal relationship between elements, whereby a form of one word requires a corresponding form of another. In English, for example, a singular subject co-occurs with the third-person singular form of the verb in the present tense, for example, "he walks" represents the concord between the subjects and its verb in the existence of 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular (-s) because the subject is 3<sup>rd</sup> speaker and singular. Contrarily, the clause "they walk" represents the concord between the subject and the verb of the clause because the subject is plural and it requires a verb without 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular (-s).

### Types of Concord (Grammatical Agreement)

1. **Subject-verb Concord** requires an agreement between the subject and the verb of the clause, e.g.,:

- **He drinks** hot milk.      **They drink** hot milk.

2. **Subject – complement Concord** requires an agreement between the subjects and the complement describes or identifies it. It is also called Number Concord, e.g.,:

- The child was **an** angel.      But **it's wrong to say**: \*The child was angels.

3. **Subject – object Concord** exists between subject and object. It is also called Pronoun Concord, e.g.,

- **He** injured **himself** in the leg.
- **You** should give **yourself** a chance.

### 7.19 Notional Concord and Proximity Principle

(a). **Notional Concord** is the agreement of the verb with subject according to the idea of number rather than the actual presence of the grammatical marker for the idea.

(b). **Proximity Principle** denotes agreement of the verb with whatever noun or pronoun closely precedes it irrespective of the headword subject, e.g.,

- **One** in **ten** take drugs.
- No **one** except his own **supporters** agree with him.

In the first sentence, the subject is (One in ten) and its headword is (one) and the verb should take 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular (-s), but the speaker prefers to consider the word (ten) as the headword of the subject because it is directly adjacent to the verb 'take'.

### 7.20 Collective Nouns

In British English (BrE), collective nouns, notionally plural but grammatically singular, obey notional concord in the example below where American English (AmE) considers it singular:

(a). Barcelona win the match.

(b). Barcelona wins the match.

If the speaker means the individuals (players) of the team, the term 'Barcelona' team should be considered plural noun and the verb 'win' is used without 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular (-s), but if the speaker means 'Barcelona' team as one identity and one unit, it should be considered as singular and the verb 'win' should be 'wins'.

## 7.31 The Vocative

A word or phrase used to address a reader or listener directly, usually in the form of a personal name, title, or term of endearment. Verbally, the vocative is indicated by the intonational rising tune.

### Structural Positions of the Vocative

#### 1. Initial Position

- **JOHN**, I want you. (Voc + S V Od)

#### 2. Medial Position

- You, **My FRIEND**, will have to work harder. (S + Voc+ V + A)

#### 3. Final Position

-It's a lovely day, Mrs **JOHNSON**. (S + V + Cs + Voc)

### **The Morphological Forms of Vocatives**

Vocatives are said in different forms:

1. A single name with or without title, Mrs Johnson, Dr. Smith, etc.
2. The personal pronoun 'you' (marked impolite), such as: Behave yourself, you.
3. Standard appellatives, usually nouns without premodification or Postmodification. Appellatives are divided into:
  - a. **Family Relationships**, such as mother, father, uncle or more familiar forms like mom; mommy, dad; daddy, etc.
  - b. **Endearments**, such as (my) darling, dear, honey, etc.
  - c. **Titles of Respect**, such as sir, madam, My Lord, Your Excellency, Your Majesty, Your Highness, Ladies and Gentlemen, etc.
  - d. **Markers of Profession or Status**, such as Doctor; Mr/Madam Chairman; Mr President; Bishop, etc.
4. They come with nominal clause, such as Whoever said that, come out here.

### **7.58 Commands (Imperatives)**

Syntactically a command is a sentence which typically has no subject, and where the verb is in the imperative mood, e.g. Come here! Semantically it is primarily used to tell someone to do (or not do) something.

### **7.60 Commands with Let**

First person imperatives can be formed by preposing the verb "let", followed by a subject in the objective case:

- **Let** me open the window. (*Let + Object Pronoun + Verb + Comp*)

## 7.61 Negative Commands

The **negative command** consists of "Don't + Verb + Comp"

- **Don't** open the window.

## 7.62 Persuasive Imperatives

A **persuasive imperative** is created by the addition of Do before the main verb, e.g.,:

- **Do** let us go to the theatre.      **Do** have some more sherry.

## 7.62 Exclamations

An exclamation (also called an interjection) is a word or phrase that expresses strong emotion, such as surprise, pleasure, or anger. Exclamations often stand on their own, and in writing, they are usually followed by an exclamation mark (!) rather than a full stop.

### Structures of Exclamations

**What + noun phrase +!**

- What a pity!

- What a lovely day!

**How + Adjective +!**

- How silly!

- How beautiful she is!

