A SYNOPSIS OF ENGLISH SYNTAX
PREFACE

With the exception of the Preface and Chapter I, this Synopsis of English Syntax was presented to the University of Michigan as a doctoral dissertation in 1943. It is obviously a precarious undertaking to publish a scientific work so many years after it was written. So much takes place in the present-day development of any science, and surely Descriptive Linguistics is no exception. Indeed, in this field particularly there have been almost unprecedented advances both in theory and methodology. One thing is certain: If I were going to rewrite this dissertation it would be in many respects quite different.

Any present treatment of English syntax, such as was attempted in this Synopsis, would have to pay much greater attention to intonation, which is here treated only under Bloomfield's taxeme of “modulation”. But my analysis was made prior to Pike's initial work on English intonation (Kenneth L. Pike, *The Intonation of American English*, Ann Arbor, University of Michigan Press, 1945) and the later treatments by Wells (Rulon S. Wells, “The Pitch Phonemes of English”, *Language*, 21.27-39, 1945) and by Trager and Smith (George L. Trager and Henry Lee Smith Jr., *An Outline of English Structure*, Studies in Linguistics, Occasional Papers, 3, Norman, Oklahoma, Battenburg Press, 1951). The consistent and careful notation of intonational structures would have both clarified a number of structures and provided criteria for distinguishing otherwise confusing patterns.

The present Synopsis is also lacking in a systematic analysis of phonemic junctures, both actual and potential. Such features would have provided important diagnostic, though not necessarily definitive, criteria for many immediate-constituent divisions. However, in 1943 the significance of junctures was only being initially explored, and since that time their relevance for any grammatical treatment of English has been fully attested (see Trager and Smith, *op. cit.*, and Noam Chomsky, Morris Halle, and Fred Lukoff, “On Accent and Juncture in English”, in the volume *For Roman Jakobson*, 1956, pp. 65-80).

Née Gramemes", *IJAL*, 24.273-92, 1958) would be useful in focusing attention on the "spots" which are structurally relevant. However, the general orientation of the approach adopted in this Synopsis is toward constructions in terms of immediate constituents, rather than the string of units which comprise the total frame.

The most useful recently developed technique and descriptive framework is "transformational analysis" (see Zellig S. Harris, "Co-occurrence and Transformation in Linguistic Structure", *Language*, 33, 1957, pp. 283-340; Noam Chomsky, *Syntactic Structures*, 's-Gravenhage, Mouton and Co., N.V., 1957; and Robert B. Lees, "Review of *Syntactic Structures* by Noam Chomsky", *Language*, 33, 1957, pp. 375-408). The recognition of transforms, in terms of basic kernel sentences capable of generating different types of constructions, would permit distinguishing between formally similar constructions which are structurally distinguishable because derived from different kernels and which in turn give rise to diverse constructions.

In addition to these four significant areas of major advance in descriptive methodology as related to syntax, there are of course a number of other important contributions, each of which would, in its area of special concern, influence any future revision of this type of synopsis. The most important of these articles and books are:


On the basis of the extent to which this Synopsis would require changing to bring it into line with contemporary developments in descriptive linguistics, it is legitimate to ask why it is being republished, especially since the original work was not intended for publication (which would have required fuller explanations of many technical terms, a more extensive introduction, and many more notes). The truth is that, quite contrary to expectation, there has been a consistent demand for copies of this dissertation. It has been put out in two multilith editions of several hundred copies each, and more recently was in part published in Japan, with a special introduction and notes in Japanese. The reasons for this interest are probably twofold: (1) it is still the most extensive synopsis of English constructions described in terms of immediate constituents, and (2) it contains many useful lists of words functioning as syntactic classes.

In addition to the shortcomings noted above, the reader will inevitably recognize several others, including especially:

1. The lack of phonemic notation for the illustrative data.
2. An arrangement which places the immediate constituents of many constructions at some distance from each other in the outline.
3. A failure to treat alternative orders as fully as desirable.
4. The recognition of certain alternative arrangements of immediate constituents, but without a systematic attempt to follow out the implications of such alternative structuring.

5. The somewhat "antiquated" terminology, especially in the use of the form-function dichotomy, rather than of the item-arrangement or item-distribution distinction. It should be noted, however, that, more or less throughout, the vocabulary follows Bloomfield's usage, e.g. modulation, pausepitch, taxeme, relation-axis construction, etc.

In preparing this volume for publication some minor changes have been introduced, which involve (1) the revision of some awkward descriptions, (2) the addition of footnotes, where the text seemed unduly obscure, and (3) the rearrangement of some sections, e.g. the treatment of nonrestrictive clauses.

The text has been slightly revised from that published in 1960 under the auspices of the Summer Institute of Linguistics, University of Oklahoma, in their Linguistic Series, No. 4. The principal changes are shifts in the order of presentation of material and certain editorial improvements, for which I am indebted to Dorothy L. Tyler. I also wish to express appreciation for the careful, detailed proofreading done by Robert Murrow.

New York
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EUGENE A. NIDA
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NOTE. – The position of the three dichotomies, namely, (1) single clause frame – multiple clause frame, (2) independent exocentric constituents – dependent exocentric constituents, and (3) clauses as heads – attributives to clauses, is dictated by practical considerations of grouping together all the information relative to multiple clause frames, dependent exocentric constituents, and the attributives to clauses, since they are identical for all major sentence types. Technically, they should be considered under the major sentence types – namely, actor-action and goal action – with appropriate cross-references to indicate the range of possibilities and occurrences.
The purpose of this outline is to aid the reader in following the major patterns of the Synopsis, and to permit ready reference to any large section. Only the beginning page of each section is indicated. Certain sections of the main text which indicate relationship of taxemes or conditioning factors are omitted. Only those sections showing constituent elements are included. The section headings are the same as those in the complete outline given in the text.

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The principal constructions in English are introduced in this chapter by means of a series of diagrams, so arranged as to constitute an "outline of English structure", in order that the reader may understand more readily some of the essential features of English syntactic structure and follow the detailed analyses of these constructions in subsequent chapters.

The order of constructions is not exactly that followed in the text. Rather, they are so grouped as to provide what seems to be maximum intelligibility. Page references indicate the position in the text of full analyses. Since at each stage the outline indicates both immediate constituents, there is some degree of overlapping and repetition; these, however, serve to make the statements to which they refer in the text more adequately understood. In treating the constructions of highest rank, very simple components were chosen, in order not to complicate the picture unduly by introducing constructions which are described in detail in the text.

In a few instances the examples given here have more components than those in the text, and in others they include more components than are required to identify the immediate constituents in question. The additional components are then included in parentheses, but the structural relations are so drawn that the relation of the construction to the immediately higher structural rank (or ranks) can be seen.

In addition to the usual set of lines used to show relationships between immediate constituents, an additional set of symbols has been employed to mark exocentric, endocentric, and paratactic relationships:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotactic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exocentric</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Endocentric</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-ordinate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subordinate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paratactic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Under paratactic constructions no attempt is made to distinguish between (a) appositive, (b) duplicative, and (c) associative types of parataxis, since the constructions are not numerous and the relationships are usually quite evident.
Some brief explanation may be required for certain types of subordinate endocentric relationships, namely, the attributives to transitive and equational verbs. All regular predicate constructions (there are a few minor types not possessing verb heads) have verbs as the indispensable component, and the additional constituents are structurally "attributive" to these verbs (though they do not "modify" the verb in the same way that adjectives seem to modify noun heads). The following series indicates the structural relevance of the verb head.

He ran.

He ran away.

The cow ran dry.

He ran the mill.

We may describe the equational verb with its equated attributive (e.g. was good) and the transitive verb with its objects, including both direct and indirect (e.g. hit the man and gave him a quarter), as being structurally equivalent to an intransitive verb, with or without attributives. The indispensable and head constituents of such expressions are verbs, and the attributives should be regarded as being endocentrically subordinate to these heads.

It is important to note that the so-called "predicate nominative" (here described as an "equated attributive") is not structurally attributive to the subject (even though the words in question may semantically modify the subject); for a verb plus equated attributive may occur entirely without a specific subject, e.g. To be good is a dubious advantage in some circumstances, in which the verb expression to be good is followed by the equated attributive good without a subject constituent.

The illustrated List of Constructions follows.

List of Constructions

I. MAJOR SENTENCE TYPES (pp. 66-165)

   A. Actor-action (pp. 66-130)

      1. Transitive (pp. 66-126)
The men chased the assailant.

2. Intransitive (pp. 127-130)

The boys ran away.

3. Equational (pp. 131-139)

The people were kind.

B. Goal-action (pp. 140-147)

The robber was chased by the men.

II. MINOR SENTENCE TYPES (pp. 166-168)

A. Completive expressions (p. 166)

Yes!
No!
Sorry, my mistake.

B. Exclamatory expressions (pp. 166-168)

Dear me!
By golly!
Come home!
C. Aphoristic expressions (p. 168)

III. SINGLE AND MULTIPLE CLAUSES (pp. 66-165)

A. Single clause frames (pp. 66-163)

B. Multiple clause frames (pp. 164-165)

1. With single co-ordinators

2. With double co-ordinators

IV. CLAUSES WITH CLAUSE ATTRIBUTIVES (pp. 148-150)

A. With nonparenthetical attributives (associative parataxis) (pp. 148-149)
OUTLINE OF STRUCTURES

B. With parenthetical attributives (associative parataxis) (pp. 149-150)

This project, or so it seems to me, is the very best.

V. SUBJECT EXPRESSIONS (pp. 66-99)

A. Single and multiple frames (p. 66)

1. Single

The poor man (left).

2. Multiple

Bill and Tom (left).

B. Subject expressions classified as to types of head constituents (pp. 67-74)

1. Nouns (p. 67)

James (went away). The soup (hits the spot).

2. Adjectives (p. 68)

The deaf (are sometimes fortunate).
3. Substitutes (pp. 69-73)

a. Without antecedent within the same clause

He (left at once).

b. With antecedent within the same clause (duplicative parataxis) (pp. 71-73)

It (seemed to me) that he left too soon.

4. Clauses

a. With conjunctive markers (p. 73)

Why he came (is a mystery).

b. Without conjunctive markers (p. 73)

Twenty men rescued in one day (is quite a record).

5. First verbals (p. 74)

Running the show (is no fun).
6. Prepositional phrases (with included dependent-form clause) (p. 74)

For him to try (is incredible).

C. Subject heads with attributives (pp. 75-99)

1. With bounded attributives (pp. 75-88)

a. Postdeterminer attributives (pp. 75-83)

1'. Primary attributives (p. 75)

a' Single (p. 75)

(b) good woman

(a) floating stick

b' Multiple co-ordinate (pp. 75-76)

(a) lovely and gracious personality

2' Secondary postdeterminer attributives (pp. 80-82)

(a) pretty young woman

(a) long distance call.

(a) very fine dress
(a) long distance call.

(a) Tennessee Valley Authority
OUTLINE OF STRUCTURES

3'. TERTIARY POSTDETERMINER ATTRIBUTIVES (pp. 82-83)

(a) rather recently published article

(b) Sperry flour inspection laboratory

b. DETERMINER ATTRIBUTIVES (pp. 83-86)

the teacher

some persons

Jack's affair

c. PREDETERMINER ATTRIBUTIVES (pp. 87-88)

1'. ATTRIBUTIVES TO DETERMINER-TO-HEAD COMPLEX (pp. 87, 88-89)

both the people

almost all the chiefs

2'. ATTRIBUTIVES TO AN INCLUDED BOUNDED ATTRIBUTIVE (p. 87)

quite a large house

2. Preposed attributives plus substitutes as subject heads (pp. 88-90)

a. PRIMARY

All these (left).

Almost all (were there).

A lot fewer (came).

b. SECONDARY

Almost all these (had gone).

Structurally these belong with secondary postdeterminer attributives.
3. Postposed attributives plus subject heads (pp. 90-99)

a. Adjectives

1'. Attributive to head (p. 90)

- God almighty

2'. Attributive to bounded attributive (p. 90)

- The finest person imaginable

b. Adverbs (pp. 90-91)

- these men here
- those there

c. First verbals (p. 91)

- The boys running away (will be punished).
- Those wanting to go (can leave).

d. Second verbals (p. 91)

- The sum required (is too much).

* Structurally these belong with secondary postdeterminer attributives.
OUTLINE OF STRUCTURES

Those investigated (refused to answer).

e. PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES (pp. 91-92)

1'. ATTRIBUTIVE TO ENTIRE PRECEDING SUBJECT ELEMENT

Those at prayer (were unmolested).

2'. ATTRIBUTIVE TO INCLUDED BOUNDED ATTRIBUTIVES

A different proposition from this (was unacceptable).

f. NOUN PHRASES (p. 92)

An animal this size (is too big). Those that age (should leave).

g. MARKED INFINITIVES (p. 92)

His ability to get ahead (was impressive).

Things to be done (were pressing). What to do (was the question).

* Structurally these belong with secondary postdeterminer attributives.
h. Clauses with conjunctive markers (pp. 92-96)

The man who left (was my friend).

Those to whom he spoke (were angry).

The place where he stayed (was terrible).

The hope that he will come (was destroyed).

The time since he left (has dragged).

4. Appositive “attributives” plus subject heads (pp. 96-97)

Jones, the baker, (is a good fellow).

We the people (will decide).

5. Semipredicate attributives plus subject heads (pp. 97-99)

We (will) both (try).

They (were involved) themselves.
VI. PREDICATE EXPRESSIONS (pp. 100-126)

A. Single and multiple frames

1. Single frames (p. 101)

(John) ran away. Did (the man) leave?

2. Multiple frames (p. 101)

(He) kicked the man and mauled the woman.

(He) either struck her or bit her.

B. Types of predicate heads

1. Transitive expressions (pp. 107-115)

(He) saw the man.

2. Intransitive expressions (pp. 127-130)

(They) rushed away early.

3. Equational expressions (pp. 131-139)

(He) was well. (The cow) ran dry.
4. **Goal-action (passive) expressions** (pp. 140-147)

(He) was killed by the accident.

C. **Transitive expressions classified by types of attributive constituents** (pp. 105-126)

1. **First type attributives (indirect object)** (pp. 105-106)

(They) gave him (a watch).

2. **Second type attributives (direct object)** (pp. 106-115)

a. **Nouns** (p. 107)

(He) offered them a prize.

b. **Substitutes** (p. 107)

(They) saw him.

c. **First verbals** (pp. 107-108)

(Some) advised doing it.

d. **Marked infinitives** (p. 108)

(He) began to walk.
e. Unmarked infinitives (pp. 108-109)

(He) helped do it.

f. Clauses with conjunctive markers (p. 109)

(He) asked what they wanted

g. Clauses without conjunctive markers (pp. 110-111)

(I) saw he wanted it.

h. Dependent-form clauses (pp. 111-114)

(They) pronounced him king. (She) enticed him to go.

(They) felt him slip away.

(The people) saw him running. (They) wanted him killed.
OUTLINE OF STRUCTURES

i. DIRECT QUOTATIONS (pp. 114-115)

(He confessed), "I struck her with a stone."

j. ADVERBS (p. 115)

(He) said so.  (I) hope not.

k. PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES (p. 115)

(He) allowed them till ten o'clock

3. Alternating attributives (p. 116)

(He) pushed open the door.  (He) pushed the door open.

(They) let loose a lion.  (They) let a lion loose.

4. Third type attributives (pp. 116-126)

a. PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES (p. 117)

(They) hit him with stones.

* Compare He allowed them ten minutes.
b. Adverbs (pp. 117-120)

(He) shot him accidentally. (He) accidentally shot him.

(He) hit them very hard. (He) was actually trying to leave.

c. Marked infinitives (pp. 120-121)

(He) whipped the boy to teach him a lesson.

d. Noun expressions (p. 121)

(We) finished it last week. (They) watched him all night.

e. Clauses with conjunctive markers (pp. 122-124)

(They) left him before he came to. If we can help, (we) will try it.

f. First verbals (pp. 124-125)

Barring trouble, (we) will finish it Monday.
(They) spent their time playing cards.

**g. DEPENDENT-FORM CLAUSES (pp. 125-126)**

Jim being gone, (we) finished it early.

**D. Intransitive expressions classified as to types of attributive constituents (pp. 127-130)**

1. *Adjectives* (pp. 128-129)

(He) turned away sad. (They) played safe.

2. *Second verbals* (p. 129)

(They) went equipped.

3. *First verbals* (p. 129)

(She) came running.

4. *Noun expressions* (pp. 129-130)

(He) went off a happy man. (She) ran home.
5. **Prepositional phrases** (cf. p. 117)

(They) ran into the wall.

6. **Adverbs** (cf. pp. 117-119)

(He) went there quickly.

7. **Clauses with conjunctive markers** (cf. p. 120)

(He) will go to sleep when you leave.

When you leave, (he) will go to sleep.

8. **Dependent-form clauses** (cf. p. 125)

This done, (we) can leave.

9. **Marked infinitives** (p. 130)

(I) am going to do it.

E. **Equational expressions classified as to types of attributive constituents** (pp. 131-139)

1. **Equated attributives**
OUTLINE OF STRUCTURES

a. ADJECTIVES (WITH VARIOUS POSSIBLE SUBORDINATE ATTRIBUTIVES) (pp. 132-135)

(She) is pretty.  (You) are quite right.

(He) is a few months old.  (They) are able to go.

(It) is pouring wet.  (I) am afraid that he will leave.

(He) is better than we thought.  (I) am glad of it.

b. SECOND VERBALS (p. 135)

(I) am done.  (The bills) are paid.

c. SUBSTITUTES (pp. 135-136)

(It) is me.  (This) is mine.

d. NOUN EXPRESSIONS (pp. 136-138)

(He) turned traitor.  (He) is a genius.
e. Clauses with conjunctive markers (p. 138)

(The fact) is that we need him.

f. Dependent-form clauses (p. 138)

(The problem) is men refusing to try.

g. Marked infinitives (p. 138)

(My desire) is to see this done.

2. Third type attributives (p. 000) (cf. Third type attributives under transitive expressions)

a. Prepositional phrases (cf. p. 117)

At home (she) was quite well.

b. Adverbs (cf. pp. 117-120)

(He) was much better then.

c. Marked infinitives (cf. p. 126)

(He) turned traitor to do it.
d. Noun expressions (cf. p. 121)

(He) was governor last term.

---

e. Clauses with conjunctive markers (cf. pp. 122-124)

(He) was quiet until we arrived.

---

f. First verbals (cf. pp. 124-125)

(He) fell sick traveling home.

---

g. Dependent-form clauses (cf. p. 125)

This being so, (I) am through.

---

F. Passive (goal-action) expressions classified as to types of attributive constituents (pp. 140-147)

1. First attributives (p. 141) (cf. First attributives in transitive expressions, pp. 105-106)

(A place) was accorded each guest.

< (They) accorded each guest a place.
2. Second attributives (pp. 141-142) (cf. Second attributives in transitive expressions, pp. 106-107)

(She) was offered a job.

< (They) offered her a job.

3. Partial second attributives (derived from dependent-form clauses) (pp. 142-143)

a. Marked infinitives (p. 142)

(He) was advised to go.

< (They) advised him to go.

b. Unmarked infinitives (p. 142)

(He) was let go.

< (They) let him go.

c. First verbals (pp. 142-143)

(He) was caught stealing.

< (They) caught him stealing.

d. Zero verb head (p. 143)

(He) was elected president.

< (They) elected him president.
4. *Alternating attributives* (pp. 143-144)

(The door) was pushed open.

< (They) pushed the door open.

or

< (They) pushed open the door.

(The tickets) were given out.

< (They) gave the tickets out.

or

< (They) gave out the tickets.

5. *Third type attributives* (pp. 144-147) (cf. Third type attributives in transitive expressions, pp. 116-126)

a. **Prepositional phrases**

1'. **Complete** (cf. p. 120)

(He) was hit with a stick.

2'. **Partial** (with zero anaphoric substitution of the "axis" element) (pp. 144-147)

(He) was spoken well of.

< (They) spoke well of him

(They) were lied about.

< (They) lied about them.
b. Adverbs (cf. pp. 117-120)

(He) was hurt accidentally.

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VII. DEPENDENT EXOCENTRIC CONSTRUCTIONS

A. Independent-form clauses with conjunctive markers (pp. 151-154)

1. Clauses in which the conjunctive marker constitutes the first immediate constituent in exocentric relationship to the following subject-predicate construction (pp. 151-153)

   before they left
   if any asked him

2. Clauses in which the conjunctive marker constitutes a part of the subject-predicate construction (pp. 153-154)

   a. As subject (pp. 153-154)

   (asked) who came.

   b. As first type attributive (p. 154)

   (asked) whom he gave the prize.

   c. As second type attributives (p. 154)

   (asked) what he wanted.

   d. As second immediate constituents in prepositional phrases (p. 154)

   (asked) whom they cared for
OUTLINE OF STRUCTURES

e. As equated attributive (p. 154)

(asked) who he was

f. As third type attributive (p. 154)

(asked) where he lived

B. Dependent-form clauses classified as to types of predicate constituents (pp. 154-156)

1. Marked infinitives (p. 155)

(wanted) him to go

2. Unmarked infinitives (p. 155)

(saw) him go home

3. First verbals (p. 155)

(noticed) him going (remembered) him having helped
4. Second verbals (p. 155)

(thought) him crippled by the accident

5. Zero verb heads (p. 156)

(chose) him king

C. Verb phrases (pp. 156-158)

1. Primary patterns

a. Pattern 1 (p. 156)

have gone

have written

b. Pattern 2 (p. 156)

is working

was swimming

c. Pattern 3 (p. 157)

is kicked

was tortured

d. Pattern 4 (p. 157)

has been helped

e. Pattern 5 (p. 157)

have been proving
2. Secondary patterns, consisting of auxiliaries plus certain verb forms, single and phrasal (pp. 157-158)

a. With will, shall, may, can, and must

b. With ought

c. With do

d. With better (and in rare constructions rather and sooner)

D. Infinitive phrases (p. 158)

1. Unmarked (cf. Verb phrase patterns 1-5)
OUTLINE OF STRUCTURES

2. Marked

E. Verbal phrases (p. 158) (cf. Verb phrase patterns 1, 3-5)

F. Prepositional phrases (pp. 158-163)

1. Single and multiple types (pp. 159-160)

2. Classes of second immediate constituents (pp. 160-163)

a. Noun expressions (p. 160)

b. Substitutes (p. 160)

c. Adverbs (p. 160)
OUTLINE OF STRUCTURES

d. ADJECTIVES (p. 161)

of old

at first

e. FIRST VERBALS (p. 161)

(afraid) of going

(asked) about marrying her

f. CLAUSES WITH CONJUNCTIVE MARKERS (p. 161)

until after he is dead

in that he is crazy

(asked) about what he said

(went) to where he lived

g. DEPENDENT-FORM CLAUSES (pp. 161-163)

(object) to him doing it

(story) of them going there

h. PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES (p. 163)

from over the hill

to within an inch
3. Constructions consisting of prepositional phrases plus attributives (p. 163)

(was) entirely in the wrong

(went) almost around the world

(rode) a mile beyond the mill
NATURE AND SCOPE OF THE SYNOPSIS

The purpose of this analysis of English syntax is twofold: (1) to demonstrate the application of descriptive techniques to the problems of syntax in the writer's own speech, and (2) to show in outline form the broad patterns of the language, indicating the tagmeme structure as based on the taxemes of order, selection, modulation, and phonetic change. In contrast to the conventional procedure, which tends to analyze forms on a morphological basis and notes all the positions and types of occurrence for such elements, this description analyzes the frames and patterns of English expressions and notes those form and function classes which may occur in the various positions of such patterns.

This particular study arose out of (1) special interest in studying syntactic principles in application to the analysis of syntax of aboriginal languages, and (2) the analysis of a special problem of pluralization in English. The inadequacy of former treatments of English seemed obvious.\(^1\)\(^2\) It was due principally to a failure to recognize broad patterns and to break these down on the basis of immediate constituents. Accordingly, the writer proceeded, on the basis of the taxemes as outlined by Bloomfield,\(^8\) to set down the principal tagmemes in his own speech. When analyzed and correlated, they amounted to a statement of about fifty pages. This introductory survey stimulated interest in further elaboration and extension. The treatments of English in the various books and articles listed in the bibliography were then analyzed in order to check for rare patterns, compile lists of words, note special selective conditioning, and analyze the various authors' statements of the episcmemes of certain complicated tagmemes. All this material was then incorporated into the outline of the original statement of major patterns.

It must be noted that no lists of words were taken in toto from any grammatical analysis. All words were checked by the writer's own usage. The lists included in the following description are therefore usually a combination of lists gathered from many sources. Many words were rejected as not fitting the writer's usage, and others,

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1 It is important to note that this chapter was written in 1943, prior to a number of important developments in syntactic theory.
2 See below pp. 54 ff.
employed in particular functions, were added. Great caution was employed in the checking of usage, for only a few words at a time would be validated for any one pattern, and these were always rechecked on three different occasions, to avoid increasing the psychological pressure of any particular pattern by repetitions.

It should be borne in mind that this analysis is based on the writer’s speech. In other words, the writer acted as his own informant. There are always dangers from nonwritten sources, but as far as possible such dangers have been scrupulously avoided. Experience with a number of informants of aboriginal languages has given the writer a certain amount of practice in such situations. However, what one loses in exactness by not having written sources as references would seem to be compensated for by unity of dialect and the avoidance of introducing patterns representing too broad a span in years. Such comparative and historical tendencies are all too frequent in conventional grammars.

Since, then, the writer acted as his own informant, it may be helpful to give a succinct statement of his background, as a basis for determination of his dialectic peculiarities. He was born of professional parents in Oklahoma City, and lived and was educated in urban communities of the West, principally in California. There he received his A.B. degree in Greek from the University of California at Los Angeles. He then engaged in linguistic work in Mexico and completed his A.M. degree in Greek at the University of Southern California. Between 1939 and 1943 he traveled rather widely over the United States, studying, teaching, lecturing, and preaching.

In a statement of English syntax as brief as the present one, there are definite limitations. First, there is lacking a section on morphology, which would set forth the form classes of the language. Thus many statements must remain incomplete, without the means of making constant cross-reference to show the relation between “form classes” and “function classes”. Moreover, the syntactic description is often dependent upon the morphological one, particularly with regard to the use of zero and the arrangement of morphemes into categories.

There is also incompleteness of detail. A comprehensive description of English syntax would, indeed, require a statement of several thousand pages. But rather than take one small section and develop it to completeness, the writer has chosen to indicate the adaptability of the techniques to the broad patterns of English syntax and to set forth the framework by a method which can be filled in by continuing research, thus avoiding specialization within some particular small pattern. For it is the over-emphasis of such specialization which in many ways has hampered the development of a general methodology for syntax.

Again, many statements relative to selective conditioning are limited in character. For example, the general statement relative to sequence of tenses between main and subordinate clause verbs may be expanded considerably, and the particular deviations for special types of clauses should be noted. Likewise, the statements for adverbial attributives may be greatly enlarged.
In the matter of modulation the writer has indicated only special modulatory patterns of particular note, without attempting a complete statement, which in itself is a study of considerable extent. All intonemes and stressemes must be described in a phonology and morphology before they can adequately be handled in the syntax. Reference should be made to Pike’s introductory treatment of intonation in English,\(^4\) which is by far the best analysis so far published, and which brings some order out of the former chaotic handling of the problem. Much of the apparatus of terminology employed here is taken from Pike’s suggestions.

Also in the matter of phonetic change the writer has not attempted a detailed statement. Only the more obvious situations are dealt with. Since, however, all sandhi in English is either automatic or optional, the tagmemes are not determined by sandhi, and this taxeme is thus relatively less important than the other three. In all statements of sandhi in English the matter of relative speed is most important, and this whole problem is omitted. However, in both the matter of phonetic change and modulation, additions may readily be made to the outline, for these taxemes are always correlative with the taxemes of order and selection.

In the analysis of anaphoric substitutes, and particularly with zero anaphoric substitutes, there are considerable omissions of detail. The possibilities of form are usually noted, but the contextual situations, or, in other words, the patterns in which these occur, are not fully stated. This, which is one of the very considerable problems in English syntax, could not be treated with any degree of completeness here.

The difficulties offered by terminology are of a different nature. This problem is very real, for it is bound up with the entire history of the apparatus of grammatical description, and involves the ever complicated problem of naming. The Greek and Latin terminology, when applied to those languages, provided a good correspondence between “form classes” and “function classes”. That is, the classes on the morphological level corresponded rather well with the classes on the syntactic level. Not so in English. One has to appreciate the two levels of analysis. The prolonged arguments about whether a noun becomes an adjective when preposed to another noun, as in a cement structure, are meaningless until one recognizes the two levels of distinction.

