

Level 4



GRAMMATICAL RULES AND SYSTEMS

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Lecture 1

What is Grammar?

Grammar is defined as the rules that say how words are combined, arranged and changed to show different meanings.

teacher, student, question, asked

e.g. 1. The teacher asked the student a question.

e.g. 2. The student asked the teacher a question.

The largest unit of grammar is the **sentence**.

Sentences

A **Sentence** is a group of words that expresses a statement, question, command or exclamation. A sentence consists of one or more clauses, and usually has at least one subject and verb.

Types of Sentences:

1. Statement

A sentence which gives information. (**Declarative**)

e.g. He is studying.

We can make statements either **affirmative** or **negative**.

e.g. 1. I have found a mistake already. (affirmative)

e.g. 2. I have **not** found any mistakes yet. (negative)

2. Question

A sentence which asks for information or makes a request. (**Interrogative**)

e.g. Is he studying? Can I go study?

3. Command

A sentence which gives an order or makes a suggestion. (**Imperative**)

e.g. Go study. Be careful!

4. Exclamation

A sentence which is used to express the speaker's feeling or attitude.

e.g:

What a lovely day!

Excellent!

Exercise1

Identify the type of each of the following sentences.

a. **statement** b. **question** c. **command** d. **exclamation**

1. How often do you come here? (B)
2. How interesting this article is! (D)
3. Hurry up before the train's departure! (C)
4. How interesting is this article? (B)
5. This article is very interesting. (A)

Sentences

Simple, Compound and Complex Sentences:

1. **Simple**: The man is here.
2. **Compound**: The man is here, **and** he wants to see you.
3. **Complex**: The man **that** wants to see you is here.

We will discuss compound and complex sentences in detail in the coming lectures.

Verbs

The **verb** is the central unit (nucleus) of an English sentence.

Verbs can refer to **actions**, e.g. run, walk and talk, or **states**, e.g. want, have and be.

Main vs. Helping Verbs:

Each English sentence has a **main verb**.

e.g. Mohammed walked home.

e.g. Khaled is happy.

Some sentences also require one or more **helping verbs (auxiliary verbs)**.

He is coming to the meeting.

He could come here soon.

Helping verbs (auxiliaries) include:

1. be (is, am, are, was, were)
2. have, has, had
3. do, does, did
4. Modal auxiliaries: can, could, shall, should, will, would, may, might.. etc.

These verbs (with the exception of modals) can also function as main verbs. e.g. He is here.

Exercise2

Identify whether the underlined verb is the main verb or the helping verb of each sentence below.

a. main verb b. helping verb

1. Students like fast food. (A)
2. He has enough money for the trip. (A)
3. Khaled does not want to go to school today. (B)
4. He is helping me wash the dishes. (A)
5. He will arrive shortly. (B)

Verbs

Transitivity:

Verbs are divided into two groups based on transitivity:

1. **Intransitive verbs** are verbs that require **no** objects.

e.g. Birds **fly**. The man **spoke**.

2. **Transitive Verbs** are verbs that require objects. This group can be further divided into:

A. **Monotransitive verbs** are verbs that require only **one** object:

e.g. Khaled **broke** the window.

B. **Ditransitive verbs** are verbs that require **two** objects.

e.g. Saleh **gave** Majid a pen.

Exercise3

Decide whether the underlined verbs are:

a. intransitive b. monotransitive c. ditransitive

1. The student needs a pen. (B)
2. Ali told his friend a joke. (C)
3. Students study. (A)
4. Students study books. (B)

Note: Some verbs can be either intransitive or transitive.

Verbs

Direct vs. Indirect Objects:

As we saw in the previous section, ditransitive verbs take two objects. One of these objects is called a **directs object** and the other one is called an **indirect object**.

The indirect object comes first followed by the direct object in this example:

e.g. He gave **me** a book.

The **indirect object** is typically **personal** as in “me” in the previous example, and “the man” in the following example:

He asked **the man** a question.

The **indirect object** is often equivalent to a prepositional phrase with “to” or “for”.

e.g. He gave a book **to me**.

He bought a gift **for his son**.

Lecture 2

What is a phrase?

A **phrase** is defined as two or more words that function together as a group.

e.g. The old man walked down the street.

There are a number of phrase types in English including: **noun phrases**, **verb phrases**, **adjective phrases**, **adverbial phrases** and **prepositional phrases**.

Each phrase has a **head** and one or more **modifiers**.

The Noun Phrase (NP)

A **noun phrase** (often abbreviated to **NP**) is a convenient term for any of the following:

1. **A Noun**

e.g. Ahmed, students

2. **A Nominal Group**

e.g. a blue pen, the students

Each nominal group has a **head** and one or more **modifiers**.

Modifiers add to, change or limit the meaning of the **head** in a phrase. The **head** is the word that determines the type of the phrase.

For example, the word “**pen**” is a noun that can refer to any kind of pens. When we modify it as in the previous example “**a blue pen**”, we limit the noun so that it can only refer to a specific kind of pens.

Some other examples: Ahmed’s desk, a book store, the student

3. **A Pronoun**

A pronoun is a type of “**pro-forms**” which are defined as forms used instead of other forms. Instead of using the nominal group “**the old man**” we can use the pronoun “**he**”. Pronouns include:

a. **Personal Pronouns:**

Subject Pronouns: I, you, he, she, it, we, they

Object Pronouns: me, you, her, him, it, us, them

Possessive Pronouns: mine, yours, hers, his, its, ours, theirs

b. **Reflexive Pronouns:** myself, yourself, himself, itself

c. **Indefinite Pronouns:** everyone, someone, something

4. **A Pronominal Group**

e.g. **we** all, **everyone** in our class

In a pronominal group, a pronoun is the head. The pronouns “**we**” and “**everyone**” in the previous examples are the **heads** of the pronominal groups.

Exercise1

Identify the type of the underlined NP.

a. noun b. nominal group c. pronoun d. pronominal group

1. The children went to bed late. (B)
2. I made this cake myself. (C)
3. Ahmed owns an expensive car. (B)
4. Khaled bought a book. (A)
5. The book is his. (C)
6. Someone in our office forgot to lock the door.

Nouns

Nouns can be divided to:

1. **Proper Nouns**: e.g. Ahmed, Al-Ahsa

A **proper noun** is the name of someone or something that is usually imagined to be unique.

2. **Common Nouns**: e.g. friend, desk, bird, air

A **common noun** is a name given either to an example of a class or to the class as a whole.

“Friend” refers to one example of a class in the following sentence:

e.g. 1. Ahmed is a good friend.

“Friend” refers to the class as a whole in the following sentence:

e.g. 2. A friend is somebody we like and know well.

“Friend” in example 2 is called a **generic noun**.

Exercise2

Identify whether the underlined noun is:

- a. a common noun (example of a class)
- b. a common noun (generic) c. a proper noun

1. Mohammed gave me a pen. (A)
2. A pen is an instrument used for writing. (B)
3. Khaled’s car is new. (A)
4. Khaled has a new car. (C)
5. Fruit is good for you. (A)

Nouns

Common nouns are usually found in nominal groups to help the speaker say which particular example of a class he has in mind.

e.g. 1. **The students** were waiting for **the teacher**.

e.g. 2. **The teacher's desk** is new.

Proper nouns will not normally be modified this way. In other words, modification differs between a common noun and a proper noun.

Proper and common nouns (as well as pronouns) can refer to something **animate** or **inanimate**.

a. **Animate**

Animate nouns refer to a person or animal.

e.g. Ahmed, friend, bird

b. **Inanimate**

Inanimate nouns refer to a place, thing or an idea.

e.g. Al-Ahsa, desk, air, freedom

Count vs. Mass Nouns

Nouns can either be **countable** (**count nouns**) or **uncountable** (**mass nouns**).

Count nouns such as "**friend**" and "**man**" can be preceded by "**one**" and may have a plural form such as "**friends**" and "**men**" which can be preceded by a number higher than one, e.g. "two friends" and "ten men".

Mass nouns such as "**bread**" and "**milk**" cannot be preceded by "**one**" and do not have a plural form.

