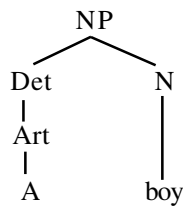
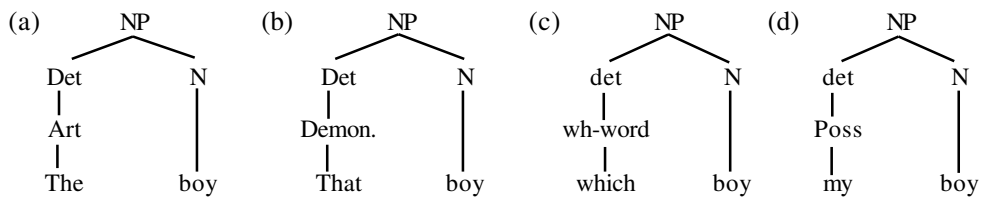


Now if an NP has premodifiers, they will be captured in terms of branches coming from the node NP at the left hand side of the head noun. For example,

(i) NP – Determiner – N



Determiners can be of four types – Articles (a, an, the), Demonstratives (this, that, these, those), wh-words (which, what) and the possessive.



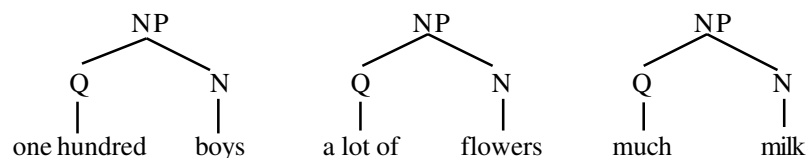
NP – ordinal – N

An ordinal refers to the serial number, like first, second, third, fourth, next, last, etc.



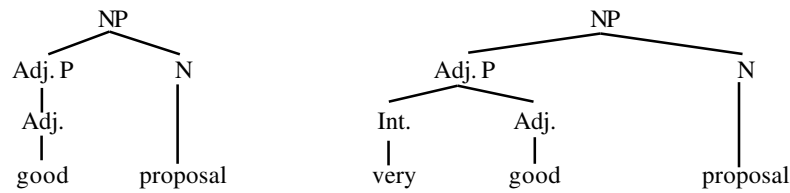
NP – Quantifier – N

Quantifier refers to quantity, number, amount, etc. and it includes what some linguists refer to as cardinal.

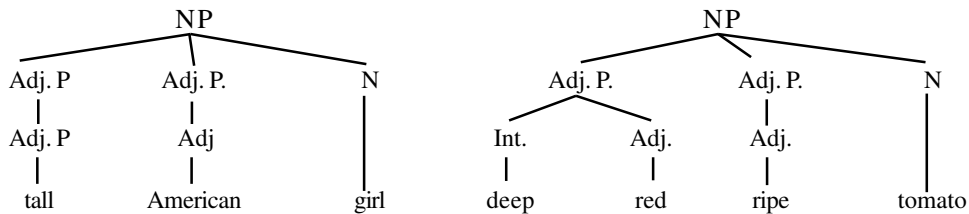


NP – Adj. Phrase – N

The adjective phrase occurs before the Noun and modifies it. The adjective phrase can also contain its own premodifier which is called an Intensifier (or Adverb). For example,

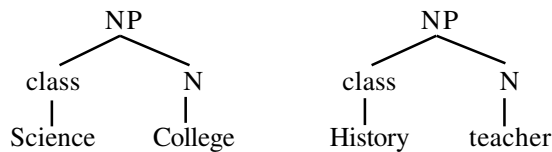


Sometimes an NP can be premodified by more than one Adj. P. In other words, two separate adjective phrases modify the same head noun. So this is structurally very different from the intensifier – adj. structure.



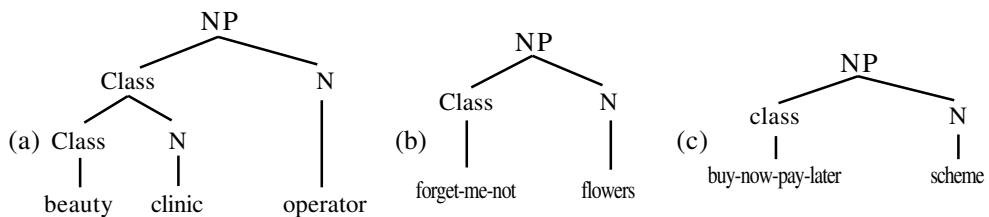
NP – Classifier – N

A classifier is an NP which modifies the head noun.

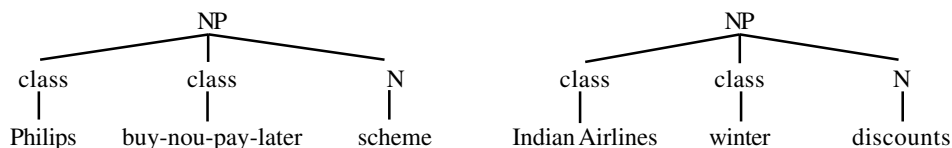


Please distinguish between this structure and the one with Adj.P–N structure.

A classifier can also be a compound NP, a ‘clubbed’ sentence (a sentence reduced to the status of a phrase) or even ‘clubbed sentences’ (more than one sentence reduced to a phrase):



Classifiers can also be more than one in a noun phrase like the adjectives already mentioned.



Both the classifiers modify the headnouns in these structures.

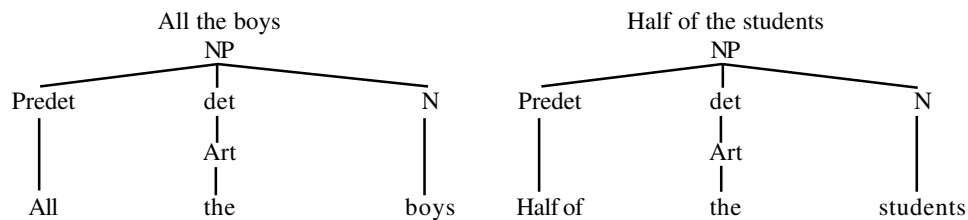
While capturing these structures, you will have to depend on your sense of the constituency relations between the elements in an NP. Make sure if the premodifiers are two separate classifiers or one classifier containing a classifier & a noun as under (a) above.