There is, then, a need for a new set of terms for English one which will apply to English syntax. This problem is not to be solved by the multiplication of terms to define some form in different functional values, as the words gerund, gerundive, participle, verbal, and supine are sometimes employed to denote the same form class. This procedure only adds confusion. One must have general terms applicable to all classes employed in particular patterns. In order to meet this need, the writer has made certain arbitrary uses of words. He recognizes that many of them are not entirely satisfactory, for they have strong connotative values which are hard to

dissociate in a new usage. However, it is impossible to use numbers and letters as
designations throughout, and words with a certain amount of mnemonic value must
be employed, even with the danger of a wrong connotation or even denotation. The
writer asks the indulgence of the reader in recognizing the particular value assigned to
the words in this description. Any recommendation of a term to supplant a less
fortunate choice will be gladly accepted. The important feature is the recognition of
the particular classes so designated.

The word *attributive* is used to designate any endocentric function class. These
endocentric classes are sometimes named by their position or order, e.g. postposed
attributives to the verb heads. The reason for designating indirect objects, direct
objects, and adverbial modifiers all as attributives is simply to note that they are all
endocentric to the verb head.

For subject expressions one of the necessary distinctions is between words which
pattern with determiners and words which do not. The first permit bounded attri-
butives, and those without determiners do not. Arbitrarily, the word *substantive*
employed to designate this first class, largely because this class is composed to a great
extent of nouns, though it also includes adjectives, verbals, and some so-called
pronouns. The term *substitute* is employed for the second main group because of the
substitution character of the constituents. A special meaning attached to a term is
usually explained in a footnote, or may be understood readily from illustrations of
the class.

It may be well to describe the method of presentation. Headings of the sections are
made on the basis of the episememes of the tagmemes so designated, but it is im-
possible to carry out such naming throughout, for such episememes are sometimes
almost impossible to define. The purpose of the outline, which makes use of alter-
nating numbers and letters, and thus makes possible a considerable depth in subheads,
is to indicate major patterns and conditioning factors; at the same time, by indicating
corresponding sections, series of co-ordinates and immediate constituents are noted.
For example, under the transitive clause type is listed the subject expression; cor-
responding to this is the predicate expression, these two being the immediate con-
stituents of such an actor-action tagmeme. The same situation applies to the analysis
of prepositional phrases, marked clauses, etc., as listed in the section on dependent
exocentric patterns. Also, the outline method permits the indication of successive
layers of immediate constituents.

The first occurrence of a pattern is described in some detail, but when further
mention is made, even with some modification, only a cross-reference is given. For
example, substantive ‘object’ expressions are stated as being the same as substantive
subject expressions, with the restriction of possible attributives.

Some reference must be made to the section on dependent exocentric patterns. As
a convenience in presentation, and in order to avoid repetitious statements, these
patterns are analyzed in a special section. By contrast, all endocentric patterns are
dealt with under major exocentric patterns, by analyzing, first, the head of such an
endocentric pattern and then the attributives dependent upon it. Exocentric patterns could similarly be handled by analyzing the first and then the second immediate constituents, but for the convenience of noting more easily the broader patterns, the detailed analysis is treated in a single section. Such treatment has the added value of reducing the number of explanatory footnotes.

Lists are alphabetized only when comparatively long and when groupings of words would have no significance in indicating subordinate form or function classes.

As will be noted from the first page of the outline, which lists the major dichotomies, the analysis is divided between major and minor sentence types, then between independent and dependent exocentric patterns. The independent exocentric patterns are then divided between actor-action and goal-action types. The actor-action clause type includes the transitive, the intransitive, and the equational. Under the transitive clause type, the subject expression is discussed first, as being the first important immediate constituent in the exocentric pattern. The procedure is to note all possible subject heads and then all types of attributives which may occur with each type. For the substantive head, for example, there are bounded attributives, preposed attributives, postposed attributives, and appositives. Under each type, named from its position relative to the head, is included each class which operates in such a position. The sentence may be visualized as a framework having certain compartments into which various classes of words may fit. The mutual order and selective conditioning, as well as the phonetic modification and modulation occurring between such classes, must be stated.

One may also look upon any utterance as consisting of a series of selections, if viewed only from the standpoint of the taxeme of selection, and then each section of the outline represents such choices. For example, a person may choose to convey his thought by a major or a minor sentence type. Then, in turn, he has the choice of an actor-action or a goal-action type. If he chooses the former, he must then choose between transitive, intransitive, or equational types. Having made this choice, he must then choose a subject-head class, and with this class come further restrictions as to the possible attributives to the subject expression. Accordingly, as the outline proceeds in depth, the range of choices becomes smaller.

It is this selective basis which is best demonstrated by the outline form. Thus, in the sequence just noted, when a subject expression has been chosen and a transitive type verb-head expression has been determined upon, the interclass selection – which implies a selection between classes of the same co-ordinate value – restricts these verbs to transitive ones, in contrast to intransitive or equational verbs. The intraclass selection, denoting selection within a class of forms selectively determined or conditioned, restricts choice of the verb to one congruent with the subject expression of person and number. Having listed the verb-head expression, the various attributives to it must be noted. The first type attributives correspond to the indirect object, the second type to the direct object. But there are also alternating attributives as well as the third type of attributives, generally known as the adverbial attributives. The intransitive and
equational clause types are similarly treated, then the goal-action types, and finally the minor sentence types. In all cases where the pattern is identical to one already presented, the similarity is merely mentioned, and a cross-reference is made.
A REVIEW OF FORMER TREATMENTS
OF ENGLISH SYNTAX*

Former treatments of English syntax may be reviewed under three headings: (1) what linguists have failed to do in the descriptive analysis of English; (2) what they have done which is wrong; and (3) what significant contributions they have made in the field. Under the first heading will be cited those features of the descriptive technique which have been called to the attention of linguists only recently by such men as Sapir and Bloomfield. Under the second those features that arise from a faulty analysis of the materials themselves will be discussed. Under the third will be considered the valuable contributions in the field of descriptive techniques as applied specifically to English.

A fundamental difficulty in the descriptive analysis of English has been the failure to recognize its larger patterns. The normal practice has been to take the various parts of speech and indicate all the various constructions into which they may fit. This has given rise to the impression that English grammar is rather amorphous in character. But, on the contrary, the important thing for English grammar is to study the large patterns and the classification of structure and function as they fit into these patterns. Maetzner\(^1\) makes practically no reference to these larger patterns and sentence types. Kellner\(^2\) anticipates in a measure the importance of these larger syntactic units, but does not consistently carry out the implications of his syntactic divisions. Neither Poutsma\(^3\) nor Kruisinga\(^4\) gives more than a brief sketch of the sentence as a unit. Both start from the particulars and work toward the larger units, but do not synthesize the approach. Jespersen\(^5\) is really the first to approach the problems of the larger patterns in a serious way, with classifications,\(^6\) based largely on a semantic rather than a formal relationship between constituents and with interpretations of the difference between

\(^{*}\) This review, written in 1943, treats only those developments in the analysis of English syntax published prior to that time.


morphology and syntax determined by a distinctive "inner and an outer" approach.\(^7\)

Palmer\(^8\) appreciates the significance of the larger patterns, but generally adopts a
notional rather than a formal method of classification.

The failure to recognize the larger patterns and tagmemes in the language is often
accompanied by a similar failure to recognize the importance of the taxemes of order,
modulation, selection, and phonetic change.\(^9\) In no present grammar of English are
these four features consistently recognized. Even when these taxemes of classification
are recognized, they are usually discussed apart from the regular grammatical
presentation, rather than incorporated into the substance of the description. At no
point in the description may these taxemes be overlooked, for in every tagmeme in
English there are at least two taxemes, which are highly significant. That is to say,
every meaningful grammatical pattern or construction has at least two of these
classificatory principles which must be dealt with.

The subject of word order is commonly either taken for granted or at best a single
chapter is devoted to it, as with Maetzner,\(^10\) Poutsma,\(^11\) Kruisinga,\(^12\) Krüger,\(^13\)
Curme,\(^14\) and Vechman-Vecht.\(^15\) Moreover, the subject of word order is often
discussed only in connection with some construction which exhibits an interesting
modification from the norm.\(^16\) Most grammarians seem not to have considered that it
is just as important to recognize significant normal order as to point out some
particularly strange order with special connotative value. Of course, there are few
grammarians who do not recognize the significance of word order in English. But as
yet the systematic treatment of the subject has not become a part of their methodology
of presenting grammatical facts, perhaps because the Greek and Latin models from
which they have taken so much of their terminology and methodology deal with word
order only as a subordinate factor and from a stylistic standpoint. The failure to
recognize this significant difference between English syntax and that of the ancient
languages of Greek and Latin, and to incorporate this difference into the methodology
of grammatical analysis, has greatly impaired the understanding of the larger patterns
in English. Palmer\(^17\) has been more cognizant of the importance of word order and
has incorporated it more into his system of analysis than have other grammarians.

Features of modulation which have syntactic significance are often overlooked in

\(^7\) Ibid.
\(^8\) H. E. Palmer, A Grammar of Spoken English (Cambridge, W. Heffer and Sons, Ltd., 1927).
\(^12\) E. Kruisinga, An English Grammar for Dutch Students (Utrecht, Kemink en Zoon, 1917), pp.
227 ff.
\(^15\) A. C. E. Vechman-Vecht, A Syntax of Living English (Utrecht, Kemink en Zoon, 1928).
\(^16\) G. Wendt, Syntax des heutigen Englisch (Heidelberg, Carl Winters Universitätsbuchhandlung,
1911).
linguistic analysis, perhaps because linguists are often bound by letter linguistics and obtain virtually all source materials from books. Hyphens, which are principally involved in the analysis of morphology, and marks of punctuation which figure largely in syntax have never been standardized to represent accurately the phonetic or phonemic phenomena involved. Nonnative speakers accordingly find it exceedingly difficult to interpret correctly the various intonation patterns which are significant for syntax. Sweet\textsuperscript{18} was one of the first to note the importance of intonation and stress as they affect morphology and syntax. Kruisinga\textsuperscript{19} makes some attempt to analyze the materials in the first volume of his grammar of English, but he does not incorporate his analysis as an essential part of his methodology. Curme\textsuperscript{20} mentions some rare intonation patterns, but for him they are curiosities rather than elements that should fit into a more extensive phonemicized statement. Palmer\textsuperscript{21} and Jespersen\textsuperscript{22} do more with intonation as a recognized principle in the analysis of constructions than any of the other grammarians. But even so, as in the analyses of Jones,\textsuperscript{23} Schmidt,\textsuperscript{24} and Armstrong and Ward,\textsuperscript{25} there is a failure to emphasize the phonemic interpretation of the materials. Weingart\textsuperscript{26} has presented an interesting general survey of the problem of intonation features, but with no actual solutions for the problem in English. As yet, of course, this problem has not been completely solved. It remains one of the most important problems in the phonemic analysis of English, but the writer of a descriptive grammar must indicate the differences of intonation on a level of significant contrasts, even though the final phonemicization must be left for more comprehensive and detailed observations. It is the failure to recognize the intonation features as significant which now delays our phonemic interpretation of them.

The general interpretation of the taxeme of selection has been too limited in scope. It has usually been applied to obvious situations of concord and government, and these topics have been treated in special chapters, often quite apart from the patterns in which they may be involved.\textsuperscript{27} It has not been realized that the occurrence of any word at any place in a grammatical pattern involves a selection from a particular class, of which, of course, it may be the only member. The entire process of grammar involves selections. From the standpoint of methodology we may say that, from the possible sentence types, one type is selected. Then, from the possible constituents for

\textsuperscript{18} Henry Sweet, \textit{A New English Grammar} (Oxford, at the Clarendon Press, 1903).
\textsuperscript{19} Kruisinga, \textit{op. cit.}, Vol. I.
\textsuperscript{20} Curme, \textit{op. cit.}
\textsuperscript{21} Palmer, \textit{op. cit.}
\textsuperscript{22} Jespersen, \textit{op. cit.}
\textsuperscript{23} Daniel Jones, \textit{An Outline of English Phonetics} (Cambridge, W. Heffer and Sons, 1932).
\textsuperscript{24} Wolfgang Schmidt, "Satzsinn and Tonfall", \textit{Anglia}, 61, pp. 98-111.
\textsuperscript{26} Milos Weingart, "Étude du Langage parlé du point de vue musical", \textit{Travaux du Cercle Linguistique de Prague}, 1, pp. 170-242.
\textsuperscript{27} For typical presentations of such topics see Curme, \textit{op. cit.}, pp. 49 ff.; C. T. Onions, \textit{An Advanced English Syntax}, pp. 29 ff.; and Palmer, \textit{op. cit.}, pp. 673 ff.
such a sentence type, certain constituents are selected. Finally, certain constituents having been selected, other constituents must be selected on the basis of concord, government, or cross-reference. Every word in an English sentence involves a selection, and this selection is delimited by the pattern and the previous selections of words or forms of words. It is the failure to recognize this all-inclusive aspect of selection and the accompanying rigid lines of possibilities involved that has given the impression that English has "no grammar".

The subject of phonetic change on the syntactic level is largely neglected by grammarians, no doubt because phonetic change is not a determining grammatical feature in English. It is either automatic, as with the indefinite article, or it is optional. However, the optional variants of certain words are arbitrarily delimited in occurrence, and the statement of these occurrences belongs to the field of syntax. The statement of the variant forms belongs to the field of morphology. Palmer\textsuperscript{28} more than anyone else is cognizant of the sandhi combinations in English.

The third of these outstanding deficiencies, lack of a systematic division of phonology, morphology, syntax, and lexicon, results largely from lack of appreciation of the larger patterns in the language, so that morphology and syntax merge into one. Also, it has not been recognized that the four principles of classification noted above, namely, order, modulation, selection, and phonetic change, operate on both the morphological and the syntactic levels.

The merging of morphology and syntax is well illustrated by Vechtman-Vecht,\textsuperscript{29} who proceeds from the morphology of nouns to the concord of verbs. The listing of zero plurals is both legitimate and valuable for morphology, but the analysis of group plurals and the occurrence of a singular noun with plural verb, if plural nouns intervene, is purely a matter of syntax, not of morphology.

An even less satisfactory arrangement of materials often results when items are discussed topically, as with Jespersen.\textsuperscript{30} Under the subject of number are discussed the substantives, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, compounds, foreign plurals, unchanged plurals, and finally, the meaning of the plural. There is little scientific order to the materials, the topics considered are both morphological and syntactic, and the final topic belongs to lexicon, not to syntax. The next large division of Jespersen's grammar treats of substantives. It is Jespersen's interpretation of the difference between morphology and syntax, as noted above,\textsuperscript{31} that evidently leads to this rather amorphous classification.

Even grammarians who observe a certain distinction between morphology and syntax rarely attempt to distinguish between syntax and lexicon. They repeatedly attempt to incorporate within the syntax an analysis of the range of meaning values,

\textsuperscript{28} Palmer, \textit{op. cit.}, pp. 9-13.
\textsuperscript{29} Vechtman-Vecht, \textit{op. cit.}, pp. 51-70.
\textsuperscript{31} \textit{Supra}, pp. 54-55.
A REVIEW OF FORMER TREATMENTS OF ENGLISH SYNTAX

particularly of such words as shall, will, should, would, ought, may, and might. Many have been prompted by the comparative and pedagogic value of such lexical explanations; for example, Gustav Krüger. But the results can be unfortunate, for the formal patterns are obscured and the lexical approach is too often accompanied by a notional method of classification. Curme is an especially frequent offender in mixing morphology, syntax, and lexicon. His volume on Parts of Speech and Accident contains much that is simply syntax or lexicon. It must be noted, however, that the volume on Syntax is distinctly superior. Such subjects as the ranges of meaning of the various tense forms are essentially materials for the lexicon. Tense sequences, on the other hand, belong strictly in the field of syntax.

In addition to these major deficiencies, several mistakes in attitude and methodology have seriously distorted the description and analysis of English. One of the most important consists in not distinguishing clearly between the synchronic and the diachronic view of language; accordingly, the historical outlook has tended to prejudice and distort the descriptive viewpoint, for grammarians have not taken seriously the emphasis of Saussure and others in distinguishing between the diachronic and the synchronic viewpoints. Following the general emphasis of the nineteenth century and the principles laid down by Paul, the historical approach almost monopolized methodology. Kruisinga contends that the historical reasons for calling a part of speech by a particular name are most important; as, for example, with regard to the relative pronouns. But from the descriptive point of view, words are to be given the same name if they pattern together. Kruisinga’s analyses constantly follow this basic principle of historical approach. Sonnenschein goes much further; he actually insists that all the original Indo-European categories are still alive in English. Of course his basic meaning is that anything that may be expressed in one language may be expressed in another; for though his categories show some similarity of meaning, there is certainly no correlation as to formal manner of presentation. Actually Sonnenschein employs a historical, comparative, and notional view of language in confusing the descriptive presentation. These three aspects of language are often thus confused. The incorporation of a dative into the system of present-day English, which is done by Gustav Krüger, Deutschbein, Curme, Sonnenschein,
and Onions, as well as many others, is largely due to historical and comparative considerations. Without a knowledge of the history of English and of other cognate languages it is highly questionable whether grammarians would have put order on a par with formal modification, particularly when the objective forms occur in only six words in the entire English language, namely, me, us, him, her, them, and whom. Often the historical considerations lead one very far from the descriptive viewpoint, as, for example, when Fowler analyzes *He burst out laughing* as containing a verbal noun governed by a vanished preposition.

The comparative approach is especially obvious in many grammars of English. Gustav Krüger continually attempts to show parallelisms between German and English, with the result that the patterns of English tend to be confused. The really serious objection to his method is that he compares notional values and translation possibilities, rather than dealing with syntactic problems. Even in the work of Conrad, where pedagogic values may have dictated the methods employed, the comparative method would seem to be overemphasized, particularly since it is on the notional level. Apart from his involved discussions of the use of *shall* and *will* with the various persons, surely the only reason for incorporating them into the paradigms of the language in a more special manner than *must*, *may*, *might*, *can*, and *could* is that they translate a future tense form in certain other languages. This comparative interpretation is arbitrary. Sonnenschein does much the same thing when he insists that English has a vocative case, since we may prepose an interjection “O” before a name. The elaborate analysis of the aspects in English by Deutschbein is dictated largely by historical and comparative considerations, and worked out along notional lines, none of which has great practical value for a formal description of the language. Once one begins to multiply aspects along notional lines, there is no limit to the possibilities. Deutschbein does the same with mode.

This discussion is not to be understood as meaning that historical and comparative grammars do not have their respective values. The difficulty is in not recognizing that such grammars must be based upon at least two sets of descriptive data. Any one set of descriptive data must constitute a unit and be justified quite apart from historical and comparative considerations. Language functions from the descriptive viewpoint on a purely synchronic level, and it is the unitary and integrated aspect of this level which must be kept in mind. Much of the difficulty in correlating the materials in such a way as either to exhibit the historical and comparative values, as with some grammars,

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43 Onions, *op. cit.*
45 Krüger, *op. cit.*
or at least not to do violence to the historical and comparative picture, as with others, lies with the problem of terminology. Many completely unnecessary arguments have been waged in the field of grammar because of a basically false concept of naming. Since historical and comparative investigations seemed to justify the *noun*, grammarians set out to define the correct limits of the *noun*, as though this word represented some reality which needed definition. The very reverse process ought to be followed. The grammarian must discover those classes of words which are similar in form or function, and then attach names to them. The name in itself is of little significance except as a symbolic device with more or less mnemonic value. The important thing is not the name used to designate the class but the constituents subsumed under this class. The problem of naming is accordingly always secondary in importance. The essential feature is the classification together of those elements which have a common form or function.

Basic to many of these problems is the notional approach to linguistic analysis; in other words, the adoption of meaning as the basis for grammatical classification. Of course, syntax must take into consideration the episememes of the tagmemes, or, in other words, the meanings of the constructions. But to disregard the formal differences and employ purely notional differences as a basis of analysis is to become involved in endless and irrelevant classifications. Curme, more than most other grammarians, makes use of class distinctions based upon notional values. Accordingly, he includes under *indefinite pronouns* such expressions as *a person, a man, a fellow*, as well as such statements of quantity as *a heap, no end, a large number, a lot, oceans, numbers*, etc. The pattern value of these words is surely the same as that of the general class of nouns as he conceives of them, and it is only in the sense of a pronoun as "standing for" something that these words could possibly be considered as indefinite pronouns. A notional analysis of the meaning of *pronoun* has thus caused a faulty bringing together of things that do not belong together. Curme insists that the subjunctive is a category of thought and not a form, but elsewhere he declares that *ought* and *must* are past tense subjunctive forms which have no corresponding present tense forms. It would be entirely proper for grammarians to write thoroughly notional grammars, with the methodology maintained throughout; it is the shifting of criteria for classification which produces the distortion of language. We can never assume a strict correlation between form and meaning. The natural logic that Jespersen continually defends is too largely the unconscious conformity of logic to the linguistic patterns. Meaning is often a convenient adjunct to the classification, and in all cases must be considered, but meaning alone should not be made the basis of classification.

50 See supra, p. 23.
The dominant value of the notional approach is recommended as a basic rule of analysis by Sonnenschein, who insists that if one “takes care of the sense, the sounds will take care of themselves”. Jespersen, in criticizing Fries on the analysis of the periphrastic future, declares that “in syntax meaning is everything”. More often the notional approach is evidenced in such expressions as “equivalent to” or “stands for”, which are so extensively employed by Onions.

A more fundamental difficulty is involved in the multiplication of so-called functional distinctions by the elaboration of the classification based upon notional values. For example, Deutschbein analyzes what he regards as the aspects in English, but these aspects lack formal parallelism. Accordingly this grouping of ideas has little linguistic value, except so far as any semantic study, of course, may be said to have linguistic value. Blake is more logical, for he states frankly that his study is a semantic one; but he fails to point out the almost unlimited extent of such a classification, depending upon the scale of values used and upon the extent of the material analyzed. Ultimately such a study is an exercise in logic and semantics, namely, the naming of all relationships between linguistically given referents. But Blake’s method is sound in that he does not claim any formal or functional parallelism for the classification, as Leopold does when he attacks Jespersen on the subject of form or function as the basic criterion for linguistic analysis. The difficulty is that Leopold, though he rejects Jespersen’s point of view, adopts Curme’s, which is not essentially functional and is too largely notional in fundamental outlines. He does not seem to see that many of the arguments he uses against Jespersen’s so-called “logical” classifications are even more applicable to Curme’s system.

Closely associated with this notional approach to classification of the facts of language is the mentalistic attitude and the accompanying teleological implications of linguistic development. Few grammarians are willing to describe only what they find. They seem to believe that a descriptive grammar should be interpretive, indicating not only what constructions occur but also why they occur and why they have certain forms. It is this attempt to answer the whys of syntax which has given rise to so many erroneous speculations. Kellner, for example, speculates about the older forms of English syntax by saying that “the syntax of the older period is natural, naïve, that is, it follows much more closely the drift of ideas, of mental images”. Sheffield, on the other hand, thinks that the present fixed word order began to appear within the
inflected languages simply as a result of growing orderliness of thought. Havers\(^\text{63}\) is thoroughly mentalistic in his explanation of the teleological function of the *Folkspsychologie*, the *Phantasiedenken*, and the *Geistesluxus*. Deutschbein\(^\text{64}\) insists on seeing the determining influence of the *Gefühlsverlauf* of the speaker at work in shaping the language. Even the shift from tense to aspect, which he notes as so important in English, is interpreted as a shift from subjective to objective thinking.

Curme, who is particularly attracted by mentalistic and notional explanations, sees in the spread of the use of the copulative verb the fact that there was “an absolute need of such a word”.\(^\text{65}\) But it should be obvious to him that other languages get along perfectly well without one. Often Curme associates these mentalistic explanations with social phenomena. He contends that gender arose because of the imaginative quality of the people and that after the loss of this gender distinction “English prose” became more composed.\(^\text{66}\) He implies a relationship between the rise of culture and the elaboration of linguistic patterns in stating that, “With the rising culture of the Old English period new forms arose to relieve the present and the past of some of their functions.”\(^\text{67}\) Such statements are not only unfounded; they involve the more serious danger of the implications of the entire mentalistic attitude, which tries to see in language some esoteric teleological force determining its destiny.

It is from this mentalistic view of language that the authoritarian attitude arises. Wattie\(^\text{68}\) openly espouses the authoritarian cause and several of the comparatively recent grammars of English are rule-making and normative.\(^\text{69}\) Curme\(^\text{70}\) insists that we should not say, “the most perfect of any English poet”, for this is a blend of two other constructions. Sweet\(^\text{71}\) calls “ungrammatical” such expressions as “The captain with three of his men were taken prisoner.” Aikin\(^\text{72}\) is not only authoritarian in viewpoint with regard to certain language usages in the syntactic level, but would even extend this to the phonological level. She contends, “A much easier solution of the orthographic problem and one which appears to be more and more current is progressively to conform the pronunciation of English to the spelling, since it appears impractical to conform the spelling to the pronunciation.”\(^\text{73}\) It is doubtful whether the author seriously considered the implications of such a statement, contradicting, as it


\(^{64}\) M. Deutschbein, *System der neuenglischen Syntax*, pp. 67-95.

\(^{65}\) G. O. Curme, *Parts of Speech and Accidence*, p. 66.

\(^{66}\) Ibid., pp. 138-139.

\(^{67}\) G. O. Curme, *Syntax*, p. 231.


\(^{70}\) G. O. Curme, *Syntax*, p. 188.

\(^{71}\) Sweet, *op. cit.*, p. 83.


\(^{73}\) Ibid., p. 205.
does, all the historical tendencies in language development. Spelling pronunciations are comparatively rare phenomena.

Closely parallel to such mentalistic explanations are the pseudo-answers derived from phonetics, rhythm, generalizations about language structure, and even society. Jespersen\textsuperscript{74} states that the tongue trill \textit{r} fits outdoor life, but that the indoor life of recent years has tended to see a reduction of this in the direction of uvular trill. Lewis\textsuperscript{75} even contends that we say \textit{it is me} rather than \textit{it is I}, because the sounds in the word \textit{me} are easier to pronounce than the diphthong constituting the word \textit{I}. Van Draat\textsuperscript{76} constantly alleges the importance of rhythm in determining both the pattern of a construction and the order of words. For example, the construction with the article before the superlative is explained on the basis of rhythm.\textsuperscript{77} Likewise, according to van Draat,\textsuperscript{78} the place of the adverb in the sentence is largely determined by the rhythmic pattern; but the difficulty is that rhythm is employed to explain too many things. Particularly in the case of the position of adverbs, the variations he postulates for the rhythmic patterns are very extensive; thus no workable system is provided. One is immediately struck with the apparent lack of perfectly normal examples which would not fit into the rather loose system thus set up.

Explanations resting upon social phenomena (these are closely associated with the mentalistic attitude) are largely untenable. The statement of Leopold,\textsuperscript{79} “In England the early Middle English period was an age in which the conservative power of social regulation was weakened, a condition which led to a destruction of forms,” implies an erroneous view of the source of linguistic change. Certainly there is no well-established correlation between social upheavals and these types of linguistic modifications.

The problem of source materials offers one of the principal difficulties in the descriptive analysis of English. In the first place, there has been too much emphasis upon written sources. These sources represent only a limited range at best, and some features must necessarily be missed almost completely. Moreover, in using such written sources the method has not been to note everything systematically; rather, only those particular features which have struck the attention of the investigator have received attention. Accordingly, unusual patterns have been carefully analyzed, but the great framework of patterns into which these fit has been neglected. The result is often a conglomerate and unbalanced picture. In addition, these written sources have too often been restricted largely to literary materials, and poetry has figured rather too extensively in the quotations. Maetzner\textsuperscript{80} particularly fails in this. Curme\textsuperscript{81} has shown

\textsuperscript{74} Otto Jespersen, \textit{The Essentials of English Grammar}, p. 39.
\textsuperscript{76} P. Fijn van Draat, “The Article before Superlatives”, \textit{Neophilologus}, 5, 1 p. 348-351.
\textsuperscript{77} Loc. cit.
\textsuperscript{78} P. Fijn van Draat, “The Place of the Adverb”, \textit{Neophilologus}, 6, pp. 56-88.
\textsuperscript{79} W. F. Leopold, “Polarity in Language”, \textit{Curme Volume of Linguistic Studies (Language Monographs, No. 7)}, p. 104.
\textsuperscript{80} Maetzner, \textit{op. cit.}
\textsuperscript{81} Curme, \textit{op. cit.}
good judgment in making use of much newspaper material and purely colloquial expressions. Grammarians by and large have not been willing simply to use informants who are native speakers of English. A certain degree of authoritarian attitude still prevails in the selection of source materials. But one of the really serious errors in the choice of the literary sources is that an attempt is made to include too broad a sweep of material in a single descriptive account. The diversity of patterns between Shakespeare and the present day demands that these two periods be treated with historical perspective, if they are to be included within one treatise. That is to say, it must be a comparative study of two stages of the English language, based upon two descriptive accounts, one for each period. This is essentially the historical method. Maetzner, Poutsma, and Onions are particularly prone to choose illustrative materials from sources too greatly separated in time, and especially of illustrations from Shakespeare, which often have the additional fault of being poetically structured.