Some nouns can be used as both **count** and **mass** nouns according to the speaker's meaning.

e.g. 1. Light travels faster than sound. (**mass noun**)

e.g. 2. There are two lights by his desk. (**count noun**)

Collective Nouns

A **collective noun** is a singular word used to refer to a group.

e.g. family, team, public

A collective noun can be followed by a **singular** verb (e.g. is) or a **plural** verb (e.g. are).

It may be associated with a **singular possessive** form (its), or a **plural** one (their).

e.g. 1. Our team is the best.

Our team are the best.

e.g. 2. Ahmed's family moved to its new home.

Ahmed's family moved to their new home.

Note: It is reasonable to be consistent when using **collective nouns** as either **singular** or **plural**. In **American English**, they are frequently **singular**, while they are more frequently **plural** in **British English**.

Exercise3

Decide whether the following NPs can be followed by:

a. a singular verb b. a plural verb c. both are possible

1. Ahmed's young brother (A)

2. his family (C)

3. juice (A)

4. the company (C)

5. men (B)

Lecture 3

Modifiers

In our previous overview of phrases, we mentioned that each phrase has a **head** and one or more **modifiers**. **Modifiers** can be divided into two groups:

1. **Pre-modifiers** are modifiers that come before the head.
2. **Post-modifiers** are modifiers that come after the head.

Take a look at the following noun phrases (NPs).

Pre-modifiers	Head	Post-modifiers
a good	friend	
my school	friends	
the	headmaster	of the school
the headmaster's	desk	
several	students	
	we	all
	everyone	in our class

When **the head** is a **noun**, **modifiers** usually precede it. Phrases like “*of the school*” follow it. When **the head** is a **pronoun**, **modifiers** normally follow it.

Pre-modifiers in the previous examples include the following main classes of words:

1. **Adjectives** (e.g. good)
2. **Nouns** which modify other nouns (e.g. school)
3. **Determiners** (e.g. a, the, my)

Exercise 1

In the following phrases, decide which of the underlined words is:

a. **the head** b. **a post-modifier** c. **a pre-modifier**

1. a big store (A)
2. the store manager (C)
3. the leader of the group (B)
4. the group leader (C)
5. someone in my office (A)

Determiners

Determiners are words which **specify the range of reference** of a noun by making it **definite** (the book), **indefinite** (a book) or by indicating **quantity** (many books).

Determiners can be either **identifiers** or **quantifiers**.

1. **Identifiers** tell us either **definitely** or **indefinitely** which noun the speaker means.

They include:

a. **Articles**: a/an (**indefinite articles**), the (**definite article**)

b. **Demonstratives**: this, that, these, those

c. **Possessive Forms of Personal Pronouns**: my, your, his, her, its, our, their

2. **Quantifiers** tell us either definitely or indefinitely the quantity of the noun. They include:

a. **Numerals**: one, two, three... (**cardinal numerals**); first, second, third... (**ordinal numerals**)

b. Words like: much, many, each, every, a few, little, all, several, plenty... etc.

Exercise2

Identify the type of the underlined determiner in the following sentences:

a. **article** b. **demonstrative** c. **possessive** d. **quantifier**

1. This exercise is easy. (B)

2. Their friend is here. (C)

3. The visitor came early. (A)

4. Many people watch the show every week. (D)

5. These sentences are interesting. (B)

Person, Number and Gender

Person

Nouns can be **personal** (humans) or **non-personal** (animals and inanimate objects).

Note: **Personal nouns** can only be **animate** (because they only refer to humans). **Non-personal nouns** can be either **animate** (when they refer to animals) or **inanimate** (when they refer to inanimate objects).

We can also use the term “**person**” in a different way. Traditionally, **personal pronouns** differentiate between the person speaking (**first person**), the person spoken to (**second person**) and the people or things spoken about (**third person**).

st
1 person pronouns: I, we

nd
2 person pronouns: you

rd
3 person pronouns: he, she, it, they

Number

Singular (number) or **plural** (number) affects the form of almost all **count nouns**, **pronouns** and **demonstratives**. Here are some examples:

Count Nouns: student (**singular**); students (**plural**)

Mass nouns are considered to be singular.

e.g. water, rice (**singular**)

Pronouns: I, you, he, she, it (**singular**);

we, you, they (**plural**)

Demonstratives: this, that (**singular**);

these, those (**plural**)

Whether the subject is st1 person, nd2 person or rd3 person; and whether it is **singular** or **plural** can affect the form taken by the verb.

e.g.

He **walks** home everyday. (rd3 person singular subject)

I **walk** home everyday. (st1 person singular subject)

They **walk** home everyday. (rd3 person plural subject)

Gender

rdThe 3 person singular form of personal pronouns can be affected by gender as follows:

1. The **masculine** pronoun “**he**” refers to **males**.
2. The **feminine** pronoun “**she**” refers to **females**.
3. The **neuter** pronoun “**it**” refers to **inanimate objects**, or to a person or animal **not yet regarded as male or female** (e.g. “Who is **it**?”).

The distinction between male and female may affect our choice of **lexical items** (words or phrases) that could fill a “slot” in the structure of a clause.

man, headmaster, woman, actress

e.g. 1. **He** is a good -----.

Man and *headmaster* can fill the slot in example 1.

e.g. **She** is a good -----.

Woman and *actress* can fill the slot in example 2.

Note 1: The suffix “-ess” is found in a number of words referring to women, but there are other words referring to women that do not have this suffix.

e.g. aunt, niece, nun

Note 2: Most nouns in English can refer to **both** male and female.

e.g. friend, neighbor, cousin, teacher, nurse

		Singular	Plural
1 st Person		I	we
2 nd Person		you	you
3 rd Person	masculine	he	they
	feminine	she	
	neuter	it	

Exercise3

Choose the appropriate pronoun:

st
1. 1 person plural pronoun

a. **he** b. **we** c. **they** d. **you**

rd
2. 3 person singular masculine pronoun

a. **they** b. **it** c. **you** d. **he**

nd
3. 2 person singular pronoun

a. **you** b. **I** c. **we** d. **she**

Lecture 4

What is a clause?

A complete sentence needs at least one **finite, independent** clause. A **simple sentence** is composed of only one finite clause, so that **the structure of a finite clause is identical with that of a simple sentence**. Here are some examples of one-clause sentences:

1. **I** *have* just *telephoned* Mohammed.
2. **He** *was* my best friend.
3. **This** *is* his photograph.
4. At nine o'clock, **we all** *gathered* in the classroom.
5. **He** always *does* his work perfectly.

Each of these one-clause sentences has a **subject** and a **predicate**. The **predicate** is what is said about the subject.

If either of those two parts, **subject** or **predicate**, were missing, the sentence would not be complete.

However, in an **imperative**, the **subject** is usually unstated.

e.g. Go study.

When the subject is missing, we assume that it is “**you**”, the person or persons spoken to. The previous sentence can be expanded as follows:

You go study.

The **subject** of a clause is a **noun phrase**. The **predicate** is a **verb phrase**.

Every **finite clause** has the following basic structure:

NP (**subject**)+ VP (**predicate**)

The man bought a new car.

Verb Phrase (VP)

The **verb phrase (VP)** consists sometimes of a **finite verb** only.

e.g. We all *waited*.

More often, the VP consists of a group of words (**verbal group**) with a finite verb as its **head**.

For a **clause** to be finite, there must be a **finite verb** in it.

The verb can be either:

1. **Simple**

A **simple verb** consists of one word.

e.g. is, was, walked, sat, did

2. **Complex**

A **complex verb** consists of a **verbal group**.

e.g. have telephoned, were placed, were waiting, did not like, could see

Finite Verbs

Finite verbs show tense, person and number.

The verb “**be**” in the following sentences is an example of a **finite verb**.