Now, these premodifiers can occur individually in an NP structure as we have seen in the examples or they might occur in combinations between themselves. But their order of occurrence has to be systematic, as shown in the following phrase structure rule.

NP – (Det) (ord) (Q) (Adj. P) (Classifier) N

Notice that the brackets indicate optionality. The elements in the brackets may occur in an NP structure or may not.

Sometimes an element (or elements) may occur before the determiner which is called a predeterminer. For example, see the structure of the following NP.

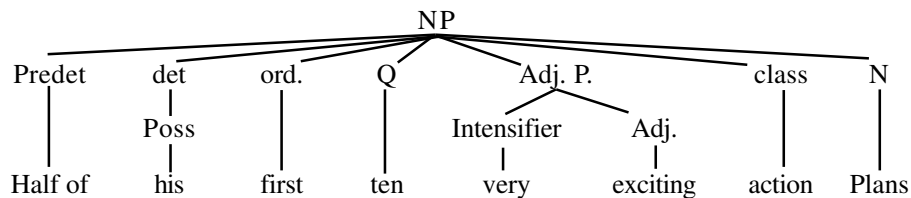


As it appears, the predeterminer is an item which occurs only when there is a determiner after it. Otherwise it would pass on as a quantifier (Q).

Let us now examine the fullest expansion of the NP.

NP – (Predet) (det) (ord) (Q) (Adj. P) (class) Noun

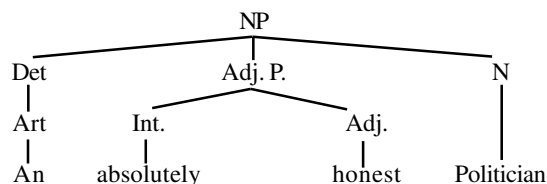
Half of his first ten very exciting action plans



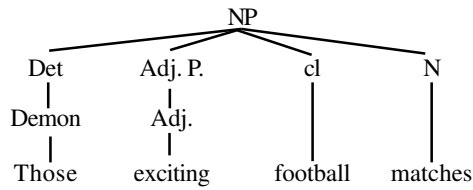
This NP structure with premodifiers, therefore, may have all the premodifiers present in the structure or none of them present in the structure, leaving the headnoun singly as the NP.

Consider the noun phrase structures of some NPs worked out. This will help you in understanding the possible variations in the structure.

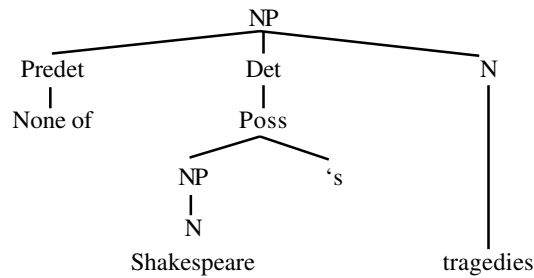
1. An absolutely honest politician



2. Those exciting football matches



3. None of Shakespeare's tragedies



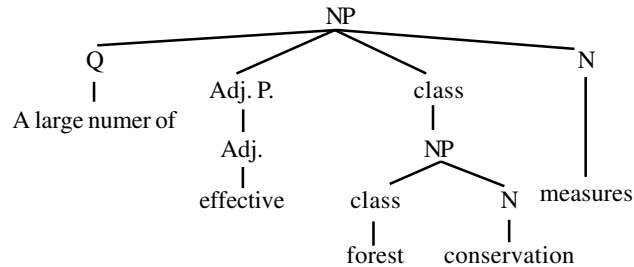
Please notice here that the possessive as a determiner can contain within it another NP whose structure we need to capture. And the structure for that is :

Det – Poss

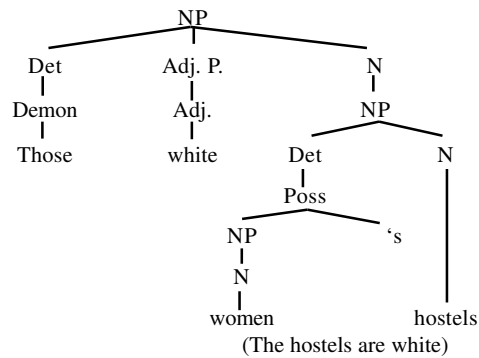
Poss – NP–'S

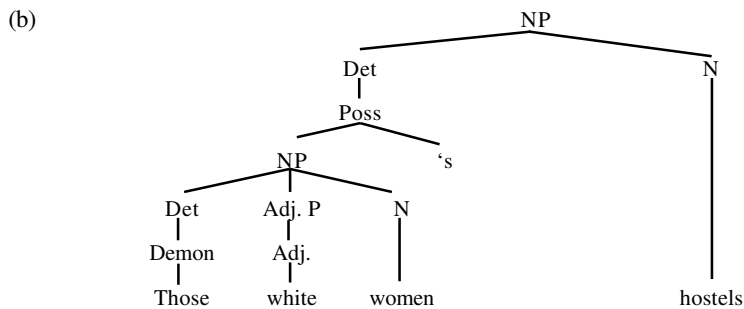
(This is exactly the structure of the NP above.)

4. A large number of effective forest conservation measures



5. (a) Those white women's hostels. (ambiguous)





2.4.4. Review Questions 5 :

Show the noun phrase structures of the following NPs with the help of free diagrams.