This special preoccupation with written sources is largely responsible for the letter linguistics which constantly seems to creep into grammars of English. Sweet, for example, says, "to prevent the ladies leaving us, where the purely orthographic alteration of ladies to ladies' would make leaving into a full gerund." This is an artificial way of describing a zero feature, for orthography cannot "make" anything into anything. The sounds are what count, and the orthography is secondary. Curme is particularly unscientific in his morphology based upon spelling. In trying to understand his statement that one drops the e in love before adding the past tense suffix, it is impossible to know just what is being described, for both synchronically and diachronically the statement is wrong. By and large, Kruisinga, Jespersen, and Palmer are freer from letter linguistics than others, though even Kruisinga is too much influenced by the apostrophe in analyzing the genitive plurals. This, of course, comes from too exclusive a consideration of written materials.

In the refining of techniques and the elaboration of methodology for descriptive analysis, Saussure, Sapir, and Bloomfield have made the leading contributions. Increased interest in non-Indo-European languages, for which historical and comparative data have been largely lacking, has been of the utmost importance in developing descriptive techniques and appreciation of the synchronic viewpoint. The work of the American linguists during recent years has been especially important in its contribution to the methodology of descriptive analysis.

By way of summary it may be said that in the field of English as such, the works of Maetzner, Poutsma, Kruisinga, and Jespersen are of major importance. Maetzner, though comparatively conservative, has fine lists, and has succeeded quite well in separating the strictly historical material from the more contemporary. Both Poutsma

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82 Maetzner, op. cit.
83 H. Poutsma, A Grammar of Late Modern English, 3 vols.
84 Onions, op. cit.
85 Sweet, op. cit., p. 121.
86 G. O. Curme, Parts of Speech and Accidence, pp. 112-128.
87 G. O. Curme, Syntax, p. 2421.
and Kruisinga attempt to be completely objective. Kruisinga, however, is more cognizant of phonetic factors. Jespersen has seen more clearly than others the significance of the larger patterns, though he does not always follow out the implications of his system.

Of those who have made other significant contributions to either the content or methodology of English grammar, Palmer, perhaps more than anyone else, has emphasized the significance of phonetics and word order. Buyssens, in a description of the place of never and ever, has admirably illustrated the method which should be followed for all such words in a comprehensive grammar. Both Heuer and Schulze have dealt with problems of word order and adverbial elements with keen appreciation of the descriptive approach. Alfred Krüger, in an analysis of the relative pronoun, has admirably illustrated the manner in which historically significant material may be presented, together with descriptive analyses without confusion of views, and Kalepky, sees clearly the fundamental structural difficulties in many grammatical studies. Fries, in his book *American English Grammar*, has made a significant contribution in: (1) the objectivity of the presentation; (2) the use for descriptive analysis of a comparatively new source of written materials which most closely approximates spoken English; and (3) the quantitative type of analysis, which has been almost overlooked by grammarians. One should also mention Ellinger, Kirchner, and Karpf, all of whom have made valuable additions to the understanding of particular problems.

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88 Palmer, *op. cit.*
89 E. Buyssens, "The Place of *Never* and *Ever* in Present-day English Prose", *English Studies*, 15, pp. 129-149.
95 For lists of works of J. Ellinger, G. Kirchner, and F. Karpf, see the Bibliography.
SUBJECT EXPRESSIONS IN INDEPENDENT TRANSITIVE CLAUSES

1 Major sentence types
1a Single clause frame
1a1 Independent exocentric patterns
1a1a Clauses as heads
1a1a1 Actor-action clause types
1a1a1a Transitive clause types
1a1a1a1 Subject expressions
1a1a1a1a Subject head
1a1a1a1a1 Order. This is stated under verb head, since the order is in terms of previously given constituents.

1a1a1a1a2 Selection
1a1a1a2a Frame
    a1 Single head
        The poor man came along.
        I helped him.

    a2 Multiple head

1 Corresponding to the clause patterns are the clause attributives, in keeping with the principle of analyzing first the head and then the attributives.
2 Except in imperative sentences (q.v. the section on minor sentence types), the subject expression may be omitted only with (1) a few formulalike expressions, and (2) in colloquial discourse. Note the following illustrative examples: Serves him right. Thank you. Here goes. Why trouble with it? Why confess our faults to everyone? Coming home tonight? Hope so. See you at ten o'clock. Glad to do it.
2a With single co-ordinators. These are and, or, but,\textsuperscript{3} and pause-pitch.\textsuperscript{4,5}

Jim, Tom, or Billy can do it.
The man and his wife will help.
The rabbit and the squirrel and the blue jay...

2b With double co-ordinators.\textsuperscript{6}

Either...or, neither...nor

Either John or Jack will be here in time.
Neither a book nor a pencil was to be had.

1a Constituents

1a1 Noun.\textsuperscript{8,9} Any "proper" or "common" noun.\textsuperscript{10}

James hit the man.
This soup hits the spot.

\textsuperscript{3} In the formula not only ... but also.
\textsuperscript{4} The pause-pitch, usually indicated orthographically by a comma, has several possible phonetic actualizations: hesitation, level intonation, lengthened mora value of the last syllabic, nonmedial phrase intonation juncture, etc.; any one of these, or combinations thereof, under certain situations give a phonemic pause-pitch. The final analysis of this problem requires a complete statement of the intonation patterns and transitions between them.
\textsuperscript{5} On the basis of immediate constituents there are three basic multiple-head patterns with bounded attributives: (1) the fine man and woman; (2) the fine man and lovely woman; (3) the fine man and the lovely woman. The illustrations in section 1a1a1a2a2a do not attempt to cover the range of possibilities.
\textsuperscript{6} The formula both ... and is probably best to be construed as both in attributive relationship, as in both the men, all the men, pattern.
\textsuperscript{7} By substantive is meant a class of words that pattern with determiners and bounded attributives, as distinguished from substitutes, which may have no bounded attributives.
\textsuperscript{8} Noun designates primarily a class of words with plural category formation, including, of course, certain words with arbitrarily formal restrictions. Hence the following words derived from adjectives, having plural formation and adjective attributives in bounded position, are completely nominalized. Some singulars have both abstract and concrete sememe values.

absolutes, aliens, Americans, Asiatics, Australians, barbarians, Belgians, bitters, captives, Catholics, ceremonialis., classics, clericals, clerics, conservatives, constituens, constitutionalis, consumptives, contemporaries, dears, deeps, degenerates, dependents, domesticis, ecclesiastics, epileptics, equals, familiars, finals, fanatics, fours, fundamentals, goods, greens, humans, iliterates, illustreadis, imbeciles, incendatials, incurables, inferiors, initials, innocents, insolvents, intellectuals, intermediates, intimates, irreconcilables, juveniles, liberals, longs, mercenaries, moderates, movables, nationals, natives, negatives, notables, neutrals, ones, Orientals, originals, others, particulars, posteriors, preliminaries, privates, progressives, Protestants, reactionaries, regulars, revolutionaries, Romans, shorts, specifics, sweets, threes, twos, unfortunates, universals, vitals, woolens.

\textsuperscript{9} Of course in such expressions as: the whens and the whys, the ups and downs, the ins and outs, the italicized words pattern as substantives regardless of the form-class background, and should be considered as completely nominalized.
\textsuperscript{10} For the classification of nouns on a functional basis with regard to determiner pattern, see Language, by Leonard Bloomfield, p. 205.
b1 Qualitatives. These are abstracts in the singular and personal in the plural. Some of the following illustrative words occur either in the singular or plural, some in both:

bad, beautiful, best, brave, cold, common, dark, dead, deaf, eternal, everlasting, evil, false, fanciful, flat, gentle, good, highest, ideal, idle, indestructible, inevitable, living, loveliest, miraculous, natural, new, old, open, ordinary, poor, possible, probable, sentimental, sick, supernatural, supreme, temporal, thick, true, unforeseen, useful, vanquished, worse, wrong

The beautiful and the good lead us always to higher accomplishments.
The deaf are sometimes fortunate in this modern world of cacophony.

b2 Limiting

few, many, little, most, several, own

The few that I purchased...
The several that I know...
My own is going to fail us.

1c 1st Verbals. These include any single 1st verbal and any 1st verbal phrase of the patterns 1, 3, 4, and 5.

The managing of the team
The racing at Johnstown
My being hit on the head
His giving this away meant everything.

1d 2d Verbals. These are personal in reference, singular or plural, but singular only with special contextual conditioning. This pattern is more or less limited, with definite rhetorical connotative value often attendant. The following examples are illustrative.

accused, bereaved, chosen, anointed, deceased, fallen, injured, ordained

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11 By adjective is meant that form-function class of words with comparative-superlative category formation, either by affixation or attribution by more or most, and a class which functions basically as attributive to nouns. English necessitates many such composite form-function definitions.
12 Specialized contexts make possible considerable extensions of this usage. This pattern often involves extensive rhetorical and stylistic connotation.
13 In the superlative almost any adjective can occur with personal plural reference.
14 By 1st verbal is meant any verbal formed by the -ing suffix.
15 See section 1a2e, page 158, for listing of verbal phrase patterns.
16 This so-called gerund as a substantive with determiner pattern may not have attributives regularly associated with the verb when the and a determiners occur, except rarely in the case of third type attributives, e.g. The constant walking rapidly back and forth ...
17 By 2d verbal is meant the form commonly called perfect passive participle.
SUBJECT EXPRESSIONS IN INDEPENDENT TRANSITIVE CLAUSES

The accused answered the questions quickly.
The injured always have recourse to justice.

Substitutes

Personal-definite

I, you, he, she, it, we, they

I

Class meaning. Singular "substantive" expression.

Substitution type. Speaker and actor identical.

You

Class meaning. Singular or plural "substantive" expression.

Substitution type. Hearer or hearers.

He

Class meaning. Singular, personal, masculine, with the following additional classes.

Personifications of:

phantom, ghost, spirit, providence, sun, time, day, fear, anger, despair, war, murder, death, hunger, power

Fauna. All animals and birds may be personalized. He is generally used when such animals or birds have special sex-distinctive names, such as:

ram, bull, buck, cock, stallion, drake, gander, etc.

When fish or insects have personal substitutes, the choice is often indiscriminate.

Flora. The following flowers are commonly personalized with he substitute (some other flowers may be so personalized, but the feminine is more commonly chosen):

pansy, johnny-jump-up, monkey-flower

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18 As the second member in a double subject-head expression a form compounded with -self may occur, particularly in colloquial usage. Note the following examples: Only Jim and myself can do that; The Thomases and ourselves went out there together.

19 Substantive is here used in the common general sense, and not in the specialized usage normally employed in this outline.

20 Such personification is optional, but as between he or she, the substitute he is more likely with these words.
SUBJECT EXPRESSIONS IN INDEPENDENT TRANSITIVE CLAUSES

3b Substitution type. Anaphoric and definite identification.

a4 She

4a Class meaning. Singular, personal, feminine, with the following optionally personalized classes:

a1 Institutions
church, school, university, state, nation, etc.

a2 Countries
The United States, Great Britain, France, etc.

a3 Ships
The President Harding, the Queen Mary, the Mariposa, etc.

a4 Fauna. All animals and birds may be personalized. She is generally used when such animals or birds have special sex-distinctive names, as in the following words:

ewe, cow, doe, hen, mare, filly, duck, goose, etc.

When fish or insects have personal substitutes the choice is often indiscriminate.

a5 Flora. The following flowers are commonly personalized with she substitute:

rose, dahlia, narcissus, lotus

a6 Objects of affectionate or sentimental attachment or interest.
car, gun, machine, boat, watch, house, business, invention, etc.

a7 Personification of the following abstracts:
ambition, arts and sciences, beauty, charity, chastity, faith, fame, fancy, fashion, fortune, flattery, glory, harmony, ignorance, imagination, inspiration, jealousy, liberty, luxury, magic, melancholy, mercy, modesty, music, passion, pestilence, pity, plenty, prosperity, reason, religion, revenge, theology, truth, vanity, victory, virtue, wisdom

4b Substitution type. Anaphoric and definite identification.

a5 It

5a Class meaning. Singular and impersonal.

21 The words duck and goose in contrast to drake and gander are gradually losing their distinctiveness.

22 Not all the words listed are always substituted for by she when personified.
5b *Substitution type.* Anaphoric generally. With the following classes of antecedents:

b1 *Singular referents mentioned in discourse in previous sentences or circumstantially evident.*

b2 *Referents occurring within the same linguistic utterance.*

2a *Singular or plural, personal or impersonal equated attributives.*

It was my brother. It was those men again.
It is do or die. Who was it?

It was my lesson that I was worrying about.

2b *Clauses marked by conjunction, including zero.* These clauses are normally final in the independent clause, and occur with all clause types. The following are illustrative:

It was a shame that he left.
It seemed to me that he got away much too fast.
It is necessary that he try it.
It is uncertain when they will arrive.
It has been a long time since he came.
It's too bad he got sick.
It gives me a pain in the neck that he keeps doing that sort of thing.
It was a problem whether or not he deserved that.
It does bother me who wins this.
It is no worry of mine what he wants.

2c *Dependent-form clauses.*

It irks me you trying to get in at this time.

2d *Prepositional phrase with clause as second constituent.*

It makes me mad for there to be so much trouble just getting in to see him.

2e *Marked infinitives.*

It was a pity to get by with that.
It didn't give him any pleasure to hurt that fellow.

---

23 It is generally anaphoric except for such usage as: *beat it, cheese it, can it,* etc.
24 See pp. 66 ff. for classification of clause types.
25 In these clauses one must recognize the overlapping of patterns with nouns and adjectives having dependent postposed clauses. See pp. 95 ff. and pp. 134 ff.
26 See pp. 154 ff. for analysis of dependent-form clauses.
27 See pp. 161 ff. for analysis of dependent-form clauses as second constituent in prepositional phrase.
2f 1st verbals.

It is no fun going into town every night.
It didn't help him any fishing that far out.
It isn't good pressing it too much.

a6 We

6a Class meaning. Plural\(^{28}\) "substantive" expression.

6b Substitution type. Includes the speaker among actors.

a7 They

7a Class meaning. Plural\(^{29}\) "substantive" expression.

7b Substitution type. Anaphoric and definite, with the exception of the usage, They say he is well. Here the subject is indefinite and nonidentified.

lalalalal2b2b Limiting Substitutes\(^{30}\)

b1 Definite. Singular-plural.\(^{31}\)

this/these, that/those

b2 Indefinite

2a Singular

anybody, anything, anyone, somebody, something, someone, everybody, everything, everyone, nobody, nothing, no one, another, one, less

2b Plural

several, both, few, two, three, four, etc.

2c Singular or plural

any, each, certain,\(^{32}\) enough, all, such, more, most, some, neither, either, none

lalalalal2b2c Relative-interrogative

\(^{25}\) The editorial we of course has a singular antecedent.

\(^{29}\) This is based on natural and not necessarily grammatical plurality, for they may substitute anaphorically for: (1) any group noun, such as party, group, army, etc., and (2) expression with plural referent value such as: everyone, each, nobody, none, everybody, everything, no one, etc.

\(^{30}\) It is impossible in an analysis of this length to go into all the complicated details of class meaning and substitution types for these substitutes.

\(^{31}\) The plural reference value is the same as for they.

\(^{32}\) Certain is often found with postposed attributives such as: of it, of them, etc., in which case it may be singular with some postposed attributives.
c1 **Personal**

who, whoever, whosoever

c2 **Impersonal**

which, whichever, whosoever, what, whatever, whatsoever, when, how, where

**Possessive-personal-definites**

mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, theirs. John’s the King of England’s, whose, whosoever, whosesoever

The class meaning of these forms includes that of the underlying form, plus the fact that these may substitute for either singular or plural antecedents.

**Clauses**

**Marked by conjunctive marker, not including zero.** These clauses may be introduced by the following words:

who, whoever, whosoever, whatever, whatsoever, which, whichever, whichsoever, that, whether, why, whose, whosoever, whosesoever, because, where, when, how, however, since

That he is honest is not doubted by anyone.
Whether we like it or not isn’t the question.
Why he came is a mystery to me.
Because he was rich was no reason to fawn before him.
How he expected to get by stumps me.
Whatever you want is yours.
Whoever comes will be sorry.
Whatsoever he wanted was given to him.

**Clauses unmarked by conjunction.**

Bill’s marrying that girl didn’t make it easier.

---

22 This dichotomy between personal and impersonal does not necessarily parallel that between he-she as contrasted with it. *Who* does not substitute for countries, institutions, ships, personifications of abstract qualities, animals, birds, flowers, etc., as in the case of *she*, nor with the additional classes noted with *he*.

24 These words may substitute for substantives of time, place, and manner, and may have as attributives some patterns similar to those occurring with other substitutes.

25 The forms with possessive *s* pattern as substitutes and not as regular substantives. The constituents are not *the* and *boy’s* in expression *the boy’s*, but rather *the boy* and *’s*. This is evidenced by such phrase compounds as, *the King of England’s*.

26 These forms may also be classed in the preceding section in view of their relative usage.

27 See pp. 151 ff. for analysis of marked clause patterns.

28 See pp. 154 ff. for analysis of unmarked dependent clause patterns.
Their problems' being handled makes it easier now to go ahead with the other deal. John's and Kit's walking in at two a.m. doesn't seem to worry them. Twenty men rescued in one day is quite a record for the Coast Patrol.

1a1a1a2b4 *1st verbals.* Single and phrase patterns 1, 3, 4, and 5 of any type verb.³⁹

- Running that show is no fun.
- Being kicked in the teeth was tragic.
- Having run him down proved fatal.
- Having been wounded before proved fatal.
- Having been trying is no excuse.

1a1a1a2b5 *Marked infinitives.*⁴⁰ Any single infinitive or phrase pattern.⁴¹

- To seek the good should be man's aim.⁴²
- To be entrusted with that is no small honor.
- To have been in the fighting forces merits real reward.
- Doesn't to be trying that again and again irk you?

1a1a1a2b6 *Prepositional phrases*

6a *With dependent-form clause as second constituent.*⁴³

For him to try that is incredible.

For a man to have done that much strikes me as tremendously worth while.

6b *Without clause as second constituent.*⁴⁴

From Philadelphia to New York makes it too far for many.

Between five and ten struck him.

1a1a1a3 *Modulation*

3a *With substantives.* The substantive normally contains the actualized or suppressed peak or “peg” of the intonation pattern for the subject expression, except

³⁹ These so-called gerunds without determiners may have as attributives any of the types listed for each type of verb. To avoid duplication these are not listed under attributives to subject head, for they are listed under attributives to the verb heads in the analysis of predicate expressions. For a listing of verb phrase patterns see pp. 156-158.

⁴⁰ By marked infinitive is meant any infinitive occurring with the marker to.

⁴¹ See pp. 158 ff. for analysis of infinitive phrase patterns.

⁴² In the analysis of subject expressions, even though under the general heading of transitive sentence type, illustrations are not restricted to transitive predicate types, for the subject expression with slight variations is the same for all clause types. In subsequent sections reference is made to this section as illustrative for subject expressions in general.

⁴³ See pp. 161 ff. for this pattern.

⁴⁴ This is a very rare pattern and occurs in these formulae almost exclusively. Such expressions can, of course, be interpreted as attributive to a zero (elliptical) head word, e.g. the distance from ... to ..., or between five and ten men ..., but such analyses are unnecessary.
where quality expressions as grammatical heads are followed by "substance" expressions in a postposed prepositional phrase. Here the intonation peak occurs on the second constituent of the prepositional phrase. Note the following phrases:

a cake of soap, a bar of candy, a pound of cheese, a piece of cake, etc.

3b With substitutes. The substitute one may occur atonic as subject, and it with antecedent occurring final within the clause, except the equated type, normally occurs atonic. The personal-definite substitutes in inverted order of interrogative type often occur atonic; this is particularly true of you, in which sandhi palatalization normally occurs, e.g. did you is [dijə].

3c With clauses. These tend to preserve their own intonation pattern, and to be set off by distinctive intonation junctures.

lalalab1 Attributes to subject head.
lalala1a Postdeterminer
lalalalbla Primary. These are attributive directly to the head.

1a Order. These immediately precede the subject head, with the exception of enough and galore, which are of the same type of attribution as primary attributives (in contrast to postposed attributives), even though they occur in postposed position.

1b Selection
b1 Frame

1a Single attribution
the good man, the poor woman

1b Multiple attribution

b1 Co-ordinate.\(^47\) Occurs with single co-ordinators and, or, but, "pause-pitch", or combinations of these,\(^48\) or with double co-ordinators either...or, neither...nor, both...and.

a small, insignificant, and awkward specimen, a lovely and gracious personality, a poor but happy man, an either funny or desperate attitude, a neither becoming nor pleasant person

\(^45\) These attributives occur only with substantives.
\(^46\) By "postdeterminer" is meant an attributive occurring between the determiner and the subject head.
\(^47\) "Co-ordinate" indicates that each attributive modifies the head equally.
\(^48\) Though co-ordinate in form, the meaning is sometimes not co-ordinate, e.g. nice and strong, good and warm, He wasn't just bad; he was good and bad.
b2 Nonco-ordinate or accumulative

the old red schoolhouse, a pretty young woman, the poor little old man, the small gold ring, a tall dark man, the University Chemistry Club, the California State Commerce Commission

2a Constituents

2a Adjectives

a1 Conditioners. Occurrence of nouns, nominalized adjectives, 1st or 2d verbals as substantive subject head expressions.

a2 Constituents

2a Any qualitative type adjective. The following list is illustrative:

active, angry, artistic, awkward, bad, brilliant, busy, careful, clever, cloudy, common, considerable, convenient, curious, daily, dependent, dirty, easy, energetic, English, evident, expressive, gigantic, free, French, funny, glorious, good, handsome, handy, helpless, hopeful, hungry, immune, imperfect, large, legal, likely, lovely, manly, natural, nervous, northern, obvious, painful, polite, possible, pretty, probably, quarrelsome, rainy, readable, reddish, relative, reliable, remarkable, sensible, severe, silent, simple, small, southern, stormy, unkind, unsafe, unwise, useful, white, whitish, wholesome, windy, wooden, woolen, yellow

the good pie, the rich bachelor, the fine young servant, the holy anointed

also any adjective phrase compound, as in the following examples:

a peace-at-any-price policy, a devil-may-care attitude, a give-and-take affair, a go-ahead signal, an up-to-the-minute place, a tell-tale face, a pinch-penny scandal, a would-be writer, a pay-as-you-enter service

2b The following limitation adjectives. In multiple patterns together with qualitative adjectives, they precede the qualitative type.

many, most, less, such, certain, much, very, few, little, other, several, former,

49 In this pattern each attributive modifies the head together with any other attributive standing between it and the head. Hence in poor little old man the immediate constituents are poor and little old man, and likewise for little old man the immediate constituents are little and old man. An altering of the relative order gives a considerably modified impression. Compare poor little old man with little old poor man or old poor little man. The relative order of such attribution, as based upon the concept of essentiality to the head, is both complicated and arbitrary.

50 Less is regularly limited in occurrence to mass nouns in singular form, as in less hay, less work, less milk, etc. It may rarely occur in such expressions as the less pains, less means, less signs of culture.

51 Much is limited in attribution to mass nouns, generally to the occurrence of too as an attributive. Its occurrence with plural substantive heads is rare.
last, latter, same, more, cardinal numbers one, two, three, four, etc., and ordinal numerals first, second, third, fourth, etc.

the many people, the most fun, many such folks, this certain fellow, these very people, the first person, this same one, a little money

2b Nouns

b1 Conditioners. Occurrence of nouns or 1st verbals as substantive subject head.

b2 Constituents

2a Nouns in singular form. An almost unlimited pattern which may occur in either co-ordinate or nonco-ordinate relationship and together with adjectives. The more usual pattern places adjectives before noun attributives in nonco-ordinate patterns. The following are illustrative examples:

the Shaw plays, a Roosevelt backer, a steel weld, a Boston Tea Party, his household management, the corner grocery, his silk hat, brilliant and silver sheen, intimate and bosom friends, local and county boards, pulpit and parliamentary orator, state and national economy, business and professional life, steel elevated tracks, California flowering pomegranate

2b Nouns in plural form. This pattern is limited, though growing in use. The following are illustrative:

customs official, honors man, parcels delivery, United States Government, Contagious Diseases Act, Industrial Works Institute, sports page, The Seven Years War, the Plains Tribes, the arms budget, the Rules Committee

2c Nouns with so-called genitive -s suffix. This suffix is an immediate constituent with the noun only and not the phrase with determiner as in the case of the “possessive” genitive. See note 35, page 73, and compare that pattern with such an expression as a children’s language. The pattern for the possessive type would have to be the children’s language. The following examples are illustrative of this “descriptive” genitive.

a children’s language, a woman’s college, a man’s shoe, a ladies’ knit glove, a stone’s throw, a drinker’s heart, a men’s affair, a mother’s heart, her men’s attire, a loud visitor’s knock, a people’s man, a men’s party

Expressions such as a hundred, a thousand, a few function in the same way as these limiting adjectives.

Since the genitive -s with plurals in -s occurs as a zero alternative, there may be some doubt at times as to the proper classification of some examples.

The only basic criterion for distinguishing between these expressions and such compounds as lady’s man, printer’s error, master’s degree is that of inseparability and a tendency to unifying stress in these compound types. The line of demarcation, however, is difficult and sometimes impossible to draw.
Adverbs

Conditioners. Occurrence of nouns, adjectives, and 2d verbals as substantive subject heads.\(^{55}\)

c2 Constituents

2a With noun substantive subject head. This is a strictly limited pattern with a certain few adverbs, as in the following illustrative examples:

his often trials, a soon winner, an almost impossibility, an almost god, the once generalissimo, a seldom pleasure, the above statement, his off day, the then duke, the inside passenger, an outside job, the far side

2b With adjective substantive subject head. The same selection of attribution is possible here as with adverbial secondary attributives to adjectives.\(^{56}\)

Note the following illustrative types:

the extremely natural, the very old, the eternally possible, the absolutely false, the awfully ordinary, the practically inevitable

2c With 2d verbal substantive subject head. The same selection of attribution is possible here as with adverbial secondary attributives to adjectives.\(^{57}\)

the recently bereaved, the fully anointed, the badly injured, the completely sanctified

1st verbals\(^{58}\)

d1 Conditioners. Occurrence of nouns and 1st verbals as substantive subject heads.

d2 Constituents. Single 1st verbal of any type verb.\(^{59}\)

Note the following illustrative types:

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\(^{55}\) See note 39, page 74 for statement of treatment of attributives to 1st verbals.

\(^{56}\) See pp. 80 ff.

\(^{57}\) See note 56.

\(^{58}\) These 1st verbals may be distinguished from the completely adjectivized forms in -ing, in that the first verbals may not have as attributives such adverbs as very, so, more, most, too, etc.; these first verbals state a process, the adjectives a quality. Contrast a striking hat with a striking force, or some shocking news with a shocking machine. The following words with -ing formative regularly occur as completely adjectivized: amazing, amusing, becoming, blushing, captivating, charming, cheering, comforting, confusing, convincing, deafening, deserving, discouraging, embarrassing, encouraging, exciting, flattering, fleeting, flourishing, forgiving, grasping, grudging, interesting, inviting, lastingly, loving, maddening, mischievous, obliging, pleasing, poking, promising, provoking, puzzling, refreshing, satisfying, shocking, stimulating, striking, surprising, tempting, terrifying, thrilling, willing, winning.

\(^{59}\) These patterns must be distinguished from compounds of the following type, with principal stress on the first constituent: boardinghouse, brewing tub, carving knife, cooking apples, dancing partner, dining table, drawing table, dressing room, drinking cups, fainting fits, fishing rod, fishing tackle, growing pains, housing conditions, hunting trophy, ironing board, kindling wood, laughing-stock,
a floating stick, a revolving platform, a singing lark, a raving maniac, running water, the attacking party, a sinking boat, the coming events, the existing danger, the presiding officer, the remaining number, the surrounding walls, the falling snow, the retreating soldiers, the following example, an investigating committee, an adjusting commission

2e 2d verbals.\(^{60,61}\)

\(\text{e1 Conditioners. With a substantive subject head.}\)

\(\text{e2 Constituents. The following phrases are illustrative:}\)

a paid bill, an acquired reputation, a conquered town, the captured troops, the collected manuscripts, the armed forces, a reserved section, a trained filly, a cut portion, the surrounded troops, the imprisoned captives, the shackled men, the beaten contestant, a written apology, the shattered glass, a burst main, an exploded cartridge, the inked drawing, some deposited cash, a printed article, a drawn sword

2f Marked infinitives. These occur only with patterns 3 and 5, which have the 2d verbals as the final constituent.