He is here. **They are** here. (person and number)

He **is** here **today**. He **was** here **yesterday**. (tense)

Finite verbs can have three forms:

1. **The base form (simple form)** of the verb

e.g. walk, talk, drink, speak

2. **3rd person singular form** of the verb

e.g. walks, talks, drinks, speaks

3. **The simple past form** of the verb

e.g. walked, talked, drank, spoke

Exercise 1

What is the form of the finite verb in each sentence?

a. **base form** b. **3rd person singular form** c. **past form**

1. The manager talked to the employees. (C)

2. He drinks coffee every morning. (B)

3. Ahmed and Khaled usually study together. (A)

4. I went to the mall yesterday. (C)

5. At eight o'clock every morning, my father goes to work. (B)

Non-finite verbs

Non-finite verbs do not show tense, person and number. The verb “**come**” in the following sentences is an example of a **non-finite verb**.

e.g.

I expect him to **come** soon. **We** expect them to **come** soon. (person and number)

He is **coming** now. He was **coming** at the same time **yesterday**. (tense)

Non-finite verbs can have three forms:

1. **The infinitive**

The **infinitive** has the same form as the **base**. It is often preceded by an **infinitive marker** “**to**”.

In some cases (e.g. after modal auxiliary verbs) the infinitive is **bare** (without “**to**”).
For example:

I am waiting for him **to come**. (Infinitive with “**to**”)

He can **come** tomorrow. (**Bare Infinitive**)

2. **Present Participle** (also called **–ing participle**)

e.g. walking, talking, drinking, speaking

3. **Past Participle** (also called **–ed participle**)

e.g. walked, talked, drunk, spoken

Exercise 2

Decide whether the underlined verbs are:

a. **finite** b. **non-finite**

1. He was able to walk after physical therapy. (B)

2. He is making a chair out of wood. (B)

3. He made a chair yesterday in his workshop. (A)

4. You should spend more time studying. (B)

5. They spend time together every Thursday morning. (A)

Finite vs. Non-finite Clauses

A **finite clause** is a clause which has a **finite verb**.

e.g. He **is waiting** for the headmaster to come.

The previous above example has a **finite verbal group**, "**is waiting**".

A **non-finite clause** is a clause which does not have a **finite verb**.

In the previous example "for the headmaster **to come**" has a non-finite verb "to come", but does not have a finite verb.

At least one clause in an English sentence must be **finite**.

Simple sentences consist of one **finite clause**.

e.g. He is a student.

Compound and **complex sentences** consist of two or more clauses with at least one **finite clause**.

e.g. He is waiting for the headmaster to come.

Lecture 5

Verbal Groups

Verbal groups can be of five types:

Type 1 Modal +Infinitive: could see, will come

Type 2 Have +Past Participle: have telephoned, has begun

Type 3 BE +Present Participle: are coming, were waiting

Type 4 BE +Past Participle: is grown, was broken

Type 5 DO +Infinitive: did not like, Did you know?

The first four types can be combined with one another to form more complex verbal groups like:

Ahmed **will have finished** that book by Friday. (**Type 1 & 2**)

He **has been learning** English for four years. (**Type 2 & 3**)

He **will have been learning** English for five years by next October. (**Type 1, 2 & 3**)

The president **could be seen** by everyone. (**Types 1 & 4**)

He **is being called** now. (**Type 3 & 4**)

All such groups are formed in the order 1, 2, 3, 4, as follows:

1

2

3

4

Modal + (Have +Past Participle) +(Be +Present Participle) +(Be +Past Participle)

Note 1: The meaning of the verbal group is contained in the last word.

e.g. He has been learning English for four years.

Note 2: Only the first word of a **verbal group** is affected by person, number and tense.

The first word is what makes the group **finite**.

e.g.

He has been learning English for four years.

I have been learning English for four years.

They have been learning English for four years.

Exercise 1

Choose the correct order for each verbal group:

- a. have seen could b. could seen have
c. could have seen d. seen could have
- a. have should been doing b. doing should have been
c. have been should doing d. should have been doing
- a. has been studying b. studying has been
c. been studying has d. studying been has

Type 1 Modal +Infinitive

- The **main verb** which follows a **modal auxiliary** will always be in the bare infinitive (without “to”).

e.g. can see, could see

- Modals are not affected by person and number.

e.g. He **must** know how to speak English.

They **must** know how to speak English.

- All **verbal groups** beginning with a modal are finite.

Type 2 Have +Past Participle

This type is an expression of the **perfect aspect**. “Have” is used as a **helping verb** (auxiliary verb). The helping verb “have” is finite and changes according to person, number and tense. For example:

He **has** read the book already. (present perfect tense)

We **have** read the book already. (present perfect tense)

The students **had** already gathered in class when the teacher entered. (past perfect tense)

Type 3 BE +Present Participle

This type is an expression of the **progressive aspect**. “Be” is used as a **helping verb** (auxiliary verb). The helping verb “be” is finite and changes according to person, number and tense. For example:

He **is** coming. (present progressive)

They **are** coming. (present progressive)

He **was** waiting. (past progressive)

They **were** waiting. (past progressive)

Type 4 BE +Past Participle

This type produces the **passive voice** (in contrast with the **active voice**).

The verb is **active** in this example:

Ahmed **broke** the window. (**active voice**)

The verb is **passive** in this example:

The window **was broken**. (**passive voice**)

Exercise 2

Decide whether the type of the verbal group in each sentence is:

- a. Type 1 (modal +infinitive) b. Type 2 (have +past participle)
c. Type 3 (be +present participle) d. Type 4 (be +past participle)

1. The machine was fixed. (D) Passive voice
2. He can fix any machine. (A)
3. He is fixing the machine. (C)
4. He has fixed the machine. (B)

Type 5 DO +Infinitive

In this type, the **helping verb** “do” is called an **operator**. We call it **an operator** because it helps in a number of operations performed on the verb phrase (VP).
Some of these operations are:

Operation 1: Negative

To form the negative, we put “not” immediately after the **operator**.

e.g. He **does not want** it. They **did not come** here.

Operation 2: Interrogative (question)

The interrogative is formed by placing the **operator** before the subject and leaving the rest of the sentence unchanged.

e.g.

They come here.

Do they **come** here? (**interrogative**)

Operation 3: Tag question

He did his homework, **didn't** he?

They don't come here, **do** they?

Operators

In addition to “do, does and did”, **operators** also include:

1. **The modal auxiliaries** (can, could, may, might.. etc)

e.g.

Operation 1: He **could** not come.

Operation 2: **Could** he come?

Operation 3. He couldn't come, **could** he?

2. **“have”, “has”, “had”** as **helping verbs** (and sometimes as **main verbs** in British English).

The following are examples of **“have”** as a **helping verb operator**:

Operation 1: They **have** not come yet.

Operation 2: **Have** they come already?

Operation 3: They haven't come yet, **have** they?

This is an example of **“have”** as a **main verb operator** in British English:

Operation 2: **Have** you any money? (British English)

Compare:

Do you have any money? (American English)

3. **“am”, “is”, “are”, “was”, “were”** as **main verbs** and as **auxiliary verbs**.

The following are examples of **“is”** as a **main verb operator**:

Operation 1: He **is** not here.

Operation 2: **Is** he here?

Operation 3: He is here, **isn't** he?

The following are examples of **“is”** as a **helping verb operator**:

Operation 1: He **is** not coming.

Operation 2: **Is** he coming?

Operation 3: He is not coming, **is** he?

Exercise 3

Decide whether the underlined verb is:

a. a **main verb operator**

b. a **helping verb operator**

c. **not an operator**

1. They do not come here often. (B)

2. I have not seen this movie yet. (B)

3. Do you have a copy of the movie? (C) **do helping verb, copy main verb**

4. He is not here. (A)

5. He isn't going, is he? (B)

Lecture 6

Form and Function

Form is what the word/phrase/clause **look** like.

e.g. noun, verb, noun phrase, verb phrase, relative clause

Function is the “**job**” of the word/phrase/clause in a sentence.

e.g. Subject, Verb (Predicator), Direct Object, Complement

Exercise 1

Choose (a) if the given term refers to a form and (b) if it refers to a function.

a. **form** b. **function**

1. pronominal group (A)
2. indirect object (B)
3. Complement (B)
4. Subject (B)
5. noun phrase (A)

Functions of the Noun Phrase (NP)

1. Subject of a Clause

As we mentioned in Lecture 4, a sentence needs a subject in order to be complete (except for imperative sentences where the subject is **unstated**).

e.g. **The old man** is here.