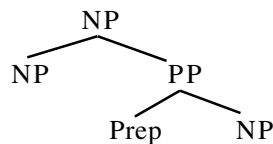
1. Those wonderful lonesco plays.
2. Many of your highly ambitious projects
3. Keats' principle of beauty in all things (ambiguous)
4. 50% of the Department's girl students
5. The last supper
6. A very young petroleum transfer engineer
7. Some of yours
8. A lot of them
9. UGC pay scales implementation issue
10. The queen of England's supporters

2.5.2 The noun phrase with prepositional phrase

As we have Noun Phrases in which the head noun has a number of premodifiers, we can also have noun phrases with postmodifiers. The PSR for this NP structure is :

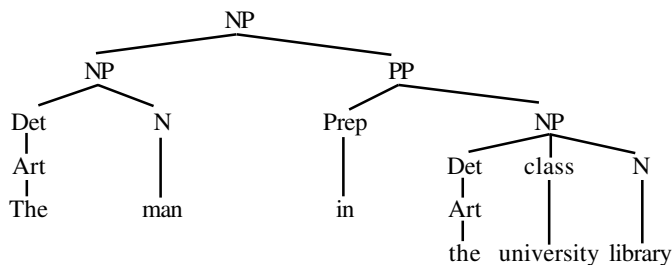
NP → NP PP

PP → Prep. NP

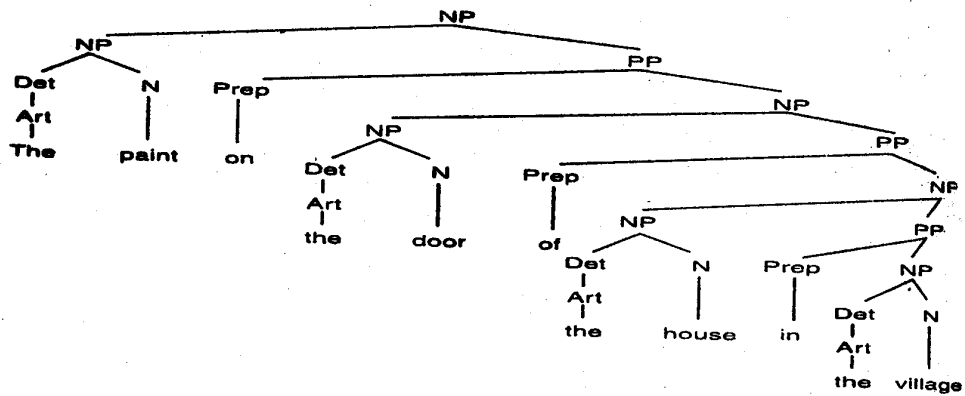


Take for example the following NPs.

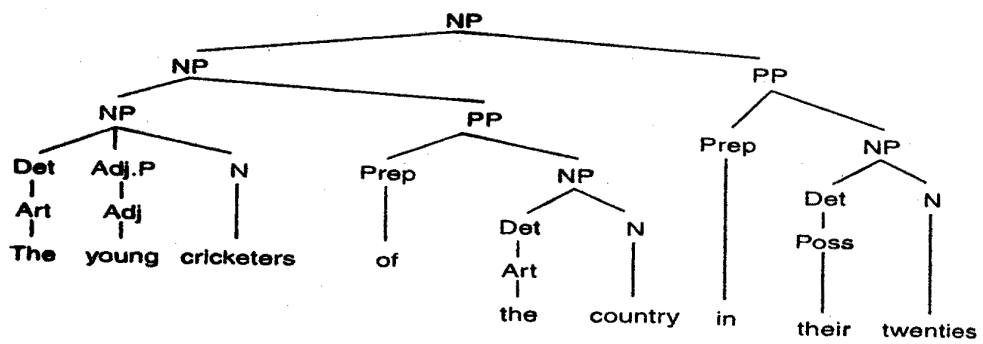
1. The man in the university library



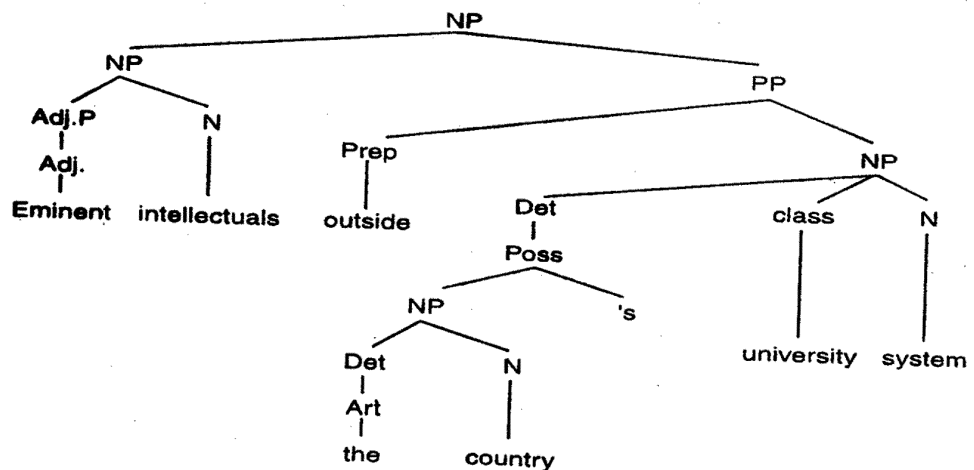
2. The paint on the door of the house in the village



3. The young cricketers of the country in their twenties



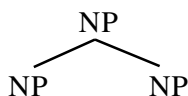
4. Eminent intellectuals outside the country's university system



2.5.1. NP modified by another NP as a post modifier

This structure is the following.