\(\text{f1 Conditioners. The infinitive occurs with not as an attributive.}\)

\(\text{f2 Constituents. Any verbs admitting infinitive patterns 3 and 5.}\(^{62}\)

a not-to-be-forgotten scene,\(^{63}\) a not-to-be-enjoyed opportunity, a not-to-be-handled vase

la1a1a1b1a1c Modulation. The primary attributive is ordinarily in "pre-peak position" to the subject head. One special modulatory pattern involving primary

\(\text{meetinghouse, riding stables, shaving kit, shooting fray, singing lessons, sinking funds, sleeping car,}\)
\(\text{sleeping draught, spinning wheel, swimming match, touring car, visiting day, waiting room, walking}\)
\(\text{stick, writing desk.}\)

\(\text{60 Special forms occur for certain verbs: drunken, shrunken, sunken, graven, laden, shaven, molten,}\)
\(\text{swollen. These, however, usually occur as completely adjectivized (see footnote 61).}\)

\(\text{61 As in the 1st verbals, distinction must be made between genuine 2d verbals and those which have}\)
\(\text{been completely adjectivized in function. Compare an accomplished person with an accomplished task.}\)
\(\text{The adjectives state a quality of the substance, while the verbal states the result of a process. The}\)
\(\text{following words of 2d verbal formation regularly occur as completely adjectivized: agitated, altered,}\)
\(\text{amazed, ashamed, astonished, bored, celebrated, civilized, complicated, confused, contented, crowded,}\)
\(\text{decided, delighted, depressed, determined, devoted, disappointed, discontented, disgusted, distinguished,}\)
\(\text{embarrassed, enlightened, excited, exhausted, experienced, faded, flattered, flushed, frightened, griefed,}\)
\(\text{guarded, harassed, hurried, interested, mystified, neglected, noted, offended, pleased, puzzled, qualified,}\)
\(\text{reserved, terrified, tired, unclassified, uncooked, uncovered, undamaged, upset, worried.}\)

\(\text{62 See pp. 157 ff. for analysis of infinitive patterns.}\)

\(\text{63 Such patterns may be treated synthetically as adjective compounds, but these do not have (1)}\)
\(\text{unifying stress, (2) the same distribution (as determined by attributives) as do other adjective phrase}\)
\(\text{compounds, and (3) compound "structure" in postposed position.}\)
attributives should be noted. Certain multisyllable primary attributives accented on the final syllable in absolute or postverb position may be accented on a nonfinal syllable when immediately preceding a subject head accented on a first syllable. This pattern is almost always maintained in the writer's speech. In the following words the primary attributives immediately preposed to a subject head with initial stress have the stress on the first syllable.


Contrast the following:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{a Chinese bánk} & \quad \text{a Chinese invásion}^{44} \\
\text{a déad-drunk sót} & \quad \text{He was dead-drúnk.} \\
\text{the fourteene bóys} & \quad \text{He was fourtéen.}
\end{align*}
\]

1a1a1b1a2 Secondary attributives. These are attributive to the primary attributives.

2a Order. The secondary attributives immediately precede primary attributives, with the exception of enough, which follows.

2b Selection

b1 Frame. Secondary attributives may be single or multiple, although multiple patterns are not frequent. If multiple, the constituents are co-ordinate and occur with co-ordinators.

a very fine dress, an almost white dress, an unfaillingly and poignantly interesting work, a neither strikingly nor amazingly new design

b2 Constituents

2a Adverbs

a1 Occurrence of any adjective, noun, 1st verbal, or 2d verbal as primary attributives.

a2 For types of adverbs attributive to adjectives see list on p. 132. 1st and 2d verbals may have as adverbial attributives any adverb normally permitted as 3d attributive to the verb of the same class. The following phrases are illustrative:

a very cold night, a properly conducted affair, an amazingly small number, a poor

^{44} Before subject heads with initial unstressed syllable the choice of accentual forms varies.
enough garment, a faultlessly dressed man, the minutely lettered names, a highly principled person, a recently published article, a newly pacified region, an absolutely master hand, a completely granite base, a rapidly turning structure, an exceedingly interesting book

2b Adjectives

b1 Conditioners

1a With adjectives as primary attributives. This is a comparatively limited pattern, and such adjective forms may be considered rather as alternate adverbial forms, adverbialized by zero (rather than by -ly). Certainly it would seem that the words pretty, mighty, and real, used as expressions of degree and attributive to adjectives, should be so classified.

a pretty good statement, a mighty nice idea, a real fancy dress

1b With nouns as primary attributives. The following examples are illustrative of the various types:

a long distance call, the black silk coverings, a mutual admiration society, a pale ale house, a private school boy, a rough sea boat, the sweet Madonna appearance, the old bachelor lodgings

b2 Constituents. The adjectives for the first class (i.e. attributives to other adjectives) are strictly limited, as noted, but for the second class with noun primary attributives the range of possibilities is as broad as primary adjective attribution, though the actual frequency of occurrence is restricted, owing to the limitations of primary attributives.

2c 2d verbals

c1 Conditioners. These occur with noun primary attributives.

c2 Constituents. Any class of single 2d verbal, but the pattern itself is comparatively rare.

the bottled beer works, the rolled steel plant, a chipped stone wall

2d Nouns

d1 Conditioners. Occurrence of noun as primary attributive.

d2 Constituents. Any type of singular noun, though, as will be noted from examples, proper nouns occur with high frequency in this pattern, which appears to be increasingly productive.

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*66 This pattern is comparatively rare, but note these additional illustrative examples: a purely family affair, a strictly ballad form, the exclusively California fruits, a distinctly Church of England institution.*
the China Relief Association, the Mojave Basin Commission, The Fairmount Park Commission, the Tennessee Valley Authority, a quartz granite monument, a granite rock jetty

2e 1st verbals

e1 Conditioners. Occurrence of a noun primary attributive.

e2 Constituents. Any class of 1st verbal attributive to noun head.

a running water drain, the investigating committee report, a coming events notice, the floating gardens excursion, a singing lark motif, an attacking party encounter

2f Prepositional phrase

f1 Conditioners. Occurrence of noun or adjective primary attributive.

f2 Constituents. These are restricted to certain prepositional phrases which may occur in bounded position. The following are illustrative:

a by no means pleasant look, an at all events Midwest attitude, an at first sight despicable condition, an in those days enormous expenditure

1lalal1bla3 Tertiary attributives. These are attributive to the immediately following secondary attributives.

3a Order. The tertiary attributives immediately precede secondary attributives.

3b Selection

b1 Adverbs

1a Conditioners. Occurrence of adverbs, adjectives, 1st and 2d verbals as secondary attributives.

1b Constituents. These are limited primarily to adverbs of degree.

a very properly conducted affair, an exceedingly minutely lettered form, a rather recently published article, a long ago demolished edifice, an almost purely family affair, some quite amazingly beautiful pictures, a finely chipped stone wall

b2 Adjectives

66 The fact that such "bounded" prepositional phrases are often written with hyphens does not alter the fact that they have the same distribution as secondary attributives.

67 Attribution of more than tertiary rank may occur, but examples are rare. Note, however, such an expression as a certainly not very cleverly worded statement. Potentially there is no limit to the ranking. Actually, however, more than tertiary attribution is rarely found, but the same method of analysis may be used regardless of the extension of attribution.

68 This pattern most often occurs with adverbs attributive to 2d verbals.
2a **Conditioners.** Occurrence of noun as secondary attributive.

2b **Constituents.** An infrequent pattern.

- a crystalline quartz granite monument
- the West Virginia Coal Commission

b3 2d *verbals*

3a **Conditioners.** With noun as secondary attributive.

3b **Constituents.** Potentially any 2d verbal, but this type of construction is rare.

- the unoccupied China Relief Commission

b4 **Nouns**

4a **Conditioners.** With noun as secondary attributive.

4b **Constituents.** Largely limited to proper nouns (see statement as to noun secondary attributives on page 81).

- the McCormick Tractor Distribution Agency
- a Sperry Flour Inspection Laboratory

1a1a1b1b **Determiners**

b1 **Order.** Determiners precede attributives of section 1a1a1a1b1a, called "postdeterminer attributives".

b2 **Selection**

2a **Conditioners.** The occurrence or nonoccurrence of determiners is determined by the class of the substantive head.70

a1 **With determiners**

1a **Common nouns.** These are "conceived of" as occurring in more than one specimen, hence countable. In the plural, a determiner is required for the definite category but is optional for the indefinite category.

a1 **Bounded.** These require determiners in definite and indefinite singular, with class meaning of objects "conceived of" as not capable of being subdivided or merged.

- teacher, student, thing, man, woman, mouse, horse, lion, cow, church, house, sea, ocean, hill, mountain, lake, river, cloud, wagon, car, etc.

69 For the patterns listed under this heading and that of the following two classes with 2d verbals and nouns, there may be several potentially different relationships of attribution. To find completely unambiguous illustrations of these patterns is difficult.

70 See Bloomfield, *Language*, p. 205, for the basis of the following outline.
the teacher : a teacher  
the teachers : teachers

a2 Unbounded. Determiners are required for the definite category only. The class meaning is of species of objects “conceived of” as so occurring that the specimens can be subdivided or merged.

2a Mass nouns. With the meaning of mass, these have no plural and never take a. The class meaning is the same as noted above, except that the specimens exist independently.

wheat, hair, oats, sand, water, air, iron, steel, gas, tea, coffee, lamb, mutton, beef, fish, flax, soap, fuel, coal, oil, steam, naphtha, bread, blood, etc.

the water : water  
the gas : gas

2b Abstract nouns. Definite or indefinite determiners may occur in the singular or plural. Without a determiner and in the singular all specimens are “conceived of” as included. With a determiner and in the singular or with or without a determiner and in the plural specimens are “conceived of” as separate. The class meaning is the same as for mass nouns, except that the specimens are “conceived of” as existing only as a demeanor (quality, action, relation) of other objects.

truth, beauty, loneliness, peace, goodness, manhood, freedom, bondage, friendship, joy, music, art, science, hate, error, order, righteousness, knowledge, industry, etc.

truth : the truth : the truths : a truth : truths  
error : the error : the errors : an error : errors

1b Proper nouns. The class meaning is of objects occurring in only one specimen. The indefinite article may occur in actual or potential homonymity, but usually there is no article, definite or indefinite. The definite article is employed, however, with the following words (a class which is arbitrarily determined):

Aegean, Alleghanies, Andes, Argentine, Atlantic, Balkans, Baltic, Bahamas, Bosphorus, Cameroons, Colorado, Congo, Crimea, Danube, Euphrates, Euxine, Galapogos Islands, Ganges, Hague, Hellespont, Himalayas, Levant, Mauretania (name of ship), Mediterranean, Mississippi, New Hebrides, Nile, Ozarks, Pacific, Palatinate, Peloponnesus, Pleiades, Philippine Islands, Pyrenees, Queen Mary (name of ship), Rockies, Sierra Nevadas, Smokies, Sudan, Tyrol, Ukraine, United States, West Indies

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71 This applies to such expressions as: a certain John T. Smith, a Shakespeare, a Tim Fisher, etc.
72 All names of rivers occur with determiners.
73 All names of ships occur with determiners.
Without determiners

2a Proper nouns. Class of words "conceived of" as containing only one specimen in the referrent.

John, Jack, Chicago, Pittsburgh, California, father, mother, Vesuvius, Plymouth Rock, Manhattan, Mexico, Europe, Asia, etc.

2b Common nouns. Without determiners the meaning is indefinite.

b1 Bounded. These may occur without a determiner in the plural.

b2 Unbounded.

2a Mass nouns may occur without determiner and never employ a.

2b Abstract nouns. In the singular indefinite without determiner these are "conceived of" as including all specimens. They may occur without determiner in the plural.

Constituents

b1 Definite determiners

1a With singular concordance to subject head

this : that

1b With plural concordance to subject head

these : those

1c With singular and plural subject heads the, my, your, his, her, our, their, and expressions ending in the so-called "possessive -s" morpheme.

74 In an expression such as the impudent little Jack Smith, it is theoretically implied that Jack could be other than impudent, and thus theoretically may occur as more than one specimen, and hence be classed with common nouns. The same type of analysis may be applied to examples cited under note 71.

75 Under contextually conditioned circumstances in which the substantive expression is completely identified, the determiner need not be employed. In such contexts only one possible referent can be implied. These involve such expressions as when one is talking of one's own father or mother, relative, etc., e.g., Mother called me, or in such an expression as, Breakfast will be served at eight.

76 It is possible to analyze this lack of determination as a zero indefinite determiner. This would in many ways simplify the structural statement.

77 The words these and those may agree with singular substantive heads kind and sort, provided such words are followed by postposed prepositional phrases containing plurals as second constituent heads. Note such expressions as: These kind of men, those sort of things, etc.

78 See page 73, note 35, for analysis of the morphological statement of this pattern in which the bound form -s is the second immediate constituent. Since the form of this pattern involves a bound form as an immediate constituent, the analysis of the pattern may be said to belong properly to a section on morphology. The various types are, however, listed here. The first constituent may be any substantive subject head pattern with somewhat limited choice of postposed attributives. Certain
my boy's injuries, Bill's and Helen's affair, my mother's and father's place, whose book, everybody's interests, its base, a mortal's power, my boss's son's wife, the man in the street's argument

1. Indefinite determiners

2a. With singular concordance to subject head.
   a, another, one, each, either, neither, every

2b. With plural concordance to subject head.
   two, three, four, a thousand

2c. With singular or plural concordance to subject head.
   what, whatever, whatsoever, which, whichever, whichsoever, any, some, no, none

3. Modulation. Many determiners are often atonic, and except in the case of emphatic or contrastive stress do not constitute the intonational peak of the subject head expression. When several words intervene between the determiner and the subject head, the expression is usually broken into two intonational phrases. The following determiners are often atonic.
   my, our, your, his, her, its, their, the, a

4. Phonetic change

4a. A occurs before words beginning with a consonant phoneme, and an before words beginning with a vowel phoneme.

4b. The word some occurs in an alternate atonic form [sə] in fast speech and before a word beginning with m. The reduced form is quite regular in the sequence some more.

Substitutes may also occur with this formation, particularly those compounded with -one, -body, and -thing. Likewise, depending upon one's analysis, his may be considered as patterning here. The -s may occur with each or the last of any multiple substantive subject head expression. Such included series as my wife's cousin's uncle's funeral, involving three or more such possessive forms, are usually avoided.

Such determiners as well as this and that may occur with plural expressions of measurement of time and space. Note the following: This five miles was awfully long. Each three minutes seems like an age.

Every may be a determiner for a plural head in such an expression as every few days.

These include all numerals and numeral phrases. A few patterns in the same class as a thousand.

None is a determiner for only the word other.

No attempt is made here to list all the special phonetic variants which occur for the different determiners under special intonational and phonetic conditions. Only these two illustrative examples are cited.
Subject Expressions in Independent Transitive Clauses

Predeterminer attributives

1. Order. These immediately precede determiners.

2. Selection

b1 Attributes to the head, including its postdeterminer and determiner attributives.

Such, many, what, both, all, nearly, almost, about, hardly, half, only, twice, not, solely, simply, merely, just, particularly, especially, even, also, exactly, precisely, at least

Such a man, both the people, nearly a pint, only my father, just these two, especially these men, even a cup, at least this bucketful, not a man

b2 Attributes to postdeterminer attributives. The following type of adverbs and prepositional phrases:

Hardly, rather, much, by all means, at this, quite

Quite a large house, hardly the best thing, much the finest person, by all means the best arrangement

b3 Attributes to the substantive expression including everything from the determiner to the head word.

3a Conditioners. These attributives must have in turn the attributives so, too, as, how, however, and no.

3b Constituents. Any adjective which may potentially occur as a primary attributive.

So little a place, too big a job, too joyous an occasion, so fancy a garment, how fine a piece, no less a man, no finer a person, however good a proposition, too insignificant a little place

The term primary is used only to indicate the series of words juxtaposed to the determiner, and is not co-ordinate with postdeterminer primary attribution.

These words occur only when the subject head has a as determiner: such a, many a, what a.

Both occurs only with plural subject head.

These words are limited to substantive expressions of quantity: almost a year, nearly a month, about a pound.

Half may pattern here together with twice, about, all, etc., but may also be considered as patterning like one-third, in one-third the folks did it. The lack of a preposition is not uncommon. The second substantive expression is simply considered a postposed attributive.

In this type of phrase quite is attributive to large, hardly to best, etc.

See page 75 for analysis of normal cumulative type of attribution.

It should be noted that the two patterns, a too officious reply and too officious a reply sometimes merge to produce a too officious a reply with double use of determiner a.
SECONDARY. These are attributive to primary predeterminer attributives.

2a Order. Secondary predeterminer attributives immediately precede primary predeterminer attributives.

2b Selection
   b1 Conditioners. Occurrence of primary predeterminer attributives.
   b2 Constituents

2a Attributive to primary attributives (see section 1a1a1b1c1b1, page 87).

   not, quite, nearly, absolutely, practically, etc.
   not all the world, not many a man, not quite all the folks, almost all the money, practically half the group

2b Attributive to primary attributives noted in section 1a1a1b1c1b2, page 87.

   very, not
   very much the best, not quite all the place

1a1a1b1c2b2c Attributive to primary attributives noted in section 1a1a1b1c1b3, page 87.

   so, too, as, no, how, however

1a1a1b1c3 TERTIARY. These are attributive to secondary attributives.

3a Order. Immediately preposed to secondary predeterminer attributive.

3b Selection
   b1 Conditioners. Occurrence of secondary attributive quite in class
   1a1a1b1c2b2a, and too, so, as in class 1a1a1b1c2b2c.
   b2 Constituents

   not
   not too big a place, not so fine a person, not as remarkable a thing

1a1a1b2 Preposed attributives to substitute subject heads. In this construction quite is always modified by the attributive not.

One may analyze the attribution of not as applicable to the secondary-primary combination rather than to only the secondary attributive. This would give a cumulative pattern, as in the primary postdeterminer attributives.

These preposed attributives must be distinguished from the predeterminer attributives noted above. In the case of preposed attributives occurring only with substitutes (see page 89) there is an overlapping of distinction, owing largely to the problem of terminology.

There is another class of attributive expressions which may precede a subject expression, whether
Primary. These are attributive to the substitute subject.

a1 Order. Preposed to substitutes, with the exception of enough, which occurs in postposed position.

a2 Selection

2a Adjectives

a1 Limiting

All, both

All these will do it. Both these can see him.

a2 Qualitative

Poor little me has to do it all.

2b Adverbs. The following list is illustrative only.

practically, exactly, precisely, almost, hardly, rather, only, as, so, how, too, however, truly, nearly, completely, absolutely, much, not, quite, actually, utterly, about, extremely, enough, mostly

practically all, precisely who, hardly any, rather few, too few, exactly what, few enough, however many, almost any, etc.

2c Prepositional phrase

By no means all will try it.
At least some are ready for the deal.

2d Substantive expression. These are limited to expressions of quantity.

a great deal, a lot, a bunch, a fraction, etc.
a great deal more, a lot fewer, a bunch more, a fraction less, etc.

Secondary

b1 Order. Preposed to primary preposed attributives to substitutes.

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* This is a very rare pattern, occurring only with special rhetorical context and intonation pattern.
*7 The subclasses of selective conditioning for this pattern are numerous, arbitrary, and complex. No detailed statement is attempted.
*8 This is a very limited pattern.
b2 Selection. These are limited to adverbs of degree of the same type as section I, page 88.

almost, practically, not, quite, just, very, altogether, pretty, really, etc.
almost all these, very much more, practically all this, altogether too many, just about ten, really very few, etc.

I Postposed attributives to subject.

3a Order. Immediately following the subject head. The only intervening words are in turn endocentric to the postposed attributive or constitute other postposed attributives.

3b Selection

Adjectives

1a Conditioners. Occurrence of substantive or substitute subject head.

1b Constituents

b1 Adjectives, highly restricted in number and types of permitted combinations. The following words illustrate the principal constituents and constructions:

due, politic, extraordinary, immemorial, incarnate, almighty, plural, proper, last, everlasting, enough, previous, general, martial, plenipotentiary, galore

money due, body politic, ambassador extraordinary, time immemorial, devil incarnate, God almighty, first person plural, Germany proper, January last, life everlasting, food enough, etc.

b2 Adjectives, productive of many combinations, involving (1) expressions of superlative or unique character (including postposed attributes to the substitutes compounded with -body, -thing, and -one) and (2) adjective attributives which are in turn modified by postposed attributives:

the finest thing possible, everything conceivable, the one person imaginable, the best style possible, something fine, a dress full of holes, a proposition entirely strange to the men, a man anxious to see him, a person desirous of a job

Adverbs

2a Conditioners. Occurrence of substantive or substitute as subject head.

2b Constituents. The following types of adverbs:

Nonrestrictive attributives (whether adjectives or verbals), which are always set off by distinctive pause-pitches, are classified with third-type attributives to the predicate because of their identical ranges of distribution (see pp. 116 ff.).
here, there, too, alone, below, above, ago, why, down, back, decidedly, especially, particularly, surely

this man here, that there, he too, my father alone, the space below, the arc above, a year ago, the reason why, the time when, this one particularly, etc.

1a1a1a1b3b3 Any 1st verbal or 1st verbal phrase.
1a1a1a1b3b3a Conditioners. Occurrence of substantive or substitute as subject head.

3b Constituents. Any 1st verbal or 1st verbal phrase of any type verb, but without intervening pause-pitch.

no man living, the wisest man breathing, the person trying to get this done, the boys wishing to go, etc.

1a1a1a1b3b4 2d verbals

4a Conditioners. Occurrence of substantive or substitute subject head.

4b Constituents. Any type 2d verbal, but without intervening pause-pitch.

a man accustomed to this, the text used, the results obtained, the sum required, etc.

1a1a1a1b3b5 Prepositional phrases

5a Attributive to substantive or substitute subject head.100

a1 Constituents. Any type of prepositional phrase.

a piece of bread, a cake of soap, a man of endurance, a person in prison, a jar under the table, a man in white, one in prayer, the place across the water, a man among friends, the man aboard the boat, etc.

1a1a1a1b3b5b Attributive to postdeterminer bounded adjective attributive.

b1 Conditioners. Occurrence of an adjective which normally permits postposed prepositional phrase attributives. See pages 135 ff. for an analysis of this pattern of prepositional phrase attribution to adjectives in general. This particular pattern of attribution to bounded attributives is comparatively rare. The following examples are illustrative:101

100 This pattern is almost unlimited. See pp. 158 ff. for prepositional phrase types. The relative order of different types of prepositional phrase attributives to the head is not treated.

101 It is possible to conceive of these postposed attributives as attributive to the entire substantive expression, conditioned by the occurrence of the particular adjective as bounded attributive, or as merely attributive to the bounded adjective. There is an overlapping of the structures at this point, evidenced by such alternative constructions as a different solution from his and a solution different from his.
very similar propositions to these, a very different matter from applause, the opposite view to what we like, a different class from what we expected

1a1a1b3b6 Substantive phrases.

6a Conditioners. Occurrence of substantive or substitute subject head.

6b Constituents. These substantive phrases usually constitute quantitative or temporal attributives to the subject head. The following expressions indicate the various patterns, which are comparatively limited in scope:

an animal this size, a tree that height, a woman her age, his death last week, the paper this morning, a third the number, ten cents apiece, five cents a pound, etc.

1a1a1b3b7 Marked infinitives

7a Conditioners. Occurrence of substantive or substitute subject head. Marked infinitives of the goal-action type with head word constituting the goal, e.g. the thing to do, the thing to be done, are almost unlimited in range of distribution. Marked infinitives of the actor-action type may occur as attributive to almost any personal subject-head expression (a man to do it). Substantive heads which may have postposed marked infinitives as attributives, and still not themselves constitute either the goal of the action or the subject of it, are very restricted. For the most part they consist of words of the following class:

ability, ambition, anxiety, aptitude, arrangement, authority, capacity, courage, curiosity, desire, effort, honor, hope, impatience, impudence, labor, leisure, means, need, opportunity, pains, patience, pleasure, predilection, presumption, promise, reason, reluctance, right, skill, strength, time, trouble, will, wisdom, wish

7b Constituents. Any type of marked infinitive of any class of verb.

an object to perform, the thing to have done, the letter to have been listed, the time to go, his ambition to be doing it, his courage to face this danger so constantly, etc.

1a1a1b3b8 Clauses marked by conjunctions.

8a Marked clauses with the marker functioning as an integral grammatical unit of the clause. These constitute the so-called relative clauses.

a1 Order. These clauses are postposed to the subject expression.

a2 Selection

2a Conjunctive markers

a1 Order. These conjunctive markers normally occur first in the clause, except that they may follow the preposition with which they form a relation-
axis construction. This prepositional phrase may be attributive to the verb of the dependent clause, as in the man to whom he gave the bill, or attributive to a substantive or substitute, as in a thing, the value of which was doubtful.

a2 Selection

2a Constituents

a1 Personal antecedents
who/whom\textsuperscript{102}/whose

a2 Impersonal antecedents
which, where, when, why, whereby,\textsuperscript{102} whereof,\textsuperscript{102} wherein\textsuperscript{103}

a3 Personal or impersonal antecedents
that, "zero"\textsuperscript{104}

2b Grammatical usage.\textsuperscript{105} These markers may have the following grammatical usages within their respective clauses:

b1 Subject-head expression

The man who came failed to see it.
The value there is in this is dubious.\textsuperscript{106}

b2 First attributive to verb.\textsuperscript{107}
The fellow whom he struck that blow was soon faltering.
The man whom he wished success turned against him.

b3 Second attributive to the verb

The person whom I saw turned around.
The paper I noticed yesterday is gone now.

\textsuperscript{102} Whom is generally used for object relationships, but by pressure of occurring first, except after prepositions, and thus appearing in the subject "territory", the tendency is to use who, e.g. who they were looking for.

\textsuperscript{103} These are rarely used.

\textsuperscript{104} The force of the pattern seems to justify the simplification of the statement by using zero, and thus to list here those patterns which omit the relative pronoun, rather than to have two classes, one for marked clauses and another for unmarked clauses.

\textsuperscript{105} Any one relative may have more than one grammatical use if followed by more than one clause, or by a clause with multiple predicate expression, as in a drum which he placed on the ground and then began to beat upon, or a place which I detest, but Clarence is very fond of.

\textsuperscript{106} This use of zero conjunctive is limited to expressions of there is, there are, or it is pattern.

\textsuperscript{107} This usage is comparatively rare. Usually the prepositional alternate of such patterns is used, as in the man he gave the ball to (with zero marker).
SUBJECT EXPRESSIONS IN INDEPENDENT TRANSITIVE CLAUSES

b4 Second constituent in prepositional phrase

The man whom he gave the bat to...
The man he gave the bat to...
The man to whom he gave the bat...

b5 Subject of dependent clause of unmarked independent form or dependent form.

The man who I think will do it...
The man I think will do it...
The man whom they commanded to do it...

b6 Equated attributive

He didn’t realize the power which he was in the community.
He didn’t realize the power he was in the community.

b7 Attributive to verb head of dependent clause either of independent or dependent form.

The man whom they commanded the soldiers to kill.
The man they commanded the soldiers to kill.

b8 Determiner

An escapade, which affair is likely to produce difficulty...
A thing whose value is negligible...

b9 3d attributive to the verb head.

The place where he stayed was haunted.
The day that I left was rainy.
The time he was there proved to be a disappointment.
The reason why he left...
The place I stayed...
The way the sports were handled was terrible.

108 It should be noted that sometimes in long clauses the preposition is repeated, the man with whom I was, when a small boy, very intimate with. The conjunction that never occurs with preposed prepositions.
109 Note that the preposition never precedes the zero conjunctive marker.
110 For analysis of independent and dependent form clauses see pp. 151 ff.
111 This type of procedure of analysis for attributives of dependent clauses could be continued extensively for continuing dependent clauses, but these examples should be sufficient to indicate the type of patterns.
112 This is not a very common usage and is always set off by pause-pitch. Zero markers may not occur as determiners.
113 The conjunctions where, when, and why may only occur as 3d attributives within their respective clauses and be attributive to expressions of place, time, and cause, respectively. The compound markers whereby, whereof, whereupon, and wherein are limited to 3d attributive usage.
Modulation. Clauses which are set off by pause-pitch are non-restrictive. Those without pause-pitch as modulatory markers are restrictive. That introduces only restrictive clauses. These conjunctions are normally atonic and do not carry the intonation peak, except when immediately preceding a pause-pitch, as in the man who, when he..., is a failure, and a person that, provided this..., could easily succeed.

Marked clauses with marker functioning as immediate constituent in exocentric dependent clause pattern. See pages 151 ff. for detailed analysis of such patterns.

b1 That clauses

1a Conditioners. Occurrence of one of the following types of substantive expressions as subject head:

hope, desire, assurance, persuasion, belief, evidence, idea, bargain, principle, fact, circumstance, fear, anxiety, dread, question, feeling, doubt, opinion, conviction, wish, impression, sign, promise, guess, ultimatum, saying, intimation, word, oath, etc.