2. Direct Object of a Verb

Transitive verbs require an object. Monotransitive verbs take only one direct object.

e.g. Ahmed finished **his work**.

3. Indirect Object of a Verb

Some transitive verbs require two objects. These are called ditransitive verbs. They take a direct object and an indirect object.

e.g. He gave **Khaled** a book. (... gave a book to Khaled)

The shopkeeper sold **him** some snacks. (... sold some snacks to him)

4. The Complement of the Subject +BE (is, am, are, was, were)

A **complement** is a word/phrase/clause that completes the meaning of another word/phrase/clause. It is necessary for the meaning to be complete.

e.g. Ahmed is **my best friend**.

Note: When the complement is a noun, it must agree with the subject in number and gender.

Ahmed is **their uncle**. (not “uncles” or “aunt”)

Sarah and Huda are **their aunts**. (not “aunt” or “uncles”)

The full verb “BE” in this example only serves to join the subject and the complement together.

In this case, **the full verb BE** is called a **Copula** (=something that joins things together).

There are **other copulas** in English, for example, the verbs “become” and “seem”.

5. The Complement of the Object

e.g. He found Faisal **a good student**.

In the previous example, the noun phrase “**a good student**” is the complement of the direct object “Faisal”. Compare the examples in (a) and (b) below:

a. The teacher found Faisal **a book**.

The teacher found **a book** for Faisal.

b. The teacher found Faisal **a good student**.

The teacher found Faisal to be **a good student**.

In example (a), “Faisal” is an indirect object and “**a book**” is a direct object. The sentence means that the teacher looked for a book to give to Faisal.

In example (b), “Faisal” is a direct object and “**a good student**” is a complement. The sentence means that the teacher thinks that Faisal is a good student.

6. Object of a Preposition

Prepositions are words like “in”, “on”, “of” and “off” which are normally followed by a noun phrase. The **noun phrase** that follows a preposition is called the **object of the preposition**.

e.g: We are **in the same class**.

He walked **on a high platform**.

In the two examples above, **the noun phrases** “the same class” and “a high platform” function as the **objects of the prepositions** “in” and “on” respectively.

7. Appositive to another Noun Phrase

An **appositive** is a noun phrase (NP) that describes the same person or thing as another noun phrase (NP) that came before it.

e.g. Your friend **Ahmed Al-Ali** is here.

In the previous example, “Ahmed Al-Ali” is an **appositive**. It is in **apposition** to the noun phrase “**your friend**”. Both NPs “**your friend**” and “Ahmed Al-Ali” describe the same person.

We will talk more about apposition, including [apposition types](#), in the next lecture.

Exercise 2

Choose the correct function for the underlined NPs:

a. [Subject](#) b. [Object](#) c. [Complement](#) d. [Appositive](#)

1. His father gave him some important advice. (B)
2. Ahmed's uncle lives in Riyadh. (A)
3. Ahmed's uncle is a successful businessman. (C)
4. Khaled has a lot of books in his room. (B)
5. The teacher gave the students exercises. (B)
6. My brother Saleh studies at King Faisal University. (D)
7. The manager found him a hard working employee. (C)

Lecture 7

Types of Apposition

In Lecture 6, we mentioned that one of the **functions** of the noun phrase (NP) is as an **appositive**. We defined an appositive as a noun phrase that describes the same person or thing as another noun phrase that came before it.

In this lecture, we will discuss the types of apposition.

Apposition can be either **restrictive** or **non-restrictive**.

A. **Restrictive Apposition**

e.g. Your friend **Ahmed Al-Ali** is here.

In this example, the *second* NP “**Ahmed Al-Ali**” restricts the meaning of the *first* NP “**your friend**” by giving an answer to the question “**Which friend?**”

We call the NP “**Ahmed Al-Ali**” in the previous example a **restrictive appositive**.

Note: In this type of apposition we do not use commas before and after the **appositive**.

B. **Non-restrictive Apposition**

e.g. **Ahmed Al-Ali**, **your old friend**, is here.

In this example, the *first* NP “**Ahmed Al-Ali**” is a proper noun which is unique and does not need modification. The *second* NP “**your old friend**” does not tell us which “**Ahmed Al-Ali**” is here but only adds information about him.

We call the NP “**your old friend**” in this example a **non-restrictive appositive**.

Note: In this type, we use commas before and after the **appositive**.

Exercise 1

Decide whether the appositive in the following sentences is restrictive or non-restrictive:

a. **restrictive** b. **non-restrictive**

1. The shopkeeper Othman is a hard working man. (A)
2. Dr. Omar, my Linguistics professor, published a book. (B)
3. Majid and Saleh, my cousins, will visit us tomorrow. (B)

Prepositional Phrase (PP)

We mentioned that a **preposition** is a word like “in” or “on” which is followed by a noun phrase (NP).

e.g. Mohammed is **in the classroom**.

In this example, the phrase “**in the classroom**” is called a prepositional phrase. It has a preposition “**in**” and an NP “**the classroom**”. The function of the NP in this sentence is the object of the preposition “in”.

A preposition normally comes before an NP, but it can also be separated from its NP as in:

e.g. The man is standing **on the platform**.

What is the man standing **on**?

The platform that the man stood **on** was very narrow.

However, in these examples, the association between preposition and NP still exists.

Prepositional phrases can express a number of ideas, including:

1. **Place**

e.g. The book is **on the desk**.

2. **Movement**

e.g. He walked **to the mosque**.

3. **Time**

e.g. I finished the exam **in one hour**.

4. **Manner**

e.g. He finished it **with little effort**.

5. **Purpose**

e.g. This message is **for Ahmed**.

6. **Agency**

e.g. The window was broken **by the young boy**. (**Passive**)

7. **Instrument**

e.g. I wrote **with a pen**.

Exercise 2

Choose the meaning expressed by the Prepositional Phrase in the following sentences:

a. place b. time c. manner d. instrument

1. My office is located on Riyadh Road. (A)
2. He graduated college with a good GPA. (C)
3. He fixed the door with a hammer. (D)
4. They will visit us on Monday. (B)
5. The artist finished the sculpture with great talent. (C)

Functions of the Prepositional Phrase

1. Adjunct

An **Adjunct** is a word/phrase/clause that provides additional information about another word/noun/phrase/clause. It is an optional part of the sentence. If we remove an **adjunct**, the meaning will still be complete and the sentence will still be grammatical. It is not a necessary part of the structure of a sentence. **Adjuncts** are usually **adverbials**.

As an **adjunct**, a prepositional phrase is considered an **adverbial phrase** because it does the same job as an **adverbial**.

An **adverbial** is a group of words that does the same job as an **adverb**. In other words, adverbials can be used to say when, where or how something happened.

e.g. The man stood **on a high platform**. (adverbials of **place**)

This prepositional phrase (PP) is an adjunct that tells us where something happened.

I finished the exam **in one hour**. (adverbials of **time**)

This PP is an adjunct that tells us when something happened.

He finished the exam **with little effort**. (**other** adverbials)

This PP is an adjunct that tells us how something happened.

Note: Compare the definition of **adjuncts** in this lecture with the definition of **complements** in Lecture 6.

A **complement** is necessary for the meaning to be complete. If we remove it, the meaning will be incomplete and the sentence will be ungrammatical.

An **adjunct** is not necessary for the meaning to be complete. It gives extra information. If we remove it, the sentence will still be grammatical.

2. Complement of Subject +BE

e.g. **The book is on the desk.**

In this example, the prepositional phrase “on the desk” is the complement of the subject “the book” and the main verb to BE “is”.

3. Post-modifier in an NP

e.g. **The desk in the classroom** is covered with books.

In this example, the prepositional phrase “in the classroom” modifies the noun phrase (NP) “the desk”. The NP is the head and the PP is a post-modifier because it comes after the head.

4. Complement of an Adjective

e.g. Ahmed is **good at Mathematics.**

In this example, the prepositional phrase “at Mathematics” is the complement of the adjective “good”.

Exercise 3

Choose the correct function for the underlined PP.