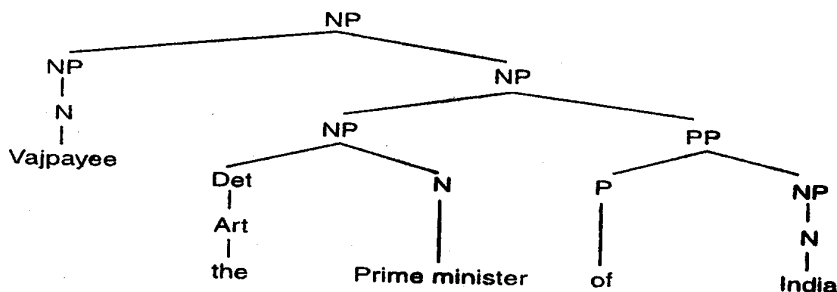
NP → NP-NP



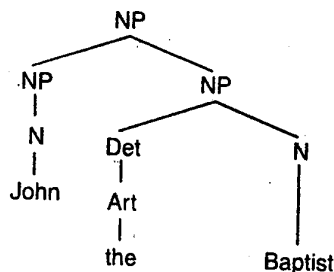
Here the NP at the right end functions as a post-modifier of the head NP at the left. This is what the traditional grammarians referred to as Noun in Apposition or Appositive structure. This has a very simple structural configuration. Look into the following examples :

1. Vajpayee, the Prime Minister of India.
2. John, the Baptist.
3. Frank Palmer, the famous linguist.

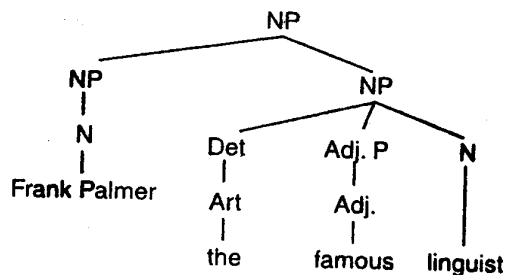
(1)



(2)



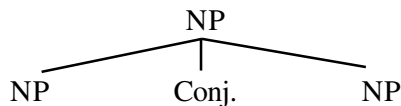
(3)



2.5.2 Two or more noun phrases conjoined

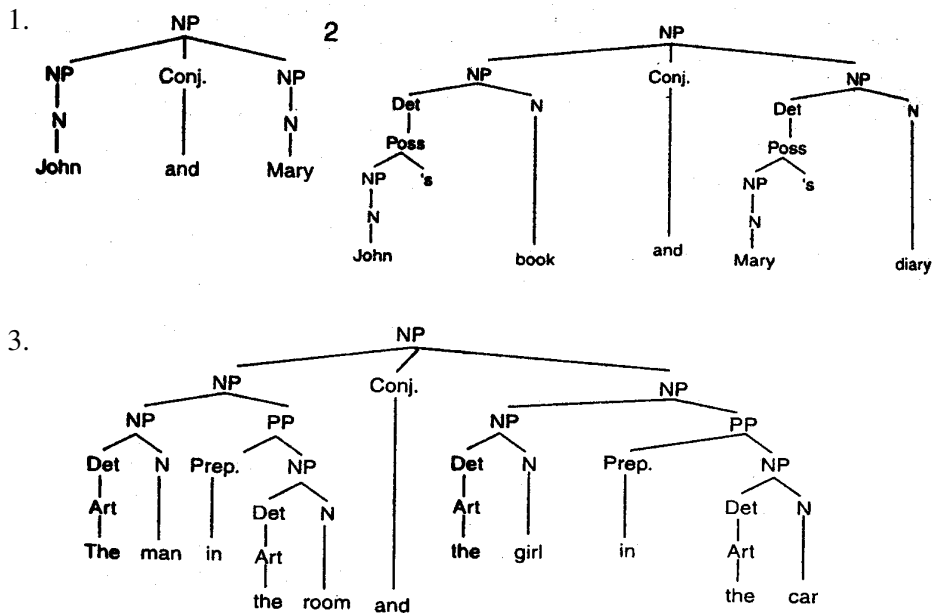
As a recursive property of language, two or more NPs can be conjoined with each other by a co-ordinating conjunction.

NP → NP - Conjunction - NP



Take, for instance, structures like :

1. John and Mary
2. John's book and Mary's diary
3. The man in the room and the girl in the car

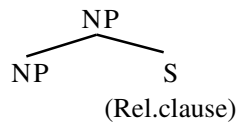


2.5.3. NP containing a relative clause

In the previous four structures we had the noun phrase structures without any clause (or sentence). They all had only phrases within them modifying the NP either as a premodifier or as a post-modifier or an NP containing another NP or NPs within a co-ordinate structure.

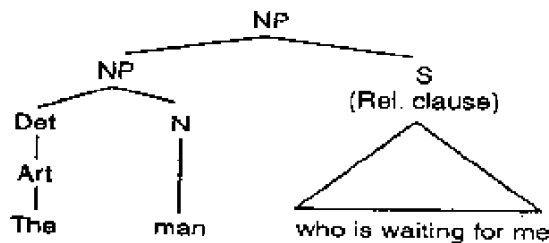
But an NP can also have a whole clause modifying it as a Post-modifier. In other words, we can have an NP followed by a relative clause (what the traditional grammars called Adjective clause) and this relative clause (or sentence) modifies this antecedent NP. So we can formulate a PS rule to capture this structure :

NP \rightarrow NP-S (Rel. clause)



Let us examine the following structures.

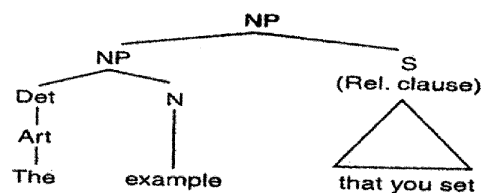
1. The man who is waiting for me



The details of the sentence (or the relative clause) we ignore now because the sentential structure we have not yet introduced to you. We will show the details of it later when we will be drawing deep structure tree diagrams for sentences. Until then just remember that the right hand side S in this structure is a relative clause which contains a relative pronoun (who in this case) and this clause modifies the NP occurring before it.

Let's work out a few more problems.

2. The example that you set.



Sometimes we see the relative pronoun being deleted in the surface structure. This does not mean that the relative pronoun is not there ; it is very much there but it is not realized in the structure. So the structural configuration of an NP – ‘The example you set’ will be the same as above.

It is also possible to have a further reduced relative clause, as in the Noun phrase –

The man waiting for me.

The sentence in the deep structure is a fully developed relative clause / sentence but in its derivation from the deep to the surface structure the relative pronoun (who) along with the verb be has been deleted by a transformational rule.

The man who is waiting for me.