1b Constituents. Any type of that clause. That may be actualized by a zero alternate.

my hope that he shall arrive
the fact that he is here
our fear he will come too late
an impression they are still waiting

Whether, if clauses

2a Conditioners. Occurrence of words of question, doubt, inquiry, investigation, etc. as subject head expressions.

2b Any clause pattern with whether or if. See pages 151 ff. for the analysis of these patterns. If, however, is comparatively rare in this usage.

The question whether he will come...
The question if he is here raises other problems.
The doubt whether he ever did that...

Clauses with conjunctive markers after, before, since, till, until, while.

These clauses may be classed as appositive clauses, owing to the so-called substantive value of the that clause, which may function as a subject expression; but it seems preferable to place clauses in this class, owing to the analogous relationship to the subject head words paralleling that of verbs and adjectives employing similar that clauses as attributives. See pp. 109 and 134 for analysis of these patterns.
3a Conditioners. Occurrence of expressions of time as subject heads.

3b Constituents. Any clauses introduced by after, before, since, till, until, while as postposed attributives to subject head. The time after you left was filled with... The time until he arrived... The week while we were there... The year since he left...

116 Than and as clauses. Attributive to expressions with as, so, such, same in the case of as, and expressions of comparison in the case of than. These clauses permit various types of extensive anaphoric zero substitution. For analysis of these patterns see pages 151 ff.

a finer man than I have ever known, as remarkable a person as ever came here, the same number as he predicted

117 Appositive attributives

118 Order. These are almost always postposed. The following illustrative examples of preposed type are rare: a dreamer, Paul always...; a Catholic and a zealot, he was not to be...

119 Selection

b1 Conditioners. Occurrence of substantives, substitutes, clauses, prepositional phrases with dependent form clause as second constituent, marked infinitives and 1st verbals as subject head. However, appositives with any but the first two classes are rare.

b2 Constituents

2a Substantives. The following examples are illustrative of the various types:

Jones, the baker, is a fine fellow.

He came down here at sixty miles an hour, a silly and foolish thing to try.

His difficulty, namely, the attempt of Jones and Co. to sue him, is fortunately...

Any so-called “quoted” word, phrase, or form

the word aesthetic

116 These clauses are obviously closely parallel to those noted on page 94 above. The basic distinction concerns function within the dependent clause.

117 Appositives may be introduced by extrapositional or parenthetical elements, such as namely, that is, that is to say, etc.

118 Morphologically and syntactically such expressions are treated as substantives. Note form of pluralization and also occurrence with determiners.
the phrase cheese it
the morpheme ism

Richard the Third; a country all his own; Hawaii, the cosmopolitan; John the Baptist; The steamer America; Professor Johnson; Saints Peter and Paul; this, our hour of danger; we, the people; you Canadians; Can she hear us, that old hag of his?; He's a success, that Mr. Johnson.

2b Substitutes. These are of limited patterns and comparatively rare in usage.

We two will try it.
We four should be able to do it.
You all can try again.
The foreigners, namely, those in the park...
The people, that is, anyone who wants to...

1a1a1a1b4b2c 1st verbals

This solution, namely, trying to stay home...

2d Marked infinitives

His answer, that is, to start immediately, ...

2e Marked independent form clauses

This thing, whatever it is, should be...

2f Dependent form clauses

This is their system, apparently, one half working and the other half consuming the benefits.

1a1a1a1b4c Modulation. Certain appositives, as noted above in the illustrative examples, may occur without being set off by pause-pitch, in what may be termed close apposition. The pattern is largely arbitrary, though the productive types tend to follow the restrictive-nonrestrictive dichotomy.

1a1a1a1b5 Semipredicate attributives

1a1a1a1b5a Order. These attributives occur in three positions within the clause: postposed contiguously to the subject head, within the verb phrase, and final to the clause. The distribution of patterns is as follows:

119 As regards determiner usage it will be noted that the class of the 1st word may be determined by the class of the appositive word.
120 These patterns of apposition are rare and are almost always introduced by such parenthetical words.
121 See note 120.
122 See note 120.
123 See note 120.
Contiguous and within the verb phrase
all, both, each

We both will try; we will both try.
They each will try; they will each try.

Within the verb phrase
everyone, most, none, neither

They will everyone try.
We were most of us discouraged.
They were neither of them trying to put it over on us.

Contiguous, within verb phrase, and clause final. These are the so-called emphatic reflexive pronouns.

myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves, oneself

I myself will try it.
I will myself try it.
I will try it myself.

Selection

With singular concordance with antecedent

With 1st person antecedent
myself

With 2d person antecedent
yourself

With 3d person antecedent
himself, herself, itself, oneself

With plural concordance with antecedent
ourselves, all, both, everyone, most, none, each, neither

With 2d person antecedent

There is an overlapping of this pattern with that noted for appositives; see section 1a1a1b4b2b, page 97.

These words must be made attributives by phrases containing substitutes or substantives congruent with the subject head.

Oneself is limited almost entirely to clause final.

The semipredicate value of such attributives is evidenced by their occurring in verbal expressions apart from any stated subject: to do it oneself, to do it each by himself, etc. There is accordingly an overlapping of patterns at this point.
yourselves, all, both, everyone, most, none, each, neither

2c *With 3rd person antecedent*

themselves, all, both, everyone, most, none, each, neither
PREDICATE EXPRESSIONS IN INDEPENDENT TRANSITIVE CLAUSES

1a1a1a2 Predicate expressions

1a1a1a2a Verb heads

1a1a1a2a1 Order.1 With the exception of certain noncontiguous, semipredicate attributives, which exhibit certain attributive value within the predicate expression (cf. p. 97, footnote 123), the predicate expression follows the entire subject expression. This rule has the following exceptions:

1a Single forms of *be* and *have* and the 1st element in any verb phrase precede the subject under the following conditions:

a1 In certain questions of the yes-no type:
   
   - Is John here?
   - Have they come yet?
   - Does he want me now?

a2 With certain adverbs and 3d attributive expressions, usually negative or restrictive, occurring at the beginning of the clause.

   - so, never, not till then, scarcely, neither, rarely, little, less, no more, only once, etc.
   - So do I like to do it.
   - Not till then did we discover it.
   - Little did we realize that he would do that.
   - Scarcely can I persuade him to help me now.

a3 In questions introduced by

   - whom or who², how, when, where, what,² which²

   - Who did you see?
   - How did he do it?

---

1 The order is given relative to the only previously analyzed constituent, namely, the subject. The order of further constituents is always given in terms of previous ones.

² Inversion occurs when these words are in nonsubject expressions.
Which man did he strike?

a4 In expressions of hope employing may as 1st constituent in the verb phrase.

May he go!

May he have completed this successfully!

a5 When direct quotations, patterning as second attributives, occur initially in the clause. This inversion is optional and infrequent.

"You haven’t been here", said John.

"I’ll get you yet", muttered the enraged old fellow.

1a1a2a2 Selection

1a1a2a2a Frame

a1 Single verb heads

The man helped him.

The people liked it.

a2 Multiple verb heads

2a With co-ordinators

a1 With single co-ordinators

and, or, "pause-pitch"

He hit the man and shoved his wife into the car.
They killed or at least seriously injured the poor fellow.
They kicked, mauled, and tortured the victim.

a2 With double co-ordinators

either...or, neither...nor, both...and

He either struck her or attempted to at least.
He neither wanted nor tried to do that.
I both want it done and will see to it that it is finished.

2b Without co-ordinators. This occurs only between infinitive forms, and is practically limited to situations in which the 1st infinitive is come, go, run, and please.

They’ll go ask him.
I’ll come do it.

* Note that attributives to verb heads may be attributive to one or more heads, as well as in the case of attributives to subject heads.
PREDICATE EXPRESSIONS IN INDEPENDENT TRANSITIVE CLAUSES

We’ll run tell him.
They didn’t come do it.

b1 Constituents

b1 Interclass selection. Any so-called transitive verb (or, in terms of this outline, any verb taking a second-type attributive). These are too numerous to require listing. The following clauses are illustrative:

They hit him.
They pushed them.
The men struck the pole.
He fashioned a monster.
The people built the bridge.

b2 Intraclass selection.

2a Patterns. Any single form or basic phrase patterns 1, 2, and 5, or anaphoric substitute.4

He helps him.
He helped him.
He has helped him.
He is helping him.
He has been helping him.

s form and non-s form5

b1 s form occurs with:

1a Any singular subject head, except where personal substitutes are employed for the speaker and hearer.

1b Plural subject heads of the following classes:

b1 Single heads5

1a Expressions which contain numerals but which may be regarded as sums rather than series.7

4 Such anaphoric substitutes usually follow their antecedents. Forms of the verb do may substitute for any finite verb expression except the verbs have, be, will, shall, may, can, must, and ought. Zero anaphoric substitutes may occur for final 1st and 2d verbals in any basic or secondary pattern, or for any infinitive (but not the marker) in any secondary verb phrase. See pp. 156 ff. for verb phrases.

5 This distinction is not found with the verbs used as first constituent in verbal phrases (e.g. may, can, will), except in the case of have, be, and do.

6 The classification of such words as seeds, summons, commons, measles, dynamics, economics depends upon how they are treated in the morphology.

7 Such subject heads are often separated from the verb by postposed attributives and rarely occur with the determiners these and those.
The frightful twenty years on Devil's Island makes any man lose his finer self. 
Three quarters of the institution is still in existence.
Thirty miles tires the horse too much.
A hundred stripes doesn't equal the other penalty.
Five minutes sometimes makes the difference between life and death.
One hundred dollars buys the horse.

1b Proper names in plural form

The United States, the Times (newspaper), the Eumenides, the Arabian Nights, etc.

b2 Multiple co-ordinate heads

2a Multiple heads bounded by a single determiner and referring to a composite unit. The following phrases are illustrative:

the bread and butter, a needle and thread, this pestle and mortar, that brace and bit, the object and purpose

The brace and bit does the trick.
A needle and thread saves the situation.

2b Multiple heads not bounded by a single determiner, but nevertheless capable of identifying a composite, unitary referent. The following expressions are illustrative:

The power and the strength of this program obliges me to stop here.
Truth and justice demands it.
Trial and error strengthens the argument.
Two and two makes four.
Poetry and eloquence demands first place in his course.

2c Multiple subject heads combined by or or nor.

Either Jim or Bill does the work.
Neither Smith nor his friend wants the job.

1a1a1a2a2b2b2 Non-s form occurs with

2a Any plural subject expression
2b Singular subject heads of the following classes:

b1 Group nouns of the following type:

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* This may also be called the common form, which is identical in form to the infinitive, except for the verb be.
* This is especially the case when a plural substantive occurs in a postposed attributive expression, e.g. The first group of teachers were always complaining.
administration, admiralty, aristocracy, army, assembly, association, audience,
board, body, brace, bulk, cabinet, camp, cattle, cavalcade, class, clergy, club,
commission, committee, community, company, conference, congregation, con-
stituency, corps, council, country, couple, court, crew, crowd, detachment,
directory, dozen, electorate, enemy, family, fish, firm, fleet, flock, foe, force,
game, gang, gathering, generation, gentry, government, group, guard, herd, horse
(cavalry), host, household, hundred, jury, kind, majority, military, million,
multitude, ministry, mob, navy, nobility, number, offspring, opposition, pair,
parish, part, party, peasantry, people, populace, population, posterity, press,
priesthood, procession, proletariat, prosecution, rabble, race, regiment, remain-
der, remnant, retinue, royalty, school, score, senate, set, sex, society, sort, staff,
stock, swarm, thousand, throng, town, tribe, whole, yoke, youth

b2 Subject expressions with postposed attributives containing plural
substantives or substitutes. Such postposed attributives are frequently introduced by
of, together with, with, as well as, no less than, like, but, except, etc.

Every one of these men consider...
The captain together with all his crew agree that...
The major as well as his lieutenants are...
He like other men want...
Nobody but Bill and John think that...

b3 Singular subject expressions which have multiple attributives of such
a qualitatively distinct value as to cause the subject expression to identify a multiple
referent. The following examples are illustrative of this rather limited pattern:
The physical and spiritual world are quite diverse.
The intellectual and physical plane of men's reactions have little in common.
The historical and descriptive analysis of a language show certain striking divergencies.

b4 Independent personal substitutes of the speaker and hearer, except
for the verb be which possesses a suppletive form am for the present, when the substitute
I is employed.10

1a1a2a3 Phonetic change. The listing of the phonetic alternates of the so-called
auxiliary verbs belongs to the morphology. All such forms are optional in use, but
there is a limit to the range of optional choices. The words have, has, had, am, are, is,
will, would, does,11 and did11 have alternate shorter forms with and without syllabics.
Forms with syllabics may follow any word. Nonsyllabic forms are largely restricted

10 The analysis of the usage with was is largely dependent upon the morphological statement of
this form.
11 Note the sandhi alternate forms for does and did, in such expressions as, How's he do it?, When'd
he do it?, Where'd he put it?, When's he do that?, Which's he do first?, etc.
to use with personal substitutes, except for the nonsyllabic alternates of has and is, which may be enclitic to any type of previous word.

1. Attributives to the verb head

1a Order. The 1st type attributive normally follows the verb head and precedes the 2d type attributive. Only rarely by transposition or inversion does the 1st type attributive occur first, as in Whom did they give the watch? Regularly, the prepositional construction is employed in such cases.

1b Selection

1b1 Conditioners. Occurrence of (1) one of the following verbs as verb head,\(^{12}\) and (2) a 2d type attributive.

accord, address, administer, admit, advance, advise, afford, allocate, allot, allow, answer, appoint, apportion, arrogate, ask, assign, avail, award, bake, bear, begrudge, bequeath, bet, bleed, blow, boil, book, buy, bring, build, burn, cable, call, carry, carve, cash, cast, catch, cause, certify, charge, choose, chuck, coin, concede, cook, copy, cost, create, cut, deal, define, deny, design, devise, do, dot, drop, drive, embroider, enclose, ensure, entrust, envy, explain, fan, fashion, feature, feed, fetch, figure, fill, fin, fix, fling, float, fly, fold, forbid, foreclose, foretell, forfeit, forge, forgive, fork, form, formulate, forward, frame, fry, fulfill, furnish, gain, gainsay, gather, get, give, go, grab, grant, grill, grind, grudge, guarantee, hand, hew, hit, hold, hope, impose, indulge, inform, inhibit, instruct, insure, intend, invoice, iron, kick, kill, kiss, knit, lead, leave, lend, lose, make, mean, offer, pay, pardon, pass, permit, play, prepare, prescribe, present, procure, produce, promise, provide, pour, reach, read, recount, refuse, reimburse, remit, render, restore, return, run, save, secure, send, serve, set, show, sing, spare, stint, strike, supply, take, teach, telegraph, telephone, tell, throw, transmit, turn, vote, weigh, win, wire, wish, write, yield

They accorded her a place.
They advanced him some money.
They allotted him a farm.
They asked him a question.
They awarded him a medal.
They bought him a piece.

\(^{12}\) It will be noted that there is quite a range of semantic distinction with the various verbs of this class. The 1st type attributive includes such constituents as have been classified as indirect object, dative, 1st of a double accusative, etc. But the parallelism of distribution is sufficiently great to justify classifying them together. Substitute expressions employing prepositional phrases or so-called goal-action constructions having the same constituents do, however, make possible the division of these verbs into various subclasses.
They cashed him a check.
She cooked them a meal.
She designed her a dress.
They envied him his job.

b2 Constituents

2a Substantives. These are regularly personal in reference and normally limited to bounded attributives.

They gave the man a quarter.

2b Substitutes

b1 Personal definites and reflexives. See pages 69 ff. for complete list and analysis. The alternate so-called objective forms occur for me, him, her, us, them.

They asked her a question.
He gave himself an advantage.

b2 Limiting substitutes. See pages 72 ff. for complete list and analysis. It must be noted, however, that with rare exceptions the 1st attributive tends to be personal in reference.

They offered these a job.

b3 Possessive personals (see p. 73).

They gave mine a bath.

b4 Reciprocals

Each other, one another

They gave each other a present.
They wished one another success.

2c Marked clauses introduced by whoever, whomever, whosoever, whomsoever, whosesoever, whichever, whichsoever, whatever, whatsoever. The last five markers may occur only in determiner relationships. This is a comparatively rare pattern.

He gave whomever he judged guilty the privilege of paying up sometime later.
He offered whatever man might dare to, the chance to win all or lose all in the one master encounter.

1a1a1a2b2 2d type attributives to verb head.

13 The uniqueness of this pattern, the indivisibility, and the unitary function place these words on the borderline between words in syntactic pattern and compounds. The absence of definite phonological criteria makes these expressions a problem.
2a Order. 2d type attributives follow the 1st attributive and the verb head except when they occur initially in the clause as (1) interrogative substitutes or with interrogative determiners (in the case of substantives), as in *Whom did you see?* and *What man did you meet?* or (2) in such exclamatory sentences as, *What a fine horse you have!*

2b Selection

b1 Conditioners. Any so-called transitive verb taking a "direct" object (or second attributive). These verbs are classified on the basis of occurrence of such second-type attributives. (These verbs are too numerous to require listing.)

- He saw the man.
- They killed the animal.
- The party scaled the mountain.

b2 Constituents

1a1a2b2b2a Substantives. These may be any substantive expression listed under subject head expressions.

2b Substitutes. These include personal definites (*me, us, him, etc.*), limiting (*this, that, some, few, etc.*), relative interrogative (*who, which, what, etc.*), personal possessives (*mine, ours, his, etc.*), emphatic reflexives (*myself, oneself, ourselves, etc.*), and reciprocals (*one another, each other*).15

- He saw me.
- They hit these.
- The woman chose mine.
- He braced himself.
- The people encouraged one another.

2c 1st verbals

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14 Postposed attributives to 2d type attributives may be nonrestrictive and at the same time not set off by pause-pitch (in contrast to the regular pattern occurring with the subject head expression). Note the following: *burn her alive, drink his coffee black, wear his hair long, eat the meat raw.* Note the two meanings in such an expression as *drink it dry;* one notes the extent to which the liquor is drunk, and the other denotes the type of liquor consumed. (A similar pattern occurs with 2d constituents in prepositional phrases, *with his hands stiff, with his foot outstretched, etc.*) There is an almost indistinguishable shading from (1) this pattern of postposed attributives modifying 2d attributives of the verb to (2) the pattern of dependent-form clauses noted on pp. 114 ff., e.g. *likes the flowers stiff, had his answer ready, catch it hot, wear his coat threadbare.*

15 Very rarely does a substitute, except those compounded with -thing, -body, and -one, occur as 2d attributive following a substantive as 1st attributive. Special patterns with *it* should be noted. *It* may have as contiguous or noncontiguous postposed antecedents (1) marked or unmarked clauses, as in *have it that he should, put it that he, take it that, regret it very much that, take it he left, etc., or (2) noncontiguous postposed marked infinitives, as in *find it in his heart to help, have it in his power to do it, owe it to the truth to see.*
cl *Conditioners.* Occurrence of one of the following verbs as verb head.\(^{16}\)

abhor, acknowledge, advise, attempt, avoid, bear, begin, calculate, cease, choose, commence, confess, contemplate, decline, defer, delay, deserve, despair, detest, disdain, doubt, dread, endure, enjoy, entail, escape, evade, expect, facilitate, fail, fancy, fear, feign, finish, forbear, forget, hate, help, include, insist, intend, learn, like, love, mean, mention, mind, miss, necessitate, need, neglect, omit, persist, postpone, practice, prefer, propose, purpose, put off, recollect, refuse, regret, relish, remember, renounce, repent, report, resent, risk, shirk, shun, stand, stop, succeed, suggest, teach, try, urge, venture, withhold

abhor doing it, acknowledge having risked it, advise attempting it, avoid having been detected, confessed seeing him, etc.

c2 *Constituents.* These may be any 1st verbal, single or phrasal, and may have as attributives any type occurring with the verb head of that class. Note such types as *I dislike being sick* and *He fears being poor in his old age.*

lalalal2b2b2d *Infinitives*

d1 *Marked infinitives*

la *Conditioners.* Occurrence of one of the following verbs as verb head.\(^{17}\)

attempt, bear, beg, begin, choose, commence, continue, dare, decline, deign, delay, deny, deserve, desire, determine, disdain, dread, elect, endeavor, except, fail, fear, forbear, forget, get, hate, have, hope, intend, learn, like, loathe, long, love, manage, mean, need, neglect, observe, offer, omit, prefer, pretend, prepare, profess, promise, propose, purpose, refuse, regret, remember, resolve, say, scorn, seek, start, strive, swear, think, threaten, try, undertake, want

lb *Constituents.* Any marked infinitive with single or phrase second constituent.

begged to go, desired to leave, attempt to be seeing it, wanted to have been trying, hate to be gone, etc.

d2 *Unmarked infinitives*

\(^{16}\) Other verbs, e.g. *continue, stop, begin, finish, leave off, give up, commence, delay, fail, get,* may be classed here, but may also be classified as intransitive verbs with the *-ing* verbal as 3d type attributive, as in the expression *went walking.*

\(^{17}\) As in the case of 1st verbs as 2d attributives, certain verbs, such as *continue, begin, commence, cease, start,* may be classified as intransitive with 3d attributives. Some verbs, such as *know,* may only take marked infinitives when these are introduced by correlative conjunctions, e.g. *know whether to do it or not.*
2a *Conditioners.* Occurrence of hear, help, and let as verb heads in the following patterns.

He helped do it.

He let go of her hand.

I heard say that they went.  

2b *Constituents.* Any single unmarked infinitive may be attributive to help, a few infinitives occur with let, and only say occurs with hear.

1a.1a.2b.2b.2e *Clauses with conjunctive markers*

1e1 *Order.* Such clauses normally follow the verb head. Clauses introduced by that and whether may occur initially, though rarely so.

That this be done for our community I urge upon you all.

Whether or not he wants to do this I question.

1e2 *Selection*

2a *Conditioners*

1a.1a.2b.2b.2e.2a1 *Interclass selection.* Occurrence of the following verbs as verb head.

1a *For that clauses*

1a1 *Intraclass selection*

1a1 *With finite verb in that clause*

admit, agree, believe, boast, conclude, deny, desire, determine, discover, doubt, dread, dream, fear, feel, hear, hope, imply, infer, insist, judge, know, mean, observe, perceive, question, recall, relate, remember, reply, report, say, see, show, suppose, teach, tell, think, understand, wonder

He admitted that he went.

He thought that they understood.

1b *With unmarked infinitive*\(^\text{19}\) *form as verb head in that clause.*

ask, command, insist, urge, move, exhort, demand, instruct.

I ask that he be demoted.

I command that he be removed.

I move that he be elected.

He demanded that he come.

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\(^{18}\) This construction heard say ... can be interpreted as a transitive verb followed by a dependent-form clause, but with zero (and indefinite) subject, e.g. heard (them) say ...

\(^{19}\) These forms have been traditionally treated as subjunctive. However, they are in all respects formally identical with unmarked infinitives (i.e. infinitives without to), and hence there seems to be no descriptive justification for setting up a series of subjunctive forms.
PREDICATE EXPRESSIONS IN INDEPENDENT TRANSITIVE CLAUSES

1a1a2b2b2e2a1b For zero-marked clauses

b1 Intraclass selection

1a With a finite verb in zero-marked clause. These are the same verbs as conditioners listed for that clause above, section 1a1a2b2b2e2a1a, with the exception of wonder and beg.

He admitted he went.
He thought they understood.

1a1a2b2b2e2a1b With unmarked infinitive form as verb head of zero-marked clause. These are the same verbs as conditioners listed for that clauses above, section 1a1a2b2b2e2a1b, page 109.

I moved he be elected.
They insisted he leave.

1a1a2b2b2e2a1c For clauses introduced by if, how, when, whether, which, who, where, why, however, whoever, whatever, whichever, whosoever, whatsoever, whichever, and whosesoever, occurrence of verbs such as:

ask, question, wonder, doubt, hear, see, etc.

I asked if her mother had gone.
I wondered how she would ever do it.
I hear why he came.
I see what they want to show me.

1a1a2b2b2e2a2 Intraclass selection for all 2d attributive marked clauses.

1a1a2b2b2e2a2a Tense sequence. According to the classification of tense forms into primary, intermediate, and secondary (see below), the tense and phrase forms of the attributive clauses are regulated as follows: Primary, intermediate, and secondary classes may be attributive to primaries; intermediate and secondary classes (primary, only very rarely) may be attributive to intermediates; and, except for statements of habitual or universal occurrence, only the secondary class is attributive to secondaries.

a1 Primary class of tense (and phrase) forms.

1a Present tense form of any single verb.

1b Present forms of 1st constituent of the following verb phrases.

1. be- plus 1st verbals (patterns 2 and 6)
2. be- plus 2d verbal of any verb (pattern 3)
3. do- plus unmarked infinitive (single) of any verb.20

20 Phrasal unmarked infinitives (e.g. be going) only occur after infinitive form of do in expressions of command, (e.g. Do be going!).
4. shall, will, can, may, must, ought, had (better), and better plus any infinitive, single or phrasal with which these may occur (see pages 156 ff. for complete analysis of this pattern).

1a1a2b2b2e2a2a2 Intermediate class of tense (and phrase) forms. Present tense form of the 1st constituent of the following phrases:

have – plus 2d verbals (patterns 1, 4, and 5)

3a Secondary class of tense (and phrase) forms.

3b Past tense forms of 1st constituent of the following verb phrases:

1. have – plus 2d verbals (patterns 1, 4, and 5)
2. be – plus 1st verbals (patterns 2 and 6)
3. be – plus 2d verbals (pattern 3)
4. do – plus unmarked infinitive (single) of any verb.
5. shall, will, can, may, must, ought, had (better), better plus any infinitive, single or phrasal, with which these occur (see pages 156 ff. for complete analysis of these patterns). 21

1a1a2b2b2f Dependent-form clauses

1a1a2b2b2f1 Order. These regularly follow the verb head.

2 Selection

2a With marked infinitive as verb head of the dependent clause

a1 Conditioners. Occurrence of one of the following verbs as verb head of the independent clause:

1a Verbs which occur predominantly with equational clause type as attributives:

acclaim, account, acknowledge, admit, apprehend, approve, assert, avow, behold, believe, betray, boast, call, certify, compute, conceive, conclude, confess, confirm, conjecture, consider, count, crown, declare, deem, demonstrate, denounce, deny, describe, discover, entitle, esteem, fancy, feel, grant, guess, hail, hear, hold, imagine, judge, know, maintain, name, nominate, observe, own, perceive, proclaim, profess, pronounce, prove, rate, reckon, recognize, regard, remember,

21 This statement is the normal pattern. Special situations may give rise to exceptions to this usual type of sequence. For example, primary class forms are attributive to verb heads of secondary class in expressions which denote that which is customary, habitual, characteristic, or universally true, as in: He asked when the train starts; He said that he is habitually late; He said she plays beautifully; He said the world is round.
report, represent, repute, show, style, subscribe, suppose, suspect, swear, take, term, think, understand, vouch, warrant

1b *Verbs which occur almost equally with all types of attributive clauses:*

accustom, adjure, advise, allow, appoint, ask, authorize, bear, beg, beseech, bid, bind, bring, cause, charge, choose, command, commission, compel, counsel, constrain, dare, defy, desire, dictate, direct, disincline, dislike, dispose, embolden, empower, enable, encourage, enforce, enjoin, entice, entreat, expect, exhort, fear, forbid, force, get, goad, help, incite, incline, induce, impel, implore, importune, instigate, invite, lead, like, make, motion, move, oblige, order, permit, persuade, pray, prefer, press, prompt, provoke, put, recommend, request, require, sentence, solicit, stimulate, stir, suffer, summon, teach, tempt, trust, urge, want, warn, wish

1a1a2b2b2f2a2 *Constituents.* Any dependent form clause with marked infinitive as verb head (see pages 155 ff. for analysis of this pattern).

They advised him to be good.
They believe him to be the finest yet.
Some report this to be exaggerated.
They suppose him to be well.
He allowed him to go at once.
They chose him to do it.
Someone commanded him to go south.
They enticed her to do it.
They got him to do it.
Someone motioned him to stop.
He urged her to leave beforehand.
They helped her to see it.

1a1a2b2b2f2b *With unmarked infinitive as verb head of the dependent clause*

b1 *Conditioners.* Occurrence of one of the following verbs as verb head of the independent clause:

see, feel, let, have, make, help, hear, bid, watch, overhear, observe

b2 *Constituents.* Any clause of dependent-form type with unmarked infinitive as verb head (see page 155 for analysis of this pattern).

I saw him go.
We let him do it.
They all helped us get there in time.