- a. complement of subject +BE c. adjunct
b. complement of an adjective d. post-modifier in an NP
1. We finished our exam in 2 hours. (C)
 2. We visited the big shop in the mall. (D)
 3. Mohammed is fluent in English. (B)
 4. Ahmed was in his uncle’s house. (A)
 5. Ahmed’s uncle has a big TV in his house. (C)

Lecture 8

Adjectives:

Adjectives are words which we use to describe people, things, events... etc.

• Adjectives can be divided into two groups:

1. **Attributive Adjectives**

Attributive adjectives appear before the noun.

e.g. This is an **important** lesson.

2. **Predicative Adjectives**

Predicative adjectives appear after the noun, in the predicate.

e.g. This lesson is **important**.

• Many adjectives can be used **both** attributively and predicatively, e.g. the adjective “**important**” in the two previous examples.

• Some adjectives can only be used attributively.

e.g. main, principal, chief

• Some other adjectives can only be used predicatively.

e.g. afraid, asleep

• Adjectives used only predicatively tend to refer to a temporary condition rather than a permanent characteristic. Look at the following adjectives referring to health in the examples below:

e.g. 1. The old man is **well** today.

In example 1, “**well**” is a predicative adjective that shows a temporary condition.

Compare example 1 to the next example, where the adjective “**healthy**” refers to a permanent characteristic.

e.g. 2. He is a very **healthy** old man.

The old man is **healthy**.

• In a few cases the meaning of the adjectives changes according to its position in the clause.

e.g. Ahmed was **late**. (Ahmed did not come on time)

The **late** Ahmed Al-Ali lived here. (Ahmed Al-Ali, who is now dead)

Exercise 1:

Decide whether the underlined adjective can be used only attributively, only predicatively or both.

- a. only attributively b. only predicatively c. both
1. He is a smart student. (C)
 2. The child is asleep. (B)
 3. One of the main causes of lung cancer is smoking. (A)
 4. Are you afraid of the dark? (B)
 5. This runner is fast. (C)

Adjective Phrases:

Adjective phrases are composed of an adjective (which functions as the head of the phrase), a modifier (mostly an adverb), and a complement.

Modifier	Head	Complement
	good	
	good	at Mathematics
very	good	
very	good	at Mathematics

- **Gradable adjectives** are adjectives that express a condition or quality of which there are degrees.

For example, “good” is a **gradable adjective**. There are degrees of “goodness”:

1. High Degree

e.g. **very** good

2. Excessive Degree

e.g. **too** good

3. Sufficient/ Insufficient Degree

e.g. good **enough**, not good **enough**

4. Comparative Degree

e.g. better (**comparative form** of “good”), smarter (**comparative form** of “smart”),
more beautiful

5. Superlative Degree

e.g. best (**superlative form** of “good”), smart**est** (superlative form of “smart”), **most** beautiful

- Some adjective like “**complete**” are not gradable. They are not normally compared, nor modified by “**very**”, “**too**” or “**enough**”.
- Adjectives referring to **shape** (e.g. round, tall) or **size** (big, narrow) can only modify **count nouns**. They cannot modify **mass nouns**.

e.g. This is a **big building**. (**INCORRECT**: This is **big water**.)

Function of Adjective Phrases:

1. Complement of Subject +BE

e.g. Ahmed is **very intelligent**.

2. Complement of Direct Object

e.g. He found **Ahmed very intelligent**. (He found Ahmed **to be very intelligent**.)

3. Pre-Modifier in a Noun Phrase

e.g. My **very good** friend is coming to visit me.

4. Post-Modifier in a Noun Phrase

e.g. We must find the person **responsible** for the robbery.

5. Head of a Nominal Group

An **adjective** can be the head of a **nominal group** in the following special cases:

a. with a number of adjectives that refer to **a class of people**.

These adjectives include: **blind, homeless, poor, wealthy, young, elderly, living, dead**..etc.

The following are examples of **nominal groups** with an **adjective** taking the place of the head:

We gave money to the **poor**. (the class of people who are poor)

The **wealthy** must help poor people in our society. (the class of people who are wealthy)

The **young** are our hope for the future. (the class of people who are young)

b. A few adjectives referring to **abstract** ideas.

e.g. The **unexpected** happened. The **unknown** is frightening.

c. Adjective that refer to the **people of a country**.

e.g. The **English** are very polite. (the people of England)

The **French** are very interested in fashion. (the people of France)

Exercise 2:

Identify the function of each of the underlined adjective phrases below.

a. complement b. modifier in NP c. head of NP

1. The driver responsible for the accident paid the fine. (B)
2. The driver was careless. (A)
3. He is a careless driver. (B)
4. The police found the driver guilty. (A)
5. The elderly must be respected. (C)

Lecture 9

Adverbials (Adv):

- An **adverbial** (abbreviated as **Adv**) can be a single-word **adverb** or an **adverbial phrase**.
- An **adverb** is a word like “here”, “tomorrow” and “quickly” which we can use to say where, when and how something happens. It can also express other meanings like frequency, degree... etc.
- An **adverbial phrase** is a group of words that does the same job as an adverb.

Adverbials include:

1. Prepositional Phrases

e.g. We were waiting **in the lobby**. (adverbial of place)

2. Noun Phrases

e.g. I will visit my uncle **this afternoon**. (adverbial of time)

3. Clauses including:

a. Clauses with a Finite Verb (finite clauses)

e.g. We need to leave **before it is too late**. (time)

b. Infinitive Clauses (non-finite clauses)

e.g. I am playing **to win**. (adverbial of purpose)

c. Present Participle Clauses (non-finite clauses)

e.g. He ran down the road, **breathing heavily**. (manner)

Exercise 1:

Identify the form of the underlined adverbials.

a. NP b. PP c. finite clause d. non-finite clause

1. He visited me in my house. (B)
2. He is studying to pass the exam. (D)
3. Ali has an exam this morning. (A)
4. I will give you my homework after it is done. (C)
5. They walked together, smiling widely. (D)

Adverbials (Adv):

Many **adverbials** are **adjuncts**; they provide **additional information**, are part of the structure of the clause, but are **optional**. Adjuncts include adverbials of:

1. **Place (position)** telling us **where** (e.g. in the hall, there)
2. **Place (destination)** telling us **where to** (e.g. to the door)
3. **Time (when)** telling us **when** (e.g. at nine o'clock, today)
4. **Time (duration)** telling us **how long** (e.g. for 10 days)
5. **Relative time** telling us **how long ago** (e.g. just, still)
6. **Frequency** telling us **how often** (e.g. always, rarely)
7. **Degree** telling us **to what extent** (e.g. almost, barely)
8. **Manner** telling us **in what way** (e.g. carefully, with care)

Exercise 2:

Choose the type of the underlined adverbials.

- a. **adverbial of frequency** c. **adverbial of degree**
b. **adverbial of manner** d. **adverbial of relative time**

1. He always drinks tea in the morning. (A)
2. The climbers barely made it to the top of the mountain. (C)
3. He finished the exam quickly. (B)
4. My friends just arrived from their trip. (D)
5. They bravely climbed the mountain. (B)

Adverbials (Adv):

Note: Similar to **gradable adjectives** (Lecture 8), some **adverbs of manner** can be gradable. We can give different degrees of the meaning conveyed by a **gradable adverb**. The adverb of manner “**carefully**”, for example, is a gradable adverb.

e.g. **very** carefully, **more** carefully, **most** carefully

Some other adverbs of manner, e.g. “**perfectly**,” are not gradable.

Position of Adverbials:

Adverbials can be found in **three main positions**: at the end, at the beginning or in the middle of a clause.

1. Final Position

It is very common for adverbials to appear at the **end** of a clause.

e.g. Thank you **very much**.

2. Initial Position

Some **adjuncts**, e.g. adverbials of place (position), time, and frequency can appear at the **beginning** of a clause. The **purpose** of this position is to **focus** attention on the location, time or frequency of events and activities. For example:

Two days ago, I saw my dear friend Ahmed. (focus on time)

In Riyadh, there is a big celebration. (focus on place)

3. Middle Position

Single-word adverbs of frequency, adverbs of relative time and adverbs of degree normally appear in the **middle** of a clause. Their position is immediately **after** the **operator** in complex verbal groups (Lecture 5), immediately **after** the **full verb BE**, and **before** any **other simple verb**:

e.g.