Rel. Pronoun + be deletion ⇒ The man waiting for me

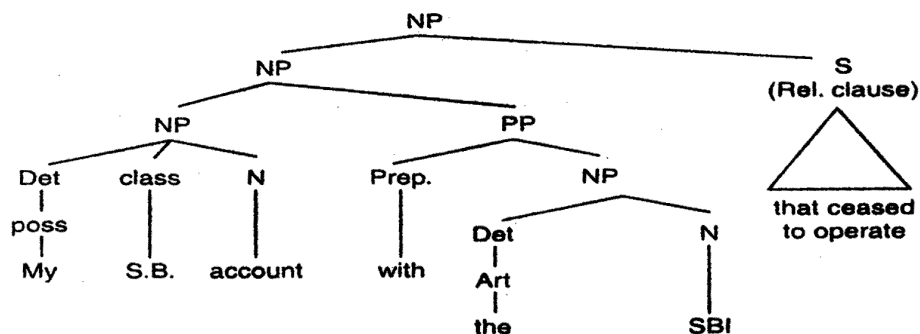
So the structure remains the same as under (1) above.,

Please don't worry too much now. Your doubts will be clarified when we show you in detail the derivational history of this sentence as we proceed in this course on syntax.

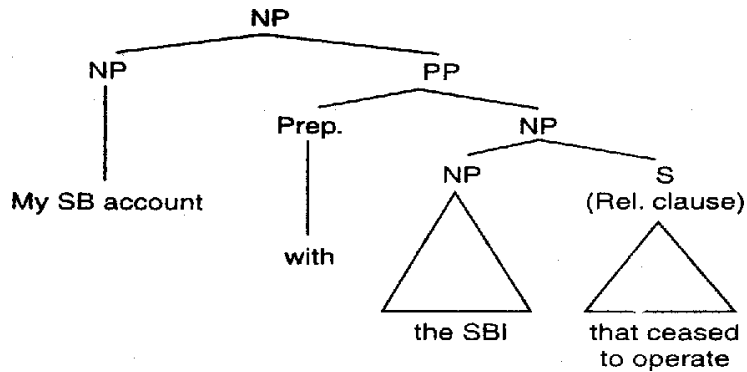
While describing and explaining relative clause structures, please be sure of the scope of relativization and make sure which antecedent NP (if there is more than one NP before the clause) the relative clause modifies.

See the following structure.

My SB account with the SBI that ceased to operate



Notice that the relative clause here does not modify the NP 'SBI' but the NP 'my SB Account with the SBI'. This is the reason why we can't have the following structure.



Here the meaning captured is the SBI ceased to operate though the intended meaning is my SB account ceased to operate.

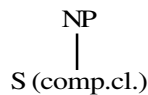
(Please note that the asterisk (*) indicates an unacceptable form.)

2.5.4. NP as a complement clause

In a complement clause (or sentence) structure the NP itself is the complement clause unlike what we have seen in an NP structure having a relative clause. The difference between the two, therefore, is : A relative clause modifies an NP but a complement clause is an NP. The traditional grammarians called it (comp. clause) a noun clause because of this.

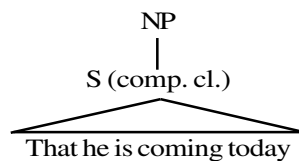
This structure is represented by the PS Rule

NP → S



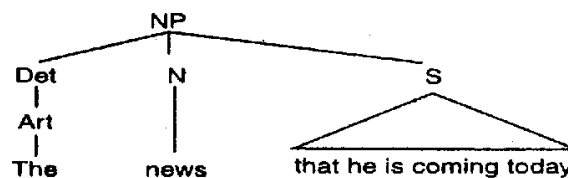
For example, let us examine the structure of the following NP.

1. That he is coming today



We can also have a slightly different structure.

2. The news that he is coming today



Notice here that the complement clause is the NP itself –the news. That’s why we have the structure NP → Det – N-S. So complement clause has two possible structures :

NP → $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Det} \\ \text{S} \end{array} \right. \text{ N S}$ which means $\boxed{\text{NP} \rightarrow (\text{Det}) (\text{N}) \text{S}}$

You will have noticed that we used the rule $\boxed{\text{NP} \rightarrow \text{NP-S}}$ for relative clause which is different from the rule for the complement as mentioned already.

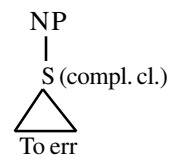
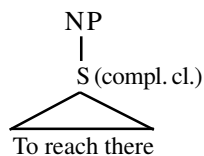
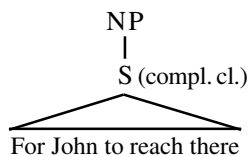
The complement clause structure has three manifestations.

(i) That clause (we have seen this already in the given example)

(ii) For to clause which in the surface structure has the appearance of an infinitival phrase.

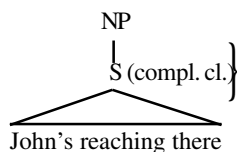
3. For John to reach there

or, To reach there / To err



(iii) Poss ing structure as in the NP below.

4. John’s reaching there



You will see later that all these three surface structure forms of the complement clause have the same deep structure configuration (as in 1 (or 2), 3 and 4) having completely reconstructed complement sentences. For capturing the NP structure we are only using a triangle to show the complement clause only; its details will be captured when we will work out deep structure tree diagrams for various sentences in complete detail.

Now, you must have an awareness of the six different types of noun phrases that we have shown you with illustrations. Remember that these six structures have the possibility of incorporating each other in the structure of complex NPs. This structuring and restructuring are the manifestations of linguistic creativity. And this is not a property of the NP alone, but a feature of human language.