2c *With 1st verbal, single or phrasal, as verb head of the dependent clause*
cl **Conditioners.** Occurrence of one of the following verbs as verb head of the independent clause:

apprehend, bear, catch, conceive, consider, depict, dread, fancy, feel, forbear, get, have, hear, imagine, keep, like, observe, overhear, pardon, permit, picture, prevent, recollect, remember, report, represent, see, set, stand, watch

c2 **Constituents.** Any type of dependent-form clause with 1st verbals as verb head of the dependent clause.

We saw them going.
We caught them trying to get in.
We pardoned them having done it.
We pictured them being tormented.
We remember them having been delayed before.
They found the child playing in the street.

1a1a1a2b2b2f2d *With 2d verbal as verb head of the dependent clause*

d1 **Conditioners.** Occurrence of one of the following verbs as verb head of the independent clause:

allow, ask, behold, believe, conceive, consider, depict, desire, expect, fancy, feel, forbid, get, have, hear, imagine, keep, like, make, observe, order, perceive, permit, picture, prefer, remember, represent, request, require, see, suffer, urge, want, watch, wish

d2 **Constituents.** Any type of dependent-form clause with 2d verbals as verb head of the dependent clause.

They considered him washed out.
They desire him killed.
They had the picture painted by Magnuson.
They preferred the ordeal lengthened.
They wanted it kept.

1a1a1a2b2b2f2e *With zero verb head of the dependent clause.*

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22 A formal ambiguity of patterns may be noted here. This construction may be readily confused with the one in which a substantive is followed by a postposed restrictive attributive, in which latter case the above sentence would mean that they found the particular child who was playing in the street.

23 As in the case of the 1st verbals, there is an ambiguity between this pattern and that which consists of a substantive followed by a restrictive postposed attributive, in which latter case the sentence would mean that they had the particular painting which was painted by Magnuson, rather than that they commissioned Magnuson to do the work.
Conditioners. Occurrence of one of the following types of verbs as verb head of the independent clause.\textsuperscript{24, 25, 26}

admit, appoint, assume, believe, call, choose,\textsuperscript{27} claim, confess, consider, count, create, crown, declare, deem, drive, dub, elect, enroll, esteem, fancy, feel, find, get, have, hold, imagine, judge, keep, lay, leave, make, need, order, proclaim, prove, put, regard, render, see, set, sleep, spread, think, turn, understand, want, wish

e2 Constituents. With any type of dependent form clause with zero verb head (see page 156 for analysis of this pattern). The following clauses illustrate this type of expression:

believe him dead, call him great, count his master a violent ruler, believe him insane, imagine him hungry, consider him ignorant, keep him hungry, get him mad, raise his head high, cry herself sick, beat him black and blue, sing himself hoarse, walk himself weary, take the men prisoners, style himself an officer, set him free, struck them dumb, shoot him dead, toast it brown, wash it white, paint the town red, do him proud\textsuperscript{28}

Any expression constituting a direct quotation.

g1 Order. These normally occur in postverb position, and as such are rarely separated from the verb head by more than two or three words. They may also occur initially in the clause, but are then seldom separated from the verb head by more than the subject expression, which is itself limited to bounded and short preposed and postposed attributives. Inversion of the subject and verb head may occur, as noted on page 101.

g2 Selection. The direct quotation may consist of a word or a group of words.

"Come in", he said.

\textsuperscript{24} With some verbs the difference in meaning of the dependent clause with or without verb head is considerable, as in the case of choose: \textit{They chose him to be king} and \textit{They chose him king}; however, in a verb such as find, there is considerably less difference: \textit{They found him to be happy}, and \textit{They found him happy}.

\textsuperscript{25} One must note a gradual transition in concept from those head words which have nothing to do with the actualizing of the state described in the second constituent of the dependent clause, as in \textit{They believed him happy}, to those head words which may be regarded as stating the actualizing force of such a state, as in \textit{They chose him king} or \textit{They made him happy}.

\textsuperscript{26} Some of the following words, such as consider, count, believe, claim, deem, occur most often with it as subject of the dependent clause and with final antecedent for it, as in, \textit{They consider it unwise for him to do that; They believe it foolish to be mixed up in that sort of a thing.}

\textsuperscript{27} Note the obvious contrast between this pattern and that with 1st and 2d type attributives: \textit{They chose him king}, and \textit{They chose him a wife}.

\textsuperscript{28} See note 14, page 107 for discussion of the resemblance of this pattern to that with postposed attributives to 2d attributives.
“Howdy”, he replied.
“That is an awful way to do it”, he argued.
The men cried out, “Give us the rope here”.

g3 Modulation. The quoted expression has its own intonation pattern, just as it would if it constituted a complete linguistic utterance or portion of it in nonquoted context; except that, when the quoted expression is nonfinal, a nonfinal intonation pattern is usually employed. It is set off by pause-pitch, one of the elements of which is the nonfinal intonation on the last intonational segment.

1lalal2b2b2h Adverbs patterning as 2d attributives.

h1 Order. These always occur in postverb position.

h2 Selection

2a So

a1 Conditioners. Occurrence of verbs of the following class:
say, tell, think, hope, suppose, fear, suspect, state, believe, dream, imagine, inform, pray, trust, understand

| He said so. | They imagined so. |
| He thought so. | They prayed so. |
| They hoped so. |

2b Not

b1 Conditioners. Occurrence with the following verbs:

hope, think, suppose, fear

I hope not. The people suppose not.

They think not. I fear not.

1lalal2b2b2i Prepositional phrases

i1 Order. These always occur in postverb position.

i2 Selection. The following sentences illustrate this usage:

I desired till the next day.
He allowed them till ten o’clock.

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29 The verb say is generally transitive. This use of so with say shows distinct parallelism to the 2d attributive usage. Moreover, so does not define the manner of the saying, or of any other verb noted above, but rather defines the state of the referent supplied by the context.

30 Not as a 3d attributive always occurs within a verb phrase. This use of not is always postverbal, having the same pattern value as the 2d attributive, with distinct parallelism to the usage of so.

31 This is a rare pattern.
Alternating attributives, \(^{32}\)

3a Order. Alternating attributives occur immediately before or after 2d attributives if these are substantives, and occur after 2d attributives if these are substitutes of the personal definite class.

They threw the man out.
They threw out the man
They threw him out.

3b Selection

b1 Adjectives. \(^{33}\) The adjectives in the following expressions are illustrative of the pattern:

push open the door, make good his promises, make fast the chains, cut short his remarks, lay waste the country, throw wide the doors, let loose a lion

b2 Adverbs. These are more or less restricted to the type of collocations noted in the illustrative examples. The following adverbs are those most often employed in this alternating pattern.

in, out, away, back, up, down, on, off, along, across, through, over, under, about, around, round, by, past

explain away his troubles, live down his reputation, throw me down an apple, put on his hat, look it over, see it through, took the proposition up, hang it up, show it up, pick it up, give it up, put the thing in, set it in, break these off, strip them off, pass it over, quiet the fellows down, pay them off, give it out

3d type attributives to the verb head\(^{34}\)

\(^{32}\) It is obvious that this pattern, particularly when the alternating attributive is an adjective, is similar to dependent-form clauses as second attributives with zero verb head (see pages 113 ff.). Compare make the man diligent (the dependent clause pattern), with make good his promise and make his promise good with “alternating attributive.” On the other hand, it is impossible to overlook the parallelism of patterning between the alternating adjective attributives and the alternating adverbial attributives. Certainly to push the door open and to push the door out are parallel. But this adverbial attributive is too closely parallel to the 3d type attributive expression (compare he put the man out and he put the man in the gutter), and too intimately associated with the verb, to postulate all such expressions as being dependent-form clauses in which the adverbial element would constitute the predicate. The alternating attributive stands in an intermediate position, in that it is associated with the 2d attributive in defining its position, state, condition, etc., but shows parallelism to the 3d type attributives. However, by virtue of its restricted word order it does not pattern as a third attributive. Moreover, the definite restrictions of the verb head and alternating attributives to a limited number of constituents and combinations, while the 2d attributives in such patterns are unlimited in range of selection, also give evidence of the close association of the alternating attributive to the verb head.

\(^{33}\) Note that these adjectives are associated with particular verb heads. It should be further noted, however, that when the subject head of a dependent-form clause has heavy postposed attributives, the 2d immediate constituent may occur first when the verb head is zero: make indispensable the value of these islands, took prisoner the captain of the enemy squadron. The nonrestricted range of selection of constituents makes this pattern differ from that noted above.

\(^{34}\) These are the so-called adverbial attributives.
Prepositional phrases

Order. Preceding the subject expression, preceding the predicate expression, within the verb phrase, preceding equated attributives, preceding direct goal attributives, and final to the clause. The relative order of prepositional phrases, particularly in final position, is so complicated that no statement will be made concerning it, except for the general observation of relative order noted under adverbs, page 119.

Selection. These prepositional phrases may be of any type. See pages 158 ff. for analysis of prepositional phrase patterns.

He hit the man with his fist.
They will by all means undertake the work.
They finished the task with nobody any the worse.
They attacked me for helping him.
In this way they accused him of treason.
He is in general quite pleased.

Adverbs

Order

In presubject position. Adverbs of the following types:

afterwards, again, already, always, before, first, formerly, hereafter, how, lately, newly, now, occasionally, once, presently, quickly, scarcely, secondly, seldom, slowly, sometimes, soon, suddenly, then (temporal), then (sequential), there, usually, when, where, why

In preverb position. Adverbs of the following types:

about, absolutely, accidentally, accordingly, actively, actually, almost, already, always, angrily, anxiously, boldly, briefly, but, carefully, certainly, clearly, cleverly, completely, continually, correctly, deeply, definitely, distinctly, doubly,
They just succeeded him.
They absolutely destroyed their enemies.
Some accidentally shot him.
They continually wanted him to go.
These equally desired it.
I kind of want it myself.

a3 Within the verb phrase. These adverbs are the same as for those in preverb positions, with the addition of not, ever, and either.

They were actually compelling him to go.
These have cleverly designed it.
They had definitely accorded him a place in the program.
They had never ridden it before.
They won't ever try it again.

a4 Preceding equated attributives. These consist primarily of the types of adverbs listed under a2 and a3, above.

He is naturally a very timid person.
She is frequently a nuisance.
She is sometimes quite charming.

a5 Preceding attributives. These adverbs are more restricted in number and in frequency of occurrence, than those listed above. The following adverbs are illustrative:

first, then, usually, presently, utterly, accidentally, briefly, somehow, actually

They finish usually the first half only.
He felt keenly his inability.
They examined critically all the people.
He brought out clearly the part that these were to play.
He studied attentively the program of procedure.

In final position, following equated or direct goal attributives. These

These compounds possess an atonic (unaccented) second constituent, and show definite adverbial usage in such expressions as the above and also in He is kind of nice, He likes her kind of well. This usage is colloquial and informal.
adverbs include any of those listed above for various positions, with the exception of the following, which do not regularly occur following 2d attributives or alternating attributives: just, ever, about, hardly, yet (however), quite, almost, never, not, only, really, but, kind of, sort of

He saw them frequently. He put it down suddenly. They planned it carefully yesterday. They destroyed it utterly.

Selection. The selection of the various classes of adverbs has been noted under the analysis of their respective positions of occurrence within the clause. See pages 117-119.

1c Phonetic change. The adverb not occurs in three alternate forms: /nt/, with syllabic ι; /nt/ with nonsyllabic n, and /t/. The first alternate with syllabic ι occurs after need, is, was, did, have, has, had, does, should, would, could, might, ought. The second alternate without syllabic ι occurs after do, are, were, will. The third alternate, namely t, occurs only after can.

Attributives to adverbs

2a Adverbs

a1 Order. Adverbs precede their heads, except in the case of enough, which follows.

a2 Selection. The following adverbs may be attributive to various adverbs noted above in lists of 3d attributives.

how, extremely, probably, as, decidedly, just, really, hardly, however, enough, such, quite, some, much, more, any, only, so, almost, altogether, pretty, rather, truly, too, all, thoroughly, very, no, the

He hit them extremely hard.  
They did it as rapidly as possible.  
They did it carefully enough.

2b Substantives

b1 Order. These substantive expressions precede the adverb head.

b2 Selection. These are largely expressions of quantity and degree, of the following general type:

40 The use with need is comparatively less frequent than the alternate possibility of its occurrence with a verb phrase containing a form of the verb do as first constituent and need as second.
41 Do occurs in an alternate form /dow/ before this alternate of not.
42 Will occurs in an alternate form /wow/ before this alternate of not.
43 No attempt is made to list the various subdivisions of selection for such attributives.
44 Note the use of the in the more fiercely. This pattern is not parallel to the substantive pattern with determiners.
a lot, a great deal, the most, a little, a trifle, a second, ten feet, five yards

a lot better, a great deal sooner, the most beneficially, a little better, a trifle sooner, ten feet further, five yards nearer, one foot under, a rod above

Clauses

With a conjunctive marker functioning as an integral constituent of the dependent clause. These are limited to expressions of time and place, and are of the following type:

Here where the church stood, a man tried...
Once when the preacher coughed, everyone...

c2 With conjunctive marker not serving as an integral constituent of the dependent clause.

2a That clause attributive to so

He hit him so frequently that he completely destroyed his power of resistance.
He addressed him so that he could then snub him.

2b As clause attributive to adverbial expressions with as, so, same, such.

See pages 151 ff. for analysis of the variants of this construction.

He completed the job as fast as he could.
They did it such as we desired.

2c Than clause attributive to adverb with comparative value. See pages 151 ff. for analysis of this construction.

He did it more frequently than the rest.
They did it better than we had anticipated.

Prepositional phrases.

Order. These are postposed to adverb head.

d2 Selection. The prepositional phrases are generally attributive to derivative adverbs which in their adjectival form also take postposed attributives. See page 135 for this pattern.

Luckily for him we sent them off.
Unfortunately for all concerned...
Near to the place we decided...
Far from here we thought...

Marked infinitives

The formula so that is best analyzed analytically, rather than considered as a single syntactic unit.
e1 Order. These are postposed to adverb head.

e2 Selection. These marked infinitives are generally attributive to derivative adverbs, which in their adjectival form also take postposed attributives of the marked infinitive type.

He did it sufficiently to be noticed.
He studied it enough to see the difference.
He did it too slowly to get any benefit.

Substantives as 3d attributives to verb head

c1 Order. These may occur in presubject position, prepredicate position, within the verb phrase, preceding equated attributives, and final to the clause. The presubject position is restricted largely to expressions of time. The prepredicate and intraverb-phrase, and pre-equated-attributive positions are of rarer occurrence and restricted largely to expressions of time. Following the 2d or alternating attributive, depending upon which occurs last, any type of substantive 3d attributive expression may occur.

Last week we finished the job.
Next year I'll see him.
My family last month earned a total of 200 dollars.
We have this year exceeded our limit by about one hundred bushels.
He did it a great deal.
He is this week a changed man.

c2 Selection. These substantive expressions are of the types noted in the following illustrative examples:

This will last me a lifetime.
He meant this, no matter what men may say.
They ran it full speed.
He had it his way.
He gave himself up body and soul.
They saw him face to face.
They faced it both ways.
He took her the first chance.
Draw it back an inch.
He stood it up all night.
He returned it last winter.46

46 Many substantive 3d type attributives occur more regularly with equational or intransitive sentence types. Note the following expressions, many of which are virtually reduced to formulae and compounds: towers head and shoulders, go at it hammer and tongs, come bag and baggage, tooth and nail, hand and foot, hand in hand, arm in arm, sword to sword, hand to mouth, word for word, night after night, day by day.
Clauses marked by conjunctions

d1 Order. In presubject position, prepredicate position, within the verb phrase, and final. Final clauses normally follow other qualifying attributives.

d2 Selection

2a Interclass. These include clauses introduced by the following conjunctive markers:

before, after, since, because, whether (...or), if, whereas, when, whenever, where, how, however, that (purpose), why, though, although, till, until, while, as, than, unless, provided, once, now, for, directly, except, whatever, whatsoever, whoever, whosoever

Before he comes, we must...
These folks, after they have dined, will...
We can, though we are disheartened, try...
I can see him while he is in there.
I'll do it, for I want a change.
Now he has come, this is...
Directly he arrives, we will...
I would do it, except he wants too much.
Whatever his qualifications are, we must not...
Whoever he is, we can't lose that much time.
We did it that he might...
However fast he may do it, we can...

2b Intraclass selection. Tense and phrase sequence. The selection of tense and phrase forms as a matter of sequence generally follows the pattern described on pages 110-111. There are several specialized types for various conjunctions, but only the pattern for if is treated, since “it” is typical of the methodology and has the greatest number of specialized usages.

If clauses.

b1 Simple conditions

1a Not past Selection.

a1 Conditioners. Occurrence in the main clause of any single present

Clauses in prepredicate position and within the verb phrase are usually relatively shorter, and often zero anaphoric substitutes occur for various constituents of the clause, as in Anyone when injured will... These men will, though constantly rebuffed, seek to...

Combinations involving different conditional types are quite frequent. This is only a suggestion of the principal types.

The classification of past or not past is made upon the basis of the tense and phrase forms of the independent clause.
tense form of the verb or verb phrases in which the first constituent (with the exception of have) is a present tense form of an auxiliary. (In certain rare instances verb phrases with have may be included here, e.g. If Jim comes by tomorrow, I have helped him.) Should, expressing obligation and not followed by verb phrases beginning with have, is also included here, under what may be called "primary verb forms".

a2 Constituents. The verb head of the if clause occurs with any of the "primary verb forms" listed above, also with any past tense single verb or verb phrases introduced by present tense forms of have, may (permission), should (obligation), or any forms of be or do.

1b Past

b1 Conditioners. Occurrence in the verb of the main clause of any single past tense form, or verb phrase patterns introduced by past tense form of the auxiliaries have, do, and be.

b2 Constituents. The verb head of the if clause occurs with any single past tense form or verb phrase introduced by a past tense form of do or be.

If he came, I told you so.
If he did come then, I had already gone.
If he was trying, I surely didn't see it.

1a1a2b4d2b2 Contrary-to-fact conditions

2a In the present time. Selection.

a1 Conditioners. Occurrence in the main clause of would, should, might, or could, followed by any infinitive except those having have as 1st constituent.

a2 Constituents. Occurrence in the if clause of were in patterns 2, 3, and 6 (see pp. 156 ff.).

If he were here, I would be helping him.
If they were being threatened, we could be doing something about it.
If I were finished, I should enjoy that recreation.

2b In the past time. Selection.

b1 Conditioners. Occurrence in the main clause of might, would, should, could, or ought with any infinitive possessing have as the 1st constituent of the infinitive phrase.

b2 Constituents. Occurrence in the if clause of had in patterns 1, 4, and 5 (see pp. 156 ff.).

If they had said it, I would have tried...
If he had done it, I would have challenged it.
If he had been guilty of a thing like that, they all should have stopped it.

 Potential conditions.

 3a In the present time. Selection.

 a1 Conditioners. Occurrence in the main clause of would, should, might, or could, followed by any infinitive except those with have as 1st constituent of the infinitive phrase.

 a2 Constituents. Occurrence in the if clause of would, should, might, or could, followed by any infinitive except those with have as 1st constituent.

 If he should do it, I would.
 If I should be successful, then everyone would be trying it.

 3b In the past time. Selection.

 b1 Conditioners. Occurrence in the main clause of would, should, could, or might followed by any infinitive phrase with have as 1st constituent.

 b2 Constituents. Occurrence in the if clause of would, should, could, or might, followed by any infinitive phrase with have as 1st constituent.

 If he would have done it, then I could have helped him.
 If I should have been caught doing that, I would have been mortified beyond words.

 Modulation. All nonfinal 3d attributive clauses are set off by pause-pitch. When final to the sentence, the pause-pitch before the clause is less pronounced, or may even be absent. Its principal distinguishing characteristic is possession of its own intonational clause pattern.

 1st verbals.

 e1 Order. These occur regularly in initial or final position. Those without double attributive value may rarely occur in preverb position and within the verb phrase, as follows:

 This will, barring accidents, make...
 This proposition, granting all its failures, does...

 e2 Selection

 2a Without double "attributive" relationships. These constitute the so-called "dangling" participles, and also those which have a specialized occurrence in this pattern. These latter in many ways resemble prepositions in function, and others closely parallel the sentence attributives noted on pages 148 ff.

 Talking about ghosts, that really scared us.
 Granting this much, the proposition...
PREDICATE EXPRESSIONS IN INDEPENDENT TRANSITIVE CLAUSES

Speaking of monkeys, this one...
Judging from that, our idea wasn’t...

Other words commonly occurring in this pattern are:

supposing, touching, assuming, barring, setting, saving, failing, providing, considering

2b With double attributive value. Certain 1st verbal expressions have been traditionally analyzed as attributive to some substantives within the sentence, e.g. having left there, the man continued for some distance. However, as pointed out in footnote 95, page 88, this participial construction is parallel to other 3d attributive modifiers, and should be so analyzed.

lost ten dollars playing cards, spend time doing that, tore his clothes climbing trees, hurt his knuckles hitting the fellow, set herself to work doing that, wore herself out sewing, waste her time gadding about

4f Second verbals. These are similar to 1st verbal expressions in type and distribution.

Provided he leaves, I don’t care.
He is a pathetic sight loaded down with all that baggage.
Prepared for the worst, he enjoys anything.
Granted he did, then what can we do?

4g Adjective phrases. These are similar to 1st and 2d verbals in type and distribution.

Sick of the affair, we all left.
He left here, anxious to get home early.

4h Dependent-form clauses

h1 Order. These generally occur in initial or final position in the independent clause.

h2 Selection. These “absolute” expressions, as they are generally called, usually possess verb heads consisting of a 1st verbal, 2d verbal, or zero substitute. See pages 154 ff. for analysis of dependent-form clauses. The following examples illustrate the various types:

These precautions taken, we undertook to...
All told, this will prompt...
This done, we will then...
The sun having already risen, we commenced...
Jim being gone, we decided...
His money squandered, he began...
Our breakfast over, let’s try to get out early.
Marked infinitives. These infinitives generally express purpose.

i1 Order. Marked infinitives in this construction may occur in presubject or prepredicate position, and following second or alternating attributives, whichever occurs last. Rarely do they precede alternating attributives or occur within the verb phrase.

i2 Selection. Any type of marked infinitive may occur as 3d type attributive to the verb head.

He whipped the horse to teach it a lesson.
To accomplish his purpose he will turn the world upside down.
They made haste to see him.
INDEPENDENT INTRANSITIVE CLAUSE TYPES

1a1a1b  Intransitive clause types

1a1a1b1  Subject expression

1a1a1b1a  Order.  The intransitive subject head may occur in the same order as does that of the transitive sentence type. However, when the verb phrase is a form of the verb to be, substantives and substitutes (except personal definite pronouns) may occur immediately postverbally, or following the 1st constituent of the verb phrase, when 3d attributive expressions of place, and more rarely of time, occur initially.

This inverted order pattern has the connotative value of being more lively than the regular order, and is often associated with modulatory patterns of surprise, exclamation, and various other types of intensity of emotion. However, when it occurs with the so-called expletive there (which differs from the demonstrative adverb of place in not having a full stress), there is no such connotative significance. The inverted word order is most frequently employed with patterns of the verb phrase which have a form of the verb to be as 1st constituent, and a 1st verbal, single or phrasal, as the 2d constituent. The subject head is normally postposed to the 1st constituent, but may occur within the 3d attributive infinitive phrase, when the latter contains a form of the verb to be and the verb head consists of such verbs as seem, appear, and happen.

For example, There seem to be men coming; There appear to have been some men trying to get in. The following examples are illustrative of various types of inverted order occurring with intransitive clause types. (These are in addition to the types of “inverted” patterns occurring with both transitive and intransitive clauses, pp. 100 ff.).

There¹ was a man trying to remove the lid.
There’s the fellow now.
In went the others.
Off came the heads.
Away flew the kite.
Below Buffalo are the beautiful Niagara Falls.

¹ The occurrence of there with inverted word order in transitive sentence types is relatively rare, and does not regularly occur in the writer’s speech.
On the left was an old barn.
Next to this stood an old-style wagon.
Further ahead was another.

1a Selection. The same types of subject expressions, including heads and attributives, occur in intransitive clause types as in transitive. See pages 66 ff.

1a Predicate expression

1a Verb head

1a Order. The relative order of the subject and predicate expressions is the same as that of the transitive clause type, with the added patterns noted just above under subject expression.

1a Selection

2a Interclass. These are verbs which may occur without attributives, or which may have only 3d type attributives. The following list is illustrative:

stop, cease, go, live, finish, leave, escape, continue, roar, come, grow, call, push, swim, ride, walk, tear (away), cut (up), be, move, belong, dwindle, elapse, fare, faint, glitter, intervene, languish, loom, occur, subside, swoon

2b Intraclass selection. These selections are identical to those listed for the transitive type. See pages 102 ff.

1a Attributes to the verb head

1a 3d attributives. These are identical to those listed under transitive sentence type (see pages 116 ff.), with the addition of the following types peculiar to the intransitive pattern.

1a Adjectives. These define the state, condition, quality, etc. of the subject, or of some object associated with the action.

a1 Order. These always occur postverbally, and often separated from the verb head by other 3d attributives. This is particularly true of attributives stating the condition of the subject.

a2 Selection. Any type of adjective may occur in this pattern. The following are illustrative:

As in the case of the transitive verbs, no attempt is made to make a comprehensive list. Moreover, it should be noted that there is a great deal of class overlap between transitive and intransitive verbs.

To a certain extent one's morphological analysis will influence the manner in which such adjectives are treated, for these adjectives may be treated as adverbs derived from the corresponding adjectives by a zero derivative, and thus as being words with alternate derivative forms, one with -ly, the other with zero.

These must be treated as attributive to the verb, for they may occur in verb expressions without
sit motionless, lie down helpless, listen breathless, enter the service young, turn away sad, survive almost intact, come home sick, sweep clean, stop dead, buy cheap, pay dear, fight fair, talked fine, walks straight, played wild, played safe sleeps light, talks big.

1a1a1a2b2 2d verbals

2a Order. This is the same as that listed for adjectives above.

2b Selection. 2d verbals are restricted largely to defining the condition, state, etc. of the subject of the action, but, like adjectives, are attributive to the verb head, as evidenced in use without subject expressions.

They went equipped.  They came back wounded.
He stared fascinated.  Some passed there unnoticed.

1a1a1b2b3 1st verbals

3a Order. This is the same as for 2d verbals.

3b Selection. The following examples illustrate the pattern:

He came running.  He rides sitting down.
They went on working.  They couldn’t live here doing that.
They hesitated doing that.  She lay gasping.
Some keep on working.  I sat reading.
They burst out laughing.  He teaches standing.

1a1a1b2b4 Substantives. These define the state, condition, etc. of the subject expression, but like the adjective attributives noted on this page must be treated as attributives to the verb.

4a Order. These always occur postverbally, and often separated from the verb head by other 3d attributives.

4b Selection. Any type of substantive expression, but with limitations as to bounded and postposed attributives.

He died a beggar.
We parted enemies.

any subject, as in, To go back sick meant disastrous consequences at that time, To sleep light is the best alarm clock under the circumstances.

* This pattern gradually shades off to that consisting of adjectives as equated attributives. See pp. 132 ff.

* It is sometimes almost impossible to draw the line of distinction between this pattern and that in which 1st verbals function as 2d attributives in transitive constructions. See note 16, p. 108.

* This substantive 3d attributive must be distinguished from the other 3d attributive substantive listed on p. 121. The following sentence has both types: He went off this morning a happy man.
He went off a happy man.
He returned to our town a drunken sot.

4c Modulation. In slow speech there is a tendency to place a pause-pitch before the attributive. Even in fast speech the attributive is usually in a separate intonational phrase. This distinguishes *We parted enemies* (transitive), in which both *parted* and *enemies* are in the same intonational phrase, from *We parted enemies* (intransitive), in which *parted* and *enemies* occur in different intonational phrases, with an intonational juncture between. In very fast speech, however, this distinction may be lost.

1a1a1b2b5 Marked infinitives. In intransitive sentences marked infinitives are not restricted to expressions of purpose, as is general with 3d attributive marked infinitives in transitive predicate expressions.

5a Order. These occur postverbally and may be separated from the verb by other 3d attributives.

5b Selection

b1 Conditioners. Occurrence of one of the following types of verbs as verb head:*

ache (to think), agree, appear, aspire, be, come, condescend, consent, conspire, get, go, grieve (to say), grow, happen, incline, live (to see it), object, proceed, rejoice, remain, rise, seem, set, shrink, smile (to hear it), strive, tend, weep

b2 Constituents. Any marked infinitive.