We have **often** talked together. (after the operator "have")

We **are still** waiting. (after the operator "are")

We **are very** tired. (after the full verb "are")

We **still have** some money. (before the full verb "have")

We **sometimes go** to Jeddah. (before the full verb "go")

Function of Adverbials:

Some of the functions of adverbials include:

1. Adjunct

e.g. I knew her **very well**.

2. Complement of Subject +BE

e.g. That's **all right**.

3. Direct Object

e.g. They didn't tell **me why**. *Why is direct object, me is indirect object of the verb tell.*

4. Modifier

Adverbs can modify nouns, adjectives, prepositions and adverbs.

Phrase Type	Adverb as Pre-Modifier	Phrase Head	Adverb as Post-Modifier
Noun Phrase	nearby	hotel	
		way	ahead
Adjective Phrase	completely	new	
		quick	enough
Adverb Phrase	very	often	
		quickly	enough
Prepositional Phrase	directly	through	

Exercise 3:

Identify the function of each of the underlined adverbials.

a. adjunct b. complement c. object d. modifier

1. Are you absolutely sure? (D)
2. The child followed his father very closely. (A)
3. He told him when to come. (C) *direct object*
4. The show ended very quickly. (D)
5. It was all right. (B)

Lecture 10

Basic Types of Clause Structure:

- In making up a **one-clause sentence** in English, we have a choice of five basic clause structure types in which all the **elements** are necessary.
- These basic types can be expanded with other optional elements like **adjuncts** and **modifiers**.
- Each of these five types follows the basic pattern: **Subject (NP) + Predicate (VP)**.
- In each type, the **subject will normally come first** and is the followed by a **verb phrase**.
 - Only the composition of the **VP** changes in each type.
 - The VP may contain the following **elements**:
 1. **Intransitive Verb** (abbreviated as **Vi**)
 2. **Transitive Verb** (abbreviated as **Vt**)
 3. **BE** or another **Copula**
 4. **Complement** (abbreviated as **C**), which includes:
 - a. **Noun Phrase** (abbreviated as **NP**)
 - b. **Adjective Phrase** (abbreviated as **Adj**)
 - c. **Adverbial** (abbreviated as **Adv**)
 5. **Direct Object** (abbreviated as **dO**)
 6. **Indirect Object** (abbreviated as **iO**)
 - The following **table** shows the **five basic types of clause structure** in English:

Type	Structure of VP		Example
1	Vi	a. ----- b. C(Adv)	a. We waited b. We sat down.
2	BE+C	a. NP b. Adj c. Adv	a. He was my friend. b. He was intelligent. c. He was in my class.
3	Vt+dO+	a. ----- b. C(Adv)	a. I made a mistake. b. I put the key in the lock.
4	Vt+iO+d O	a. (to) b. (for)	a. I gave him an answer. Or I gave an answer to him. b. He made me a suit. Or He made a suit for me.
5	Vt+dO+C	a. NP b. Adj	a. I found him a bore. b. I found him boring.

- As we mentioned at the beginning of the lecture, each of these types can be expanded with optional elements like adjunct and modifiers.

For example, we can expand the first sentence in Type 1 as follows:

We waited. (Type 1)

We waited in the car. (Type 1 + Adjunct)

- Simple sentences have only one clause. They can be expanded even more by combining them with other clauses as we will see when we discuss compound and complex sentences.
- Be careful not to confuse these five types of basic clause structure with the five types of complex verbal groups that we discussed in Lecture 5.
- Producing “good grammar” is often a question of fitting a verb into the basic type or types appropriate to it.

For example, the verb “tell” can fit into basic type 3, as seen in the first example below; and it can also fit into basic type 4, as seen in the second example below.

e.g. 1. He told the truth. (Type 3)

e.g. 2. He told me the truth. (Type 4)

On the other hand, the verb “explain” can only fit into basic type 3, but not basic type 4. For example:

e.g. 1. He explained the answer. (Type 3)

e.g. 2. **INCORRECT**: He explained me the answer. (Type 4 is not possible with the verb “explain”)

Exercise 1:

Which of the underlined elements is **NOT** a necessary element of the following clauses? If all elements are necessary, then choose “d”.

- a. (1) b. (2) c. (3) d. all elements are necessary

1. He was in my home yesterday. (C)

2. Maha is a good student. (D)

3. The angry man waited impatiently. (A)

Exercise 2:

Identify the basic clause structure type for each of the following simple sentences.

a. BE + C b. Vt+ dO c. Vt +iO +dO d. Vt +dO +C

1. Faisal wrote a book. (B)

2. He is a good writer. (A)

3. He gave me the book. (C)

4. I found the book interesting. (D)

5. The book is in my library. (A)

Variations of Basic Clause Structure Types:

Common Variations of Basic Clause Structure Types

1. In **type 1**, “there” can be used as an **introductory subject**.

e.g.

Three exceptions exist. (Type 1)

There are three exceptions. (Variation of type 1 using introductory “there”)

The pattern in this example is: There +BE + Subject

2. “**There**” can also be used as an **introductory subject** in a **variation of type 2**.

e.g.

Some books are on the shelf. (Type 2)

There are some books on the shelf. (Variation of type 2 using introductory “there”)

3. **Type 2c**, can be reversed when the adverb is “**here**” or “**there**”.

e.g.

Mohammed is here. (Type 2c)

Here is Mohammed. (Variation of type 2c)

Lecture 11

Coordination

In the previous lecture, we discussed the five basic types of clause structure.

Each part of the structure of a clause can be duplicated (doubled) or added to by Coordination. For example, the subject is duplicated in the following sentence:

Mohammed and I are good friends.

The two parts of the subject in the previous sentence are joined by the conjunction "and".

Conjunctions are words like "and," "or," and "but" which we use to connect grammatical units/elements in a sentence.

- If we combine more than two parts, we usually separate the parts by commas, using the conjunction to join the last two parts only.

e.g. Mohammed, Ahmed and I are good friends.

Types of conjunctions:

1. Coordinating Conjunctions (coordinators)

These are single-word conjunction, including: "and," "but" and "or."

e.g. I want Ahmed and Saleh to come see me.

e.g. I want Ahmed or Saleh to come see me.

e.g. I want Ahmed but not Saleh to come see me.

2. Correlative Coordinating Conjunctions

These are pairs of words, including: "both... and...," "either... or...," "neither... nor...," "not only... but also..."

e.g. I want both Ahmed and Saleh to come see me.

e.g. I want either Ahmed or Saleh to come see me.

e.g. I want neither Ahmed nor Saleh to come see me.

e.g. I want not only Ahmed but also Saleh to come see me.

3. Subordinating Conjunctions (subordinators)

4. Correlative Subordinating Conjunctions

We will talk more about the last two types when we discuss Subordination in Lectures 12 and 13.

Exercise 1:

Choose the type of conjunction in the sentences below:

a. **Coordinating Conjunction**

b. **Correlative Coordinating Conjunction**

1. My brother and sister went to Dammam. (A)
2. They are both polite and friendly. (B)
3. I not only like swimming but also diving. (B)
4. I like swimming but not diving. (A)

Coordination

We can compound/coordinate any level of **constituents** (grammatical units) - words, phrases and clauses.

• Coordination of Words

Coordination can link two or more words of the same word class as in the following examples:

Nouns:

e.g. **Football** and **basketball** are my favorite sports.

Adjectives:

e.g. My friend Khaled is **funny** and **intelligent**.

Adverbs:

e.g. We must finish our work **both quickly** and **efficiently**.

• Coordination of Phrases

Two or more phrases of the same type can also be linked together through coordination as in the following examples:

Noun Phrases

e.g. **The old man** and **the young boy** crossed the street.

Verb Phrases:

e.g. Many of the grammatical terms **must be studied** and **will come** in the exam.

Adjective phrases:

e.g. The topics are **very interesting** and **really useful**.

Adverbials:

e.g. You can wash your clothes **by hand** or **in the washing machine**.