2.5.5. Review Questions 6 :

Analyse the structures of the following noun phrases :

1. The man on the deck whose identity is not known :
2. The men in the village across the river behind the mountain :
3. All the four very good hits to the boundary :
4. The history of short story genre in Australia :
5. The Asian Team Championship to be held in China :
6. The vast fund of ill-will existing in the world at this moment :
7. The designer’s modest beginning in the eighties with a handful of dresses :

- 8. The Nehru Gold Cup soccer Tournament played at Kochi
- 9. Anita Desai's novel, Voices in the City
- 10. A servile existence within the rigid confines of a traditional Hindu family

Review Questions 7 :

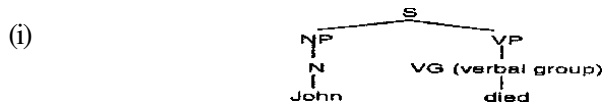
Read the following passages and then capture the structures of the underlined noun phrases.

(i) To avoid a traffic bottleneck I turned around in the driveway of one of our town's banks. On my way I saw a prominently displayed sign. It read : "we wish you would use our bank as much as you use our driveway."

(ii) Perhaps the most damning evidence of environmental contamination around the UCIL factory comes from Srishti, a New Delhi-based group which released its report recently. Besides drinking water samples, the group analysed vegetable grown in the area

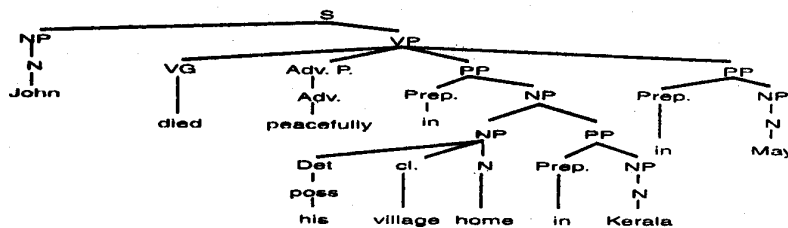
2.6. Verb phrase

In the basic structure of a simple sentence in English we have a subject Noun phrase and a verb phrase. The verb phrase is what the traditional grammarians call predicate and even the structuralists also call it the predicate in their IC analysis framework. The verb phrase (known as the VP) contains an obligatory element verbal (which may be a single word unit or a group of items together called the verbal group) and other optional elements. These elements are, as we have seen in the basic sentence patterns, etc.), indirect object, direct object (the objects are noun phrases), adjuncts (which can be prepositional phrases, adverb phrases, etc.). We call all these elements optional because we can have a sentence without them and the only element without which we can't have a sentence or a VP is the verbal or the verbal group. For example, we can have a sentence – 'John died' the structure of which can be captured in the following way :



But if we add a few more adjuncts to it the VP will be expanded. Consider the following sentence.

i. (a) John died peacefully in his village home in Kerala in May.



2.6.1 Structure of the VP

Before looking into the structure of the VP in some detail, let us look into the deep structure configuration of the VG first.

The VG is the verbal group because it may contain a number of auxiliary elements other than the main verb. The auxiliary verbs in English occur in the verbal group in a complex but systematic way. Consider the following structures :

- (ii) They eat onions.
- (iii) They can eat onions.
- (iv) They have eaten onions.
- (v) They are eating onions.

If you look into the verbal groups in these sentences you will easily identify 'eat' as the main verb in each of them. In (ii) eat is the verbal unit having only the main verb eat, in the next, can eat consists of the modal auxiliary can and the main verb, in (iv) have is the auxiliary which marks the perfective along with the past participle -en attached to the main verb eat and in (v) the auxiliary is the progressive be along with the present participle -ing attached to eat.

But in all these sentences Tense is also a very important element of the VG. It is marked in the VG and without it we cannot have a VG; it is an obligatory element in the VG, therefore in the VP and, therefore in the sentence. The point we are trying to make is that we cannot have a sentence without Tense.

In (i) Tense Present is marked on the main verb eat and because of the English subject-verb agreement rule it has no phonological realisation (you remember zero affixation?). In (iii) Tense is marked on the modal can (and you know that the modals are not inflected in Present tense form). In (iv) Tense is marked on have which is the perfective (auxiliary) and in (v) Tense is marked on be which is the Progressive (auxiliary) and here the realisation is in the form of are.

All these show that Tense is marked on the first element in the VG: See the following VG structures :

- (vi) He writes. : He wrote.
- (vii) He can write : He could write.
- (viii) He has written : He had written.
- (ix) He is writing : He was writing.
- (x) He could have written.
- (xi) He could have been writing.
- (xii) He had been writing.

As Tense is marked on the first element in the VG, in interrogative sentences the tense carrying element undergoes Inversion. ('Inversion' means the Tense carrying element is shifted to the front across the subject NP.) For example, see the structures of the interrogative counterparts of these sentences.

- vii (a) Can he write ?
- viii (a) Has he written ?
- ix (a) Is he writing ?
- x (a) Could he have written ?
- xi (a) Could he have been writing ?
- xii (a) Had he been writing ?

(Some of these sentences you may not use in real contexts, but these are the appropriate grammatical forms for the inversion in these sentences).

It means, therefore, that the inversion rule operates very systematically in English in structures where we have one or more auxiliaries because the inversion process involves the first auxiliary element as it needs the Tense to be inverted. But what about sentence (vi) where there is no auxiliary and the Tense is marked on the main verb eat ? Will the main verb along with the Tense be inverted ?

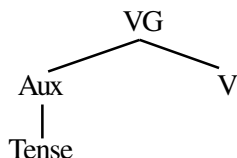
vi (a) Writes he ?

We know this is not acceptable in English today though it was an acceptable form in Shakespeare's time : "Like you the play ?"

In modern English the inversion rule for such a sentence without auxiliary will invert only the Tense across the subject NP and then this Tense will be given a lexical support with 'do'. So vi(a) will have the structure : Does he write ?

T pres → He writes. → T pres. He write → do + T pres he write

As Tense can move either with auxiliaries or with the support of do (In negative sentences also we have the similar phenomenon : He does not write in place of* He writes not.), in modern grammar Tense is also captured as an auxiliary, as a separate movable item within the VG. And the moment we say that Tense is auxiliary, we are saying that the auxiliary is an obligatory element of the verbal group. So the basic VG structure can be represented now as the following.