I ache to think of it, aspire to see him, get to go, go to do it, grow to be a man, object to see it, rejoice to hear, rise to obtain it, seem to do it, tend to go

* It is not always easy to define the degree of purpose involved in such expressions, for many patterns have become mere formulas, as for example, *go to do it*. Also, as noted in note 17, page 108, it is difficult to distinguish between marked infinitives as 3d attributives with intransitive verbs and 2d type attributives with transitive verbs. The verbs listed here are not regularly transitive for this pattern. On the other hand, to differentiate between the marker *to* and the preposition *to* (occurring with unmarked infinitives) is even more complicated. It is best therefore to place these forms together in one class.
INDEPENDENT EQUATIONAL CLAUSE TYPES

1a1a1c  *Equational clause type*

1a1a1c1  *Subject expression*

1a  *Order.* The subject expression has the same order in the clause as that occupied by the subject expression in the transitive clause type (see pages 100 ff.), with an additional type of inversion occurring when certain equated attributives occupy an initial position, as noted on page 132, section 1a1a1c2b1a1a.

1b  *Selection.* The subject expression may be of any type employed in transitive clause type (see pages 66 ff.).

1a1a1c2  *Predicate expression*

1a1a1c2a  *Verb head*

a1  *Order.* The verb head of the equational type has the same relative order to the subject as in the case of the transitive sentence type, with added inversion pattern noted on page 132.

a2  *Selection*

2a  *Interclass.* Equational verbs are those with “equated” attributives. These verbs may be conceived of as “equating” to the subject expression the condition, circumstance, form, state, etc., described in the equated attributive. This equated attributive must be conceived of as endocentric to the verb head, for it may occur with the verb expression and without a subject expression, as in, *To be happy is what counts in life, To be good is seldom as much desired as to be rich.* The following examples are illustrative of equational verbs with typical equated attributives:

fall short, went hungry, holds good, proves impossible, continue good, turn Christian, run dry, fall ill, get angry, keep well, look healthy, prove true, rank high, rest content, shine clear, taste good, sound pretty, sit tight, smell bad, turn cold, go native, become conscious, seem awful, appear beneficial, be himself, look frail, remain faithful
2b *Intraclass selection.* These patterns are the same as for the transitive sentence type (see pages 102 ff.) with the following exceptions:

b1 *Agreement in number.* The verb normally shows agreement with the subject head (i.e. in respect to the occurrence of *s* or non-*s* forms); but in equational sentences, if the equated attributive occurs immediately postverbally and the subject head is not immediately preposed, the agreement may be made upon the basis of the equated attributive; but this is a relatively rare pattern.

The wages of sin is death.

All that the people of this country want are money and leisure.

The great resource of such a country as ours are capital and labor.

1a1a2b *Attributives to the verb head*

1a1a2b1 *Equated attributives*

1a1a2b1a *Adjectives*

a1 *Adjective head*

1a *Order.* Equated adjective attributives occur in postverbal position except (1) when they occur with *how* as an attributive (also *however* in dependent clauses) in interrogative or exclamatory patterns: *How pretty is she?* or *How pretty she is!*; and (2) when the subject expressions have heavy postposed, usually restrictive, attributive expressions; for example, *Brave are the men who accomplished so much against such great odds.* This inverted order has distinct emotional connotative value.

1b *Selection.* Any type of adjective.¹ See list on page 76 for adjectives.

a2 *Attributives to adjective head*

1a1a2b1a2a *Adverbs*

a1 *Order.* Preposed to adjectives except in the case of the adverb *enough*, which is always postposed to its adjective head.

a2 *Selection.* Adverbs of the following type:²

about, absolutely, absurdly, actually, all, almost, altogether, awfully, completely, considerably, curiously, decidedly, distinctly, enough, entirely, equally, especially, essentially, exactly, extraordinarily, extremely, faintly, far, frankly, frightfully, hardly, how, however, impossible, indeed, just, largely, least, less, little, merely, mighty, more, most, much, nearly, needlessly, only, over, particularly, partly, perfectly, practically, pretty, quite, rather, really, simply, slightly, such, sufficient-

¹ Zero anaphoric substitutes may occur for such adjectives, or in fact for any equated attributive, under certain contextually conditioned circumstances, as in, *Are you hungry? I am.*

² This list is not exhaustive and does not indicate the various subclasses of selection.
ly, terribly, thoroughly, too, tremendously, truly, uncommonly, unexpectedly, utterly, very

They were about sick.  You are quite right.
It was absurdly fanciful.  He was less appealing.
It was true enough.  It was pretty awful.

1a1a1c2b1a2b Substitutes

b1 Order.  Preposed
b2 Selection.  Limited to the substitutes this and that.

Is he that young?
I didn't know she was that sick.

1a1a1c2b1a2c Substantives

c1 Order.  Preposed to adjective head

c2 Selection.  These substantives rarely have any attributives other than bounded ones, and are usually expressions of quantity.

a few months old, fifteen thousand men strong, many times finer, centuries old, breast high, four years old, three miles long

He was a few months old.
These are many times finer.

1a1a1c2b1a2d Marked infinitives

d1 Order.  Postposed to adjective head

d2 Selection

2a Conditioners.  Occurrence of one of the following types of adjectives as head:

able, adequate, accustomed, ambitious, anxious, apt, armed, ashamed, averse, bashful, bold, bound, careful, clumsy, competent, deadly, delectable, delighted, difficult, disposed, eager, easy, entitled, excellent, fearful, fearless, first, fit, free, glad, good, happy, hopeless, horrible, impatient, inclined, liable, loath, mad, necessary, needful, new, pleasant, pleased, prone, proud, proper, pure, qualified, ready, reluctant, right, slow, solicitous, sorry, strange, sufficient, sure, sweet, tardy, useful, weary, willing, wise, wrong

With all such words, which are homophonous with the adjectival form, it may be more convenient, owing to the pressure of the overall pattern, to consider them as secondary derivative adverbs with zero adverbializer.
Also, almost any adjective having *too* as a preposed attributive may have a marked infinitive as postposed attributive.

too good to do it, too debased to see the difference, too difficult to be undertaken

2b *Constituents.* Any marked infinitive.

He was able to do it, accustomed to see, ambitious to get it done, apt to come too soon, eager to arrive, impatient to have finished

1a1a2b1a2e *1st verbals*

   e1 *Order.* Preposed to adjective head

   e2 *Selection.* Any type of single 1st verbal; in, however, a limited pattern. The following examples are illustrative:

   pouring wet, passing fair, chilling cold, sparkling white

   It was pouring wet.
   The garment was sparkling white.

1a1a2b1a2f *Clauses*

   f1 *Clauses marked by* what, that, whether, if, when, where, who, how, why, which, and zero.

1a *Order.* Postposed to adjective head

1b *Selection.*

   b1 *Conditioners.* Occurrence of one of the following types of adjectives as head:

   afraid, anxious, aware, boastful, careful, convinced, confident, desirous, doubtful, eager, glad, joyous, mindful, sure, uncertain, wary

   b2 *Constituents.* Clauses introduced by what, that, whether, if, when, where, who, which, how, why, and zero.\(^4\)

   I am afraid he is here.
   He was so boastful that he could do it.
   Some were uncertain whether they should go.

f2 *Clauses introduced by* than or as.

2a *Order.* Postposed to adjective head

2b *Selection*

\(^4\) No attempt is made to give a comprehensive list of adjectives or to state all the possible collocations of adjectives with particular types of clauses.
b1 Conditioners. Expressions with as or so, or use of such for the as clause, and expressions of comparison for the than clause.

b2 Constituents. See pages 151 ff. for analysis of various types of than and as clauses. Examples follow:

He is better than we thought.
They are more thoughtful than the others.
He is as quiet as Dick.
He is such as these men described.

1a1a1c2b1a2g Prepositional phrases attributive to equated adjectives.

g1 Order. Postposed to adjective head.

g2 Selection. Prepositional phrases of any type may be attributive to almost any adjective occurring as an equated attributive.\(^5\)

glad of it, short in stature, inferior to him, easy for him to do it, dependent upon him, good with children, proficient at it, exuberant over this, etc.

1a1a1c2b1b 2d verbals as equated attributives.

b1 Order. Postposed to verb head

b2 Selection. Illustrative examples follow.\(^6\)

I am done. He is finished.
He is gone. They are buried.
They are enlisted. His bills are paid.
I am resolved. The battle is lost.
It is mounted. She is dressed.
It is broken down. The seal is attached.
It is grown. The gun was loaded.
He is come. The door was shut.
He is descended from the van Tills. He is perjured.

1a1a1c2b1c Substitutes

c1 Order. These occur postverbally except who, which, what, whose, which may occur initially in interrogative or exclamatory patterns.

c2 Selection

\(^5\) The only limitation upon this pattern is that of semantic range of possibilities.

\(^6\) Such verbals must be distinguished in the case of transitive verbs from similar goal-action type sentence formations. The distinguishing element is the indication of state, which is equational, in contrast to the indication of the process, which is goal-action; for example, His bills are paid is normally equational, but His bills are paid by check states the process of the goal-action type. Such 2d verbals must also be distinguished from the completely adjectivized forms listed in note 60, page 79.
2a *Interclass.* The following classes of substitutes may occur as equated attributives.

a1 *Personal-definites.* See pages 69 ff. for a complete list.

It is me.
The real character is he who tries...

a2 *Possessive.* See page 73 for a complete list.

This is mine.
Some are ours.
One is John’s.

a3 *Limiting Substitutes.* See page 72 for a complete list, since these are the same as for subject expressions.

Mine are these.
This is something that he can use.
The little ones are some of them.

a4 *Reflexive-emphatic.* See page 98 for a complete list.

He is himself here.
They seemed themselves.
One can be oneself in a place like that.

a5 *Relative-interrogative*

who, whoever, whose, whoever, which, whichever, what, whatever.

Who is he?
What are these?
Whatever are those?

2b *Intracl class selection of subjective-objective form.* With the six substitutes which indicate objective usage, as contrasted with subjective, the colloquial usage usually involves the selection of objective forms, *me, him, her, us, them,* as equated attributives, since these pattern as being in so-called object territory, that is, in postverbal position. *Who,* on the other hand, when functioning as an interrogative or relative pronoun, normally occurs in so-called “subject” territory, and accordingly is found in the subjective form. In purely colloquial contexts, the use of the subjective form of any of the personal pronouns (except *who*) as an equated attributive of the pronouns bears the connotation of stiltedness and pedantry.

1a1alc2b1d *Substantives as equated attributives*

7 *It* as equated attributive may have the added substitution value of having an adjective as an antecedent, e.g. *Though she is shy, she never looks it.*
1a Order. These occur normally in postverbal position, but may occur initial to the clause with the determiners *what* or *which* in interrogative constructions, or with *what* in predeterminer position in an exclamatory construction.

Which man is he?
What thing is this?
What a man he is!

1b Selection

b1 Interclass. Any type of substantive may occur as an equated attributive (see pages 67 ff. for analysis of substantive types).

He turned traitor.
He became a man.
This fellow was the boss of the group.

b2 Intraclass selection.

2a Determiner usage. Substantives normally bounded in subject position may occur, without determiners, as equated attributives when the semantic value of the attribution to the head is that of quality to substance. Note the following illustrative examples:

She is Low-Church.
He can be leader tonight.
You are director of this.
He became secretary to the president.
He is heir to the throne.
She is mother to these children.
They were master of it.

2b Number. When equated attributives have determiners and are conceived of as countables (other than group names), a singular subject selectively determines a singular equated attributive; likewise, a plural subject selectively determines a plural equated attributive.

These men are my friends.
My friend was a genius.

1a11c2b1d2 Attributes to substantives employed as equated attributives. Substantive expressions with regular bounded attributives may have all the postposed and appositive attributives occurring with any such substantive expressions. Substantive expressions of the type noted above, (this page), section 1a11c2b1d1b2a, occurring

* Rare exceptions to this pattern occur with such expressions as *I am friends with him.*
without determiners, may have the following adverbial attributives occurring preposed, except in the case of enough, which occurs postposed. This pattern is not common.

He was fully master of it.
It was too tenth century.
You are too sledge-hammer in action.
He is not High-Church enough.
He was man enough to admit it.

1a Independent form marked by conjunction

1a Order. Postposed to verb

1b Selection. Clauses introduced by what, whatever, whatsoever, who, whoever, whosoever, whose, whosoever, whatsoever, that, if, because, how, why, where, when, and zero. The occurrence of particular clauses is somewhat conditioned by the subject head expression, as indicated in some of the following examples, paralleling the semantic classes noted in postposed clause attributives to substantive heads (see pp. 95 ff.).

The wonder is that he...
My view is that he should try again.
His conviction is that...
The fact is we need many more men for the jobs.
That is why I live here.
This is where he failed.
He was not who he seemed to be.

1a1 Dependent-form clauses

2a Order. Postposed to verb.

2b Selection. These are of the following illustrative types:

The difficulty is Joe coming in too late.
Most theology is man trying to speculate about God.
Justification is man declared righteous by God.

1a1f Marked infinitives

f1 Order. Postposed to verb.

f2 Selection. Any type of marked infinitive:

My desire is to see this done.
His purpose has been to give himself...
To see is to believe.
3d attributives to the verb head in equational clause type.

2a Order. The relative orders are the same as for 3d attributives of the transitive clause type, except immediately postverb (see pp. 116 ff. for analysis of 3d attributives with transitive type). In the equational type clause, any type of 3d attributive which may occur preverbally or within the verb phrase in the transitive type clause may occur in the position between the verb and the equated attributive.

2b Selection. These are of the same types as those listed under transitive clause type (see pp. 116 ff.).
INDEPENDENT GOAL-ACTION CLAUSE TYPES

1a2a Subject expression. Identical in order and selection to types listed under intransitive clause type.1 Semantically they are parallel with 2d attributives to transitive verbs, for the goal-action clause may be derived from the transitive clause by grammatical transposition of component parts.

1a2b Predicate expression

1a2b1 Verb head

1a Order. These clauses retain the same relative order as any verb phrase in intransitive clause type.

1b Selection

b1 Interclass. Include all words which permit the so-called “passive” inversion, almost all transitives (except such words as cost, and such slang expressions as cheese it, beat it, can it, which are transitive in form but intransitive in meaning), and many so-called intransitives with prepositional phrase attributives (see pp. 141 ff. for listing of this class).

1a2b1b2 Intraclass

2a Patterns for verb phrase. These verbs occur only in patterns 3, 4, and 6. See p. 156.

He is helped.
He has been helped.
He is being helped.

2b All other intraclass selection is identical with that noted for transitive clause types (see pp. 102 ff.).

1a2b2 Attributives to the verb head

1 Note the use of there in goal-action clauses: There have been some men killed by this storm. To this list there may be added some others.
1a1a2b2a 1st attributives. These occur only when the 2d attributive of the underlying transitive construction becomes the subject of the goal-action expression.

a1 Order. Same relative order as for transitive clause type (see page 100).

a2 Selection

2a Conditioners. Occurrence of one of the following verbs as verb head: accord, afford, allot, answer, ask, assign, award, bequeath, bet, bring, buy, cable, carry, cause, charge, concede, copy, deal, deny, do, entrust, fashion, feed, fling, forbid, foretell, forgive, forward, furnish, give, grant, guarantee, hand, leave, lend, make, offer, owe, paid, pay, permit, prescribe, present, promise, provide, reach, read, refuse, remit, restore, save, send, serve, show, spare, tell, throw, transmit, vote, wire, wish, write

2b Constituents. Any type of 1st attributive listed under transitive sentence type (see pages 105 ff.).

A place was accorded him.
The question was answered him.
This medal was awarded him.
A piece of bread was flung him.
This was voted him.
A letter was written him from Memphis.

1a1a2b2b 2d attributives. These occur only when the 1st attributive or a portion of the 2d attributive of the underlying transitive construction becomes the subject head of the goal action clause.

b1 Order. Same relative order as for the transitive clause type (see page 100).

b2 Selection

2a Conditioners

a1 For 2d attributives of endocentric constructions.

1a Without zero anaphoric substitute for any constituent. The conditioners for this pattern are the same verbs as those listed in section 1a1a1a2b1b1, pp. 105 ff., except for the verb cost.

He was given a place.
They were offered a job.
He was paid the bill.
They were dealt a serious blow.
He was forgiven his mistake.
He was owed money.
The horse was fed corn.
1b *With zero anaphoric substitute for the 2d constituent of the prepositional phrase attributive to the 2d attributive head.* These occur only when the 2d constituent of such a prepositional phrase becomes the subject of the goal-action clause. The following expressions illustrate the pattern:

- He was taken care of.
- This must be paid attention to.
- This was almost lost sight of.
- He was made a fool of.
- New means were had recourse to.

Given effect to, were made short work of, was caught hold of, was made an example of, were made use of, was taken notice of, was put a stop to, was taken possession of, was found fault with, was taken offence at, was made love to, was set fire to, was said good-by to, was made light of.

1a1a2b2b2a2 *For 2d attributives of basically exocentric constructions.* These occur when the 1st immediate constituent, namely, the subject expression of the dependent form clause in the underlying transitive construction, becomes the subject of the head clause, as in the shift from *They told him to go* to *He was told to go.* The conditioners for the various classes of 2d constituents of such dependent-form clauses are:

2a *With marked infinitive.* Occurrence of one of the verbs listed under section 1a1a1a2b2b2f2a1, page 112, with the exception of *dislike* and *like.*

- He was advised to do it.
- They were impelled to go.
- These were judged to be wrong.
- Some were counseled to remain.

2b *With unmarked infinitive.* Occurrence of *see, let, help, bid* as verb heads of goal-action clauses. The more regular pattern employs marked infinitives.

- He was seen go.
- He was let go.
- He was helped go.

2c *With 1st verbal, single or phrasal.* Occurrence of one of the following verbs as verb head of the goal-action clause:

- apprehend, catch, depict, fancy, feel, get, have, hear, imagine, keep, observe, overhear, pardon, permit, picture, prevent, recollect, remember, report, represent, see, set, watch

- He was caught doing it.
- They were depicted trying to get by.
He was heard leaving.
They were kept going.

2d With 2d verbal. Occurrence of one of the following verbs as verb head of the goal-action clause:

- behold, believe, consider, depict, desire, fancy, get, have, hear, imagine, keep, make, observe, order, perceive, permit, picture, prefer, remember, request, see, want, watch

- He was believed tortured.
- He was considered slain.
- They were imagined imprisoned.
- They were ordered removed.

2e With zero verb head. Occurrence of one of the following types of verbs as verb head of the goal-action clause:

- admit, appoint, assume, believe, call, choose, claim, confess, consider, count, create, crown, declare, deem, drive, dub, elect, esteem, fancy, feel, find, get, have, hold, imagine, judge, keep, lay, leave, make, proclaim, prove, put, regard, render, see, set, spread, think, turn, want

- He was appointed king.
- They were believed wise.
- They were held prisoners.
- They were made strong.
- It was spread thin.
- They were taken prisoner.

1a1a2b2b2b Constituents. These are of any type listed under transitive clause constructions, pp. 111 ff.

1a1a2b2c Alternating attributives. Occur only where the 1st or 2d type attributive has become the subject of the goal-action clause.

- c1 Order. Have the same relative order as in the transitive clause types.
- c2 Selection. The same as those listed under transitive clause types (see pp. 116 ff.). The following examples illustrate the pattern:

- His troubles were explained away.
- His hat was put on.
- The proposition was taken up.

Most verb heads which may be said to “actualize” the state or condition of the 2d constituent of the dependent-form clause may occur in goal-action constructions. Note this usage with clauses discussed on page 114, section 1a1a1a2b2b2f2e2, He was set free, He was shot dead, It was toasted brown, It was washed white, The town was painted red.
The jar was set in.
They were stripped off.
This was given out.

1a1a2b2d 3d attributives.

  d1 Order. Occur in the same relative order as 3d attributives listed for transitive clause types (see pp. 116 ff.).

  d2 Selection. Identical with those listed for intransitive clause type, with the following exception:

    2a Prepositional phrases with zero anaphoric substitute for 2d constituent, which occur only where the 2d constituent in a prepositional phrase attributive to a verb head of an intransitive clause has become the subject of the goal-action clause type, as in the transposition from They spoke of him to He was spoken of.

    a1 Order. Immediately postposed to the verb phrase of the goal-action clause, except for short adverbs of location and direction, as in The work was come back to after considerable delay, He was put up with, This girl was gone out with.

    a2 Selection

    2a Conditioners. These prepositional phrases, with zero anaphoric substitute occurring for the 2d constituent, are generally limited to phrases introduced by the prepositions listed under a1 to a28, and occurring as attributive to the verb heads noted with each preposition.⁸

        a1 about
        joke, laugh, write, talk, whisper, speculate, converse, think, trouble

        a2 above
        rise, go, fly, drive, soar

        a3 across
        go, walk, run, ride, fly, look, drive

        a4 after
        go, run, drive, strive, seek, search, call, hunt, gape, hunger, long, pine, walk, leap, spread, watch, look, send

        a5 against
        run, drive, go, walk, strive, hit, ride, strike, back, war, fight, proceed

⁸ This list is not exhaustive, but illustrates the range of possibilities.
a6 around
run, go, walk, drive, slide, jump

a7 at
laugh, look, strike, hit, run, shoot, grasp, spit, hiss, aim, throw, snarl, jeer, mock, rail, smile, guess, connive, peep, scowl, snap, wonder, sneer, pout, fire, play, wink, arrive

a8 before
fly, yield, go, drive, ride

a9 beneath
fall, go, walk, ride

a10 beyond
pass, go, walk, ride, drive

a11 by
pass, go, walk, run, come, ride, swear, drive

a12 down
go, walk, step, drive

a13 for
hope, wait, strive, call, atone, wish, ask, plead, answer, substitute, grab, long, come, go, cry, write, listen, stay, watch, send, struggle, seek, provide, prepare, stand, allow, pay, account, speak, make, search, inquire, beg, look, dig, hunt

a14 from
turn, deviate, withdraw, abstain, rest, fall, depart, flee, refrain, run

a15 in
work, sleep, lie, fish, spit, join, engage, meddle, interfere, rejoice, recline, share, indulge, believe, dwell

a16 into
look, back, enter, give, marry, break, burst, run, walk, go, see, penetrate

a17 of
speak, feel, think, smell, hear, talk, dream, repent, beware, taste, sniff, approve, boast, conceive, disapprove, permit, despair
INDEPENDENT GOAL-ACTION CLAUSE TYPES

a18 on
count, bet, think, prevail, agree, write, talk, hit, strike, resolve, sit, jump, fall

a19 onto
run, drive, walk, fly, step

a20 over
talk, jump, walk, climb, crawl, drive, triumph, preside, go

a21 past
run, walk, go, ride, tear

a22 through
ride, tunnel, fall, look, speak, go, work, pass, run

a23 to
write, sing, read, speak, call, preach, give, listen, appeal, attend, see, run, go,
whisper, howl, appeal, pray, lament, lie, glue, cling, stick, submit, bind, tie,
fasten, chain, rivet, pin, attach, ally, dance, yield, object, reply, subscribe, defer,
phone, telegraph, attain, stick, confess

a24 under
walk, run, climb, slide, go

a25 up

a26 upon

a27 with
look, smile, gape, frown, call, wait, bet, shine, impose, resolve, breathe, ponder
decide, play, begin, remark

a28 without

It was joked about.
The river was driven across.

2b Constituents. The following examples are illustrative:

It was joked about.
The river was driven across.
He was run after.
This was striven against.
It was gone around.
He was laughed at.
The place was passed beyond.
This was passed by.
The steps were gone down.
This was hoped for.
This habit was abstained from.
His clothes were slept in.
This must be gone into.
He was spoken of.
This can be counted on.
The walk can be driven onto.
This should be gone over.
The place was gone past.
The hill was tunneled through.
She was sung to.
The road was gone under.
The hill was walked up.
They were smiled upon.
They were sympathized with.
Bread must be gone without.
ATTRIBUTIVES TO CLAUSES

1a1b Attributives to clauses

1a1bl Nonparenthetical. These comprise largely the so-called sentence adverb expression.

1a1bla Order. These occur initially, preverbally, or within the verb phrase. Only rarely may they occur following the verb head, and the usual position is initial to the clause.

1a1blb Selection

1a1blb1 Adverbs. The following adverbs often serve as clause attributives:

undoubtedly, naturally, apparently, curiously, undeniably, possibly, inadvertently, unfortunately, honestly, nevertheless, briefly, apparently, luckily, admittedly, perhaps, significantly, frankly, presumably, happily, certainly, likewise, further, secondly, sometimes, still, yet, besides, however, therefore, hence, again, notwithstanding, consequently, accordingly, meanwhile, conversely, moreover, furthermore, rather, really, probably, foolishly, then, thus

Undoubtedly, this proposition will mean a great deal.
Moreover, I think that he is...
Some, therefore, have the idea that...
Naturally, we suppose that he...
Unfortunately, he arrived too late.
Altogether, this is most unfortunate.

1a1blb2 Prepositional phrases. These are of the following types:

On the contrary, I believe...

1 Certain adverbs show marked differences of meaning when attributive to the verb head or other constituents, in contrast to being attributive to the entire clause. Note the following contrastive sentences: He naturally read the letter. He read the letter naturally. He simply replied by mail. He replied by mail simply. I foolishly planned it. I planned it foolishly. He wrote clearly. Clearly, it is the name of a foreigner. He acted wisely. He wisely acted as he should. He is really sick. Really, he is sick.
In consequence, do you believe...
On the other hand, on that account, in other words, by the way, after all.

1a1b1b3 Adjectives with attributives. This rare pattern includes the following expressions:

Strange as it seems, we must...
Needless to say, this is...
Exclusive of all this, there must be some way...

1a1b1b4 Substantive expressions. This rare pattern includes the following expressions:

Sympathy or no sympathy, I wanted to go...
All the same, this is going...
War or no war, some think that they...

1a1b1b5 Infinitives

5a Marked infinitives

To tell the truth, this is not...
To do it justice, this should not really...
To be honest, this thing is too shaken to...
To start with, there seems to be...

5b Unmarked infinitives

Cost what it may, I still want to...
Try as I may, I suppose that I shall never...

1a1b1b6 Clauses marked by conjunctive marker. The substitute which may have as its antecedent an entire clause, as in the following examples:

They came in large hordes, which is bad form.
They will never get it right, which after all will be somewhat to our advantage.
I told them that I thought so too, which didn't make the slightest difference to them.

1a1b1c Modulation. In moderate speech such expressions as these are usually set off by an intonational break, particularly if they occur initially. In rapid speech, such contrasts may be lost.

1a1b2 Parenthetical. These expressions, rather limited in number, are only formally associated with the clause.² They do not pattern as integral parts of any endocentric or exocentric construction. Examples follow.

² These are like enclitics to words, which do not form a functional unity in the morphology, but do constitute a part of the phonological unity. These extrapositional elements are part of the sentence phonologically, and are dependent upon it, in that they do not constitute complete linguistic utterances. They are listed here because of their close association in value to the sentence attributives noted just above.
That is, namely, I think, in brief, etc.

My idea, that is, the one that he gave me, is to...
This proposition, namely, the conversion of all...
This project, I think, is what you want...

Such parenthetical expressions are always set off by pause-pitches.
DEPENDENT EXOCENTRIC PATTERNS

1a2 Dependent exocentric patterns

1a2a Independent-form\(^1\) clauses marked by conjunctions.

1a2a1 Clauses in which the marker constitutes the 1st immediate constituent and the clause constitutes the 2d.

1a2a1a Conjunctive markers

a1 Order. These markers occur before the clause.

a2 Selection. These are:

before, after, since, because, that, whether, if, though, although, till, until, while, as,\(^2\) so, than,\(^3\) unless, providing,\(^4\) provided,\(^4\) once, now, lest,\(^5\) for, whereas, except,\(^6\) directly,\(^7\) immediately,\(^7\) like, without, and zero\(^8\)

1a2a1b 2d immediate constituents in independent-form clauses.

b1 Order. These follow the conjunctive markers.

---

1 These are called "independent-form clauses" since the subject and predicate constituents are identical in form with those occurring in completely independent sentences.

2 As clauses are restricted to attribution to expressions containing as, so, same, proportion, etc., and some relatively less frequent situations when adjectives or adverbs occur without as attributives preposed, as in, bad as this is. This type of as clause is to be differentiated from as used purely as 3d type temporal attributive to the verb head. The latter type does not permit the extensive zero anaphoric substitution noted below (p. 152).

3 Than clauses are restricted to attribution to expressions of comparison or preference.

4 Such 1st and 2d verbal forms as providing, provided, considering, seeing, supposing, etc., in such expressions as Seeing he did it, then there must..., Supposing this is true, someone must see to it that..., Considering he did all that, there is some purpose..., may be considered conjunctive markers rather than so-called dangling participles (see analysis as 3d attributives above, p. 124).

5 Lest is obsolescent.

6 Clauses with except are considerably more restricted in use and variation of pattern with 2d immediate constituents.

7 Clauses with directly and immediately are comparatively rare. Note, however, such expressions as Directly he saw me, he rushed away, and Immediately we entered, they turned upon us. These are parallel in patterning to once and now.