Compound Sentences

• Coordination of Clauses

A compound sentence has two or more clauses which are linked by a coordinator.

- All of the clauses in compound sentences are coordinate. In other words, they are of equal rank. None of them is dependent on (part of) another clause. They are all independent clauses.

The following are examples of compound sentences:

e.g. 1. Everyone was in the room **and** the doors had been closed.

e.g. 2. Everyone was in the room, the doors had been closed **and** latecomers had to wait outside.

e.g. 3. Some students didn't do the homework **and** the teacher knew, **but** he didn't say anything.

e.g. 4. **Either** he didn't bring the book, **or** someone took it from him.

e.g. 5. I'm selling my car **and** (I'm) buying a new one.

e.g. 6. Mohammed is going on a trip for a few days, **but** (he) will be back before Saturday.

e.g. 7. He may have received the letter **but** (he may have) forgotten to reply.

- As seen in examples 5, 6 and 7, when the subjects of the two clauses refer to the same person or thing, the second subject can be deleted. We can also delete the second verbal group if it is the same.

Exercise 2:

Decide whether the following sentences are:

a. simple sentences b. compound sentences

1. My neighbor and his family are going on a trip. (A)
2. My neighbor is going on a trip but his family are not going with him. (B)
3. Either I lost my wallet or someone stole it. (B)
4. The wallet was either lost or stolen. (A)

Exercise 3:

Decide whether the subject in the second clause is:

a. Optional (can be deleted) b. Obligatory (cannot be deleted)

1. My neighbor is going on a trip and his family are going with him too. (B)
2. My neighbor is going on a trip and he will take his family with him. (A)
3. Sara will study hard for the exam, and she will try to get high grades. (A)
4. Sara will study hard for the exam, and Maha will do the same. (B)

Lecture 12

Subordination

In Lecture 1 we said that sentences can be divided into **simple**, **compound** and **complex** sentences. We discussed **simple sentences** in detail in previous lectures, especially Lecture 10, and **compound sentences** in Lecture 11. In this lecture, we will discuss **complex sentences**.

A **complex sentence** has two or more clauses joined by a **subordinating conjunction**. At least one of the clauses is **subordinate** to a main clause.

A **main clause** (also known as an **independent clause**) is a clause that can stand alone as a complete sentence.

A **subordinate clause** (also known as a **dependent clause**) is a clause that cannot stand alone as a complete sentence.

• A clause can be **subordinate** by being able to do one of the following:

1. **replace an NP in the main clause**

e.g. Everyone could **see it**.

Everyone could **see** **(that) he was frightened**.

The subordinate clause “**that he was frightened**” is a noun clause. It functions as the object of the verb “**see**”.

2. **modify an NP in the main clause**

e.g.

I often see **my old school friends**.

I often see **friends** **who were at school with me**.

The subordinate clause “**who were at school with me**” is called a relative clause. It functions as a modifier of the NP “**friends**”.

3. **replace an adverbial in the main clause**

e.g.

I met Ahmed **twenty years ago**.

I met Ahmed **when I was at school**.

The subordinate clause “**when I was at school**” is an adverbial clause of time. It functions as an adjunct in the main clause “I met Ahmed.”

A subordinate clause is usually introduced by one of the following:

1. a **subordinating conjunction**, e.g. **when** or **that**

2. a **relative pronoun**, e.g. **who**, **which**, **whose**

Compare:

1. a. He was frightened. (Independent Clause)
1. b. **that** he was frightened (Subordinate/Dependent Clause)
2. a. I was at school. (Independent Clause)
2. b. **when** I was at school (Subordinate/Dependent Clause)

Examples “1.a” and “2.a” are independent clauses. They are complete sentences by themselves.

Examples “1.b” and “2.b” are subordinate clauses. They are not complete sentences on their own. A main clause must be added to “1.b” and “2.b” if we want to make a complete sentence from them.

Exercise 1:

Decide whether the underlined clause is:

- a. dependent b. independent

1. It was obvious to everyone that he wanted to leave. (A)
2. He wanted to leave and this was obvious to everyone. (B)
3. My friends came to visit me when I was in Dammam. (A)
4. My friends came to visit me, but I was in Dammam. (B)

Types of Subordinate Clauses

1. Noun Clauses
2. Relative Clauses
3. Adverbial Clauses
4. Other (Conditional Clauses, Result Clauses, Purpose Clauses... etc.)

We will take a look at each of these types in the following sections starting with noun clauses.

1. Noun Clauses

We can divide noun clauses into **that-clauses** and **wh-clauses**. A **that-clause** begins with “**that**” and a **wh-clause** begins with a wh-question word, e.g. **what**, **who**.

❖ That-clauses

A **that-clause** can have four of the functions of the NP. It can be:

1. Subject of a Verb in another clause

e.g. **That** the driver could not control his car is obvious. (=It is obvious.)

Note: “**That**” is obligatory in this sentence. We cannot delete it.

2. Object of a Verb in another clause

e.g. Everyone could see (**that**) he was frightened. (=Everyone could see it.)

Note: “**That**” is optional in this sentence. We can delete it.

3. Complement of Subject +BE

e.g. The truth is (**that**) he was very shy. (= The truth is this.)

Note: “**That**” is optional in this sentence. We can delete it.

4. Apposition (to nouns like “fact”, “truth”, “explanation”)

e.g. The fact **that he was shy** surprised me.

“**That he was shy**” is an appositive noun clause that refers to the same thing as the NP “**the fact**”. We say that the noun clause is in apposition to the NP.

Note: “**That**” can sometimes be deleted in this case.

Reported Speech

Reported speech can be either **direct** or **indirect**.

a. **Direct speech** is quoting the actual words spoken by someone. In this case, we write the quoted sentence between quotation marks (“ ”).

b. **Indirect speech** is restating the words spoken by someone. We can use a “**that-clause**” to report indirect speech.

e.g. The man says, “**The road is closed.**” (**direct speech** using quotation marks)

The man says (**that**) **the road is closed.** (**indirect speech** using a that-clause)

❖ B. Wh-clauses

A wh-clause can have four of the functions of an NP. It can be:

1. Subject of another clause

e.g. **What** caused the accident is a complete mystery. (= It is a complete mystery.)

2. Object of a verb in another clause

No one knows **what** caused the accident. (= No one knows it.)

3. Complement of Subject +BE

The question is **what** caused the accident. (=The question is this.)

4. Object of a preposition

This depends on **what** you want. (=This depends on it.)

Exercise 2:

What is the function of the underlined clause?

a. subject b. object c. complement d. appositive

1. The fact is that no one could do it. (C)
2. What he discovered was important for science. (A)
3. The fact that no one could do it disappointed me. (D)
4. Everyone knows that he made a great discovery. (B)
5. The workers rely on what the manager has to say. (B)

Lecture 13

2. Relative Clauses

In Lecture 12, we discussed **subordination** and the **types of subordinate clauses**. We talked in detail about the first type of subordinate clauses: **noun clauses**. In this lecture, we will cover other types of subordinate clauses in more detail.

A **relative clause** is a clause which mainly modifies a noun phrase. It usually begins with a relative pronoun: “**who**”, “**whom**”, “**whose**”, “**which**” and “**that**”.

e.g. 1. The car **which he owns** is very old.

(The car is very old. He owns the car.)

Sometimes the **relative pronoun** can be deleted (**zero relative pronoun**), but it still exists as a grammatical position in the clause.

e.g. 2. The car **he owns** is very old.

In example 1, the relative pronoun “**which**” is the object of the verb “**owns**”. Similarly, in example 2, the **zero relative pronoun** is the object of the verb “**owns**”.

The relative pronoun points back to the head of the noun phrase modified by the relative clause. The head of the NP is called the **antecedent** of the relative pronoun.

e.g. The **man** **who called us yesterday** has come to meet you. (the pronoun “**who**” points back to the head of the NP “**man**”. “**Man**” in this sentence is called an **antecedent**.)

• **The Use of Relative Pronouns:**

A. **Personal Relative Pronouns**

The personal relative pronouns “**who**” and “**whom**” are used with human antecedents.

e.g. 1. There is a **man** outside **who wants to see you**. (There is a man outside. The man wants to see you.)

e.g. 2. **Ahmed**, **who/whom I told you about yesterday**, is here. (Ahmed is here. I told you about Ahmed yesterday.)