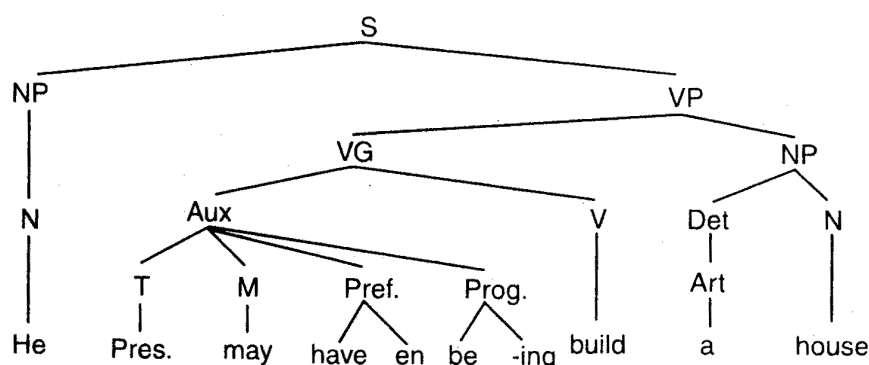


And the other auxiliary elements will occur as optional elements and their order of occurrence will be the following. See the PS rules below.

VG – Aux V

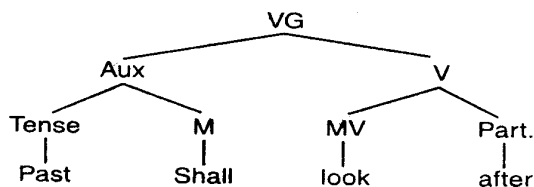
Aux – Tense - (Modal) - (Pref.) - (Prog.)

2. He may have been building a house.

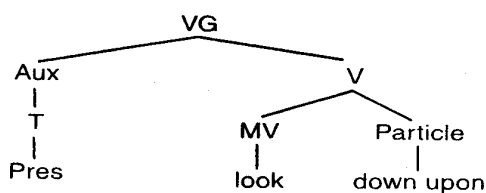


This is a deep structure tree diagram. That is why the affixes are not in their surface structure slots.

5. You should look after your parents.



6. Don't look down upon the poor.



Particles can be separable or non-separable in their surface structure forms. But in their deep structure representation we will have to capture them along with the main verb.

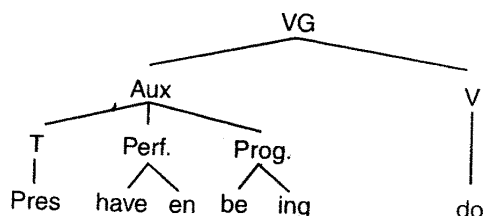
7. Look up the word in the dictionary.

or, Look the word up in the dictionary.

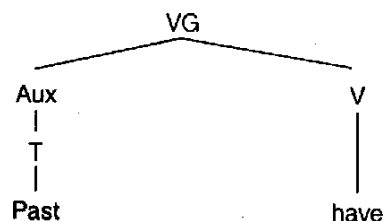
Here up is a separable particle. But after in 'look after' is a non-separable particle.

Let us now work out some VG structures following the framework we have been using:

8. He has been doing it since his childhood.

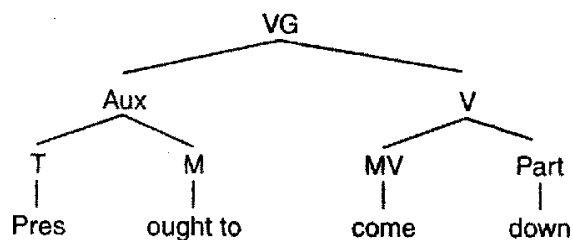


9. Did he have tea with his breakfast ?

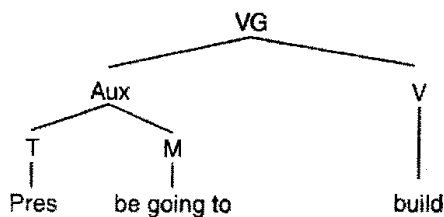


(do is not shown here as it is not a lexical verb, but only a 'dummy' for carrying Tense after inversion.)

10. Prices ought to come down now.

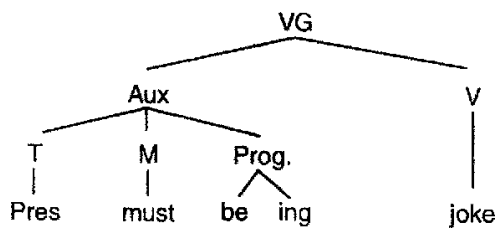


11. He's going to build a house.



Here be going to is treated as a modal as go here is not a lexical verb and the meaning of the modal is 'planning' to build.

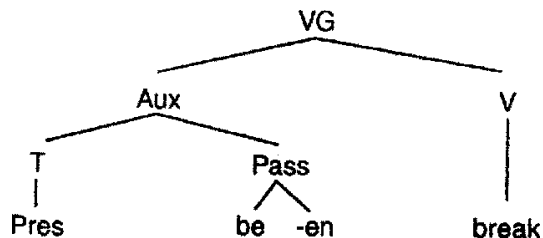
12. You must be joking.



Sometimes the passive structure of a verb might be understood differently as verb be + Past participle adjective. In such cases we might get ambiguous structures.

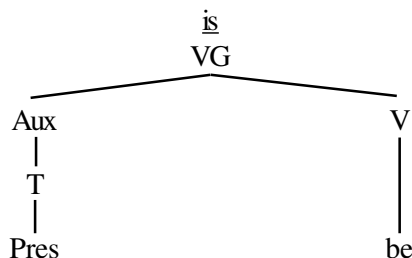
13. The chair is broken.

If we understand it as a passive sentence the VG would be is broken for which the structure is



(Here the meaning of the sentence is – The chair is broken by someone.)

But if 'broken' is an adjective of state, meaning 'the chair is in a broken state', we have only is as the verbal group. And its structure would be



14. Similarly, a sentence like 'They must be married' is ambiguous. In the sense of compulsion or obligation, must will receive a strong accent and the VG will have a passive configuration with marry as the main verb. But in the sense of a logical conclusion, must be will be the VG and married will be an Adj. coming from the VP.