8 This zero may be classed as an alternate of that, owing to the parallelism of pattern (see p. 71).
b2 *Selection.* Any type of clause may be the 2d constituent of such a pattern. The following types of zero-anaphoric substitution may occur with various markers:

2a *Zero-anaphoric substitution of the subject.*

More people than regularly came were...
This happened as follows.\(^9\)
Such as seldom arrive on time...
There were none but tried it once in a while.
Although elected by a majority, he thought...
Once christened, they think that...
Whether deceived or not, he will nevertheless...

2b *Zero-anaphoric substitution for the verb expression.\(^{11}\)*

She plays with it much as a cat with a mouse.
He cherishes his humble hut more than his rich neighbor the palace on the hill.

2c *Zero-anaphoric substitute for 2d attributive.*

More men than he invited...
As many as he wanted...
There were none but he knew.

2d *Zero-anaphoric substitution for the 2d constituent of a prepositional phrase.*

More than he spoke of...
There were fewer than she told the story to.
As many as I can take care of...
None but were properly spoken to...

2e *Zero-anaphoric substitution for equated attributive.*

As fine as Jim is...
There are none better than Sally is.

2f *Zero-anaphoric substitution for all the clause except the 3d attributive.*

It was better then than now.
He was as fine then as in the picture.
Although already in the house, he refused...
Once there, he said that he didn’t...
While at our place, he refuses...
She is happier than if she were rich...

---

\(^9\) No attempt is made here to be exhaustive. Only the various types are listed and representative illustrations given. The problem of zero-anaphoric substitution is one of the most complex grammatical problems in English.

\(^{10}\) Such expressions have indefinite antecedents for the zero substitute.

\(^{11}\) More regularly a form of the verb *do* occurs as an anaphoric substitute.
2g. **Zero-anaphoric substitution of all but the equated attributive.**

He is more generous than kind.
He passes as rich.\(^\text{12}\)
She was everything except nice.
While sick, one shouldn't try that sort of thing.
Whether well or not, that is not the question.
Though beautiful, she surely was not...

2h. **Zero-anaphoric substitution of all but the 2d attributive.**

I like Jane better than Virginia.
He tried to loaf rather than work.
I like Tom as well as Dick.
We prefer to walk than to ride.

2i. **Zero-anaphoric substitution for all but the subject.**

He is more educated than Jane.
He is as fine as anyone here.

2j. **Zero-anaphoric substitution for all but the 2d constituent of a prepositional phrase.**

He thought more of riding than walking.
He was as fond of cards as anything.

2k. **Zero-anaphoric substitution for all but the verb head.\(^\text{13}\)**

They were as kind as could be.

1a2a2 **Clauses in which the marker constitutes an integral unit within the exocentric pattern of the subject-predicate type.**

1a2a2a **Conjunctive markers.** These may occur in any clause type having the grammatical constituents with which the conjunctions are listed. (See the various sections on such grammatical constituents for a listing of the conjunctive markers and an analysis of their function.)

a1 **Conjunctive markers functioning as subject expressions.**

that, which, whichever, whatsoever, who, whoever, what, whatever, whatsoever, and zero\(^\text{14}\)

\(^{12}\) In this specialized pattern for also occurs. Note the similarity in *They left him as dead*, and *They left him for dead*. Also *He passes for rich*.

\(^{13}\) Types of substitution may be continued if one considers the constituents in dependent-form clauses which may have zero-anaphoric substitutes, but the above is sufficient for an outline of types. Except for *than* and *as*, zero-anaphoric substitution is confined mostly to substitution for the subject, or all except the 3d attributive or the equated attributive.

\(^{14}\) This involves such expressions as *There was a man came to see you*. 
The man that came will help me.
He asked who was there.

a2 Conjunctive markers functioning as indirect goals (or 1st attributives).  
who, whom, whoever, whomever, whosoever, whomsoever, that, and zero

The man he gave the money will never come back.

a3 Conjunctive markers functioning as direct-action goals (or 2nd attributives).
These are the same as those for subject expressions, with the addition of whom.

He wondered whom they met.
The man whom they saw...

a4 Conjunctive markers functioning as 2nd constituents in prepositional phrases
(these are the same as those employed as subject expressions).

I wondered whom they were speaking of.
He asked whom they cared for.

a5 Conjunctive markers functioning as equated attributives.  
These are the same as for subject expressions.

He wasn't the man that he used to be.
They asked what he was.

a6 Conjunctive markers functioning as 3rd attributives.  
when, where, why, how, however, howsoever, wherever, whenever, and zero

They asked where I lived.
The place he worked was terrible.
He wondered how he could do it.

a7 Conjunctive markers functioning as determiners.

which, whichever, whichever, what, whatever, whatsoever

They questioned whichever man showed up.
They wondered what man was there.

1a2b Dependent-form clauses.  May be of any basic type.

1a2b1 Subject expression.

---

15 Normally the pattern with prepositional usage is preferred, as in, The man he gave the money to will never come back.

16 These possibilities may be increased by considering the constituents in dependent clauses, but these examples indicate the range of the pattern.

17 Classed as dependent form on the basis of the objective forms occurring for the six substitutes, me, him, her, us, them, and whom, and the nonfinite character of the verb.
DEPENDENT EXOCENTRIC PATTERNS

1a Order. Preposed to the verb head.

1b Selection. May be of any class of subject expressions occurring in independent clauses, with the restrictions that: (1) these subject expressions of dependent-form clauses are predominantly substantives or substitutes; (2) they do not occur with preposed attributives of the type attributive to substantives and substitutes; and (3) the objective forms occur in the case of me, him, her, us, them, and whom.

1a2b2 Predicate expression. The verb head may occur with any types of attributives normally occurring with transitive, intransitive, or equational verbs. In the following section, however, only the verb heads are considered.

2a Order. Postposed to subject.

2b Selection. The following types\(^\text{18}\) of verb heads occur.

b1 Any type of marked infinitive as verb head.

him to go, them to see him, there to be no trouble, the people to be discouraged

They wanted him to go.
They commanded them to see him.

b2 Any unmarked infinitive, single or pattern 3.

him go, them do it, him be threatened.\(^\text{19}\)

I saw him go.
I noticed them do it.
I saw him be threatened.

b3 Any verbal, single and phrase types 1, 3, 4, and 5.

him going, them doing it, being encouraged, them having helped

I saw him going.
They noticed them doing it.
I remember him being encouraged.
I remember them having helped.

b4 Any 2d verbal

him slain, them crippled by the accident

We saw him slain.
They imagined them crippled by the accident.

\(^{18}\) For the variety of patterns in which these clauses occur, see various sections of the outline on independent clause types.

\(^{19}\) Compare the corresponding independent form clauses: I saw he went, I noticed they did it, I saw he was threatened.
b5 With zero verb head\textsuperscript{20}

him happy, him in good spirits, him king.

I wanted him happy.
I found him in good spirits.
They chose him king.

1a2c \textit{Verb Phrases}\textsuperscript{21}

1a2cl \textit{Basic constructions}.

1a2c1a \textit{Second immediate constituents}\textsuperscript{22}

\begin{enumerate}
\item \textit{Order.} These follow the 1st immediate constituents.
\item \textit{Selection}\textsuperscript{23}
\begin{enumerate}
\item \textit{1st verbal, single.} These occur in patterns 2 and 5.
\begin{itemize}
\item going, hitting, playing, being, saying, etc.
\end{itemize}
\item \textit{2d verbal.} These occur in patterns 1, 3, 4, and 6.
\begin{itemize}
\item gone, beaten, fallen, cut, played, etc.
\end{itemize}
\end{enumerate}
\end{enumerate}

1a2c1b \textit{First immediate constituents}

\begin{enumerate}
\item \textit{Order.} These precede the 2d immediate constituents.
\item \textit{Selection}
\begin{enumerate}
\item \textit{With one constituent element:}
\begin{enumerate}
\item \textit{Any single finite form of have (namely, have, has, or had) plus any 2d verbal (pattern 1).}
\begin{itemize}
\item have helped, has gone, had become
\end{itemize}
\item \textit{Any single finite form of be (namely, am, is, are, was, were) plus any 1st verbal (pattern 2).}
\begin{itemize}
\item am helping, is going, were becoming, was trying
\end{itemize}
\end{enumerate}
\end{enumerate}
\end{enumerate}

\textsuperscript{20} Note the corresponding clauses with marked infinitives: \textit{I wanted him to be happy, I found him to be in good spirits, They chose him to be king.}

\textsuperscript{21} The exocentricity of this pattern is evidenced in the nonidentity of the resultant phrase from the function class of either constituent. The resultant phrase belongs to the function class of the second constituent as regards attributives, but the 2d constituent alone does not pattern as a finite verb expression, while the phrase as a whole does have this value.

\textsuperscript{22} This immediate constituent is second in order, but for convenience of listing is noted first.

\textsuperscript{23} These second constituents under certain contextually conditioned circumstances may have a zero-anaphoric substitute.
a3 Any single finite form of be (am, is, are, was, were) plus any 2d verbal of the goal-action class of verbs (pattern 3).

am helped, is killed, are kicked, was tortured

1a2c1b2b With two constituents. These are patterns 1 and 2 above.

1a2c1b2b1 Any single finite form of have plus been.

1a These occur with any 2d verbal of the goal-action class (pattern 4).

has been helped, had been killed, have been kicked

1b These occur with any 1st verbal except being (pattern 5).

has been helping, has been coming, has been proving

b2 Any single finite form of be plus being. These occur with any 2d verbal of the goal-action class (pattern 6).

is being helped, was being killed

1a2c2 Secondary constructions

1a2c2a Second constituents

a1 Order. These follow the 1st immediate constituents.

a2 Selection. Any infinitive pattern (pages 157-158; based on patterns, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

have helped, be helping, be helped, have been helped, have been helping

1a2c2b First immediate constituents.

b1 Order. Precede the 2d immediate constituents.

b2 Selection. Occur in any single finite form, together with the following type of infinitives.

2a With any unmarked infinitive

will, shall, may, can, must

2b With any marked infinitive

ought

Get may likewise be considered as patterning as be in this pattern, as shown by such usage as They got married by the old parson.

The sequence of two words in such verb phrases containing the morpheme be does not occur. No infinitive is built on pattern 6.

Under contextually conditioned circumstances, zero-anaphoric substitution may occur for such 2d constituents.

Ought patterns with the other so-called auxiliaries in the use of zero-anaphoric substitutions, in not occurring as a regular verb of any other class, and in not possessing an infinitive.
2c With any single unmarked infinitive

do

2d With unmarked infinitive, single or phrase patterns 1, 2, and 3.

had (with 3d attributives better, rather, sooner, etc.)

Had better go, had rather have gone better
better go, better have done, better be saying

1a2d Infinitives, phrasal

1a2d1 Unmarked. Have the same constituents as the first five basic patterns listed on page 156 f., except that the first constituent is an infinitive rather than a finite form.

(1) have helped, (2) be helping, (3) be helped, (4) have been helped, (5) have been helping.

1a2d2 Marked infinitives

2a 1st immediate constituent

a1 Order. The marker to precedes the 2d immediate constituents.

a2 Selection. To is the marker for infinitives, single or phrasal.

2b 2d immediate constituent. Zero-anaphoric substitution may occur for any 2d constituent under contextually conditioned circumstances.

b1 Order. These follow the first immediate constituent.

b2 Selection. Any single or phrase infinitives. Such infinitives may occur in any frame, as being single or multiple, with or without co-ordinators, etc., as any verb phrase (see pages 100 ff.). Such 2d constituents may have as attributives any type of attributive noted for the various classes of finite verb heads. Attributives preposed to 2d constituents are relatively short.

to have helped him, to be trying something new, to be furnished a bed, to have been constantly helped, to have been slowly becoming better, to be good, to quietly wait

1a2e Verbals, phrasal. The order and constituents are identical with those of the basic finite verb phrase patterns 1, 3, 4, and 5, except that the 1st constituent is always a 1st verbal. These phrase verbals may have as attributives any class of attribution listed for the respective verb classes.

(1) having helped, (3) being helped, (4) having been helped, and (5) having been helping

1a2f Prepositional phrase expressions
Prepositional phrases as exocentric heads to endocentric constructions (see page 163, for attributives to prepositional phrases). Prepositional phrases are normally attributive to some other part of the sentence; the few instances in which such phrases have endocentric attributives are described here.

1a 1st constituent

a1 Order. These precede the 2d constituent, except where the 2d constituent is employed as a clause marker and occurs before the 1st constituent, usually at the beginning of the clause. These markers are that, who, whoever, whosoever, whom, whomever, whomsoever, what, whatever, whatsoever, which, whichever, whichsoever, where, wherever, wheresoever, and zero (see p. 154).

a2 Selection

2a Frame

a1 Single

He was with the man.
He came in the house.

2b Multiple

2a With single co-ordinators

and, or, and pause-pitch

by and for the people
These flew above, below, and through the screen mesh.
They were in or below the entanglement.
over and above these

2b With double co-ordinators

either...or, neither...nor, both...and

They were neither for nor against it.
They are either in or near his home.
They are both in and of the group.

2b Constituents. One of the following words:

The following types of expressions, which in many cases are largely reduced to formulas, are best considered analytically: in accordance with, in addition to, in care of, on behalf of, by means of, by reason of, by way of, on account of, with regard to, contrary to, owing to, due to, relative to. A sequence of adverb plus prepositional phrase is best treated analytically as an adverb with prepositional attributive, this being a common pattern. The following common collocations may best be treated in this manner: up to, out of, down in, instead of, along with, abreast of, apart from. Since the word because does not pattern regularly as an adverb, it may be considered as a preposition which occurs only with a prepositional phrase as 2d constituent, a pattern which may occur with from and till. However, its parallelism to words listed just above may justify its classification as an
DEPENDE NT EXO CENTRIC PATTE RNS

aboard, about, above, across, after, against, along, alongside, amid, among, around, as,a astride, at, atop, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, besides, between, betwixt, beyond, but, by, concerning, despite, down, during, except, for, from, in, into, like, minus,b near, next, of, off, on, onto, opposite, outside, over, past, per, plus,30 round, save, since, through, throughout, till, to, towards, under, underneath, until, unto, up, upon, via, with, within, without

1b Second immediate constituents in prepositional phrases.31

b1 Order. Follow the 1st immediate constituents, except for cases noted above in section 1a2f1a1, page 159.

b2 Selection

2a Substantives. Any type of substantive expression, with the restriction that only bounded, postposed, and appositive attributives may occur.

in the very little house, with the man in gray, by the tumble-down shop sheltered with sprawling sycamores.

2b Substitutes. Any type of substitute occurring as 1st or 2d type attributive to the verb head. See pages 105 ff. and pages 107 ff.

with her, for others, with yours, at John’s, from ourselves, for each other, see to it that he doesn’t...

2c Adverbs

c1 Conditioners. Occurrence of the following types of prepositions:

by, till, from, for, in, out, back, up, down, along, across, through, over, round, around, off, near, until, before, at, since

2c Constituents. These are principally adverbs of location and time. Examples follow:

long

till then, by far, since when can’t I do that?, out there, back here, down there, from behind, from abroad, until now, till then, at once, forever, since then, by then, for

adverb which always has as attributive a postposed prepositional phrase of which the 1st constituent is of. The fact that attributives of certain 1st verbal forms are restricted to the same classes as are most prepositions places them also in the above list of prepositions on the basis of parallelism of pattern. These are: concerning, considering, excepting, notwithstanding, regarding, saying, touching, barring. See p. 124 for an alternative classification.

30 Usually as functions as a conjunction, but in some constructions it is best treated as a preposition, e.g. as a rule (he went to sleep), as a general (he was a flop), as usual (I went).

31 These may occur single or multiple in the same types of frames as the 1st constituents. See pp. 158-160.
2d Adjectives. This limited pattern may be illustrated as follows:

in private, in earnest, at large, in vain, at last, at first, on high, of old, of late, in brief, in common, at full, in general, of old, in particular, in short, for better or worse, through thick and thin.

2e 1st verbal. Any type of 1st verbal occurring with any type of preposition, as follows:

talk about having worked, afraid of going, disgusted at being seen doing that, help in trying, end by living, count on going, forced into meeting them, equivalent to firing them, charged with having stolen it, lean towards attempting, ask about marrying, on entering, without trying, sorry for having been trying it, etc.

2f Clauses, independent form, marked by conjunctions.

f1 Conditioners. May occur with any type of preposition.

f2 Constituents

2a Clauses introduced by markers, which serve as 1st immediate constituent, and the clause as the 2d.

that, after, whether, if, before in that he is a fool, except that he is a fool, until after he is dead, question of whether he was really hurt, depends on if he wants to help, the time till before he came

2b Clauses introduced by markers which serve as integral grammatical constituents within the subject-predicate exocentric pattern.

how, why, where, when, however, howsoever, wherever, wheresoever, whenever, whensoever, what, whatever, whatsoever, who, whoever, whosoever, whom, whomever, whomsoever, which, whichever, whosoever, whose

of how he did it, for what he did, about when he liked it, concerning who would do it, for whatever he could get, to where he lived, of which one he preferred

2g Dependent-form clauses

g1 Conditioners. Occurrence of one of the following prepositions.

1a Prepositions as 1st constituents of phrases which are not dependent upon particular verbs, adjectives, or nouns.

for, with, without

It was nothing for him to go.
With him leaving we were hopeless.
Without this being done, we could not proceed.
1b Prepositions as 1st constituents of phrases which are dependent upon particular verbs, adjectives, or nouns, and which regularly occur postposed to the head. The following examples are illustrative:

write to him to come, his objection to him doing it, trust in him to get by, urged upon them to see it, longed for them to go, anxious for him to come, counsel with them to leave, laugh at him doing it, think of them trying it, story of them going into Texas, nothing about him seeing her

g2 Constituents. Dependent-form clauses of the following types:

2a With marked infinitive as verb head. These occur with:

a1 The prepositions of class 1a2f1b2g1a (page 161), namely, for, with, and without.

For him to undertake that sort of thing, we thought that some sort of action should be taken by us.
With him to do all our work, we should not...
Without a man to see to this, there is likely to be all sorts of trouble.

a2 The following prepositions of class 1a2f1b2g1b (this page):

to, upon, for, on, with, in

look to him to do it, too late for there to be any business, prevail on him to reply, counsel with him to do it, trust in him to see to it

2b With unmarked infinitive as verb head. These occur with the following prepositions of the class 1a2f1b2g1b (this page):

at, to

look at him go, listen to him play

2c With 1st verbal as verb head. These occur with:

c1 The following prepositions of class 1a2f1b2g1a (page 161):

with, without

With him doing all that, surely we can afford...
Without him trying to help us, we can extricate ourselves from this mess.

c2 The following prepositions of class 1a2f1b2g1b (this page):

to, upon, on, at, of, in, about

trust to him seeing that, depend upon him doing his best, rely on him trying at least, think of him doing all that, confident in him seeing the point, puzzled about him doing that
2d *With zero verb head.* This is rare and occurs only with *with* and *without* of class 1a2f1b2g1a, page 161.

> with conscription a law, we must soon decide…
> without my proposition complete, there is no need…

2h *Prepositional phrases as 2d immediate constituents of prepositional phrases.*

h1 *Conditioners.* Occurrence of prepositions of the following types as 1st immediate constituents:\n
> from, till, since, except, because,\n> save, of, to

from over the hill, since before Christmas, till within a month, to within an inch, save for that letter, but for the rest, because of my illness, of from ten to twenty, from inside the place, from of old, except for my sickness

h2 *Constituents.* Any type of prepositional phrase may serve as 2d immediate constituent.

1a2f2 *Attributives to prepositional phrases*; a comparatively rare pattern.

2a *Adverbs.*

a1 *Order.* Preposed to prepositional phrase.

a2 *Selection.* These are of the following types:

more, right, entirely, almost, practically, only

entirely around the world, more in doubt, the stoplight right in the middle of the road, a man entirely in the wrong

2b *Substantives*

b1 *Order.* Preposed to prepositional phrase.

b2 *Selection.* Restricted largely to expressions of quantity or degree.

a little, a mile; a few, etc.

a boy a little over ten, the farm a mile beyond the mill.

---

\[1\] These are the most common prepositions of this class. The expansion of this pattern to the point of absurdity may be noted in such a possible expression as, *Come out from down in under behind the counter!*

\[2\] See note on *because*, p. 159.
MULTIPLE CLAUSE FRAMES

1b Multiple clause frames

1b1 Order. Clauses of any type may occur in any sequence.

1b2 Selection

1b2a Conditioners. Such clauses must be co-ordinated by co-ordinating conjunctions.

a1 Single co-ordinators

1a Order. Immediately precede each following clause.

1b Selection

and, but, or, nor, pause-pitch

It is early and I will stay.
I can't see it, but I'll try.
He came home, or at least tried to.
He didn't try that, nor did he make any excuse.
It is ten o'clock; I must leave immediately.

a2 Double co-ordinators

2a Order. The 1st co-ordinator either occurs in initial or prepredicate position, within the verb phrase, or postverbally in the case of be or have. The second co-ordinator or occurs immediately before the subsequent co-ordinated clause, or, in some cases, clauses. The first co-ordinator neither occurs the same as either, except for the restriction of postverbal position. The second co-ordinator in this series, nor, occurs the same as or. The second co-ordinators may potentially occur before several subsequent clauses, but regularly only two clauses are co-ordinated.

2b Selection

1 Nor occurs alone only when the previous clause is negative.
2 The use of pause-pitch alone gives the common paratactic arrangement so common in colloquial usage.
either...or, neither...nor

He either tried to see him, or I miss my guess.
He neither accomplished his purpose, nor will anyone else be able to do it now.
Either he failed completely, or I have been badly deceived.

1b2b Constituents of multiple independent clauses within one sentence. May be of any clause type transitive, intransitive, equational, or goal-action. Potentially any number may occur within any one sentence, but more than three are relatively rare.
MINOR SENTENCE TYPES

2 Minor sentence types

2a Completive type. These sentences, contextually conditioned by the linguistic situation, are answers to questions, additions to previous statements, and supplements to practical situations of gesture or presence of the referent which serve to define the context. Examples follow:

Which one was it? Here! Better luck next time. How much?
This one. If you like. At your service. Not me?
Yesterday. Yes. No apologies, now. Dinner at six.
Sure! No. Here? No matter.
That one. Sorry, my mistake. John?

2b Exclamatory type

2b1 Interjections

1a Selection

a1 Primary. These are of the following types:

ah, hello, tsk, h’m, phew, pooh, pshaw, tut-tut, ugh, whew, wow, gosh, gee, hush, hurrah, heck, darn, well, ouch.

a2 Secondary. These consist of more than one constituent and are of the following types:

dear me, gracious me, goodness gracious, oh dear, damn it, by golly, by God, thank you, good-by, what the heck, oh me, oh my, great guns, Caesar’s ghost

1b Modulation. All these occur with exclamatory intonation patterns.

These may occur alone as complete linguistic utterances or combined by parataxis or co-ordinators with any major sentence type.

For example, often purchases may be made entirely with the use of minor sentence types: How much for these? Fifty cents a dozen. Too much. How about these over here? Well, how much for them? Forty cents per. All right. A few sprigs of parsley too, then? Okay. Thanks. Good-bye.
2b2 With verb head in the predicate.

2b2a With unmarked infinitive as verb head.

a1 Selection

1a With 1st person subject. The first person singular personal pronoun regularly occurs in the objective form. Exclamatory rejection intonation occurs normally with an interrogative pattern.

Me do that!?
Me be a fool for his sake!?

1b With 2d person as subject. These may occur with or without stated subject. Such infinitives are addressed to the hearer or hearers and command response (hence generally called “imperatives”).

Come home! Be guided by your better judgment!
You come home! Help him at once!

1c With 3d person subject

c1 With stated 3d person subject

Grammar be hanged! Heaven help him! The saints preserve us!
The people be damned! Everybody run!
God bless you! Nobody move now!

c2 Without stated 3d person subject. In such cases the supernatural is implied.

Damn you! Confound it! Bless him!

a2 Modulation. These patterns occur with exclamatory intonation.

2b2b With would as verb head, with or without stated subject. This pattern is a special formula and occurs with exclamatory optative intonation.

Would to God that they could!
I would to God that he could do it!

2b2c With zero verb head. These clauses are equational and occur regularly with exclamatory rejection intonation, with or without accompanying interrogative intonation.

He a gentleman! Me a professor!
She a beauty! That fellow a poet!

2b3 Expressions not containing verbs as heads. These are exclamatory utterances

* In longer sentences there is an overlapping of intonation patterns, so that a sentence, You come on in the second act, may be interpreted as imperative or narrative, with the same intonation pattern.
designed to direct the attention to or of the referent. They always occur with exclamatory intonation.

2b3a *Expressions directing the attention to the referent.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Murder!</th>
<th>Police!</th>
<th>Here!</th>
<th>To the ropes!</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fire!</td>
<td>This one!</td>
<td>There!</td>
<td>Now!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2b3b *Expressions directing the attention of the referent.* These are so-called "vocatives" and are of the following illustrative types:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mother!</th>
<th>Dearest!</th>
<th>You over there!</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John!</td>
<td>My boy!</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2c *Aphoristic expressions.* These are strictly limited and except for the patterns (1) *the* plus comparative..., and (2) *better... than...*, they are generally nonproductive. Examples follow.

- Well begun half done.
- First come first served.
- Old saint young sinner.
- Love me love my dog.
- No pains no gains.
- Better untaught than ill taught.
- Like father like son.
- Better bend than break.
- So far so good.
- Better ask than go astray.
- Least said soonest mended.
- The rougher the way, the better we like it.
- The more they came, the more the people shouted.
- The more I think of it, the less I approve.
SUMMARY

Certain observations are pertinent to a summary statement of the method employed in this synopsis of English syntax. In the first place, it frees English grammar from the straitjacket of classical terminology and constructions by recognizing the significance of classes as determined by the distribution of the words, rather than classes determined on the basis of form. For classical grammar, where the correlation is high between the “form classes” on the morphological level and “distribution classes” on the syntactic level, there is little need for this distinction. For English these differences in levels of analysis are important.

With recognition of these differences and their importance comes the realization that the syntactic system of English is highly organized. This knowledge in turn helps to remove the popular misconception that English “has no grammar”, or at best only loose patterns readily shifted. This impression has arisen because members of various form classes may occur in more than one distribution class; but the boundaries of these distribution classes are as definable as the boundaries of the form classes. The special value of the method here employed is that it defines the limits of such distribution classes by lists.

As a result of freeing the statement of English grammar from the domination of the classical mold, the application of this method groups together words which were formerly separated. For example, shall and will are here considered as patterning with may, can and must. Only the comparative value, as indicated by the translation of classical forms, has given shall and will special paradigmatic recognition in conventional grammars.

The analysis of English as it is, rather than an analysis that tries to employ the traditional apparatus for the statement of categories and their range of importance, results in a shift of values formerly attached to certain categories. The objective case, which figures rather prominently in the usual treatment of English syntax, is relatively unimportant. There are actually only six words which indicate this objective case distinction. The matter of word order is far more important. Accordingly, in shifting the emphasis from older, formal categories this method calls attention to the significance of factors often neglected or overlooked. Particularly is this true of order,
which is dealt with in some detail in the outline. The importance and taxemic value of modulation are also noted, though developed in less detail.

The consistent application of the four taxemes throughout the grammatical treatment has two distinct advantages. First, it gives a purely synchronic view of the materials. The rigorous application of the method eliminates historical and comparative considerations. All tagmemes are defined purely in terms of those taxemes which mark the functional relationships. Secondly, this method permits description of the various levels of morphology, syntax, and lexicon, thus eliminating the confusion which results from the analysis of each form class as a formal unit, then as a functional or distributional unit, and finally as a lexical element, without considering the total pattern into which it fits.

The outline method employed has three special values. First, it makes possible a clear indication of the relationships between the various constructions in the most concise way of doing so. Secondly, it indicates the successive layers of immediate constituents, recognition of which is an essential factor in any syntactic structure. Thirdly, it makes possible the presentation of both broad patterns and details; without such an arrangement both lose their significance.

Two practical values may be noted for this method of analysis. First, such a treatment and classification of the broad patterns in the language make possible the study of style from the grammatical viewpoint. The apparatus for such analysis has been largely lacking, owing to the failure of grammarians to treat the more inclusive syntactic units and constituents; for in analyzing the style of a particular work it is not enough to deal with the minutiae of selections. Rather, the general clause and sentence patterns must be analyzed and checked for frequency, variety, and particular adaptations.

Secondly, this method has significant value in the teaching of grammar. Unlike the conventional grammar, it does not confront the student with a maze of terms which he cannot apply to his materials. Painfully evident in the reaction of students who say that they never understood English grammar until they studied Latin is the fact that the terminology transferred from Latin grammar is inadequate and arbitrary when applied to English. This confusion contributes to dislike for English grammar. However, when the student realizes that he can apply the four taxemes to any significant grammatical construction and thus analyze it himself, and that the important element is not the term which he uses to denote the epistememe of the tagmeme, but rather his recognition of the immediate constituents and the place of this unit in the larger pattern, then grammar takes on new life for him.
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