B. **Non-Personal Relative Pronouns**

The non-personal relative pronoun “**which**” is used to talk about animals, objects, places, ideas... etc.

e.g. I want a **watch** **which is waterproof**.

3. Personal and Non-Personal Relative Pronouns

The relative pronouns “**that**” and “**whose**” are used with both personal and non-personal antecedents.

e.g. 1. There is the **driver** that was speeding. (“that” used with the personal antecedent “driver”)

e.g. 2. There is the **car** that was speeding. (“that” used with the non-personal antecedent “car”)

Note: “Whose” gives the idea of possession.

e.g. 1. The **man** whose car you borrowed wants to see you. (The man wants to see you. You borrowed his car.)

e.g. 2. We saw the **castle** whose walls were made of rocks. (We saw the castle. Its walls were made of rock.)

• In the following section, we will talk about the third type of subordinate clauses: adverbial clauses.

Exercise 1:

Which of the subordinate clauses in each of the following sentences is a relative clause?

a. relative clause b. not a relative clause

1. The machine which makes plastic bottles is broken. (A)
2. The manager is upset about what the worker told him. (B)
3. The problem is that he didn’t oil the machine. (B)
4. The worker that forgot to oil the machine is speaking with the manager. (A)
5. They called a technician who could fix the machine. (A)

3. Adverbial Clauses

Similar to adverbs and adverb phrases, adverbial clauses allow us to talk about time, place and manner.

e.g.: I met Ahmed in 2005. (adverbial phrase of time)

I met Ahmed when I was travelling. (adverbial clause of time.)

He parked his car here. (adverb of place)

He parked his car where there is a parking sign. (adverbial clause of place)

He drives carefully. (adverb of manner)

He drives as his father did. (adverbial clause of manner)

Note: The words “**when**”, “**where**” and “**as**” in the previous sentences are subordinate conjunctions.

Adverbial clauses also have functions similar to **adverbs** and **adverb phrases**. For example, the adverbial clause in the following sentence is an **adjunct**:

e.g. I met Ahmed when I was travelling. (The adverbial clause “when I was travelling” is an **adjunct**.)

Compare: I met Ahmed in 2005. (The adverbial phrase “in 2005” is an **adjunct**.)

- In the next section, we will look briefly at examples of some **other types of subordinate adverbial clauses**.

4. Other Adverbial Subordinate Clauses

Please return my book if you finish reading it. (**Conditional Clause**)

Ahmed is quicker than I am. (**Comparison Clause**)

I couldn't open the door because I used the wrong key. (**Reason Clause**)

He closed the windows so that he wouldn't hear the noise outside. (**Purpose Clause**)

Lecture 14

Form and Function

An important distinction that we talked about in our lectures is the difference between form and function of constituents.

The term constituent is used to refer to words, phrases and clauses.

First, we will look at the forms of constituents.

Form

Some of the forms we discussed in our lectures include:

verb, verb phrase, noun phrase, noun, nominal group, pronoun pronominal group, noun clause, determiner, article, demonstrative, preposition, prepositional phrase, adjective, adjective phrase, adverb, adverb phrase, adverbial clause... etc.

Sample Questions

Which of the following is a pronoun?

- a. man b. talk c. **he** d. nice

Which of the following is NOT an article?

- a. **them** b. the c. a d. an

Function

Some of the functions we discussed in our lectures include:

subject, verb (predicator), direct object, indirect object, object of preposition, complement of subject+ BE, complement of object, complement of adjective, adjunct, appositive, head, postmodifier and premodifier.

Sample Questions

What is the function of the underlined phrase?

“The students are attending a lecture.”

- a. **subject** b. direct object c. indirect object d. complement

“He will come tomorrow.” The adjunct in this sentence is:

- a. He b. will c. come d. **tomorrow**

Definitions

Some of the terms we defined in our lectures include:

Grammar, sentence, statement, question, exclamation, command, intransitive verbs, monotransitive verbs, ditransitive verbs, modifier, proper noun, common noun, animate, inanimate, count noun, mass noun, collective noun... etc.

Sample Questions

Nouns which cannot be preceded by “one” and have no plural form are called:

- a. count noun
- b. countable noun
- c. **mass noun**
- d. collective noun

The name of someone or something that is usually imagined to be unique is called:

- a. **proper noun**
- b. generic noun
- c. common noun
- d. collective noun

Classifications

Many of the terms we covered have different classifications. For example:

We classified verbs into: helping verbs and main verbs.

We also classified verbs into: transitive and intransitive.

We classified pronouns into: personal pronouns, reflexive pronouns and indefinite pronouns.

Sample Questions

Which of the underlined pronouns in the following sentences is a reflexive pronoun.

- a. He is here.
- b. This car is mine.
- c. I did the homework myself.
- d. Everyone came on time.

Which of the following is NOT one of the types of pronouns?

- a. personal pronouns
- b. **generic pronouns**
- c. reflexive pronouns
- d. indefinite pronouns

Rules

We covered a number of grammatical rules in our lectures. The following is an example

The subordinating conjunction “**that**” is obligatory in a sentence when the subordinate that-clause is a subject. For example, we cannot delete “that” in the following sentence:

“That the driver could not control his car is obvious.”

Sample Questions

Which of the following that-clauses has an obligatory subordinating conjunction.

- a. That they had an exam last week was reason enough for the students not to go on the trip.
- b. The students didn't know that Ahmed was not notified about the time of the exam.
- c. The reason is that no one told him about it.
- d. They all noticed that he did not attend the exam.

Finite Verbs

- **Finite verbs** show tense, person and number.
- To see whether a verb is finite or not try to change the tense, person or number in a sentence.

e.g 1. He is here today. He was here yesterday. (tense)

e.g. 2. He is walking. I am walking. (person)

e.g. 3. The child has slept already.

The children have slept already. (number)

Heads and Modifiers

- Before you identify the head and the modifier, you need to identify the phrase first.

e.g. The old man has an appointment with his doctor.

In this sentence, we have 3 noun phrases, 1 verb phrase and 1 prepositional phrase. The noun phrases in the previous example are: “**the old man**”, “**an appointment**” and “**his doctor**”. The verb phrase is the simple verb “**has**” The prepositional phrase is the phrase “**with his doctor**” You'll notice that the noun phrase “his doctor” is part of the prepositional phrase. It is the object of the preposition.

- An easy way that we can use sometimes to identify many noun phrases is to try to change them to pronouns. For example, we can change the previous sentence to:

The old man has an appointment with his doctor.

He has this with him.

- Now that we identified the noun phrases, we need to identify the head and the modifiers. The head is a necessary element of the phrase, and the modifiers are optional elements that add to the meaning of the head or limit it.

In the previous example, the heads of each noun phrase are “man”, “appointment” and “doctor”. The modifiers include: “the,” “old,” “an” and “his.”

- All these modifiers come before the heads of each phrase, so we call them premodifiers.

Note: The head is what determines the type of the phrase. The head of a noun phrase is a noun or a pronoun (e.g. the man, we all). The head of a prepositional phrase is a preposition (e.g. with the doctor). The head of an adjective phrase is an adjective (e.g. very good).

e.g. 2. The headmaster of the school is here.

He is here.

The head in this noun phrase is “headmaster”. The modifier “the” is a premodifier because it comes before the head. The prepositional phrase “of the school” comes after the head and functions as a modifier, so we call it a postmodifier.

Note: “The school” is another noun phrase in this sentence. It is the object of the preposition “of” and also part of the first noun phrase “the headmaster of the school”.

Complements

e.g. 1. **The book is on the desk.** (complement of subject)

e.g. 2. Ahmed is very **good at Mathematics.** (complement of adjective)

In example 1, we only have one complement: “on the desk”. This is the complement of the subject +BE.

In example 2, we have two complements. The first complement: “very good at mathematics” is an adjective phrase, and it is the complement of the subject +BE. The second complement “at mathematics” is a prepositional phrase, and it is the complement of the adjective “good”.