Here is a list of important modals in English : Shall, will, may, can, must, have to, be going to, ought to, used to, need/need to, dare, let, let's, etc. Some linguists treat be to also as a modal (as in 'I am to ber there now'.)

One more important aspect of the modals is that their present tense and past tense forms are semantically very different in most cases. With the change of Tense the modality changes and very rarely the change of tense has a change in the time reference. Secondly, modals express a wide range of varying meanings. Examine the meanings of the following sentences with reference to the modal (the same modal).

15. It will rain today. (Simple futurity)
16. Pigs will eat anything. (empty use)
17. She will sit there for hours doing nothing. (habitual/characteristic use)
18. Examiners will please collect their remuneration. (request)
19. He will leave today. (insistence, with a strong accent on it.).

2.6.2 Review Questions 8 :

Analyse the structure of the verbal groups in the following passages :

(i) Publicity spoils the talent of the players who consider themselves much stronger than what they actually are. So our players do not reach the pinnacle, as they should be. They would have reached it had they been in the western part of the world.

(ii) I have been learning to walk. It is not the ordinary that every child does. What I'm learning is to walk my way to health. I decided to walk.

Review Questions 9 :

Analyse the verbal groups in the following sentences :

1. Holders of complimentary tickets will not have to be kept waiting.

2. The main force of the enemy seemed to be withdrawing.
3. People from all parts of the country were expected to attend the funeral.
4. The cargo in the ship's hold went on burning.
5. Those interested ought not to attend the meeting.
6. We were looking forward to the party so eagerly.
7. He arranged with John for Mary to come at once.
8. He was reminded of the agreement.
9. Good use has been made of the house.
10. The building was not being built at that time.
11. The army was strongly opposed to the new system.
12. All countries might soon be clamouring for such a leader.
13. Workers will have to fight for their rights.
14. Let's do it then.
15. Don't get involved in it.

2.7. Structure of the sentence

Now that we have looked into the structure of some major constituents of a sentential configuration. Let us take into consideration the structural configuration of the 'sentence'. First, we will look into the interrelation between the constituents of the sentence as they are intuitively understood and interpreted by the native speakers (i.e. we will capture their hierarchical and linear interrelations at the level of the deep structure with the help of tree diagrams) and then try to examine how this deep structure string is mapped on to its corresponding surface structure by the application of Transformational rules. And this we will do within the framework of the standard Theory or, more precisely, the Chomskyan model proposed in 1965 in his Aspects.

In 1965 Chomsky moved away from his earlier model of 1957 which was a toy model to substantiate his arguments in favour of a transformational generative model of grammar. In 1965 he had a 'generalised phrase marker' which explained and improved on many of his earlier assumptions. It tries to show the sentential configuration as it is interpreted by the native speakers. For example, if a sentence has two meanings, the framework will give us two different deep structure phrase markers to capture the two meanings and then will show how two different sets of transformations will apply on these two phrase markers to arrive at the same surface sentence. In other words, it will capture and resolve ambiguity or many other kinds of structural complexity. Let us examine the following to explicate our point.

1. Visiting relatives can be a nuisance.

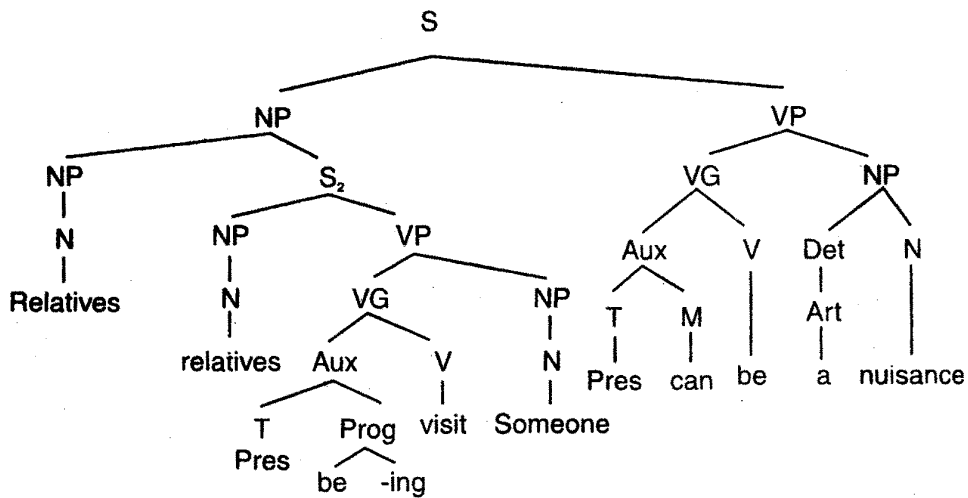
This is an ambiguous sentence which has two different meanings.

M₁ (The) visiting relatives can be a nuisance.

M₂ Visiting (the) relatives can be a nuisance.

These two meanings are derived from two different ways of understanding the structure.

For M₁ the deep structure would be the following.



On this deep structure the T-rule apply in the following way to generate the surface sentence – ‘visiting relatives can be a nuisance’.

D. structure : Relatives (relatives pres be ing visit someone) pres can be a nuisance.

TR₁. Relative

Pronoun substitution ⇒ Relatives (who pres be ing visit someone) pres can be a nuisance.

Tr 2. Rel. Pronoun + be deletion ⇒ Relatives (-ing visit someone) pres can be a nuisance.

Tr 3. Someone deletion ⇒ Relatives (-ing visit) pres. can be a nuisance.

Tr 4. Rel. cl. (Adjective) Fronting ⇒ (-ing visit) relatives pres. can be a nuisance.

Tr 5. Affix switch ⇒ $\frac{\text{visit}-\text{ing}}{\text{visiting}}$ relatives $\frac{\text{can}-\text{pres}}{\text{can}}$ be a nuisance.

On the other hand, the second meaning (M₂) can be derived from the following deep structure of the same sentence :